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PROMOTING DISCOURSE STRUCTURE LEVELS IN EFL WRITING THROUGH READING PARADIGMS:

THE CASE OF SECOND-YEAR STUDENTS OF ENGLISH – UNIVERSITY OF FRÈRES MENTOURI- CONSTANTINE

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DEDICATIONS

To my father for his confidence in me

To my mother for her prayers and patience

To my sister "Hind" for being always here for me

To my brothers "Lyes, Dani, Ataf, Boubaker, and Khaled" for their support and encouragement throughout my entire life

To all my nephews and nieces for being a source of laughter

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ABSTRACT

Achieving a well-organized written discourse is a constant challenge to foreign language students because of several reasons. The present study sets out to investigate the extent to which comprehension of discourse structure levels accounts for competence in EFL writing organization. It strives at enhancing students' awareness about the significance of discourse macrostructure and microstructure in writing through reading as the main source of language input. Accordingly, it is hypothesized that EFL students who are trained to use macrostructure and microstructure analysis would exhibit better overall text organization and that incorporating reading paradigms to teach writing and aspects of discourse structure levels in particular would trigger positive attitudes among teachers and students alike. The study has been conducted with two writing classes assigned to an experimental group and a control group. To compare the subjects' performance in terms of the effective use of discourse structure levels, a pre-test and a post-test have been administered in the form of in-class expository essays. Following the collection of the post-test essays, a questionnaire has been given to the experimental group subjects to mainly elicit their opinions about the significance of reading in the comprehension of discourse structure levels. Furthermore, a questionnaire has been administered to written expression teachers to find out about their teaching writing practices regarding discourse organization and to elicit their views about the incorporation of reading in teaching discourse structure. The results obtained from the *t-test* calculation have demonstrated a significant improvement of the experimental group in all aspects of discourse structure- introduction organization, body organization, conclusion organization, thematic structure patterns, cohesive devices, and coherence relations- while the control group has actually lowered its scores in body organization, and has made a significant improvement in conclusion organization and insignificant improvement in the other aspects. The study also has indicated that both students and teachers favour the incorporation of reading in writing, especially if it is integrated to promote aspects of discourse structure levels.

ABBREVIATIONS

CI: Construction- Integration

DRT: Discourse Representation Theory

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

FL: Foreign Language

Fr: Frequency

HT: Hyper Theme

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LDM: The Linguistic Discourse Model

R: Rheme

RST: Rhetorical Structure Theory

SDRT: Segmented Discourse Representation Theory

SL: Second Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

T: Theme

WE: Written Expression

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General Introduction

1. Statement of the Problem

Although writing is viewed hugely important, it is a daunting task which involves the management of a complex array of traits. It is a total consensus among the teachers of English that most students do not write well enough to meet the expectation of higher academics. With the aim to respond to the urgent need for writing quality improvement, discourse structure analysis, as grammar and vocabulary, should be mastered at the beginning levels so that the students can go beyond the basics and pursue other aspects with less anxiety in the higher levels. However, this seemingly very important writing aspect is a constantly common stumbling block due to several different reasons. Accordingly, providing efficient instruction that particularly leads to the development of that aspect in the beginning stages of learning writing appears to be a writing priority for foreign language teachers.

In an attempt to do so, second-year Written Expression teachers tend to focus almost exclusively on teaching the global organization of essay at the expense of the local organization which is another basic level of instruction. Reconsidering this, most students are unable to link smaller chunks as having their own meaning and function, the fact which affects the global meaning of essays as well. The best instructional remedy, in our opinion, for such bias teaching practice is to bring some discourse dimensions.

Decision to investigate writing from a discourse perspective derived from the fact that, recently, many scholars who worked in the field of discourse contend that it is a promising trend in current foreign language teaching and learning. It provides valuable insights for virtually every aspect of language use. However, we have observed that the usual instruction which students receive in our department of English as regards discourse is somehow vague in second-year writing. It is until third-year that the students start to get exposed to discourse

analysis aspects in a separate module. To this end, through this study, we endeavour to teach explicitly some discourse structure aspects in early stages.

In writing, the issues related to discourse analysis are tackled from a variety of perspective approaches; however, in the current study, instruction was based on raising students' awareness of some basic aspects of discourse macrostructure and microstructure levels where most students show inability to establish them throughout their piece of writing. These aspects encompass mainly rhetorical structures, thematic structure, cohesion and coherence. Teaching these aspects at once to second-year students, undoubtedly, is a challenging task as the students did not use to write at a discourse level. As such, incorporating reading paradigms in writing to teach these aspects seems to be helpful.

Reading and writing are two necessary skills that students need while learning a new language. The investigation of the relationship between them has a long history in educational research. Traditionally, the literature on the relationship between these two subjects was scant and most pedagogies separated between them. In part, this is because reading was seen as a passive act while writing as a productive one and thus active. However, until quite recently researchers have increasingly called for the necessity to introduce reading and writing in an integrated way as they both rely on the representation of various aspects of linguistic knowledge levels and are affected by similar contextual constraints.

Unlike the above last view, in the department of English at Constantine University, it is unusual to make out this association practised in the classrooms. Writing has a prominent position in the design of foreign language teaching programs, while reading is partially absent in writing and completely as an official program, and therefore most students tend to apply their perception of learning Arabic to write in English. Furthermore, it is commonly agreed that most of the students do not read in the foreign language at a regular basis. Given this situation, this particular study is partly motivated by concerns over the significance of the

reading construct to improve writing, especially if it is devoted to reinforce teaching a specific writing skill that most students have difficulties with.

2. Aims of the Study

The aim of the present research work is fivefold. The major aim is to find out what opportunities discourse structure analysis can offer in developing students' writing. The second aim is to identify the main writing stumbling blocks regarding discourse structure which markedly restrict the students' ability to produce well-organized pieces of writing. The third aim is to exhibit the attitudes of the student participants with regard to the incorporation of reading in writing. The fourth aim is to find out about the teachers' practices in the writing course: their methods and major emphasis while teaching writing organization and their views about the incorporation of reading in teaching writing as well. Finally, the study can not end up without coming up with inspiring guidelines for future teaching. Thus, the last aim is to provide some implications for foreign language writing instruction as related to the effectiveness of discourse and reading.

3. Research Questions

The aforesaid aims set for this research can be expressed in the following research questions:

1. Does teaching aspects of written discourse macrostructure and microstructure formally and equally enhance students' writing organization?
2. What are the major problematic areas that are recurrently noticed in the students' written production with regard to discourse structure?
3. How are aspects of written discourse structure levels taught in the department of English at Constantine University?
4. How are students' attitudes impacted by a composition course focused on the discourse structure levels of assigned readings?

5. What are the different EFL teachers' attitudes about the incorporation of reading in teaching writing in general and aspects of written discourse structure in particular?

4. Research Hypotheses

Accordingly, two hypotheses are put forward:

1. EFL students who are trained to use macrostructure and microstructure analysis would exhibit better overall text organization.
2. Incorporating reading paradigms to teach writing in general and aspects of discourse macrostructure and microstructure in particular would trigger positive attitudes among teachers and students alike.

5. Means of Research

The measuring instruments used to meet the foregoing aims involve a writing test, students' questionnaire and teachers' questionnaire. The writing test aims at measuring the participants' writing production in terms of the appropriate use of some basic aspects of written discourse structure levels before and after receiving a treatment. This research instrument is used because it is specifically well-suited to the task of providing quantitative and qualitative data about the participants' real writing performance. The students' questionnaire strives to find out the participants' attitudes toward the incorporation of reading as a means for teaching written discourse structure, as well as to corroborate some of the findings attained from the test. Less importantly, the questionnaire aims at eliciting the participants' perception of the difficulty of writing. The teachers' questionnaire which is meant for teachers of writing in the Department of English at Constantine University examines the teachers' attitudes toward teaching the organization trait. More importantly, this questionnaire is intended to elicit the teachers' views about the significance of reading in

teaching writing, especially when it is devoted to teach a particular writing aspect which most students have difficulties with.

6. Structure of the Study

Apart from the preliminary pages devoted to introduce the current research work, the parts of this thesis are basically divided into seven chapters. While the first three chapters feature the theoretical underpinning, the last four chapters constitute the practical part with its pertinent pedagogical implications.

The first chapter is about the levels of discourse structure. It starts with defining the main concept of discourse analysis and drawing a difference between 'text' and 'discourse' terms. The chapter also sheds light on issues regarding discourse structure, particularly its definition, early assumption, and current theories. Finally, the chapter discusses the two main levels of discourse structure, macrostructure and microstructure, which are fundamental to the practical part of this study.

Chapter two provides some theoretical issues particularly pertaining to the reading skill. It includes definition, purposes, variables, and importance. Moreover, this chapter discusses reading as a crucial language input.

Chapter three offers a theoretical framework about reading and writing connection. The first part of the chapter provides insights into the writing skill in general such as definition, importance, aspects, approaches, and assessment. The second part of this chapter deals with reading-writing connection. In particular, it explores the resources of reading-writing connection, the major reports of this connection, the reading-to- write construct and its importance in writing, and teaching reading-writing connection.

Chapter four corresponds to the field work. It is designed to include merely a detailed description of the methodology and the procedures followed throughout the period of research. Particularly, it includes a description of the participants, research design, research

methods, and research procedures which start from the description of the pilot study to the last step in the main study.

The fifth chapter reports the results of the writing test: the pre-test and the post-test. Besides, it reports the results of the t-test statistical analysis used to test the first postulated hypothesis.

Chapter six is a continuation of the research findings presentation. It displays the results obtained from the students' and teachers' questionnaires.

Finally, chapter seven summarizes the main findings of the current study in response to the research questions and tackles some pedagogical implications by proposing some guidelines in the form of recommendations, hoping to contribute in the development of the students' writing abilities. Some suggestions for further research in the field are also outlined at the end of this chapter.

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Chapter One

Discourse Structure Levels

Introduction

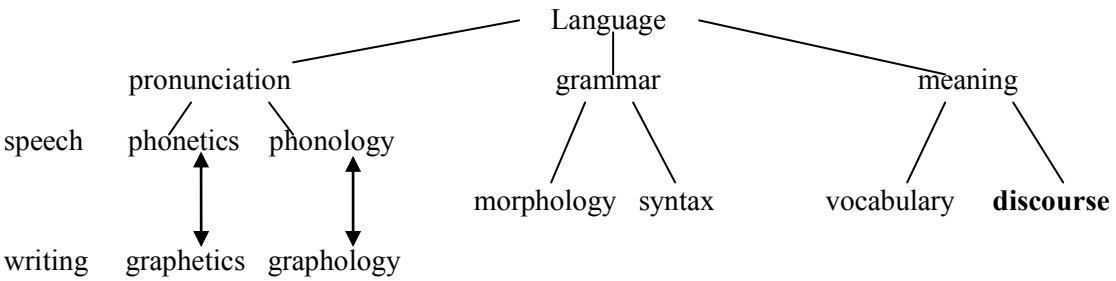
Reviewing the available literature on discourse structure analysis, one can notice numerous levels and approaches of analysis. Included are those which aim at providing a thorough analysis of the global organization of various texts. These approaches have been mostly referred to as discourse macrostructure analysis. Also included are the approaches that provide a detailed linguistic description of discourse in terms of words, clauses and sentences. These approaches have to do with discourse microstructure analysis. This chapter attempts to settle the theoretical bases of these two approaches or levels. It first defines the concept of discourse analysis and draws differences between text and discourse terms. Then, it sheds light on issues regarding discourse structure, particularly its definition, early assumptions, and current theories. Finally, the two main levels of discourse structure, macrostructure and microstructure, which are fundamental for the practical part of this study are presented.

1. 1 Discourse Analysis

1.1.1 Discourse as Part of Language Structure

Language structure can be classified in a variety of ways. According to Crystal (1987), three levels of language structure are conventionally accepted by linguists: pronunciation, grammar, and meaning (See the diagram).

Figure 1.1. Levels of Language (Crystal, 1987, p.15)



As the diagram shows, the study of discourse is part of the language structure studies, which is especially concerned with the production of meaning like vocabulary, yet in a different way. Before embarking on the structure of discourse, the term discourse analysis has to be defined first.

1.1 Definition of Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is a theoretical and methodological framework for exploring language. One of the central issues in discourse analysis that one needs to start with is an understanding of what scholars mean by the term 'text' and 'discourse' as they both form two basic concepts in discourse analysis and their use is often ambiguous.

What is Text ?

The term 'text' has been used in literature with different meanings. It is "the verbal record of a communicative act" (Brown & Yule, 1983, p. 06). Within the same scope of communication, a similar definition offered by Widdowson (2007) "we identify a piece of language as a text as soon as we recognize that it has been produced for a communicative purpose" (p. 04). Further, Nunan (1993, p. 6) describes the text as "any written record of a communicative event. The event itself may involve oral language (for example, a sermon, a casual conversation, a shopping transaction) or written language (a poem a newspaper advertisment, a wall poster a shopping list, a novel)". For Halliday and Hasan (1976), the notion 'text' is "a term used in linguistics to refer to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole" (pp. 1-2). Cook raises the issue of context in his definition when he describes text as "a stretch of language interpreted formally, without context" (1989, p. 158). It seems that Schiffrin (1994) shares the same view as Cook when he provides that a text "is the linguistic content, the stable semantic meaning of words, expressions, and sentences, but not the inferences available to hearers depending upon the

context in which words, expressions and sentences are used" (pp. 363-4). Text then is a language product that is studied without reference to its contextual elements.

What is Discourse?

Traditionally, discourse has been treated as spoken language. For example, Crystal (1992) describes it as "a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence" (p. 25). However, nowadays, the term 'discourse' is used in a more general sense to include written language. In supporting this view, Renkema (2004) says "the term discourse is used for all forms of oral and written communication" (p. 65). Moreover, Cook (1989) defines it as "stretches of language perceived to be meaningful, unified, and purposive" (p. 156). This last definition, however, is not of much help in clarifying what makes discourse meaningful and purposeful. For such a purpose, Nunan (1993) offers an explanatory definition:" I shall reserve the term "discourse" to refer to the interpretation of the communicative event in context" (p. 07). Any stretch of language, therefore, cannot be considered as discourse unless a communicative event, a text, and context interact together. Here the context in its broad sense includes the environments and circumstances in which language is used.

Some scholars, however, contend that discourse and text very often turn out to be synonyms. This can be best described by Chafe who claims: "both terms may refer to a unit of language larger than the sentence: one may speak of a 'discourse' or a 'text'" (Chafe; cited in Widdowson, 2007, p. 86). He further adds that substituting the term 'text' with the term 'discourse' is common in linguistics and in no case is perceived to be a mistake. Given this last view, this particular study does not make any distinction between these two terms. Furthermore, needless to remind that discourse can be oral as well as written, and since the design of this study does not include any oral data, obviously the discussion will center on the written modality.

What is Discourse Analysis?

The term 'discourse analysis' has different senses depending on what school or approach of discourse analysis one adheres. For example, some scholars treat it simply as language above the sentence (Cameron, 2001; Martin & Rose, 2007), others use it to refer to language in use (Potter, 2004; Widdowson, 2007). More specifically, some other scholars view discourse analysis through unique theoretical perspectives; for example, as written and oral texts in social practices (Potter, 2004). Based on the different definitions of discourse analysis available in the literature, Schiffrin, Tannen, and Hamilton (2001, p. 1) classify most of them into three main categories: the study of linguistic structure beyond the sentence, the study of language in use, and the study of social practices that is mainly associated with language. These definitions are further explained below:

The first classic definition of discourse analysis is derived from the formalist or structuralism views to mean the description of language above the clause or sentence. This kind of definitions owes its origin to Z. Harris who was the first linguist to introduce this term (McCarthy, 1991). He viewed discourse analysis as the next level in a hierarchy of morphemes, clauses, and sentences. In fact, this definition does not imply to neglect other linguistic units below the sentence level, but it rather introduces discourse as it is constructed from words, phrases and sentences, and these small units are used to build the larger units that make up discourse.

The second definition of discourse analysis to be considered is 'language in use'. This definition is adopted by the functionalists who give much importance to the purpose and functions of language. In supporting this direction, Brown and Yule state:

> The analysis of discourse is necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such it can not be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which are designed to serve in human affairs.

Brown and Yule (1983, p. 01)

In light of this definition, it is clear that only the language in its authentic natural form must be analyzed so that the study is meaningful.

The third definition of discourse analysis refers to the study of language as a form of social practice. Widdowson (2007, p. XV) has this to say about the social perspective of this concept:

> The term 'discourse' can be understood in rather a different way. The meanings that people make are not only constrained by the language they know but also by the social group or community they belong to. Meanings are socio- cultural constructs of reality: they present particular believes and values that define ways of thinking about the world. The study of discourse in this case would focus […] on how they (meanings) are socially constructed so that expressing them is effectively a kind of social practice.

Language and society, therefore, are part of each other and can not be thought of as independent. Of the three definitions mentioned above, we strictly adhere to the first one which represents a linguistic-based approach to serve the purpose of the current study; it mainly focuses on the internal organization of texts.

1.2 Discourse Structure

Every text has an underlying structure. The formal name for such property is discourse structure. This property is more difficult to define since it seems to have taken on different perspectives linked with specific levels and theories as it will be mentioned later on. However, broadly speaking, it refers back to the above definition of discourse analysis, specifically the organization of language above the sentence level. Jiang (2012) refers to this concept as the framework used by the author to convey the meaning in an organized and a coherent way. Further, Hinkle (2004) takes discourse structure as a synonym to coherence when he defines this last concept as "the organization of discourse with all elements present

and fitting together logically" (p. 265). Discourse, then, cannot be taken as structured unless it is coherent and vice-versa.

For this work of research, we consider discourse structure and text structure as synonymous concepts since, as mentioned earlier, discourse and text can be used interchangeably. Moreover, they both simply have to do with the arrangement and connectivity of the meaning in a textual passage.

1.3 Early Structuralist Assumptions

Discourse structure is not without historical sources; it can be traced back to the structuralist assumptions of the 19th century. The notion of 'structuralism' has been most widely expressed through the discipline of linguistics to mean "(the) approach that analyses and describes the structure of language, as distinguished from its comparative and historical aspects" (Matthews, 2001, p. 02). This paradigm came to dominate first as a specific discourse with the work of Ferdinand de Saussure who is considered to be the founding father of structural linguistics (Paker, 2011; Lasnik & Lohndal, 2013). He was not interested in the historical study of relations between languages, but rather in the underlying system of language through examining how the elements of language related to each other in the present (a synchronic model). Language, according to De Saussure, is constructed in terms of the relationship between signs and their referents (Paker, 2011). Following Saussure's claim, the proponents of early structuralism emphasized the significance of the interrelations between the elements that constitute a linguistic system. Structuralism then is not concerned with the content of the text but rather it analyzes and explores the structures underlying the language system which make the content possible. Chomsky embraced De Saussure assumptions about structure and produced an elaborate theory to account for the meaning and the correctness of a sentence through founding generative grammar. The latter was considered as one of the

dominant theoretical models for analyzing text and written communication because it offered a special set of rules that would help in meaning structure of texts (Lasnik & Lohndal, 2013).

1.4 Current Approaches to Discourse Structure

As mentioned earlier, apart the broad definition of discourse structure which is the most relevant to this study, other definitions are available to this concept depending on particular approaches which studied the structure of discourse from different narrow scopes. These approaches, according to Jasinskaja, Mayer, and Schlangen (2004, pp. 153-154), are classified into two perspectives: the informational perspectives and the intentional perspectives. The former, according to them, models the structure of discourse by analyzing the semantic relations that link the segments of discourse. This tends to mean that discourse structure is part of the conceptual structure of a text. The prominent theories of such assumptions are: the Rhetorical Structure Theory, Discourse Representation Theory, and Segmented Discourse Representation Theory. Moreover, another group of the informational approach regards discourse structure and semantics as sentence structure and semantics, Jasinskaja et al. add. According to this group, discourse structure is taken to be as syntax in which coherence is created in terms of well formed sentences. One of the important theories of this perspective is the Linguistic Discourse Model. Crucially, the basis of the informational theories is the analysis of the linguistic (syntactic or semantic) content of discourse. In contrast to informational theories, intentional theories of discourse, according to Jasinskaja et al., emphasize the speaker or writer's plans and intentions as the basis for discourse coherence. Within this approach, discourse is segmented by what the speaker or writer is intending with a portion of his speech or text.

1.4.1 Rhetorical Structure Theory

Rhetorical structure theory or (RST) is served as a framework developed to account for text structure. It is designed to explain the coherence of texts by virtue of discourse relations. Mann and Thompson say:

> Rhetorical structure theory is a descriptive theory of major aspects of the organization of natural text. It is a linguistically useful method for describing natural texts, characterizing their structure primarily in terms of relations that hold between part of the text.

(Mann & Thompson, 1988, p. 243)

Graesser, McNamara, and Louwerse (2011) support that RST studies are the relations that link one part of the text to another regardless of whether or not they are tied by a discourse device.

A set of rhetorical relations are said to dominate in most texts; however, the door is open for other relations needed by the author. Table (1.1) below presents a full list of rhetorical relations classified by Mann and Thompson (1987; cited in Ping, 2004, p. 89).

Table 1.1. Rhetorical Relations

Circumstance	Antithesis	Justify
Elaboration	Condition	Non-Volitional Clause
Enablement	Interpretation	Non-Volitional Result
Evidence	Restatement	Concession
Volitional Clause	Sequence	Otherwise
Volitional Result	Solutionhood	Evaluation
	Background	Summary
	Motivation	Contrast

According to Dirven and Verspoor (2004), RST can describe these relations by using a framework of nucleus-satellite relations. A nucleus represents elements that are more essential to the writer's intention than those expressed by the satellite, and it is comprehensible and independent of the satellite. However, without the nucleus the satellite is incomprehensible; in

other words, the nucleus indicates the most important information in the relation and satellite provides complementary information to the nucleus. The following are two examples of rhetorical relations:

1- Background: the information in the satellite helps the reader to understand the nucleus.

a- *The elimination of mass poverty is necessary to supply the motivation for fertility control in underdeveloped countries (satellite)*

b- *Other countries should assist in this process (nucleus).*

2- Cause: the satellite presents a situation that caused the situation presented in the nucleus.

a- *The United States produce more wheat than needed for internal consumption (satellite).*

b- *That is why they export the surplus (nucleus)* (Dirven & Verspoor (2004, p. 195).

The recognition of the rhetorical relations within a particular text is not prescribed in rules, but it depends on the interpretive capacities of the reader.

1.4.2 Discourse Representation Theory

Crystal (2003) defines Discourse Representation Theory as "a semantic theory which seeks to extend model- theoretic semantics to accommodate sequences of sentences, and in particular to accommodate anaphoric dependencies across sentence boundaries" (p. 142). Put differently, this theory is best known of its treatment of the inter-and intrasentential anaphoric relations which are considered the most common type of context dependency. In this theory, the meaning of a particular sentence is treated as a function belonging to a context which already existed before the occurrence of that sentence in text (Geis, 1995).

1.4.3 Segmented Discourse Representation Theory

Segmented Discourse Representation Theory or SDRT is another linguistically influential framework that provides formal means for the analysis of discourse structure. This

theory takes into accounts the rhetorical relations that hold between the sentences and their semantic effects. That is, it combines elements of RST and DRT as it is grounded in dynamic semantics and extended with rhetorical relations. Unlike traditional semantics which defines the content of discourse as a set of models that it satisfies, dynamic semantics interprets discourse as a relation between contexts called "the context change potential" or CCP (Lascarides & Asher, 2008).

1.4.4 The Linguistic Discourse Model Theory

The Linguistic Discourse Model or LDM is a formal theory of discourse syntactic and semantic structure outlined by Polanyi in 1988. According to this model, discourse consists of constituent units of different levels of complexity. The clauses or the so-called discourse operators (assigners, connectives, and discourse markers) refer to the units at the elementary level. However, the genuine discourse units (interactions, speech events, stories …etc.) represent units at the higher levels. Constituents of the lower level are relatively related to syntax, whereas higher levels representations are related to conversational analysis (Polayni, 1988; cited in Bluhdorn, 2008).

1.4.5 The Intentional Theory

The Intentional theory distinguishes among three discourse substructures: a linguistic structure, an intentional structure and attentional structure. The linguistic structure refers to the linguistic material including a text, a sequence of phrases and clauses. At this level, discourse can be divided into constituent discourse segments. The intentional structure is a hierarchical structure that comprises discourse purposes (DP). Each individual discourse segment purpose (DSP) contributes to achieving the overall discourse purposes. The third discourse substructure is the attentional state; it consists of a stack of focus spaces containing the objects, properties, relations and discourse purposes that are salient at any given moment.

Each focus space is linked to a discourse segment and contains its purpose (Creswell, 2004). In intentional theory, intention is the key to account for discourse structure and provide a coherent conceptualization of the term discourse itself.

Viewing the different theories above, one can notice that they are limited to study or analyze the structure of discourse from the syntactic and semantic relations that make up this discourse. These theories which have been described here are not for the purpose to adopt one of them in the current study, but rather to demonstrate how they contribute in the understanding of discourse structure and how they differ substantially in the theoretical grounds they are built upon.

1.5 Levels of Discourse Structure

The structural organization of discourse can be described as having multiple levels or dimensions of analysis that have been identified and explored by numerous discourse researchers. One of the levels of discourse processing which is applicable for different genres is the one outlined by Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983). It distinguishes between three levels of discourse organization: microstructure, macrostructure, and superstructure. Discourse macrostructure and microstructure are discussed in this section thoroughly with reference to the relevant literature as they concern the text content in which propositions are the basic building blocks. These propositions that are taken to be as the microstructures of text are linked together into larger units to construct the text macrostructures. However, discourse superstructure, not of direct relevance to the aim of this study, is described as the conventional global schema of the discourse; that is, the form in which the macrostructure is presented (p. 242).

Meyer (cited in Koda, 2004, p. 162), on her part, adopted a similar system to that of Van Dijk and Kintsch, but it differs in emphasis and in that it is only applicable in expository texts. She defines the first level of discourse processing as ‘the idea unit’ rather than the

proposition, and thus it corresponds to microstructure above. Top-level, however, which corresponds to Kintsch macrostructure, refers to the overall hierarchical structure built from the inferred relationships.

1.5.1 Discourse Macrostructure

The term 'macrostructure' was first introduced by Bierwish in 1965, then elaborated by Van Dijk in 1977 and 1983 to describe a specific narrative discourse structure (Ulatawska, Chapman, Johnson, & Branch 1999). Accordingly, Van Dijk work in the area of discourse macrostructure studies is undeniable since he proposes a framework that is very structured and detailed.

Macrostructures have been defined in several different ways because they are employed in different disciplines. In linguistics and discourse analysis, "the notion of macrostructure has been introduced in order to provide such an abstract semantic description of the global content, and hence of the global coherence of discourse" (Van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983, p. 189). After the work of Van Dijk, most researchers' definitions of that term refer back to Van Dijk's definition. For example, Lee indicates that a macrostructure

> generally refers to the overall structure of a text. It is an outline of the main categories or functions of the text. It helps readers understand how sentences in a text relate to each other and how they contribute to the overall structure of a text.
>
> Lee (2002a, p. 38)

Additionally, Renkema (2004, p. 94) contends that "a macrostructure is the global meaning of discourse." Along the same line, Haslett thoroughly explains:

> A macrostructure is a semantic representation entailed by a sequence of prepositions in a text. Macrostructures are formed at different levels of generalization within the text, and organize semantic information for processing and storage. For any given discourse, the macrostructure of that entire discourse is its most general meaning structure.

Haslett (2013, p. 24)

These semantic condensed versions of the text that embody the most important information and concepts become clearer as there are more global structural signals; they are typically expressed in for instance, titles, topics, abstracts, and the like. Ulatowska and Chapman (2013, p. 30) supports that "macrostructure […] is expressed through notions such as theme, topic, gist, and main points." In this study, the macrostructure is referred to the main content and the rhetorical organization of the essay from where readers can draw the global meaning such as the general statements, thesis statement, topic sentences, supporting sentences, organizational pattern, restatement of the thesis statement and a brief summary at the end.

1.5.1.1 Functions of Macrostructures

Discourse macrostructures have two main different functions. The first function refers to the organization of complex macro-information. Without these macrostructures one is able to understand discourse as it is built up of a large number of links between information units at the local level, but he is unable to link larger chunks as having their own meaning and function (Van Dijk, 1980a). It would be impossible to sidestep these macrostructures since they are the most vital type of thinking that language users can employ to organize and hence to get the global meaning of the text. In fact, one is not only in need to know how to organize the complex information, but also how to handle this organized information. Therefore, the second main function of macrostructures, according to Van Dijk, corresponds to the reduction of complex information; in other words, microstructures highlight the more important, relevant, abstract, or general information from a complex information unit. Van Dijk concludes that although the organizational and reductive functions of macrostructures are basically important in discourse processing, the semantic function should be stressed as the most important function of identifying the global meaning of discourse.

1.5.1.2 Macrorules

Theoretically, texts are described as semantic macropropositions. These macropropositions are ones that sum up either the global meaning of a whole text or of a part of a text, inferring from the sequence of micropropositions. This inference or derivation is obtained by means of three semantic mapping macrorules. They are deletion, generalization and construction (Van Dijk, 1980a).

- **Deletion**: Van Dijk (1980a) presents this macrorule as a simple and a general rule. What are deleted are the entire text propositions that are no longer relevant to the interpretation of the whole discourse. This rule is also called as a selection rule because it selects only relevant information of the text, and thus it works positively. Van Dijk supports that deletion macrorule " may be taken as a selection rule, which selects from texts base all propositions which are interpretation conditions (presuppositions) of other propositions in the text base". The following three propositions demonstrate how this rule works:

E.g. *A girl in a yellow dress passed by.*

1. *A girl passed by*
2. *She was wearing a dress*
3. *The dress was yellow.* (Renkema, 2004, p. 95)

Proposition (2) and (3) can be omitted, leaving only proposition (1) which contains relevant information. According to Renkema (2004), the deletion rule is described as a negative formulation when irrelevant propositions are eliminated. However, the selection rule is described as a positive formulation when the propositions that are only necessary for the interpretation of the overall discourse are selected.

Deletion macrorules can also be classified into two basic rules: weak deletion rule and strong deletion rule. The former is already explained as omitting the unnecessary global propositions; however, the latter is explained by Van Dijk (1980a) as deleting the local

propositions that may be sequentially relevant for discourse interpretation but not at more higher levels.

- **Generalization:** In applying this kind of rule, one is not supposed to simply eliminate irrelevant propositions, but to replace all the semantic details in the respective sentences by a more conceptual and general proposition (Van Dijk, 1980a). look at the example below:

E.g. *Mary was drawing a picture. Sally was skipping rope and Daniel was building something with Lego blocks.*

1. *The children were playing.* (Renkema, 2004, p. 95)

When applying generalization rule, one replaces a series of propositions with a more general one like in proposition (1).

- **Construction:** In using such a rule, it is required to construct a new proposition that involves a new predicate to summarize the complex information. In other words, mocropropositions are required for the interpretation of other micropropositions, but later they all should disappear in the formulation of the new macroproposition which is constructed only on the basis of conventionally known aspects of the global events (Van Dijk, 1980a). The use of construction rules may then preserve discourse macrostructures through producing a more general proposition that summarizes the relevant events and avoids the inappropriate amount of discourse details. Below is an example of a construction macrorule:

E.g. *John went to the station. He bought a ticket, started running when he saw what time it was, and was forced to conclude that his watch was wrong when he reached the platform.*

1. *John missed the train.* (Renkema, 2004, p. 96).

The distinction between generalization and construction mcrorules is that the new constructed proposition: *John missed the train* is not included in discourse, but it is constructed on the basis of general knowledge gained from the above incomplete description.

In short, the manipulation of deletion, generalization and construction macrorules results in an appropriate amount and quality of text information; the deletion rule controls the amount of information and at the same time prevents the contribution of redundant information. The generalization and construction rules are responsible for the creation of a macroproposition which is the text overall meaning.

1.5.1.3 Discourse Macro- Patterns

English discourse has typical top structures that are presented by genre and typical patterns. These typical exploited textual patterns are classified into different patterns, but the most common are three: problem-solution, general-specific and claim-counterclaim (McCarthy, 1991; Holland & Johnson, 2000). Very often the three patterns are imbedded within the same text, though one pattern forms the overall organization.

The problem-solution pattern has a typical organization represented as: "problem-response (or solution) – evaluation" (McCarthy, 1991, p. 79), or "situation, problem, response, evaluation" as Coulthard (1994, p. 84) identifies. To elaborate, the pattern generally begins with a description of the situation within which there is a complication or a problem. This latter is accompanied by some potential solutions and an evaluation as a follow up. Table (1.2) illustrates such pattern:

Table 1.2. Basic Problem-Solution Pattern (Coulthard, 1994, p. 8)

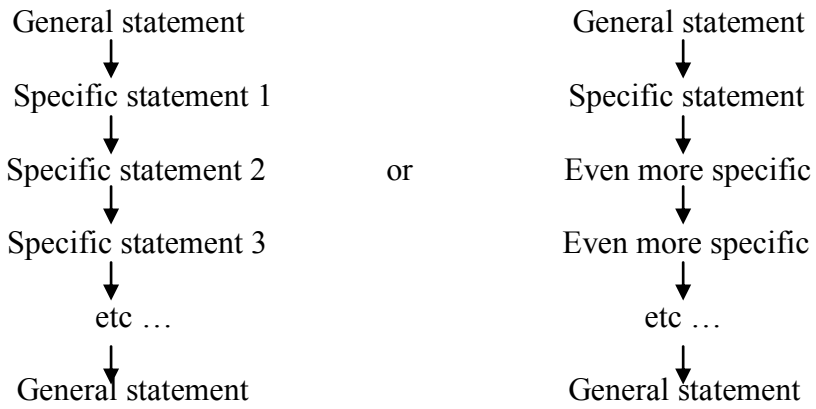
I was in sentry duty	**Situation**
I saw the enemy approaching	**Problem**
I opened fire	**Response**
The enemy retreated	**Evaluation**

Another common textual pattern that is found frequently in written discourse is claim-counterclaim, also used interchangeably with hypothetical-real (McCarthy, 1991). As the name indicates, in this pattern, discourse consists of a series of claims on an issue presented

along with their corresponding counterclaims, and in some cases a common ground which summarizes similarities or what is common between the two opposing assertions is mentioned as well. According to McCarthy (1991, p. 161), Claim- counterclaim pattern is used mostly in "political journalism as well as in the letters-to-the-editors pages of newspapers and magazines". An example of this pattern is included below:

(1)Historians are generally agreed that British society is founded on a possessive individualism, (2) but they have disputed the origins of that philosophy. Some trace it back to the middle ages, others link it to the rise of capitalism. But the consensus is that the cornerstone of this society has been the nuclear family… McCarthy (1991, p. 161).

The general-specific pattern is the last typical pattern of discourse which is characterized by an initial general statement about the topic, followed by a succession of more specific statements and a further generalization as shown in the diagrammatic representation below:



(McCarthy, 1991, p. 158)

Of the preceding three patterns, the general- specific pattern is used in the current study as the expository essay, the study concern, fits most this pattern.

1.5.1.4 Discourse Macro-Genres

Discourse macrostructure relies implicitly or explicitly on the notion of 'genre'. According to Grabe (2009), genre conventions are very important for skilled readers as they

provide them with important information about texts. Once the readers recognize the genre, this could facilitate to a great extent the understanding of the global meaning of the text. Added to this "one of the claims of genre theory is that language exists to fulfill certain functions and that these functions will largely determine the structure of the text and the language it contains" (Nunan, 1991, p. 73).

Different definitions have been used to refer to genre, but there is no complete consensus on the definition of this term because it is differently used in linguistics, rhetoric, literacy theory, and media theory. For non-discourse analysis, genre refers to the literary and cultural contexts that deal with poetry, fiction, drama, and non fiction, as well as film genres such as western, drama, comedy, action, adventure, fantasy, science, fiction, or documentary. However, in discourse analysis, the term genre is meant to be the functional and differential organization of texts that regard the social and the communicative purposes as overriding criteria (Grabe, 2009). Adhering to discourse analysis definition, genre then is described as "a central concept determining how discourse is organized and used for various purposes- how it both constitutes and is constituted by recurring social situations that lead to recognizable and shared conventions and expectations" (Grabe, 2002, p. 250).

One can recognize and distinguish the typical genres by attending to some norms of organization that are relatively consistent for each genre. Grabe (2009) provides examples of genres that can be recognized as real world text uses such as business memo, the announcement flyer, newspapers ad, the science research papers …etc., or instructional genres such as: textbook chapter, novels, poems …etc. Furthermore, Grabe points out that several texts belong to a macro genre. The latter is taken to be as a more abstract level including different text types classified by him as expository, narrative, persuasive, or as narrative, recount, argument and report by Hyland.

Recently, many literacy experts have distinguished between two instructional genres following Bruner (1986, 1990; cited in Grabe, 2002) who argues that there are two major trends or modes of thought to understand the world: the narrative thought and paradigmatic thought or (expository thought). The latter is the study concern because of many reasons as Ornstein (2013, p. 82) mentions "students, in general, have more difficulty with expository text than narrative text because of insufficient prior knowledge, poor reading ability, lack of interest and motivation, and lack of sensibility to how texts are organized". As it is not relevant to the research purpose, the narrative genre will be introduced here very briefly for the purpose of showing the distinction which provides a productive means for understanding these two macro-genres.

1.5.1.4.1 Narrative Discourse Macrostructure

Broadly speaking, the essential point of narrative discourse, as everyone knows, is that it tells a story. Grabe (2002) considers this mode of discourse in the following terms:

> Narrative discourse structures represent text types that are typically episodic in nature and include a set of identifying criteria that bear family resemblances to one another. All narratives involve characterization and a protagonist's perspectives; they involve sequences of events, some events being out of the ordinary and requiring explanation, typically presented as a causal chaining of events.
>
> (Grabe, 2002, pp. 251-2)

Although narrative discourse is characterized by its sequentiality, the prototypical structure used cannot adequately be accounted for in terms of their sentences alone, but more importantly for notions described by Grabe (2002) as plot, character, and perspective, or as Klinger, Vaughn and Boardman (2007) refer to them: characters, setting, plot (the problem that is required to be solved), and a resolution to that problem. To this end, narrative discourse

macrostructures typically involve the beginning where the characters and setting introduced; the middle in which the plot unfolds; and the end where the problem is resolved.

One of the applications of narrative discourse macrostructure has been in the area of reading comprehension and written production. Narration is often emphasized in the lower levels as it teaches students about the components of a story (e.g., setting, characters, complicating events and resolution) which are frequently fun and interesting. Several studies conducted by researchers such as (Fitzgerald & Spiegel, 1983; Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002; Oakhill & Cain, 2007; cited in Grabe, 2009) provide evidence that explicit teaching of such story macrostructure features to beginners results in comprehension improvement. However, such results are considered to be less effective with higher grade levels and proficient readers because once the learners get more skilled, their comprehension does not correlate with training in narrative texts; that is, in higher levels, learners are not in need to formal instruction because they have a well-developed implicit knowledge of generic narrative structures, Grabe explains.

The learners' preexisting concept of the story macrostructure is equally as important in producing written stories as it is in comprehending them. However, the ability to produce a semantically and linguistically coherent narration is a complex developmental task, especially for less skilled writers. As in reading, learners at the beginning levels need instruction over an extended period of time so that they would grasp the basic macrostructure of stories and can use this developing knowledge in creating their own new stories.

In short, narrative discourse is likely to be read and written more effectively than expository discourse because the learners are familiarized with the narrative discourse macrostructure in their early literacy experiences. Further, narrative discourse has a common and simple macrostructure in comparison with that of expository discourse which has a variety of organizational patterns.

1.5.1.4.2 Expository Discourse Macrostructure

Expository discourse is probably the type most frequently encountered in all the types of reading materials. As the learners advance through the higher levels, the expectations and requirements for such a kind of texts increase. In supporting this, Grabe (2002) says "informational (expository) texts, as opposed to narrative texts, are usually seen as the primary input for learning new information in social sciences, science, math, and history" (p. 254). Often the terms expository, nonfiction, and informational texts are used interchangeably (McCormack & Pasquarelli, 2010).

Expository discourse, as opposed to narrative discourse, is a nonfiction discourse that "provides facts, gives true information, explains, informs, persuades, and/or describes various topics and phenomena" (McCormack & Pasquarelli, 2010, p. 133). Expository discourse is said to follow logic and use structures of classification and conceptualization that create a system by which to integrate parts with each other. The said system is set forth by hierarchical classifications, disjunctions, strict implication, and propositions which lead to generalizations. As this mode of discourse is related to logic, it seeks to maintain consistency, systematicity, and noncontradiction (Grabe, 2002).

Expository texts are of great importance not only in the educational contexts, but are constant companion in learners' everyday life. Outsen and Yulga (2002) provide: "we come in contact with nonfiction everyday: maps, menus, guides, brochures, newspapers, magazines, and Internet. Therefore, studying it has real-life value for students" (p. 27). Teachers then need to provide this type of texts and consistently expose the students to it so as to enable them gain familiarity and confidence in constructing and organizing meaning; especially, this type of texts usually requires such features as focus on the main idea, relevant and sufficient supporting details, strong organization, a logical order of ideas, cohesion, coherence and clarity.

Unlike narrative discourse, expository discourse is structurally more complex and information dense. This complexity comes from the different macro patterns, also termed top level structures, methods of development, or rhetorical modes. They are described as being the major point in an outline of an expository discourse where writers often use them to organize their content. Hudson (2007) reports on the various classifications proposed by many researchers such as Meyer who identifies and labeled six alternative text structures that might serve as macro-patterns of organization for expository texts. They include: antecedent/consequent, comparison or contrast, collection, description and response. Other researchers and writers have identified similar patterns, although category names vary. For example, Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983) propose the following terms: argument, definition, classification, illustration, and procedural description. In a different way, Calfee and Curley (1984; cited in Hudson, 2007) offer an expository taxonomy that involves levels of type specification: 1) description (definition, division, and classification, comparison and contrast); 2) illustration (analogy and example); 3) sequence (process, cause and effect); 4) argument and persuasion (deductive reasoning, inductive reasoning, and persuasion); and 5) functional (introduction, transition, and conclusion).

Recently, the most commonly adopted macro patterns are: list, sequence, comparison/contrast, cause/effect, and problem/ solution as proposed by Mikulecky and Jeffries (2004, p. 108). They refer to the first macro-pattern of text organization as a "list of related ideas or examples". This kind of text structure is called listing, enumeration, example, or illustration because the major idea of the text is supported by a list of details or examples for the purpose of describing or defining concepts. Another basic text structure is sequence; it is "the way an author writes information to show you the order in which things happen" (Blanton, Pilonieta & Wood, 2007, p. 226). Generally, sequence texts are set out in a first to last pattern where an action or event is written in an order or time-line format. In comparison/

contrast text structure, “the writer’s main idea is a general statement about two things that are similar and/or different. Specific details about similarities and/ or differences are given” (Mikulecky & Jeffries, 2004, p. 108). Cause/effect is a further common text structure that shows how facts, events, or concepts (effects) happen or come into being because of other facts, events, or concepts (causes). In other words, the supporting details give the causes of the main idea, or the supporting details are the results produced by the main idea. For Cohen and Cowen (2008), this type of organization is extensively found in science, social studies, and math textbooks. The last type of text structure is problem/solution. As the name suggests, a problem, question, or remark is initially stated, then followed by a solution, answer, or reply, Cohan and Cowan explain.

1.5.1.4.2.1 Teaching Expository Macrostructure

Most expository text macrostructure researches have centered on the relationship between knowledge of the text structure and comprehension; in contrast, fewer studies have focused on text production (Raphael and Kirschner, 1985). Having knowledge of the different top level structures of texts is highly useful in writing. Inarguably, it helps the learners to select structures that match the information they want to convey and assists them in their writing organization and presentation of ideas. Raphael and Kirschner report more the importance of top level structure in both reading and writing processes. In the reading process, having such knowledge helps to reduce the gist of the text, identify the most important or top level ideas, identify the supporting details, and fill in missing information with relevant background information. As for the writing process, expository text structure aids in exploring the subject, clarifying the purpose, making decisions about arranging ideas and revising the ways ideas are presented.

Teaching expository macro-patterns is effective at virtually any grade level. To this end, teachers need to design how to effectively teach expository top level structures so that

students would go about comprehending and thus producing more complex information. Raphael and Kirschner (1985) propose a scaffold as a technique to help the students improve their expository texts' comprehension and production. Such a scaffold, according to them, involves four elements: making the students familiar with expository structure so that their access to relevant information of text would increase, activating their background knowledge, equipping them with the necessary skills of organizing information, and providing them with a structure that they could use when they write. Grabe and Kaplan (1989), on their part, claim that students should be equipped with some strategies that could assist their rhetorical and coherence system of English through making them aware of the different aspects of text macrostructure such as thesis statement, body organization, conclusion, as well as other aspects.

Another effective guideline that provides a framework for teaching expository organizational patterns is the one proposed by Moss (2004). He suggests teaching each macro pattern separately so that learners could best master one pattern before they tackle another one. The framework includes:

1- Introduce the organizational pattern.
2- Explain the pattern and when writers use it, point out the signal words associated with the structure and share an example.
3- Model ways students can determine text structures when signal words are not used, the table of contents and headings can help in this area.
4- Introduce a graphic organizer for the pattern.
5- Read aloud a trade book or a section of a book illustrating the appropriate text structure. Ask students to listen for signal words that can help them identify the structure.
6- Using the overhead projector, involve the group in completing a graphic organizer illustrating the text type.
7- Ask students to work in pair to locate examples of the structure in information trade books they can search for examples of the signal words, as well as use headings and other text features to guide their research.
8- Have students diagram these structures using a graphic organizer (pp. 713-714).

1.5.2 Discourse Microstructure

Discourse analysis is typically the natural way to read or to write a text. As one deals with a particular text, its parts become understandable in the light of the whole; however, one should also consider the local level where the sentences play a central role. In supporting this, Baker (2011, p. 119) quotes Enkvist, (1978:178) as follows:

> A sentence is not autonomous, it does not exist for its own sake but as part of a situational part of a text. And one of the most important functions of information dynamics is precisely to link a sentence to its environment in a manner which allows the information to flow through the text in the desired manner.

Thus, another foundational aspect of discourse analysis is this ability to approach a text's sentences or microstructures. The latter is described by Van Dijk (1980a) as "those structures that are processed or described at the local level or short-range level (viz., words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and connections between sentence)" (p. 29). That is, this level of structure is the lowest and most detailed analysis of discourse meaning that can be understood from sentences, propositions, clauses, phrases and words.

Discourse analysis procedures have specified different features of discourse microstructure that may be provided in the text. For Johnson (1990), "the term of microstructure is used to refer to the information within a particular unit of connected discourse" (p. 279). Lojek (2009, p. 03) further specifies "the microstructural level is characterized in terms of cohesion and coherence. Cohesion refers to the syntactic and lexical means of connecting sentences […]. Coherence corresponds to the relationship between propositions". Similar to Lojek's features, Bloom, Obler, De Santi & Ehrlich (2013, p. X) support "microstructure analysis evaluates how the use of specific linguistic devices affects cohesion or the semantic relations that bind linguistic items together across sentences". In this particular study, discourse microstructure centers around three features namely information

structure, particularly in terms of theme and rheme, cohesion, and coherence relations; of course, with adopting the sentence as the basic unit of microstructural description.

1.5.2.1 Thematic Structure

One aspect of discourse microstructure pertains to the distribution of information at the sentence level and how one sentence information is tied with the information of other sentences. Central to this organization of information in text is the concept of thematic structure. It is concerned with how the sentence is built as a piece of discourse that conveys a message. The theoretical concepts that are useful in understanding this structure and how the information generally works in terms of linguistic complexity are theme and rheme.

1.5.2.1.1 Definition of Theme and Rheme

A functional definition of these two concepts is to be found in the work of Halliday (1994) who states: "The Theme is the element which serves as the point of departure of the message […] the part in which the theme is developed, is called […] the Rheme. As a message structure, therefore, a clause consists of a Theme accompanied by a Rheme" (p. 37). This leads one to identify the theme through its initial position and taking it as a constraining force on the development of the sentence message. However, the identification of the rheme comes from the assumption that everything that is not the theme is the rheme.

Haliday (1994) categorizes the elements which occur in the initial position, theme, as textual, interpersonal, and topical, as shown in Table (1.3). The textual themes help the organization of the text by developing links to other clauses or sentences. They encompass conjunctive adjuncts (and, however), conjunction (after, before) and relatives (what, how). Interpersonal themes, on the other hand, function to construe writers' viewpoints which are realized, for example, by modal adjuncts (frankly, personally). The one feature which textual and interpersonal themes have in common is that both of them are optional in the clause or

sentence. However, for Halliday, the topical theme, also called experiential, is the most obligatory of the three theme types; it includes only one experiential (topical) element and ends the thematic part of the clause. Theme then includes everything up to the first topical element which can be realized by a circumstantial adjunct (in June, yesterday), participants (the doctor, a cat), or a process (to be developed).

Table 1.3. Textual, Interpersonal, and Topical Themes (Halliday, 1994, p. 54)

Textual Theme	Continuatives Conjunctions or wh-relatives Conjunctive adjuncts
Interpersonal Theme	Vocatives Modal adjuncts Finite operators Wh- (content interrogatives)
Topical Theme	Participant, circumstance, or process

Themes can also be grouped according to their internal structure into simple and multiple themes. While the former consists of one structural element functioning as a topical theme in the clause, the latter can be described as having more than one thematic element; that is, the experiential, interpersonal, and textual themes may occur together in the thematic position. The following is an example of multiple themes given by Halliday (1994, p. 56):

On the other hand	maybe	on a weekday	it would be less crowded
Textual	Interpersonal	Experiential	
Theme			Rheme

Another categorization of themes made by Halliday (1994) is marked and unmarked themes. When the thematic portion of the clause conflates with a grammatical subject, this theme is called unmarked; however, when the thematic element does not function as a grammatical subject, it is called marked.

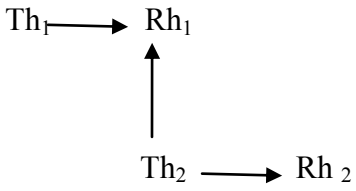
In this study, we are not too much concerned with the actual individual choices of themes and their kinds within sentences, but rather with the chains of thematic and rhematic choices between the sentences which create a particular kind of thematic progression. Thus, our approach to the concept of theme here is discourse-oriented; that is, the succession of themes across sentences. The latter is referred to as thematic progression (Danes, 1974) or method of development (Fries, 1981).

1.5.2.1.2 Thematic Progression

Thematic progression for Danes (1974) refers to "the choice and ordering of utterance themes, their mutual concatenation and hierarchy, as well as their relationship to the hyperthemes of the superior text units" (p. 114). Similarly, Paltridge (2006, p. 148) describes thematic progression as "the way in which the theme of a clause may pick up, or repeat a meaning from a preceding theme or rheme". Based on the different sequences of thematic and rhematic choices made through the text, different thematic progression patterns are found to be essential for the understanding of individual sentences in their given position within the text. Danes (1974, pp. 118-119) puts forward three basic thematic progression patterns that manifest differently in different genres as follows: simple linear pattern, constant progression pattern, derived hyperthematic progression pattern. Danes' suggestions which serve as the bedrock of the thematic analysis for numerous studies have been later on extended by other scholars. The patterns are illustrated below:

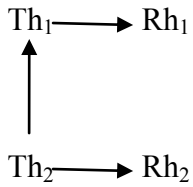
- **The simple linear thematic progression patterns** occurs when an element in the rheme of sentence one gets introduced into the theme of sentence two. The figure is as follows:

Figure 1.2. Linear Theme Progression (Fontaine, 2013: 167)



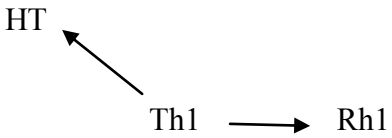
• **Thematic progression with a continuous/ constant theme** refers to the selection of the exact theme or a pronoun that refers to it in a sequence of sentences. The figure of this pattern is as follows:

Figure 1.3. Constant Theme Progression (Fontaine, 2013: 167)



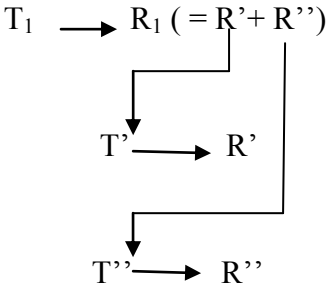
• **Derived hyperthematic progression pattern** is characterized by a hyper theme functioning as an element from which the themes of the subsequent sentences are derived. Consider the figure:

Figure 1.4. Derived Theme Progression (Fontaine, 2013: 167)



I n this study, another pattern which is added to Danes patterns refers to **split progression pattern,** where the rheme of one sentence is split into two items each in turn being then taken as a theme element in subsequent sentences. It is represented below:

Figure 1.5. The Split Rheme Pattern (Nwogy & Bloor, 1991: 372)



1.5.2.1.3 Concepts Related to Thematic Structure

Theme and rheme have been confused with many other terminologies of information distribution such as new/given, topic/ comment … etc. Theoretically, the details of these accounts differ in a significant way; however, practically the terminology distinction does not matter since all of these terms have some elements in common which have to do with the ways in which the parts of information interact with one another to create a coherent structure.

1.5.2.1.3.1. Information Structure

In contrast to thematic structure, information structure is not directly a feature of the clause, but rather of the information unit, and it is reader-oriented. Halliday (1985) has this to say about information structure "a process of interaction between what is already known or predictable and what is new or unpredictable. […] the information unit is a structure made up of two functions, the New and the Given" (pp. 274-5). Like many other languages, English shows a tendency to order old information before new information in sentences. This given or old information is the part of the message usually known to the reader, and that can be found in the theme. Conversely, the new information refers to the part of the message which is unknown to the reader, or that the author assumes that the reader cannot deduce from the text: usually, it is found in the rheme. Furthermore, Mathesius (cited in Danes, 1974) describes

theme as the information which is known or at least obvious to the reader, as well as the information from which the speaker starts.

Although, theoretically, thematic structure and information structure are two distinct concepts, practically, they are closely related. Lyons (1977, p. 509) supports this view saying "whether thematic structure is distinguished from information structure or not, it is clear that there is, in practice, a high degree of interdependence". Halliday (1985, pp. 278-81) on his part, comments that thematic and information structure are interrelated in spite the fact that they are different systems.

1.5.2.1.3.2 Topical Structure Analysis

Another notion that can be taken to some extent as confusing with thematic structure is topical structure analysis (TSA) which is proposed by Lautamatti (1987; cited in Connor & Farmer, 1990). It is based on analyzing whether the noun phrase in syntactically subject position, the theme, is the focal topic of sentences that works throughout the text to build the meaning progressively. Such a situation is also called "topicalization" by Nunan (1999, p. 294). Here, the term topic which refers to "what the sentence is about" (Witte, 1983, p. 121) is more preferred than 'theme' as it is not always possible to establish an automatic relationship between the clause constituent that expresses what a sentence is about, the topic, and the point of departure of the clause as message, the theme. This is best revealed in Downing (1991, p. 122) criticism of the "double-sided" definition of theme provided by Halliday (1967) who claims "the theme is what is being talked about, the point of departure for the clause as a message." (p. 212). Therefore, one uses the term 'theme' to 'topic' when he only refers to 'aboutness'.

In comparison to thematic progression, Lautamatti (cited in Connor, 1996) uses the concept of topical structure analysis. He identifies three possible progressions of sentences: parallel progression, sequential progression, and extended parallel progression. In parallel

progression, the topics of successive sentences are the same. That is to say, a topic of a sentence can be a hyponym, a synonym or a pronoun referring to the topic of the preceding sentence. In sequential progression, topics of sentences are always different; that is, a topic of one sentence is related semantically to the comment of the previous sentence. In extended parallel progression, the sentence topics mentioned at the beginning and at the end of the text are the same but are interrupted with some sequential progression. The following sample passages show clearly these three types of sentence progression:

- **Parallel progression (sample 1)**

(1) Chocolates are a national craving. (2) Records show they are sold in huge quantities-11.02 pounds per capita per year. (3) Designer chocolates often sell for nearly $30/lb. (4) it is obvious that these candies are America's number one choice.
1. Chocolates

2. They

3. Designer chocolates

4. These candies

- **Sequential progression (sample 2)**

(1) Computer interviews are used by market researchers to assess product demand. (2) Using these, many different products are analyzed. (3) For example, people may be asked about detergents.
1. Computer interviews

2. Products

3. Detergents

- **Extended parallel progression (sample 3)**

(1) Body language varies from culture to culture. (2) To say yes, Americans nod their heads up and down. (3) Japanese and Italians use the same nod to say no. (4) Body language is an important skill for international managers.
1. Body language

2. Americans

3. Japanese and Italians

4. Body language (Connor, 1996, p. 85)

1.5.2.1.4 The Importance of Thematic Structure in Writing

The publication of Halliday's Introduction to Functional Grammar has gained a great interest among linguists and researchers who were formed to study it from different perspectives. One of these perspectives is the use of 'theme' and 'rheme' organization to develop SL learners' written production. Previously conducted studies attest to the fact that theme and rheme framework is greatly an affective and valuable tool to construct good compositions (Alonso & McCabe, 2003; Ebrahimi & Khedri, 2012). First, the appropriate build-up of thematic structure helps the writer to produce a clearer sentence structure and a stronger passage flow so that the text message can be communicated and understood clearly. Moreover, thematic organization enables the writer to present his ideas and argumentation closely around the topic in a coherent way. Furthermore, the importance of theme has been reflected in the assumption of what comes first could be effective in understanding the rest of the text. Brown and Yule support "what the speaker or writer puts first will influence the interpretation of everything that follows" (1983, p. 133). Martin (1992) too shows the importance of the initial elements in discourse production. He argues that the different patterns and meanings made consciously or unconsciously by the choice of theme can be manipulated and exploited by the writer to announce his stand.

1.5.2.1.5 Teaching Thematic Structure

Although several studies confirmed that theme and rheme principles can be effective to teaching students to write more organized and coherent pieces of writing (Vand Kopple, 1991: Bloor & Bloor, 1992; Christie & Dreyfus, 2007; Wang, 2007; Schleppegell, 2009), only few studies offer some theoretical bases for teaching such principle. Jianghong, Hairong, and Xiangfen (2005), however, propose the following procedure to apply in the literacy course. First, the teacher is supposed to introduce the Theme and Rheme Theory to the learners and to get them know its importance in reading (e.g. it can aid them to read faster and recognize the

most important information and the authors' main ideas in a text). As a second step, the teacher has to explain thematic progression patterns and show the learners how to recognize each pattern. Finally, teachers are supposed to practise thematic structure analysis in the classroom through identifying the textual, paragraph and sentence themes, drawing a diagram of the passage so that learners grasp the author's ideas organization and key information, and identifying which pattern of thematic progression the author followed. As for writing, Vande Kopple (1991) recommends teaching students how to use themes in a strategic way so as to achieve continuity in their composition. Some of these tasks are to have students chart ideational themes, or rewrite texts with scrambled ideational themes.

1.5.2.2 Cohesion

1.5.2.2.1 Definition of Cohesion

One of the interests of Discourse Analysis is analyzing sentence sequences so as to understand how information reflects mutual dependence in a text. Generally, a text, whether written or spoken, is only meaningful when its clauses and sentences are brought together to make a unified whole through some elements. To fulfill this purpose, cohesion is described as the best tool.

Halliday, one of the linguists credited with development of systemic linguistics and functional grammar, first elaborated on the concept of cohesion. Then, the publication of *Cohesion in English* by both Halliday and Hassan (1976) made cohesion a popular term in text linguistics. They define it as a semantic concept which refers to "relations of meanings that exist within the text and that define it as a text" (p. 04). Without the cohesive elements then, sentences or clauses would seem to lack any type of relationship to each other. Similarly, the concept was referred to by Grabe (1985, p. 110) as "the means available in the surface forms of the text to signal relations that hold between sentences or clausal units in the text".

1.5.2.2.2 Classification of Cohesive Devices

Halliday and Hasan (1976) offer a taxonomy of cohesive relationship which can be formally established within a text. These major cohesive devices are of two main categories: grammatical and lexical devices:

1.5.2.2.2.1 Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion embraces four different devices: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. All the examples used below are taken from Halliday and Hasan (1976).

Reference: It is an important linguistic mechanism of connecting propositions, clauses, and sentences in the text-base. It contributes to cohesion by pointing to another element in the text. Halliday and Hasan (1976) define it as "the relation between an element of the text and something else by reference to which it is interpreted in the given instance" (p. 308). It involves the use of pronouns, the article 'the', demonstratives, and other items to refer backward (anaphoric reference), forward (cataphoric reference), or to something outside the text (exophoric); that is, an item mentioned in the linguistic or situational text. Below are two examples of reference:

1- *John has moved to a new house.* ***He*** *has* ***it*** *built last year* (p. 55).
2- ***He*** *who hesitates is lost* (p. 56).

Substitution: While reference typifies cohesion on the semantic level, substitution represents grammatically cohesive relations. Halliday and Hasan (1976) define substitution in simplest terms as the replacement of one item by another. This cohesive device is marked by the use of the following items (do, so, not, one, ones, and same) to replace an element previously presented in the text. The three types of classification for substitution: nominal, verbal and clausal, reflect its grammatical function. The substituted item should maintain the same structural function as the presupposed item. For example, in nominal substitution, the most typical substitution word is "one" or "ones" and it substitutes nouns. However, in verbal

substitution, the most common substitute is the verb "do". In clausal substitution, the whole clause is substituted either by a noun or a verb. The following are some examples of substitution:

1- *You think John already knows? – I think everybody* ***does*** (p. 89).
2- *Has Barbara left? – I think* ***so*** (p. 90).
3- *I thought I'd finished with the toughest assignments. They didn't tell me about this* ***one*** (p. 93).
4- *Winter is always so damp – The* ***same*** *is often true of summer* (p. 107).

Ellipsis: It is considered as the equivalent of substitution by zero; that is, the omission or deletion of some items of the surface text which are recoverable in terms of relation with the text itself. Like substitution, ellipsis has three types: nominal, verbal and clausal, which reflect its grammatical function. Two examples are:

1- *Would you hear another verse? I know twelve more* (p. 143).
2- *The milk couldn't be used. All was sour* (p. 155).

Conjunction: It is one of the most frequently used cohesive devices. It is created explicitly by the presence of a connective linking two discourse units. The conjunctive items have four semantic functions: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal. The examples below illustrate these categories.

1- For the whole day he climbed up the steep mountainside, almost without stopping
   a- *And in all this time he met no one*. (additive)
   b- *Yet he was hardly aware of being tired*. (adversative)
   c- *So by night time the valley was far below him*. (causal)
   d- *Then, as dust fell, he sat down to rest* (temporal) (pp. 238-9).

1.5.2.2.2.2 Lexical Cohesion

Another type of cohesion coacting with reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction is lexical cohesion. It is not associated with any special syntactic classes of elements. All that is required is that there must be some recognizable relations between lexical items and some others previously occurring in the text. This kind of cohesion encompasses reiteration and collocation.

Reiteration: According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), it is classified into four types: the same word, a synonym/ near synonym, a superordinate, and a general word. For example,

1- There's a boy climbing that tree.

   a- *The **boy**'s going to fall if he doesn't take care*. (the same word)

   b- *The **lad**'s going to fall if he doesn't take care.* (a synonym/ near synonym)

   c- *The **child**'s going to fall if he doesn't take care.* (a superordinate)

   d- *The **idiot**'s going to fall if he doesn't take care* (a general word) (pp. 279-80).

Collocation: It is recognized as the semantic and structural relation among words, which native speakers can use subconsciously for both comprehension and production of a text. Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 287) present a passage on Yosemite by John Muir in which collocation occurs: " *mountaineering, Yosemite, summit peaks, climb, ridge; hours, whole day, sundown, sunset, all day, minute; wallowing, sinking, buried, imbedded; ride, riding, ride, travel, travel, travel, flight, motion, flight".*

1.5.2.2.3 Teaching Cohesion

Halliday and Hassan's work (1976) was the first systematic description of cohesion in English which provided a foundation for many text linguistic researches. One of these researches concerns the relationship between the quality of text production and the use of cohesive devices. In fact, the literature which discussed cohesion indicates inconsistency in its effects on text production. Some studies of essay writing have demonstrated that the presence

of cohesive cues is not a predictive of evaluation of the overall writing quality (Johnson, 1992; Zhang, 2000). However, there are other studies in which opposite results were reported (Hassan 1984; Ferris, 1994; Lee, 2002b; Liu & Braine, 2005). They indicated that the use of cohesive cues contributes a lot in the quality of writing. In spite of this inconsistency, cohesive devices remain an important linguistic tool that provides text continuity and thus makes a piece of writing function a whole unity. As Halliday and Hassan (1976) repeatedly state, cohesion is also a vital component in making written discourse more coherent. Without it, the reader may be left with an incoherent piece of non-sequential discourse to decipher. In addition, Witte and Faigley (1981) report the importance of cohesion in writing saying "cohesion is an important property of writing quality. To some extent, the types and frequencies of cohesive ties seem to reflect the invention skills of student writers and to influence the stylistic and organizational properties of the texts they write" (p. 202).

Cohesion, traditionally, has often been neglected in language teaching. However, with the publication of Halliday and Hassan's *Cohesion in English* (1976), it became progressively a regular part of many programs. More specifically, it has been found to play a fundamental role in reading and writing courses. For such a purpose, William (1983) proposes a general framework to teaching the recognition of cohesive devices that is planned approximately to the reality of literacy. Teaching the cohesive types separately so that learners become aware of the processes involved and the language used to describe them is a crucial stage. That is, in each lesson, learners are supposed to be introduced to one category of cohesive ties with revising the previous one at the same time. William also proposes to treat cohesion by means of complete texts (not text fragment) and have learners to mark cohesive ties on the text itself. As for terminology, he suggests to avoid applied linguistic terminology in classrooms and to use an informative and a consistent one. These are the suggestions:

Halliday and Hassan	Classroom alternative

lexical reiteration …… vocabulary link
synonym …… synonym, or word that means the same
superordinate …… higher- level, lower- level words
general noun …… general noun
anaphoric reference …… pointing- backward word
cataphoric reference …… pointing forward word
substitution ……compressed word
ellipsis …… words unsaid
conjunctive device …… signpost

Zamel (1983), on her part proposes several activities to teach cohesion, including sentence combining and completion exercises. She also adds that learners should not rely totally on conjunction during reading, but also on other cohesive devices such as lexical cohesion, reference, ellipsis, and substitution which have equal or more importance than conjunctions. Moreover, William (1983) speaks of other approaches used as common exercise types in teaching cohesive ties such as:

- removing discourse markers, and having the learners reinstate them unaided.
- removing discourse markers and having the learners reinstate them via multiple choice, or from a randomized list.
- requiring the identification of a reference or substitution tie, by the learner writing (not marking/ joining) the other half, e.g. what does **it** in line 6 refer to (p. 52)?

1.5.2.3 Coherence Relations

1.5.2.3.1 Definition of Coherence Relations

Almost any model on text comprehension agrees with the fact that texts are more than just a concatenation of random sentences and that text reception should happen in a continuous and predictable sequence by virtue of the relations that hold between its component spans. Lee (2002a, p. 33) supports “a proposition is an assertion. It is through the relationships between propositions that the coherence of a text is established.” These relations

whose function is the stating of discourse structure have received various terms in the literature such as coherence relations (Hobbs, 1979; Van Dijk, 1980b, Sanders, Spooren, & Noordman, 1992; Kehler, 2002), rhetorical predicates (Meyer, 1975), clause relations (Hoey, 1983), conjunctive relations (Martin, 1992), and rhetorical relations (Mann and Tompson, 1986). However, discourse relations or discourse structure relations are widely employed as a theory-neutral descriptor (Taboada, 2004, p. 106). In the present study, they will henceforth be termed coherence relations, for their main function is to create a coherent structure.

Several definitions of coherence relations are settled by accounts, who contributed in discourse structure understanding, to mean meaning relations which connect two text segments minimally the clauses. For example, Taboada (2009, p. 125) says "they are paratactic (coordinate) or hypotactic (subordinate) relations that hold across two or more text spans". Hoey (1983, p. 18) quotes Winter's definition, on the basis of a cognitive perspective as follows: "a clause relation is the cognitive process whereby we interpret the meaning of a sentence or group of sentences in the light of its adjoining sentence or group of sentences". Hoey further explains:

> A relation involves the addition of something; when two pieces of language are placed together, if their meaning together is more than the sum total of their separate parts, then they are in relation with each other. If on the other hand no meaning is added when they are placed together, or if no agreement can be reached about the meaning that might have been added, then they are not in a relation with each other.
>
> (Hoey, 1983, p. 18)

The category of these relations is either made explicit by means of connectives such as: the conjunctions (and, but, although, if . . . then, for, because, or, unless, and despite), the sentence adverbs (therefore, however, consequently), and adverbial compounds (on the contrary, as a consequence, or on the one hand and on the other hand) (Van Dijk, 1985). Or it

is entirely implicit, and thus readers need to infer these relations via other means such as context clues and background knowledge.

1.5.2.3.2 Classification of Coherence Relations

Coherence relations feature prominently in many theories of discourse structure, and have recently been used with considerable success in text generation systems. However, one of the problematic issues in the study of coherence relations is the recognition and the variety of labels given to these relations either by discourse analysts or readers. As it is already mentioned, some of the relations are explicitly stated and thus are easy to figure out. However, clear indicators do not signal all relations in a text and thus readers should adhere to some morphological, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic mechanism. For such a purpose, a variety of classifications of these relations, as to the number of relations to be considered, are found in the literature.

One of the classifications of discourse relations is based on Van Dijk (1984) classical approach; he distinguishes between two main categories of relations: conditional and functional. According to him, coherence relations can be conditional when propositions are connected through links between the facts they denote (1980b). That is, a given proposition is said to be coherent with another proposition if the first one denotes an event or a fact that is possible, probable or necessary condition of the event or fact denoted by the other proposition. A sequence of micropropositions, according to Van Dijk, may denote conditionally related facts through three relations as follows: conditional relations (cause-consequence, reason-phenomenon… etc), temporal relations (a sequence of events or facts in terms of chronological order) or model relations (comparison, contrast…etc).

Local coherence can not only be established through conditional relations between denoted facts such as (cause-consequence), but through functional relations that relate micropropositions themselves (Van Dijk, 1984). That is, a proposition may have a specific

semantic function by itself relative to another, and it can act as a specification, an explanation, an example, a comparison or a generalization with respect to previous propositions. This kind of relation is expressed in the following discourse:

E.g. *John is sick. He has the flue* (Van Dijk, 1980b, p. 49).

The example demonstrates that the second sentence functions as a "specification" of the first sentence.

Functional relations may also exist between speech acts, in which case they are called pragmatic functional relations. In other words, discourse micropropositions can be also related to each other by means of pragmatic relations which are described as relations between speech acts (Van Dijk, 1980b). These relations do not hold between the propositions expressed by sentences, yet they hold between the illocutionary intentions they convey. The following example illustrates a discourse which is considered as to be locally coherent by means of a pragmatic relation:

E.g. *can you tell me the time? I forgot my watch*. (Van Dijk, 1980b, p. 49).

In this case, the second sentence is used as an explanation of the first speech act that takes the form of a request.

Besides Van Dijk classification, other sets of coherence relations have also been proposed by many researchers. For example, Halliday and Hassan (1976) group them into four categories: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal; Mann and Thompson (1987; cited in Ping, 2004) taxonomy, as stated earlier, includes a set of 22 relations; Winter (1994) proposes two sets of clause relations: sequential relations and matching relations; Kehler (2002) suggests eleven relations with three categories: resemblance, cause-effect, and contiguity; and Renkema (2004) divides these coherence relations into additive and causal relations. Additive relations connect two parts of a text through a form of coordinator; whereas, causal relations relate two parts through a subordinate. As there is a wide

classification of relations, in the current study, no specific classification is adopted; the analysis takes primarily into account logic.

Coherence relations as they apply to text production are less well substantiated in comparison with text comprehension. It is a universal agreement, however, to conceive coherence relations as having a dynamic role in text production. They are widely used in a variety of roles such as in generation systems, planning the structure of a text, and guiding its linguistic realization. Most of the literature about coherence does not provide any interesting suggestion to teach these relations, it tends to be quite narrow in scope in comparison to that of teaching other aspects of coherence and discourse organization.

Conclusion

In this chapter, it is argued that there are two seemingly incompatible perceptions of discourse structure: a macro- level structure or a semantic-centered view and a micro-level structure or a syntax-centered view. In the macro-level, discourse structure is viewed as a structure that identifies the most important portions of the text. In the micro-levels, discourse structure is viewed as an extension to syntax. This difference in perception is one of the central disagreements in the literature about the production of texts. While some researchers argue that texts should be best organized through their macrostructures, others assert through microstructures. However, these two levels of structures are not as incompatible as they may seem at first sight because discourse macrostructure is produced on the basis of discourse microstructure. A well structured text is best recognized as having an associated internal structure that places constraints on how the global meaning of the text is computed from the local meaning of the individual sentences.

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Chapter Two

The Reading Skill

Introduction

Reading in the past was seen as a passive process because it mainly focused on decoding the print. Additionally, before 1970, it was considered just as an adjunct to oral language skills, because in this period, the audiolingual method was strongly dominant and then the emphasis was on listening over reading and speaking over writing. However, over the last four decades, reading theories shifted their concept of reading as a passive and a mere process of decoding. Currently, all the educational researchers claim that the future success of learners in the educational system hinges upon their ability to become proficient readers. Apart reading for comprehension, reading in the EFL/ESL context has been recognized as the best tool for learning language skills and aspects. In this particular study, it has been incorporated in EFL writing to increase the learners' awareness of discourse organization. As such, this chapter sketches out a theoretical framework of reading as it seems indispensable. It starts with defining reading as both a decoding and a comprehension process. Then, the different purposes behind the act of reading are included. The variables that may affect reading are also tackled in this chapter as one should know about the kinds of variables that may constitute an obstacle during implementing reading paradigms. Next, the chapter ends with presenting reading as a crucial language input.

1.1 Definition of Reading

In view of widespread debate about reading and literacy, it would seem that forming a precise definition to reading might be a difficult task. To start with, Dechant (1991) distinguishes between two basic types of reading definition: an interpretation of experience and an interpretation of graphic symbols.

In its broad sense, reading is seen as an interpretation of experience; put it differently, it is a lifelong capacity to interpret what surrounds us before being able to interpret the graphic symbols. Without such capacity of reading the world, one cannot assign meaning to letters. For example, the golfer, detective, geologist, doctor, and reading teacher are taken to be as good readers by Dechant (1991) for each one of them, respectively, possesses the ability to read the putting greens, crime clues, rocks, illness signs, and reading disabilities symptoms. We should say right away that this kind of definition is out of many reading researchers and theorists objectives since most of them are concerned with using the term reading in relation to written discourse.

In its narrow sense, reading is conceived of as an interpretation of graphic symbols. Even under this classical definition, reading has been subjected to a mammoth debate because it is incomplete. The first issue to be addressed here is whether reading is regarded as a process or product. To Alderson (2000), the former refers to how the reader may arrive at a particular interpretation; while the latter pertains to what the reader has got out of the text. More recently, taking reading as a product has become unfashionable as researchers have shifted their concerns to understand the complexity of the process.

In describing reading as a process, Browne (1998, p. 7) says "reading is a subtle and complex process that involves a relationship between the text and the reader". During the last three decades, advances in theory and research have developed our understanding of the reading process. For example, Urquhart and Weir (1998, p. 22) hold the view that reading is "the process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in language form via the medium of print." Along the same line of thought, Carrell (1988; p. 2) amply describes reading as "a decoding process of reconstructing the author's intended meaning via recognizing the printed letters and words". In light of these definitions, reading is highly

related to language texts which necessitates primarily as an initial step the capacity to recognize and decode the print.

Nuttal (1996), however, views reading as something more than decoding of black marks upon a page. She excluded from her work any interpretation of the term reading in which meaning is not fundamental. To complement this view, Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson (1985, p. 10) define reading as "the process of constructing meaning from written texts. It is a complex skill requiring the coordination of a number of interrelated sources of information". These sources of information are identified in the definition of Anthony, et al., (cited in Farrell, 2009, p. 20) as follows: "reading is the process of constructing meaning through the dynamic interaction among the reader's existing knowledge, the information suggested by the written language, and the context of the reading situation."

Anyway, varied as the definitions are, the commonality among them remains: reading encompasses both decoding and the making of meaning (comprehension). These two components are discussed below as their importance lies in how they fit in the big picture of the act of reading, as well as in offering further insights to utilize or put forth a clear cut definition of reading.

1.1.1 Reading as a Decoding Process

As stated earlier, the virtually first step in reading is being able to decode the graphic symbols. This ability has been variously labeled in the literature as decoding, word recognition, and word identification. For example, McShane (2005, p. 40) takes decoding as a synonym to "word identification skill that involves using letter- sound correspondences to recognize words in print". In Koda's words, the previous terms refer to "the processes of obtaining words' sounds and meanings" (2004, p. 29). Further, with clear terms, Tankersley (2003, p. 31) specifies the cues used in decoding in his definition; he says "decoding is being able to use visual, syntactic, or semantic cues to make meaning from words and sentences".

Thus, decoding or word recognition involves two main processes: word's meaning construction and its sound extraction. In particular, the phonological processing and semantic processing are needed in addition to the orthographic processing. The first two kinds are activated only through visual print and reached via an analysis of lexical system (Koda, 2004).

To elaborate, as readers need to recognize words automatically, they should first rely on their orthographic processing. This latter refers to the ability to match written symbols to speech units so that spoken words are represented, Koda (2004) explains. Once orthographic processing is acquired, readers start to apply orthographic patterns to other new and unfamiliar words encountered everywhere, and more importantly, as Koda points out, this orthographic knowledge could be a powerful mnemonic tool to match the graphic codes to their representation in memory.

The other route of decoding is the phonological processing. It "is perhaps the most indispensible competence for reading in all languages" (Koda, 2004, p. 34). This type of processing is defined as "the ability to conceive of spoken words as sequences of sounds segments which correspond to the written units and access and manipulate those segments in words" (Li, 2010, pp. 30-1). He further adds that the development of orthographic decoding is gradual, starting from the syllable, the onset and rime level, and the phoneme level respectively.

Semantic processing, as a last type of decoding, refers to "retrievals of context-appropriate word meanings" (Koda, 2004, p. 34). In other words, decoding here derives from the context in which the words are used. Semantic processing can be developed through increasing vocabulary and learning new words, especially in contexts. Once the readers develop this knowledge sufficiently, they can even finish decoding before a visual representation is fully completed.

1.1.2 Reading as a Comprehension Process

For reading or discourse researchers and theorists, regardless of their views, comprehension is at the heart of any conventional definition of reading. Without a proper understanding, the act of reading will be completely useless. As any multidimensional construct, there are many definitions of what actually constitutes successful comprehension. A favored definition for discourse processing researchers might be that comprehension is the building of a coherent mental representation of a text. Consistent with this perspective, King (2007, p. 267) provides "when reading text material, reader creates an understanding of what is being read. This meaning making- this comprehension process- entails the construction of a mental representation of the information in the text". Comprehension, therefore, is seen as the product or what the reader gains from the text.

However, one should consider how the reader comes to this final product or representation of the text in the mind. A great deal of literature was devoted to understand the process of comprehension which is found to depend heavily on knowledge- both about the world at large and the world of language and print. Worded differently, it is crucial while understanding to take into account knowledge about the world and link it with what we already have as information as Smith (2004, p. 130) argues "comprehension may be regarded as relating aspects of the world around-including what we already have in our head". Koda (2004, p. 04) offers a similar definition to that of Smith, but in the context of language comprehension; he claims "comprehension occurs when the reader extracts and integrates various information from the text and combines it with what is already known". A more explanatory definition is put forward by Sparks who concludes:

> Discourse comprehension involves building meaning from extended segments of language, such as novels, news articles, conversations, textbooks, and other everyday materials. Successfully comprehending larger units of text and discourse requires making inferences to connect ideas both within and across

> local and global discourse contexts. Establishing such connections relies on the integration of information from prior discourse contents, as well as from prior knowledge, in order to build a coherent memory representation for the events and concepts the text describes.
>
> (Sparks, 2011, p. 1713)

This process which requires different levels of memory and thinking capacities can be categorized into different levels ranging from the lowest to the highest as follows:

- **Literal comprehension**: A primary skill that readers need to acquire when reading is the ability to get the literal meaning or as Alderson (2000, pp. 7- 8) calls "reading the lines". It is one of the levels teachers of the past have given the most practice. Adams and Patterson see literal comprehension as the main level to make sense, involving the ability of the reader to recognize words in an accurate way, distinguish between the main ideas and the supporting details, understand the sequence of events, recognize cause and effect relationship, interpret directions, and be aware of all the organizational patterns used in the different types of texts (2008). The expected questions of measuring literal comprehension include: who, what, where, and when, and therefore reading tests tend to be objective. Most students are said to develop this type of comprehension because teaching it tend to be a matter of focusing on certain points in the text and at the same time to give strategies that may aid the recall of information. In short, readers are not expected to understand deeply the text because true understanding is related to the next level of comprehension.

- **Inferential or interpretive comprehension**: It is the second highest level of cognitive processing that requires readers to read between the lines; that is, to abstract or infer other details. According to Sadoski (2004), through inference, the reader is able to comprehend what is not explicitly stated but rather implied in the reading material. In other words, readers go far beyond word meaning identification to build with reasonable certainty a mental model or coherent image of the whole situation that is not explicitly stated in texts. Sadoski classifies inference into logic and pragmatic. The former includes the formal logical rules that

lead to a high degree of certainty, and the latter is a situation-specific and generally it results in lower degree of certainty. Unlike literal comprehension, tests based on inferential questions are thought to be subjective and difficult for both learners and teachers. As for learners, the difficulty pertains to finding answers that are not overtly stated in text, because the basic element to construct meaning is the textual clues. As for teachers, they may encounter difficulties in formulating such inferential comprehension questions (Cohen and Cowan, 2008).

- **Critical comprehension**: It is the third and the highest level of comprehension taxonomy which is described as "reading beyond the lines" (Alderson, 2000, p. 8). Like inferential understanding, this level calls on the readers to use information both explicitly and implicitly and their personal knowledge and experience. Adams and Patterson describe critical comprehension as the level of understanding that requires the readers to distinguish between facts and opinions, recognize the writer's intended message, attitudes, or bias, make inferences, and judge reading selections critically (2008). At this level, teachers' main role is to provide a great deal of direct support in order to foster the learners' abilities to read critically so that they can make decisions based on sound evaluation criteria. Testing critical comprehension usually involves generating questions that focus on drawing on the learners' background knowledge and experience.

In nutshell, reading is a hierarchical process where readers first decode the print, understand the text literally, draw on inferences, and finally evaluate the text critically. However, to understand the reading process by means of some reasonable mental framework, a great deal of literature was devoted. According to Grabe (2009), two types of models of reading are found: metaphorical models and specific models. The set of the metaphorical models characterizes the most common ways to discuss the process of reading. It includes bottom up, top down, and interactive models, Grabe explains. The characteristics of these

models are the basis of any interpretation of reading. The specific models, on the other hand, try to account for and interpret the findings of certain researches. The widely recognized models in reading include: "Construction- Integration Model, Structure Building Framework, The Landscape View of Reading, Capacity Constrained READER (CC READER) model, Interactive Compensatory Model, Verbal Efficiency Model, Compensatory- Encoding Model, Simple View of Reading, Rauding, Dual- Coding Theory, Word Recognition Model" (Grabe, 2009, p. 91).

One of the most influential specific models that has achieved some prominence and that figured in many discussions of discourse comprehension is the construction integration model. It is a theory of text comprehension which was outlined by Kintsch and Van Dijk (1978) and expended in (1983). The current version of this model was initiated with Kintsch (1988). Harley (2008) explains that texts are processed at two phases to get constructed during reading. First, a text-base is created in the form of propositional network from the linguistic input and from the readers' knowledge base. Second, the text-base is used to shape the situation. Morrow and Tracey (2006), in other terms, identify three levels of text construction:

- The linguistic level which means the interpretation of the exact wording that makes up the text.
- The conceptual level or text-base which pertains to the representation of the meanings underlying the words and sentences.
- The situation model which integrates the semantic content with the reader's existing knowledge to create a representation of the situation.

As can be seen, the conceptual level or text-base which is relevant to this study constitutes the heart of this model. Hudson thoroughly explains how one comprehends discourse at this level as follows:

> A key component of the model is the assumption that text is interpreted as a set of propositions that are ordered by various semantic relations among the propositions. Some of these propositions are related through explicit textual relations, while others are mediated through the reader's specific or general background knowledge regarding possible and probable relations. Comprehension of the discourse reflects attention at two levels, microstructure and macrostructure. The microstructure represents the local level of individual propositions in the text, while the macrostructure represents the global nature of the discourse as a whole. The two levels are related by a set of semantic macrorules.
>
> (Hudson, 2007, p. 43)

2.2 Purposes for Reading

Everyday reading consists of individuals' reading activities for a variety of purposes. Broadly, these purposes include reading for comprehending a text, answering comprehension questions, developing language capacities, doing grammar or vocabularies activities, solving language problems, decoding a particular message, looking for information, or just achieving pleasure. In an academic context, Enright et al. (2000, pp. 4- 5) outline four major purposes:

1- Reading to find information (or "search reading"),
2- Reading for basic information,
3- Reading to learn, and
4- Reading to integrate information across multiple texts.

'Reading to find information' or 'search reading' constitutes the main type of reading in academic context. This type is performed by the reader with the purpose of looking for discrete pieces of information. Generally, finding answers to questions, checking and repairing any misunderstanding, and identifying the relevant part of a text are examples of reading for the purpose to find information (Enright et al., 2000). Constructing meaning here is not critical initially, though the reader may slow down in his reading rate to check whether he is in the right path.

Reading for basic comprehension is the chief reading purpose because without comprehension, reading is simply following words on a page from left to right while sounding them out. For Enright et al. (200), reading for this specific purpose requires the readers to obtain the main ideas or build a general understanding of the main theme of the text, without necessarily focus on the detailed information.

Reading to learn requires the readers to construct a coherent text representation by incorporating the main ideas and supporting details. Further, the readers should recognize the larger organizational patterns that structure the information in a given text such as cause-and-effect, comparison and contrast, classification, and persuasion. Moreover, the readers should perform a task to reveal their awareness of these larger organizing frames (Enright et al., 2000).

Reading to integrate information, as the name indicates, requires the readers to integrate information from different sources, working across two or more texts to create an organizational pattern that is not stated explicitly (Enright et al., 2000). This purpose which is often called "document model of reading" (Kim, 2008, p. 76) is academic in nature and important to undergraduates across many disciplines at the university.

Each of the above purposes for reading is often associated with certain types of texts, serving important elements in controlling the act of reading. As for the first two classical purposes, they have been included in almost all reading activities. The latter two purposes, on the other hand, represent a departure from the classical purposes, constituting more complex tasks which require more cognitive processes. In the current study, the students are neither read for looking for information nor for exclusively reaching comprehension, but rather for learning discourse structure as a language aspect. Accordingly, many variables should be available to complete this learning task.

2.3 Variables Affecting L2/FL Reading

Reading in second language shares several important basic elements with reading in first language. Most first and second language reading researches alike are marked by their intensive investigations of two main constellations of variables. While some argue that the reader occupies a central role in the process of reading, others consider the text as an essential entity for reading success or failure. However, these two variables, the reader and the text, are related one another as they both influence the act of reading.

2.3.1 Reader-based View: Reader Variables

The lion's share of a text's meaning is actually constructed by the reader, and the variables related to him are widely believed to be important and dominant mediators of reading performance. These variables include the reader's background knowledge (formal and content schemata), and his/her psycholinguistic perspectives (reader skills and abilities, purpose, and motivation and interest).

2.3.1.1 Reader Schemata and Background Knowledge

The importance of background knowledge in reading is included in virtually all modern theories of first and second language reading. This background knowledge that the reader brings to the text is well explained in schemata theories of reading. Schemata are defined as "interlocking mental structures representing readers' knowledge" (Alderson, 2000, p. 34). Simply speaking, schemata are what one already knows before intending to know more. Carrell and Eisterhold (1983, p. 560) identified two types of knowledge or schemata: formal schemata and content schemata. Formal schemata, often known as textual schemata, refer to the background knowledge of "formal, rhetorical or organizational structures of different types of texts"; while content schemata are linked to "the background knowledge of the content area of a text".

Formal schemata or the knowledge of form provide the reader with certain expectations about the text's language and facilitate making accurate identification of forms in reading. This aspect of formal schemata includes knowledge of language. Alderson (2000) identifies the types of this latter as: linguistic knowledge (orthography, morphology, syntax, semantics), discourse – level knowledge (text organization and cohesion, text types, and associated conventions), metalinguistic knowledge, first language knowledge, the relationship between first and second language knowledge, and finally second language reading ability knowledge.

Content schemata, on the other hand, provide the reader with certain expectations about the larger conceptual structure of the text. One of its components is the reader's knowledge about the text's topic. Alderson (2000, p. 44) supports "if one knows absolutely nothing about the topic of a text, one will find it difficult to process". Moreover, having content schema of a text dictates possessing knowledge of the world, Alderson adds. That is to say, in some texts, information is not stated clearly, yet needs to be inferred by the reader, and this inference depends on the reader's knowledge of how things go in the world. The last component of content schemata, according to Alderson, is termed cultural knowledge. This latter refers to the assumption that when the learners are familiar with the cultural norms like religion and social tradition, they make a better interpretation of the text than when they are not.

To sum up, the presence of the above mentioned types of schemata is crucial in ensuring a better reading performance. More importantly, schema or background knowledge aids inference as it serves as a stock of information to be used in filling what is missing in a text, directs the readers' anticipation, and serves as a source for information processing. Therefore, without the activation of background knowledge, almost every text would be incomprehensible and thus gives rise to many reading problems.

2.3.1.2 Reader Skills and strategies

Sometimes, the readers spend too much time on reading but end up with missing the goal of reading. This sort of troubles is just as likely to be a deficiency in one or a number of specific reading skills or strategies. Thus, a deployment of a range of different skills and strategies will certainly reduce unnecessarily reading time and enable learners to read in a more focused and selective manner. Skills and strategies can not be classified as good or bad; what makes them effective is related to the readers' effective application.

2.3.1.3 Reader Purpose in Reading

Skills and strategies alone do not account for readers' performance in a given reading situation. Another influential variable is the readers' purpose in reading. That is, effective readers are those who set for themselves a purpose for reading and select appropriate strategies to meet the reading goal for a particular passage. Having a solid purpose in mind serves to enhance the readers' knowledge of the topic, learn about text structure and perform a task in an appropriate way. However, if the readers' processes are not guided by specific purposes, the readers can not stay focused, get bored quickly, do not care anymore about the topic, and as a result the act of reading turns to be a waste of time.

2.3.1.4 Reader Motivation/ Interest

One of the problems readers may face is having the ability to read but lacking the motivation to do so. Interest here can serve a motivational force that involves the focused allocation of extra attention which results in a better reading performance. The readers' interest has a strong positive effect on reading as it determines the ways in which one selects and processes certain types of information in preference to others. In considering the factors that increase readers' interest, text characteristics are at the top. For example, important, unexpected and surprising information are features that make readers highly motivated. In

addition, task presentations and teaching materials can promote the readers interest. In short, SL/FL reading teachers should encourage a love of reading in reluctant or struggling readers to reach their full potential, and at the same time, be aware of the needs of the skilled readers via providing them with appealing materials that make them continue and enjoy reading.

2.3.2 Text-based View: Text Variables

A second category of variables that affects reading and which learners have a less control on it includes text variables. This latter involves the linguistic features of the text without concern for the reader. The text factors are discussed below ranging from the aspect of vocabulary to text type, cohesion and coherence, and syntax.

2.3.2.1 Vocabulary

It is commonly assumed that the text vocabulary affects how readers process text. Firstly, any discussion of this variable is incomplete without at least referring to content-specific vocabulary and academic vocabulary as two types of vocabulary that should be found in any text, Ridchardson, Morgan, & Fleener (2011) explain. The former, according to them, refers to terms that are critical, yet specific to a particular discipline or study. These terms are often presented in pre-reading phase as they are selected on the basis of student's prior knowledge, the lesson purpose, and the need for comprehending the unit or the lesson. The later, however, is not specific to a particular academic discipline or study, and very often it is encountered in expository texts, formal presentations, or speeches.

The vocabulary of written discourse is much more extensive and diverse than the vocabulary of spoken discourse. Accordingly, any lexical overload that may create lexical problems for readers should be avoided. For example, one of the challenges associated with some texts include the fact that some unfamiliar words are typically numerous (Koda, 2004). This unfamiliarity with a high portion of the vocabulary in text reduces the learners'

opportunities for contextual analysis. The level of concreteness or abstractness certainly influences reading as well. For example, some sentences that contain a lot of abstract words take significantly longer to read, more difficult to imagine and more likely to create comprehension problems than sentences that contain concrete words (Woolley, 2011). The sheer number of abstract words in text also permits greater learner's reliance on prior knowledge to access target concepts. Finally, some texts may be composed of many unfamiliar words that carry more than one meaning, so teachers should be careful when opting for a text which is full of such words.

2.3.2.2 Text Type

As the actual content of the text is not always the main reason of reading difficulties, visualizing the features of a text type can be vital to SL/FL learners whose ability to read and assemble information is not fluent enough. Each text type has its own rules of what makes it such a text. For example, in the earlier studies, attempts have been made to characterize types of texts as expository, argumentative, descriptive and narrative on the basis of their structural and linguistic features (Hudson, 2007). More recently, reading texts, however, fall under two basic categories namely narrative and expository texts. The type which constitutes a greater difficulty and therefore may impede the act of reading, according to Alderson (2000), is the expository type. Its difficulty lies in the greater variety of relationships between text parts as well as the variety of content. Conversely, the narrative type facilitates text comprehension as it has conventionalized macrostructures.

2.3.2.3 Cohesion and Coherence

The importance of text cohesion and coherence has been stressed by many recent theories of reading. Both constructs indicate how ideas conveyed in a text are bound together on particular levels of language, discourse, and world knowledge. A coherent text should

focus on one global topic and cut out what is irrelevant and unintelligible for a reader. Trimmer (1995) supports that establishing a sense of coherence at the paragraph level means each sentence should be connected to the other one, forming a sort of continuity to the readers who should be able to follow the chain of information with no separation. However, the less coherent a text is the less connection of ideas within text is promoted. As for cohesion, it operates like a map in a text because it tells readers where they are going in relation to where they have just come from. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) describe the role of cohesion as an important indicator that aids in interpreting the meaning of the text. In short, a text with a cohesion gap, specifically conjunction, will certainly create reading difficulties.

2.3.2.4 Syntax

Another important text characteristic that influences the reader performance is syntax. It refers to how words in strings relate to each other to form grammatically-correct sentences. A text with a simple syntactic structure certainly results in good representation of the surface level of sentence meaning, because almost all SL/FL readers have a grasp of simple sentence structure. However, the presence of high complex structures may seriously hinder reading, especially with the texts of the beginning levels. These more complex constructions may include: very long phrases, the passive voice, embedded clauses, and relative clauses…etc.

2.4. Reading as a Crucial Language Input

What our life would be like if we do not know how to read? There is, of course, any number of ways to put that into context. After all, the ability to read is crucial in everyday life. Whether we are engaged in a novel, pouring over a newspaper, or just looking at signs, reading permits us to maintain contact with the world around us. It provides us with access to a great quantity of further information and experience that we need in everyday life. Wallace

(1992, p. 7) supports that saying "reading serves the wider role of extending our general knowledge of the world". From the cognitive perspective, reading is also a workout for our brains as it increases intelligence, concentration, memory, and imagination.

In the context of language learning, especially second or foreign language, reading in the past was seen as a passive process since it mainly focused on decoding the print. A further point that can support the unimportance of reading is that before 1970, it was considered just as an adjunct to oral language skills, because in this period, the audiolingual method was strongly dominant and then the emphasis was mainly on listening over reading and speaking over writing. However, over the last four decades, reading theories shifted their concept of reading as a passive and a mere process of decoding. Currently, all the educational researchers claim that the future success of learners in the educational system hinges upon their ability to become proficient readers. As for reading in English, Carrell reports this importance as follows:

> Certainly, if we consider the study of English as a foreign language around the world- the situation in which most English learners find themselves- reading is the main reason why students learn the language. In addition at advanced proficiency level in a second language, the ability to read the written language at a reasonable rate and with good comprehension has long been recognized to be important as oral skills, if not more important.
>
> (Carrell, 1988, p. 1)

In particular, reading is the basis of instruction in all aspects of EFL/ESL learning. For instance, the reader reviews sounds and letters, grammar, and vocabulary and memorizes the spelling of words. The more they read, the better their retention of these linguistic materials is. Additionally, reading various texts can be the best input to develop all the language skills as Krashen and Terrell (1983, p. 131) claim "reading may […] contribute significantly to competence in a second language. There is good reason, in fact, to hypothesize that reading

makes a contribution to overall competence, to all four skills". In nutshell, through reading, learners can perfect their command of the target language.

2.4.1 Reading Input Hypothesis

The Input Hypothesis is one of Krashen's explanation of how second language acquisition takes place. For Krashen (1991), the acquirer must be exposed to comprehensible input so that language acquisition takes place. That is, the learner can improve his language abilities along the natural order by being exposed to second language input that is one step beyond his current level of linguistic competence. This classical research has become the foundation for Krashen who has advocated the power of reading in second language acquisition. Related to his Input Hypothesis therefore is the Reading Hypothesis as he explains: "The reading Hypothesis is a special case of the Input Hypothesis. The Reading Hypothesis claims that comprehensible input in the form of reading also stimulates language acquisition" (p. 409).

Thus, as the overall language acquisition results from comprehensible input, writing is assumed to result from reading. Krashen (1984, p. 30) defines writing competence as "the abstract knowledge the proficient writer has about writing", and believes that a writer's abstract knowledge is the product of vast and leisure reading.

2.4.2 Intensive Reading

Reading is widely accepted as an important skill because it offers SL/FL learners with opportunities to develop their language proficiency, especially in environments where the input is insufficiently available. To provide students with input, two fundamental approaches are widely adopted by reading teachers; they are intensive and extensive, as Heaton (1989) classifies. If some reading is assumed to be effective, then perhaps extensive reading is the best as it entails students to read as much as possible, either for pleasure or getting

information purposes. However, taking time constraints, texts' length and variety, and other factors into consideration, instructions presented in the form of intensive reading seem to be more useful, as in the current study. Before introducing intensive reading, extensive reading has to be made clear as well.

Extensive reading, also termed 'reading for pleasure or free (voluntary) reading' (Krashen, 1987) and 'substained silent reading' (Gardiner, 2005), has been defined in various ways by researchers and reading specialists. This may not seem surprising as their focus and priorities differ; however, what they all have in common is that extensive reading is "the reading of large amounts of material in the second language over time for personal pleasure or interest, and without the addition of productive tasks or follow up language work" (Hafiz & Tudor, 1989, p. 4). Likewise, Carrell and Crason (1997, pp. 49- 50) define "extensive reading generally involves rapid reading of large amount of material or longer reading for general understanding with focus on meaning of what is being read than on language".

Day and Bamford (2002, pp. 136- 141) summarized distinct characteristics or principles of extensive reading as agreed thematically upon by reading researchers. They are viewed as key factors in successful extensive reading programs.

1. The reading material is easy.
2. A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics is available.
3. Learners choose to read what they want to read.
4. Learners read as much as possible.
5. Reading speed is usually faster, rather than slower.
6. The purpose of reading is usually related to pleasure, information and general understanding.
7. Reading is individual and silent.
8. Reading is its own reward.
9. The teacher orients and guides the students.
10. The teacher is a role model of a reader.

These characteristics or principles emphasize the need for a wide choice of reading materials and for the freedom of the students to select their own texts, ways, and rate of reading.

Further, the adoption of pre-dominantly aesthetic stance is needed with the primary purpose being reading for pleasure.

Intensive reading, on the other hand, is extensively incorporated in EFL/ ESL reading classes. One common definition found in most reading books and articles is of Brown (1994, p. 321) who claims that intensive reading

> is usually classroom-orientated activity in which students focus on the linguistics or semantic details of a passage. Intensive reading calls students' attention to grammatical forms, discourse markers, and other surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning, implications, rhetorical relationships, and the like.

Further, Renandya and Jacobs (2002) describe this approach as the students' work with short texts under the teacher guidance. The aim, according to them, is to assist the students to grasp text meaning, improve the reading skills related to the recognition of text structure, and develop both vocabulary and grammar knowledge. Succinctly, Nation (2004, p. 20) concludes that "intensive reading involves the detailed reading of texts with the two goals of understanding the text and learning language features through a deliberate focus on items".

Intensive reading instructions then are likely to take the form of short texts used either to comprehend or demonstrate specific aspects of syntactic, semantic, or discoursal system of the second or foreign language. Hedgcock and Ferris (2009, pp. 161- 2) discuss further intensive reading characteristics in the following points:

- The texts to be read are chosen by the teacher.
- All the students read the same text simultaneously and complete the exercises and assessment designed by the teacher either in class or out class.
- The teacher calls the students attention to specific linguistic features and content dimensions of the text, introducing some specific reading strategies through whole- class instruction and activities.
- The teacher should avoid excerpts and rather selects entire texts.
- The teacher central aim to intensive reading is to build students' skill and strategies for reading authentic texts beyond the reading classroom.

Another central issue related to intensive reading and that one can extract from the above characteristics is that intensive reading can be either skill-based or text-based, or presumably a balance of both, Nuttall (1996) says. According to her, skill-based instruction focuses on developing a particular skill, using particular texts' aspects that provide opportunities to practise the selected skill. Only the texts' aspects which are relevant to the purpose of the instruction should be covered. Text-based instruction, on the other hand, focuses on the text itself; that is, the students are required to understand the text fully through using their required skills. The use of translation in this last type of instruction, Nation (2009) adds, can guarantee more the learners' comprehension, especially when the learners do the translation themselves.

One of the major goals of intensive reading then is to develop the learners skills, or "to determine what language features will get attention in the course", Nation (2009) more specifies. He further elaborates that the selected language features highlighted in each text must become the syllable for the course. Nation made a list of language aspects that teachers can focus on when working on reading text, these include: "comprehension, regular and irregular sound-spelling relation, vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, information structure, genre features, and strategies" (p. 27).

Teaching the language aspects through intensive reading can take place with the teacher or through written exercises accompanying a text (Nation, 2009). A good exercise:

1- directs the learners' attention to features of text that can be found in almost any text, or the strategies for dealing with any text.
2- directs the learners' attention to the reading text. That is, the learners need to read the text or at least part of it in order to do the exercise.
3- provides the teacher and the learner with useful information about the learners' performance on the exercise.
4- is easily to make. Teachers have to choose texts suited to the particular needs of their learners, and if these texts do not have satisfactory exercises, the teachers must make their own (pp. 28-9).

Intensive reading occurs through three main stages, namely before, during and after reading. 'Before reading stage' is critical for the reading process as it prepares the learners to be involved in the reading; that is, it builds their interest, confidence, and motivation for reading. Before reading activities include: getting ready to read, surveying the text, making predictions and asking questions, and introducing key vocabulary. 'During reading stage' refers to these instructional activities: first reading, re-reading the text, looking closely at language, and considering text structure. Finally, the stage of 'after reading' involves summarizing, thinking critically, and reading-writing connection (Hedgcock & Ferris, 2009).

In this study, aspects of discourse structure are taught through intensive reading which implies close study of short passages, including the analysis of such aspects. Reading here is used as a tool of instruction. This, as Alderson and Arquhart (1984, pp. 246- 7) point out, is not a reading but rather a language lesson.

> Such a pedagogic practice-of focusing on the language of a text-may be justified as a language lesson, but it may very well be counterproductive as a reading lesson. Often what is known as "intensive reading" (as traditionally opposed to "extensive reading") is actually not reading at all: the lesson consists of a series of language points, using texts as points of departure. Reading texts, in other words, are sources of language exercises, rather than reading exercises.

Conclusion

Reading is a decoding and comprehension process. Apart from the classical models of reading which explain the cognitive processes which occur in the reader's mind, the construction-integration model explains cognitively how macrostructure and microstructure, constituting the conceptual level, lead to the construction of text meaning on the basis of linguistic input. If teachers are to incorporate reading in EFL classroom, a set of variables that may affect this process should be taken into account, mainly the reader and text variables so

that the specific purpose can be reached. Though reading is such a complex skill, it is paramount in both of the professional and educational spheres. Specifically, it is critical in learning all the language skills and aspects as it provides the necessary input for learning. Of the two major reading inputs, intensive and extensive, the former could be the most appropriate type to learning other language skills and aspects, for its principles match with most EFL classroom environment.

Chapter Three

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Chapter Three

Reading-Writing Connection

Introduction

Of all the language skills, writing is usually thought to be the most difficult and complex skill to master in an EFL context. That is why, it receives a great deal of research. Scholars and theories tried by all means to propose the best instructional procedures for teaching this skill and therefore they came out with different definitions, aspects, approaches of teaching and assessment, etc. This chapter attempts to shed some light on these issues. Foremost, it highlights the conceptual framework of writing, its importance, its difference from speaking, and its aspects. It also deals with teaching EFL writing, specifically its theory and research, approaches, assessment, and the different factors which affect EFL writing. Lastly, the chapter attempts to accentuate the reading-writing connection as it occupies a relevant part in the present study.

3.1 The Writing Skill

3.1.1 Conceptual Framework of Writing

A single definition of writing, in fact, is hard to come by because no definition can cover all the writing systems and situations that exist and have ever existed. Therefore, it is not surprisingly to find writing researchers, authors, linguists, psychologists to have filled volumes with their definitions of writing. Traditionally, most linguists hold the view that writing is a device to record speech. Lyons (1968, p. 38) supports that saying “writing is essentially a means of representing speech in another medium.” This is further supported by Brown who states that "A simplistic view of writing would assume that written language is simply the graphic representation of spoken language" (2001, p. 335). These definitions,

however, are certainly unsatisfactory since writing can never be regarded as an exact counterpart of the spoken language. It has been rather defined from different perspectives.

First, it is a conventional view to represent writing as the productive utilization of the visual language to communicate. Sharma (2004, p. 272) describes it as "one of the two productive skills that a learner is expected to achieve in order to ensure his communicative competence. Writing, therefore, is one medium by which one produces language to communicate.

Describing writing as a productive skill used for communication puts it in the same vein with speech. However, writing is more complicated than speaking. Whereas speech is an ego-building activity in the first language and a spontaneous activity to learn in a second language, writing is taken to be as a culturally specific, learned behavior, usually associated with formal instruction in both first and second language. Consistent with this view, Grabe and Kaplan (1996, p. 6) claim "writing abilities are not naturally acquired; they must be culturally transmitted in every assisting environments".

On his part, Widdowson (1978, p. 62) differentiates writing as "the act of making up correct sentences and transmitting them through the visual medium as marks on paper". Apparently, this is the same view Hyland (2003, p. 3) shares with Widdowson. He speaks of writing as "marks on a page or a screen, a coherent arrangement of words, clauses, and sentences, structured according to a system of rules". Unlike speech which is an auditory form and a reciprocal activity characterized by short and often fragmentary utterances with several different prosodic features, writing is an activity that requires a greater degree of formal accuracy. The argument is that the writer cannot go along with his reader to negotiate any misunderstanding of meaning. Once he hands in his final piece of writing, he should have created carefully, concisely, and coherently meaningful sentences.

Writing can not be regarded as a random compilation of words and sentences, but it is "a developmental task which can be conceived as a performance made up of a series of lesser skills, one built upon another" (Li Waishing, 2000, p. 49). Worded differently, writing is a task that requires the mastering of other multiple lower level skills, operating together. The sub-skills suggested by Heaton (1975) run as follows:

- Grammatical skills (the competence of creating correct sentences).
- Mechanical skills (the competence of using writing conventions such as punctuation, spelling, etc).
- Stylistic skills (the competence of manipulating sentences and using language successfully)
- Judgment kills (the competence of writing for a particular communicative purpose with a particular reader in mind and selecting and organizing information appropriately)

In conceptualizing writing as a process, Hyland (2003, p. 28), defines it as "the process whereby a person selects, develops, arranges, and expresses ideas in units of discourse". Under this definition, writing concerns how writers manage different stages they need to compose a text. These stages involve a lot of high mental abilities which call for intellectual effort. Along this same view, Kay (cited in Westwood, 2004, p. 100) speaks of writing as:

> A highly complex process involving multiple brain mechanisms and specific abilities. The act of writing requires the writer to formulate ideas, organize and sequence points in logical order, select vocabulary, check for grammatical correctness, spell words correctly, punctuate and write legibly. It requires the simultaneous and sequential integration of attention, language, long term memory and working memory, motor skills, higher order thinking, and metacognition.

Looking at writing as a process also implies understanding it as a process of communication with the overriding goal of conveying a message to a defined audience. Grabe

and Kaplan (1996) look at the meaning of writing from a rhetorical triangle that represents the various aspects of the communication process: the writer (the producer of the text), the reader (the recipient of the final product of the writing process), and the subject matter and text.

Based on the definitions above, writing can not be taken as simply a shadow cast by speech. It is the ability to produce more grammatically and coherently complete language to fulfill a range of functions in terms of communication with readers. Moreover, writing is perceived as a highly complex individualized process that requires a set of distinctive cognitive processes which writers orchestrate during the act of composing.

3.1.2 Writing-Speaking Relationship

The relationship between speaking and writing has been subjected to considerable discussion. Traditionally, most scholars hold the view that written language is basically the same language as that of speech. They stress the close connection between these two language skills arguing that one should draw on the strength of his oral language when he engages in written composition. Logan and Logan (1967, p. 378) assert that "competence in the spoken language appears to be a necessary base for competence in writing." Besides, Bruffee (1995, p. 91) supports that writing has always had its roots buried in "the ability to carry on the social, symbolic exchanges we call conversation." Therefore, according to this belief, writing is best learnt when it is firmly embedded in a classroom environment of social interaction.

If the above view is right in holding that writing is a symbolized speech, both spoken and written modes of communication should then have essentially the same features. Yet, it is instantly obvious that there is a difference between spoken and written language. To elaborate, speech is transmitted through air pressure movement produced by the vocal organs (oral medium), while writing is transmitted through marks on a surface (visual medium) (Widdowson, 1978). Speaking and writing are also different with respect to communication context; that is, speaking is described as face to face communication with the interlocutor who

is physically present, while writing is directed to a reader who is actually separated by both time and space distances.

Besides the apparent contrast in medium and communication context, the difference between speaking and writing goes well beyond to include textual features. Brown (1994; cited in Weigle, 2002, pp. 15- 6) summarizes these textual features in terms of seven points of contrast:

- **Performance**: Oral language is transitory and must be processed in real time, while written language is permanent and can be read and re-read as often as one likes;
- **Production time**: Writers generally have more time to plan, review and revise their words before they are finalized, while speakers must plan, formulate and deliver their utterances within a few moments if they are to maintain a conversation;
- **Distance:** between the writer and the reader in both time and space, which eliminates much of the shared context that is present between speaker and listener in ordinary face to face contact and thus necessitates greater explicitness on the part of the writer;
- **Orthography**, which carries a limited amount of information compared to the richness of devices available to speakers to enhance a message (for example: stress, intonation, pitch, volume, pausing, etc.);
- **Complexity**: written language tends to be characterized by longer clauses and more subordinators, while spoken language tends to have shorter clauses connected by coordinators, as well as more redundancy (for example: repetition of nouns and verbs);
- **Formality**: because of the social and cultural uses of which writing is ordinarily put, writing tends to be more formal than speaking;
- **Vocabulary**: written texts tend to contain a wider variety of words, and more lower frequency words, than oral texts.

In addition to theses surface textual features, the difference also lies in terms of socio-cultural norms, patterns of use, and cognitive processes. Weigle (2002, p. 16) supports that "speaking and writing are frequently used in different settings, for different reasons, and to meet different communicative goals. Furthermore, the cognitive processes involved in writing differ in important ways from those used in speaking."

Although the above distinction between speech and writing is stated, it is not always and everywhere very clear cut. There are some forms of speech that are closer to writing, and conversely, writing can sometimes be purposefully used to mirror certain speech styles. Thus, one should not consider speaking and writing as two separate skills, but rather two distinct mediums of communication that together make up language differing from each other in terms of surface textual features and other factors.

1.3 Importance of Writing

Writing is something paramount for most people, if not all, because of several reasons. One needs to be able to express himself freely and in a way that others could understand him better which, otherwise, may not be possible through speaking. More than that, being able to get things off our chest and put them on a paper can be extremely therapeutic. Moreover, writing reflects our identity, and it is not something to take lightly. In other words, it is a primary basis upon which the person's knowledge and intellectuality are assessed. Furthermore, writing is an essential form of communication in education, business, career planning, and job application.

Apart from the importance of writing in the educational sphere, it is a required skill for achieving a career and business goals. Roy and Gordon (2012, p. 10) assert that "your success in getting that dream job- and keeping it- often depends on your ability to express yourself on paper." The writer, then, who learns the skills pertaining to thoughts' organization, will effectively communicate, present his ideas, and persuade people that his way is right.

In the context of FL/SL teaching and learning, the primacy of speaking, before 1960, had an impact on linguistics and ESL studies, the fact which overshadowed the importance of writing. Widdowson (1987, p. III) supports "early developments in discourse analysis tended to focus attention on spoken language. […] even to the extent of sometimes supporting that communicative language teaching involved only the development of the ability to converse".

However, after 1960, writing started to be one of the major subjects of research, especially with the growth of ESL/EFL students in American universities. The attention to writing has grown too for it was necessary to equip students with the written materials so that they learn how to express themselves in writing as well as in speaking.

Recently, the place of writing in FL/SL classrooms has been recognized as extremely important. It is the skill by which the learners can improve their language proficiency. Harmer (2004, pp. 3-4) supports this view saying “being able to write is a vital skill for 'speakers' of a foreign language as much as for everyone using their own first language”. Raimes (1983, p. 3) also points out this importance in the following words:

> First, writing reinforces the grammatical structures, idioms and vocabulary that we have been teaching our students. Second, when our students write, they also have a chance to be adventurous with the language, to go beyond what they have just learned to say, to take risks. Third, when they write, they necessarily become very involved with the new language: the effort to express ideas and the constant use of eye, hand and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning... The close relationship between writing and thinking makes writing a valuable part of any language course.

Raimes’s quote highlights two important roles of writing in SL/FL pedagogy; it is a powerful learning tool, as well as a communicative tool while meeting a new culture.

As for the importance of a certain kind of writing, the typical university student is required to write a variety of essays throughout the years of university. The essay writing is deemed necessary to EFL/ESL learning for several reasons, as Jones and Johnson (1990, pp. 19-20) state:

1- It is the standard form of assessed work in education. This is true of most of the humanities and social sciences.
2- Good writing exhibits the mastery of a number of important written and intellectual skills.
3- Essay-writing is a transferable skill; if you are good at it you will almost certainly have no difficulty in writing clear, well structured reports, papers or business letters.

1.4 Aspects of Writing

Writing well is not a trait one is born with. To be able to write, learners should gain mastery of the different aspects underlying the writing skill. For example, Harris (1969) categorizes five aspects which the writer has to focus on: content, form, grammar, style, and mechanics. These five main aspects which most teachers would probably agree upon are discussed briefly below.

The most important part of a piece of writing is its content, where the ideas are supposed to be fully expressed. The content should demonstrate an understanding of the desired materials and present all the needed information such as the purpose, the main theme, the main story line of the piece, support, elaboration, images, and every selected detail that may build understanding or hold a reader's attention. Regardless of the type or the purpose of writing, content with one clear focus should be apparent, but the supporting details should be thorough, relevant, and well suited to audience and purpose.

The form or the organization of the content is another important aspect as it addresses the structure of the piece of writing. As organization is relevant to the current study, Shermis and Daniels (2003, p. 171) thorough description of this aspect is worth mentioning. They describe organization as:

> […] the internal structure of a piece of writing, the thread of central meaning, the pattern and sequence, so long as it fits the central idea. Organizational structure can be based on comparison-contrast, deductive logic, point-by-point analysis, development of a central theme, chronological history of an event, or any of a dozen other identifiable patterns. When the organization is strong, the piece begins meaningfully and creates in the writer a sense of anticipation that is, ultimately, systematically fulfilled. Events proceed logically; information is given to the reader in the right doses at the right times so that the reader never loses interest. Connections are strong, which is another way of saying that bridges from one idea to the next hold up. The piece closes with a sense of resolution, tying up loose ends, bringing things to a satisfying closure, answering important questions while still leaving the reader something to think about.

Another aspect of writing is grammar. According to Frodesen and Holten (2003, p. 141), "for writing to be deemed "successful" to its overall purpose, it must conform to the conventions of English syntax and usage, generally referred to as grammar. Grammar is indisputably an essential element of second language writing instruction." As any piece of writing requires an absolute clarity of thoughts, a writer, unlike the speaker, must take a special course to ensure that there is nothing vague to the prospective readers. For the purpose of achieving that, the piece of writing should adhere strictly to a set of grammatical rules that govern the composition of sentences, phrases, and words, and combine together the different parts of speech to form grammatically correct sentences.

Style is another important variable that determines the overall quality of the piece of writing. It refers to "the manner of writing. It constitutes the collective characteristics of the writing, impression or way of presenting things" (Madhukar, 2005, p. 84). Style, therefore, must result from the integration of all components of writing to convey meaning in such a way that attracts the reader's attention and interest and inspires him to act in the writer's favors.

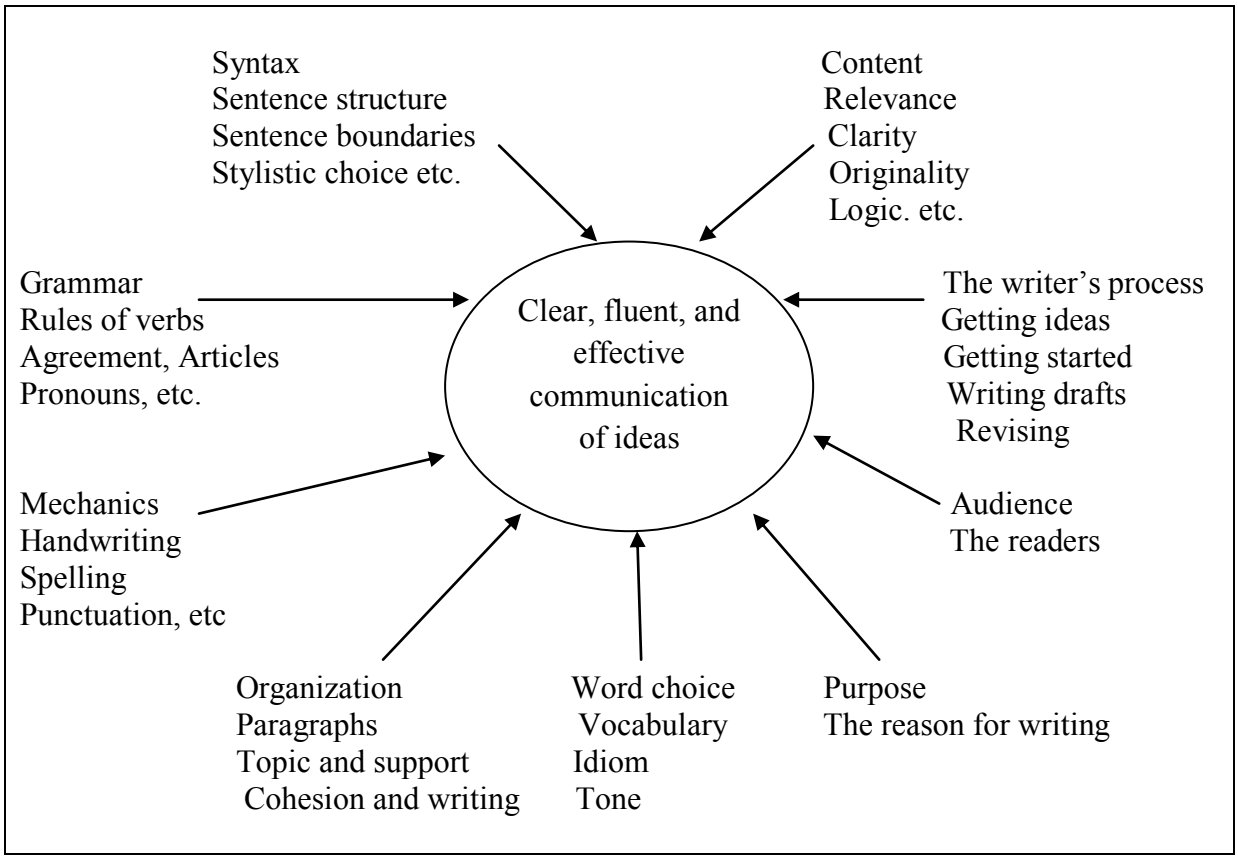
Mechanics, as a last aspect, refers to all the arbitrary technical features of writing such as spelling, punctuation, capitalization, etc. These are also called conventions of print which do not exist in oral language. If a piece of writing is not mechanically well written, readers will not bother to read it, either because it is too difficult to figure out, or they will not consider it to be good as it does not seem to be well-written. Work on this aspect is most successfully tackled at the end of a writing process.

Although the above aspects of writing are widely adopted, they are not the typical aspects that should be followed by all writers or teachers; they have been subjected to various classifications proposed by writing researchers. For example, they have been classified into six traits, as they are commonly called, to match other new curricula and meet some teachers'

concerns. These six traits are developed by teachers and researchers from Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (NWREL), including: ideas, organization, voice, word choice, sentence fluency, and conventions (Rog, 2011).

Besides the NWREL classification, Raimes (1983) proposes another set that includes content, the writer's process, audience, purpose, word choice, organization, mechanics, grammar, and syntax. Consider the figure below:

Figure 3.1. Aspects of Writing (Raimes, 1983, p. 00)



According to Raimes, when all the above aspects in the diagram are present in the piece of writing, then "a clear, fluent, and effective communication of ideas" is reached.

Differently, Harmer (2004) specifies three aspects which he sees as the most important in any written production and therefore learners must focus on. The first aspect refers to the content or subject matter, the second is the type of writing such as a shopping list, letter,

essay, report, or novel, and the third pertains to the medium such as pen and paper, computer word files, live chat.

Once the different aspects of writing are taught, one needs to practise what has been taught constantly and intensively. Without practice the learners could not make use of the different rules of composing. Further, writing in English necessitates essentially a full practice in relation to other skills. In other words, it is "only by hearing and reading a great deal of the language as it is spoken and written by native speakers can the foreigner acquire that feeling for the appropriate use of language forms and combinations which is basic to expressive writing (Rivers, 1968, p. 244).

In whatever way the aspects of writing are basically emphasized, they provide teachers with a more objective set of criteria for assessing writing and providing students with a framework for improving their own writing. As such, teachers should consistently teach these aspects, even coping with all of them concurrently is a lengthy and challenging process for many learners and that some of which are never fully achieved by native and non native language learners alike. As mentioned earlier, in this study, the emphasis was on the aspect of organization as second year students are supposed to master the basic organizational skills during this level. Collins and Gentner (1980, pp. 51-2) comment on that aspect as follows:

> 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 ….

3.1.5 Elements of Satisfactory Writing

As mentioned above, any composition draws upon a wide array of underlying variables. In fact, it is never that easy to characterize good composition for there is no effective formula or program for writing well. However, there are certain elements that are present in almost every well-made piece of writing. For example, clarity, coherence and focus are emphasized

by Carroll (1990) as the main elements of satisfactory writing. These three selected elements described below are especially appropriate for academic and expository writing.

One key to successful writing is the ability to write in multiple forms and for a variety of purposes. The clearer the language used, the easier the writer's purpose will be achieved, and the more likely the audience will respond to the message. In other words, the ability to write clearly is crucial to getting the content across. However, very often, students' writing is overshadowed by a concern with content, they tend to dazzle with style or bombard with information where clarity simply falls victim. Hence, before writing clearly, students need to be able to think clearly because writing is a matter of knowing what to mean and then say it and not vice versa. The following are some clarity problems discussed by Carroll (1990):

- Vagueness, ambiguity, or obscurity is one reason of clarity problems. Vagueness here pertains to the use of a word or expression that conveys a meaning which is not precise or definite.
- Clarity can be destroyed due to a word or expression that is used in another way. The main reason for such problem is students' carelessness. For example, they may use a pronoun whose referent is unclear or they use a word whose sense is not appropriate in a particular context.
- Sentence clarity can be affected by its grammatical structure. This problem reflects the fact that many students tend to say something but end up with saying another.
- Finally, incorrect word usage and convoluted sentence structure also contribute in making students write unclearly (pp. 4-5).

Additionally, an effective piece of writing should establish a single focus. By this latter, it is meant to stick with the central idea without running off on too many tangents that may confuse the reader and weaken the arguments. A focused writing clearly indicates the direction that the central idea will take. It should be stated at the beginning paragraph so that

readers know what writers are writing about and why (Carroll, 1990). Without a clear focus, writing degenerates into a series of loosely related events with no core idea to hold them together. A critical factor in establishing a focus is setting a goal. When writers know precisely what they want to achieve, they simultaneously know what they have to concentrate on and quickly eliminate the irrelevant information that can so easily lead them astray.

Closely related to focus in a piece of writing is coherence, which is taken to be as "clear connections between ideas, between sentences, and between paragraphs" (Carroll, 1990, p. 7). Chaining all these elements provides readers with a sense of what to expect, and thus, makes the act of reading easier. As a matter of fact, establishing coherence seems to be a difficult task for students who often have troubles putting a series of perfectly good sentences and paragraphs into order to make sense. They tend to focus almost entirely on the word and sentence levels rather than the level of the discourse, that is, coherence.

3.2 Teaching EFL Writing

3.2.1 Theory and Research

The growing field of SL/FL writing still expands theoretically and pedagogically among SL/FL writing scholars. According to Polio, exploring the theoretical background and the historical precedents of ESL/ EFL writing is of great importance, for an understanding of the basic theories and practices may assist the researchers to conduct studies from a well-grounded and critical standpoint (2003). An investigation about the historical accounts dealing with EFL writing may provide researchers with speculative thoughts about the different ways ESL/EFL writing theories and researches have been shaped (Raimes, 1998). Thus, without theoretically-grounded principles, matched with empirical researches, a particular method of teaching writing or research is unlikely to ensure an overall trustworthiness.

Although there is a plethora of studies on EFL/ ESL writing, the latter lacks an organized body of conclusive theory and research that could be used as a base for a straightforward introduction to the learning and teaching processes. Ferris and Hedgcock (2004, pp. 11-14) summarize the essential trends in ESL writing theories and researches since the 1960s, which involve a sequential emergence of competing foci. Each focus has its own theoretical basis and pedagogical emphasis. These foci are summarized as follows:

- "Focus on Discursive Form, Traditional Form, and Current-Traditional Rhetoric, 1966": This classical tendency has linked ESL/EFL writing approaches in the 1960s to the Audio-Lingual approach in second language teaching. It sought to strengthen patterns of language being learnt and to test learners' accurate application of grammatical rules.
- "Focus on the Writer: Expressionism and Cognitivism, 1976": This paradigm scrutinized the heuristics, cognitive strategies, and metacognitive processes used by writers as they plan, draft, revise, and edit their piece of writing.
- "Focus on Disciplinary Content and Discursive Practices, 1986": Here the focus on the content and genre instruction has occupied the researchers' and teachers' minds. They have called for building literacy around appropriate academic content.
- "Focus on Readers and Discursive Communities: Social Constructionism, 1986": As a reaction to the perceptions of writer-centered approach, reader-based and discourse-based instruction emerged in the late of 1980s. This framework is based on the belief that writers need to be well-trained in one or more academic discourse communities.
- "Focus on Sociopolitical Issues and Critical Pedagogy, 1990": In recent years, teachers and writing researchers started to deal with educational, ethical, and

political issues in second language writing instruction, including genre-oriented and socioliterate models. They thought that writing and the teaching of writing should always have social purposes.

3.2.2 Approaches to Teaching Writing

A portion of the difficulty of writing pedagogy lies with the way it has been approached vis-à vis the other language skills. From the historical standpoint, specifically before 1960s, writing as one of the communicative activities has been neglected compared with speaking which has influenced linguistics and EFL studies and has come to overshadow the importance of writing. After 1960s, however, writing has become increasingly interesting to EFL teachers and researchers. More importantly, it appeared as a field of inquiry with its own disciplinary infrastructure, and thus numerous approaches to the teaching of writing have emerged at different times. The following is an account of the most prevalent approaches to teaching FL writing adopted by Raimes (1983); each is based on a different set of assumptions about how writing skills are best developed. Although none can be subscribed to as the best one for teaching, for they all contain shortcomings, they have all contributed to the changing role and status of writing.

- **The Controlled to Free Approach**

From the mid of 1940 to the mid of 1960 the controlled or the guided composition was the predominant approach in the teaching of writing. The central teaching method during this era was the audiolingualism which laid a primary stress on oral skills. Thus, it is not surprising that from this perspective, writing was viewed as a secondary agenda that strengthens the speaking skills and not a goal of language learning. Raimes (1983) points out that in the controlled composition, the primary focus is on grammar, syntax, and mechanics. These writing features are privileged over concerns about ideas, organization and style. The

teacher's main role here is to design activities of systematic habit formation in an attempt to avoid errors. Students, according to Sharma (2004), should be given activities that include sentence construction, answering questions, continuous composition, composition prompted by pictures, writing out a given story, summarizing of reading matters, and book reports. With these controlled exercises, it is relatively easy for students to write a lot without being afraid of making any error. Once they achieve a mastery of these kinds of exercises, typically at an advanced level of proficiency, students are allowed to engage in entirely free writing.

- **The Free-Writing Approach**

It intends to give students manifold opportunities to capture thoughts and generate ideas without concern with the conventional rules of writing (Hogan, 2013). For the advocates of this approach, quantity is more valued over quality, and content and audience are the main concerns in writing. The teachers who adopt the free writing approach have a strong belief that once a certain degree of fluency is established and all fears of writing are eradicated, grammatical accuracy will follow. Thus, teachers may provide little or no written feedback in their classrooms, but simply have students read their pieces of free-writing to comment on the content (Raimes, 1983). According to Hogan (2013) Free writing can be used in two ways: focused and unfocused. Focused free-writing involves writing about a topic that has been posed as a means of discovering what the writers already know or think about it. In unfocused free-writing, the topic is entirely up to the writers to look into random thoughts in their minds. The free-writing approach may seem difficult for students at first, but by getting used to it, they get more fluent in writing.

- **The Paragraph Pattern Approach**

The underlying belief of the paragraph pattern approach is based on the assumption that writers from different cultures organize discourse differently. They must learn how large chunks of writing are structured into paragraph units. Regarding English language, Richards

and Burns (2012, p. 7) include that this approach focuses on "the use of topic sentences, supporting sentences, and transitions and practice with different functional patterns such as narration, description, comparison-contrast, and exposition". Some common writing activities, under this approach, require students to copy model paragraphs, analyze them, and write their own paragraphs imitating the organization of those models.

- **The Grammar – Syntax – Organization Approach**

As the name of the approach indicates, grammar, syntax, and organization are the main features to be taken into account in this approach (Raimes, 1983). The advocates of this approach hold the view that writing can not be regarded as composed of separate sub-skills which are learned sequentially. Students need to focus on several features of writing at once, and be guided and expected to see the connections between what they have written and what they actually need to write.

- **The Communicative Approach**

The students in the above approaches are not engaged in writing for communicative goals. Rather, they are writing to display their language and topic knowledge. In fact, writers do not write in a vacuum, but in a social context to convey a certain message to a certain audience. Thus, the theoretical base for this approach, according to Todd (2008, p. 56), is that "writing depends upon the relevant social situation instead of a linguistic structure". Focusing on the social context as one writes helps a writer to know what form of writing to select. For instance, one writes to instruct, to inform, to express ideas or an opinion, to direct, to debate and discuss, to persuade, to develop logical ideas, to describe, to entertain, to hypothesize, to summarize, to list, etc (Williams, 2002). Considering the context, writers need to focus on their audiences because all readers have expectations and all of them assume what they read will meet their expectation. In short, the writer role under this approach is to make sure those

expectations are met while at the same time fulfilling the purpose of writing and, less importantly, keeping an eye on certain language elements.

- **The Process Approach**

Process approach to teaching of English writing has been advocated in contrast with the abovementioned approaches that emphasize in one way or another final product. The proponents of this approach consider that the finished product is a result of complex nonlinear processes. According to Raimes, writing requires generating ideas, thinking of the purpose and audience, and writing many drafts before presenting the final product that communicates the intended ideas. All what students need is time to generate their ideas and feedback on the content during the drafting stage (1983).

- **The Genre Approach**

The process approach was deficient as it did not provide students with clear guidelines in how to construct different text types. Added to Raimes' approaches then is the genre approach which was developed in response to the process approach limitations. Hyland (2003, p. 18) reinforces that "genre-based pedagogies address this deficiency by offering students explicit and systematic explanations of the ways language functions in social contexts." Put differently, students are supposed to explore the complexities of how language works in different genres. The teacher in a genre-based class, as Hyland points out, should provide needed support in the form of scaffolding for the students whose cultural background or language skills make it difficult for them to produce the type of the texts required by course assignments.

A macroscopic view of the trends summarized so far indicates that there has been a reasonable shift in the approach of teaching writing, moving from the product approach that comprises the controlled to free writing, the paragraph pattern, the grammar–syntax–organization approaches to the communicative, process, and genre approaches. While

contrasting these approaches to the study of writing, one can conclude that none of them can exclusively work with the students in developing their writing abilities. The main criticism is based on the fact that all insights may fail to encompass all the basic writing elements that should be integrated into any successful approach. In short, the above approaches tend to stress specific aspects of writing which results to the neglect of others. As a solution to that dilemma, teachers should opt for the approaches which meet the students' needs in each stage of learning.

3.2.3 Factors Affecting EFL Writing

Understanding EFL writing entails in one way or another exploration of the factors that may interfere in the students' ESL/EFL writing achievement. When reviewing the literature, there are many factors that have generated as considerable amount of scholarly attention with the hope to improve the learners' writing quality, especially that the majority of SL/FL learners do not write well enough to meet the expectation of higher academics. According to Lenski and Verbruggen (2010) there are three major factors that can have a great influence on the students' written production. These include: first language proficiency, reading and listening proficiency, and quality writing instruction.

3.2.3.1 First Language Proficiency

First language is a significant area in second/ foreign language acquisition research. For example, first language proficiency is said to affect positively the students' writing performance (Lopez, 2005). Through their study, Kobayashi and Rinnet (2008) proved that L1 proficient students, who tend to have more writing strategies at their disposal, tend to be more proficient in SL/FL writing, despite the fact that not all L1 strategies are compatible with the expectations of FL/SL academic contexts. Moreover, Lenski and Verbruggen (2010) provide that older students and students who have been given an education in their home

country often improve their English writing proficiency more speedily than younger students or those who have been given slight opportunities to go to school.

However, in the light of the views coming from contrastive analysis, especially, in the area of first language writing proficiency, the main obstruction to second/ foreign language writing could stem from the influence of the first language system. For example, for Arabic students whose language is totally different from English language, first language proficiency may have a negative impact on their writing. In his study, Connor contends that writing achievement can be influenced by the factor of patterns and preferences of the first language. That is, when learners do not meet the expectations of the target language, they shift to apply some rhetorical preferences of their L1 (1996). Furthermore, there is a general agreement that when interlanguage students write in the target language, some of their L1 characteristics show up in their writing. For example, some students' pieces of writing contain grammatically correct sentences, appropriate vocabulary and content, but some sentences make more sense in the student's native language than in the target language.

First language proficiency could not be absolutely positive unless it is accompanied with FL proficiency. This latter, though it is time extensive to attain and sustain, it is a significant factor in improving the overall quality of the learners' written productions (Cumming, 2006; Berman, 1989; Roca et al., 2002; Sasaki, 2002; cited in Beare and Bourdges, 2007).

3.2.3.2 Reading and Listening Proficiency

This factor refers to the assumption that the more comprehensible input, either aural or written, the more it results to more writing development. As for reading, undoubtedly, part of being a proficient writer is being a proficient reader and vice versa. As it will be mentioned later, reading is proved to have a positive impact on the students' writing performance. Krashen (1984) theorizes that writing competence derives from the great deal of self-

motivated reading for pleasure or interest. However, reading may not sufficient solely, and therefore, it would be better to be strung along with other activities. Accordingly, Ferris and Hedgcock (1998; cited in Lenski and Verbruggen, 2010, p. 17) suggest, as activities, "writing to read, text analysis, and write-before-you-read."

Arguing for the significance of listening, it shares the basic cognitive processes as reading, but both they flood in two different input sources. Like reading, listening could be a fundamental channel of learning language, though it is often difficult and inaccessible for second/foreign language learners due to its implicit process. Shanahan (2006) asserts that writing competence is based on the structure of oral language development. He contends that writing is highly dependent on phonological awareness, lexicons, morphemes, syntactic structure, discourse organizations, and pragmatics. Furthermore, a study conducted by Berninger (2000) proves that the students in grade1-6 who taught through the aural skill have improved significantly their spelling, and those in grade 1-3 have improved their narrative and expository writing.

3.2.3.3 Quality Writing Instruction

The reason behind teaching EFL writing is to equip the students with the knowledge and skills to write effectively for a range of purposes and in a variety of contexts. To help the students do so, a range of instructional strategies has been reported in the literature to have an impact on improving the EFL/ESL writing. Lenski and Verbruggen (2010) point out that explicit instruction is more helpful than merely providing opportunities for writing. In accordance with the implementation of such strategy, many the researchers who believe that explicit instruction is one of the best strategies available for teaching writing such as Lee and Muncie (2006) and Rao (2007). Furthermore, Brindley and Schneider (2002) support that writing instruction should include a set of techniques and strategies as modeling, shared writing, guided writing, and interactive writing. Recently, incorporating technology as a

teaching strategy has been proved to develop the learners' writing skills as well (Yeh & Lo, 2009; Yang, Ko, & Chung, 2005; Drexler, Dawson, & Ferdig, 2007).

Another instructional related factor is feedback practices and assessment. Feedback is a significant part of the teaching cycle, and this significance has also been recognized by SL writing scholars (Ellis, 2010; Ferris, 2010; Sheen, 2010). It is a key component of SL/FL writing programs around the world, with process, genre, and product approaches all emphasizing it as a fundamental part of their instructional repertoires. While there are numerous ways to provide feedback, its practices that center on linguistic errors correction and margin comments from the part of the teacher are found to play a central role in most ESL/EFL writing classes. Recently, it is proved that peer feedback, oral conferences, and even computer delivered feedback are useful to improve the learners' written product quality (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Unarguably, another significant means of improving writing performance is assessment. On the one hand, it helps teachers and curriculum designers to plan and conduct writing instruction on the basis of the achieved outcomes. On the other hand, assessment helps students to improve their own writing performance as they can identify their strength and weaknesses.

Certainly, teaching writing and achieving improvement in large classes are challenging tasks an instructor may encounter because of many issues, some of which are related to time management, teacher stress and workloads, organization of classroom interaction, noise management and insurance of task attention, appropriate individual assessment, and the tackle of affective consequences for teachers and students (Byram & Hu, 2013).

If we are to understand the above factors, the psychological factors must be always viewed in concert with these factors, because understanding them tells us a good deal about the skill of writing and provides powerful insights into the psychological difficulties students writers often have. These factors include the assumption that the learners who are not

motivated to engage in learning, including the writing skill, are unlikely to succeed in the different aspects of language learning (Gottfried, 1990). According to Cunningham, Cunningham, Hall, & Moore (2005), the common reasons behind the learners' low motivation in writing are: lack of self efficacy in writing, lack of intrinsic motivation to write, and lack of independence in writing. As a teacher's job, therefore, he should minimize the learners' concentration on grades and maximize their involvement in and enjoyment of their writing through helping them find the writing assignment significant and encouraging them through risk taking. Similarly, self-confidence issues are very important too since they "affect people's choice of activities, how much effort they expend, and how long they will persist in the face of difficulties" (Bandura & Schunk, 1981, p. 587). If the learners lack the confidence in their writing abilities and feel unable to do certain writing tasks, they will not be able to write effectively. Next to motivation and self-confidence, writing anxiety is another psychological factor. Certainly, when the learners perform productive skills, including writing or speaking, they experience a considerable amount of anxiety (Hilleson, 1996; Zhang, 2001).

Of the preceding factors, reading and explicit instruction are the main factors related to this study. We aim at finding out that discourse structure aspects are better taught explicitly in writing through incorporating intensive reading.

3.2.4 Writing Assessment

In the context of education, assessment strives to bridge the gap between teaching and learning. It is a tool whereby teachers gather information about student learning. It can be employed for formative purposes: to develop or improve a program, or summative purposes: to render a judgment about the quality of the students' work after an instructional phase is complete (Fisher & Frey, 2007). In the specific domain of writing, assessment seems to offer excellent criteria for teaching and evaluating writing. It can be a product; the students' final paper evaluation takes place at the conclusion of the composition task, or a process; the

classroom evaluation occurs at many different stages throughout the process of writing and could come in many different forms.

The most common forms of written assessment are essays. To evaluate this latter, teachers need to design a set of written guidelines for distinguishing between essays of different qualities. Such written guidelines that explicitly represent the performance expectations for a piece of writing are called "rubrics" (Urquhart & McIver, 2005). According to Tompkins, Campbell, and Green (2012), "rubrics make the analysis of writing simpler, and the assessment process more reliable and consistent. They may have 4, 5 or 6 levels with descriptors related to ideas, language and mechanics at each level" (p. 56).

3.2.4.1 Types of Scoring Rubrics

Once teachers decide the different levels of rubrics, one of the decisions to be made is what type of scoring rubrics will be used: should a single score be given to the whole piece of writing, or should particular aspect of writing be scored separately? For such a purpose, Weigle (2002) categorizes three different scales for assigning ratings to students writing: holistic scales, analytic scales and primary trait scales.

3.2.4.1.1 Holistic and Analytic Scales

Holistic scoring is commonly used in large-scale assessment of writing. According to Patchell (1996), it is a tool for evaluating a paper based on its overall quality. This assessment views writing as a single entity which is best captured by a single scale that integrates all the skills. Raters should be affected by all the skills rather than being extremely affected by an important one. Some of the advantages of holistic scoring are summarized as follows:

- appropriate for ranking candidates
- suitable for arriving at a rapid overall rating
- Suitable for large-scale assessments-multiple markings (likely to enhance reliability)

- Useful for discriminating across a narrow range of assessment bands (Shaw & Weir, 2007, p. 153)

A commonly cited disadvantage of this method, however, emerges from the limitations of the single score which gives useful ranking information but no detailed feedback. It does not allow raters to distinguish between the different components of writing such as the control of grammar, vocabulary, organization etc. In supporting the shortcomings of this method, Martin-Kniep (2000, p. 35) reports "holistic rubrics have limited capability to obtain complete and correct data from students. This is not a useful method particularly for development of students with low or medium level performance."

As an alternative, analytic scoring method of assessing writing reflects the idea that the quality of writing is judged by taking into consideration components of writing separately such as organization, voice, focus, and mechanics (Babin & Harrison, 1999). This method allows teachers of writing to focus on several aspects of an individual's writing and score some traits higher than others. Unlike holistic scoring method, analytic scoring provides more detailed feedback to students writers on the areas of strength and weakness so that they can know whether they have made progress overtime in some or all aspects of writing. However, this method is not without flow, its practical disadvantages are:

- It is difficult to create and possible for teachers to disagree upon.
- It is time consuming activity.
- Writing can not be regarded as a sum of separate features.
- It failed to take into account the writer's content which leads to ignore the fact that essays may be directed to different audiences with different purposes (Babin & Harrison, 1999, p. 116).

3.2.4.1.2 The Primary Trait Scale

This is the least common types of scoring rubrics. Unlike the analytical scale which looks at the students' performance in different components of writing, primary trait scale stresses a specific attribute of performance considered most salient to the nature of the writing task. Llach (2011) says "in primary-trait scoring, a particular aspect of the writing task is

made prominent, and a detailed scoring rubric or a set of descriptors for that trait is designed against which writing performance is assessed" (p. 58). According to Weigle (2002, p. 110), primary trait scale comprises a number of components:

a- The writing task
b- A statement of the primary rhetorical trait (for example, persuasive essay congratulatory letter) elicited by the task.
c- A hypothesis about the expected performance on the task.
d- A statement of the relationship between the task and the primary trait.
e- A rating scale which articulates levels of performance.
f- Sample script at each level.
g- Explanations of why each script was scored as it was.

In spite the fact that it provides a detailed feedback and diagnosis and it is very specific in terms of items to be evaluated, "the lack of generalizability and the requirement to produce detailed rating protocols for each task, the primary trait approach is regarded as time-consuming and expensive to implement" (Shaw & Weir, 2007, p. 149). As such, it is usually kept for research purposes, where information is required regarding students performance in specific areas. In this study, the primary trait scale was designed so as to assess the students' use of discourse structure aspects and not the overall success of their papers.

3.3 Reading-Writing Connection

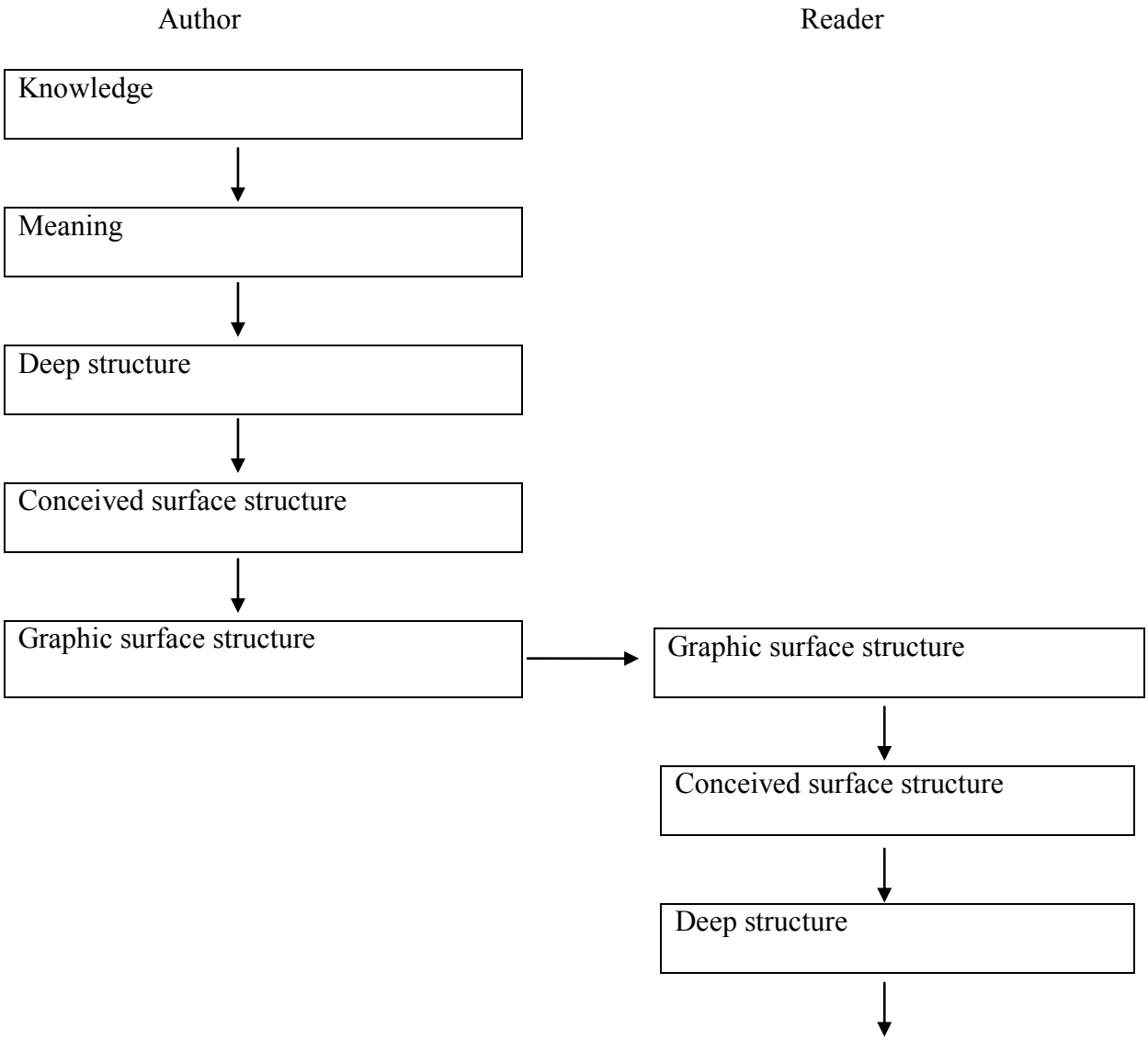
Reading and writing are two necessary skills that students need while learning a new language. The investigation of the relationship between them has a long history in educational research. Traditionally, the literature on the relationship between these two subjects was scant and most pedagogy separated between them. In part, this is because reading was seen as a passive act while writing as a productive one and thus active. Hirvela (2004, p. 9) asserts:

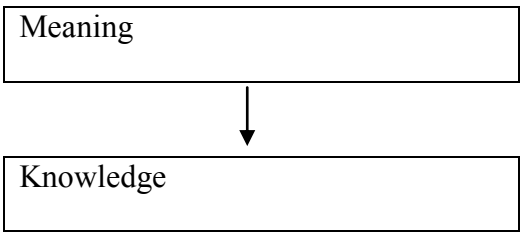
> While it was obvious that writing is an act of composing, it wasn't common in 1983 to think of reading in such terms. Then, reading was generally conceptualized as a passive act of decoding meaning and information in accordance with the intentions of the authors of a text. Furthermore, it was

> common practice then to teach reading separately from writing because of the way in which the two skills were divided: writing as an active skill and reading as a passive one.

Additionally, one of the reasons which made the researchers and teachers separate between reading and writing and therefore limit their studies and teaching respectively to only one of the skills over the past years was the belief that the reader's and writer's cognitive processes are inverse. In particular, they considered writing as a top down process; whereas, reading as a bottom up process. Page (1974, p. 176) illustrates these two inverse processes as follows:

Figure 3.2. Page's Concept of Reading and Writing





The main reasons indicated above lead some scholars to view reading and writing as two linguistically and pedagogically different skills. However, recently the researchers argue the opposite; they called for the necessity to introduce these two skills in an integrated way. More specifically, they are increasingly more interested in understanding the resources of the reading-writing relationship.

3.3.1 Major Reports of Reading-Writing Connections

Before embarking on reading- writing connection in L2, tracing the ongoing development of research in both L1 and L2 contexts is of great importance to know how scholars have treated that topic over the past years. The following, then, is a collection of the main reports of the reading-writing connection in L1 and L2 gathered by Hirvela (2004). In each report, themes of interest are identified.

3.3.1.1 Major Reports in L1

In a classical research study, Stotsky (1983) provided the first major review of reading-writing relationship from 1930 to 1980. In her review, she dealt with three major categories of studies: studies that examine correlation between reading and writing, studies that examine the impact of reading on writing, and studies that examine the impact of writing on reading. While the first category of studies investigates the possible relationships between both of the abilities of reading and writing, the last two categories investigate the influence of one of the skill on the other. Stotsky's synthesis of the findings in terms of the correlational studies indicated that good writers tend to be good readers and read more than poor writers.

Additionally, good readers are found to produce more syntactically mature writing than poor readers. The investigation of the influence of one skill, either reading or writing, on the other one indicated that the use of writing to improve reading can lead to positive results, while the opposite, from reading to writing, revealed no meaningful effects.

Following Stotsky's review, Tierney and Shanahan (1991) provided the next major state of research on reading-writing connections, including three main directions as well. The first direction refers to understanding the cognitive processes, linguistic resources, social resources, and knowledge base that reading and writing share. The second direction of research deals with the ways that the reader and writing transact with each other as they negotiate the making of meaning. The last direction focuses on how reading and writing can be used together to pursue different learning goals.

Another major report is Reinking and Bridwell-Bowles (cited 1991; in Hirvela, 2004) review of reading writing literature. They reviewed the incorporation of technology in the context of reading-writing connection. In particular, they examined the influence of computers on reading and writing as two related processes and skills. Reinking and Bridwell-Bowles themes of interest were the use of computers in reading and writing instruction as well as comparing the electronic texts with the conventional texts.

Tierney (1992) further provided another review supporting the significant role that technology plays in reading and writing instruction and research as well as exploring other areas of research in reading-writing relationships. Hirvela (2004, p. 16) mentions Tierney's topics of interest as follows: "intertextuality and integration, dynamic, complex, and situation-based thinking, multimedia and multilayered learning, assessment: new and better alternatives, reconceptualizing literacy, alternative assessment possibilities, and a pedagogy for empowerment".

Another major reading-writing relationship review has been outlined by Nelson (1998; cited in Hirvela, 2004). The focus of the review was on three areas: “the post critique”, “the communication revolution”, and “social constructionist turn”. First, post critique refers to the significance of intertextuality as opposed to dealing with texts individually and separately from each other. Second, communication revolution pertains to the kind of research which focuses on the effect of technology on reading and writing. Finally, social constructivist turn refers to the social context in which reading and writing take place and are affected.

Despite the different reviews’ focuses on the reading-writing relationship in the first language, each review has contributed, in one way or another, in establishing the conceptualization of reading-writing relationship. More importantly, L1 researches grouped in such reviews have served as a basis for researchers to explore the reading-writing relationship in L2.

3.3.1.2 L2 Major Reports in L2

Although a limited body of research has provided some insights into reading-writing relationship in L2 context, there does not appear to be a single area of research that has been conducted. Correlational studies, cognitive and social perspectives, interlingual transfer of information are the main scopes of L2 research. Among the researchers who have well explored the reading-writing connection researches in SL/Fl context are Carson and Leki (1993), Grabe (2001), and Hirvela (2004).

Carson and Leki (1993) wrote a book which reviews meaningful perspectives on L2 reading relationship. In particular, they reviewed researches related to the cognitive and social aspects of both reading and writing processes. Grabe (2001), on his part, collects papers providing different perspectives on the topic of reading-writing connections. These connections are most commonly discussed in terms of the effects of reading on writing, the use of reading in improving the students writing tasks, and the extent to which learning from

texts affects writing. In his review, Hirvela (2004) also speaks of three main directions of L2 reading-writing connection which are more addressed as subjects of researches. These include:

- Researches related to the importance of exposure to rhetorical and linguistic properties through reading.
- Researches which pertain to the interlingual transfer (transfer of L1 reading and writing skills).
- Researches about the social perspectives of reading and writing in academic discourse communities.

3.3.2 Understanding the Resources of Reading-Writing Connection

Central to the understanding of the relationship between reading and writing is the assumption that reading and writing are complementary processes. Tierney and Pearson (1983) were pioneers in the field of reading to propose that reading and writing employ similar processes of constructing meaning since both of them engage the students in the acts of composing. They argue that each step in the process of writing can be paralleled in the process of reading:

1- Plan: both readers and writers establish procedural and content specific purposes.
2- Draft: readers, like writers, put introductory mental drafts when they read.
3- Align: like writers who adapt their stances vis-à-vis the audience and topic, readers reset their roles with respect to the writer and content.
4- Revise: both readers and writers check their product as the process progresses; they reshape, edit, and correct.
5- Monitor: both readers and writers monitor and distance themselves to objectively evaluate the text, compare them to other texts, and revise them further. (Barnhouse & Vinton, 2012; Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000; Hirvela, 2004; Hudson, 2007; Shanahan & Tierney, 1990; Tierney & Pearson, 1983; cited in Ferris & Hedgcock, 2014, p. 95)

In terms of subskills, Taylor (1981) indicates the potential sameness of reading and writing in the figure below:

Figure 3.3. Reading-Writing Connection (Taylor, 1981, pp. 30-1)

Reading	Writing
Identifying the main idea	Formulating and phrasing the main idea
Finding support for the main idea	Supporting the main idea
Recognizing the sequence of sentences	Linking sentences to achieve coherence
Drawing inferences	Shaping inferences
Following organization of ideas and events	Arranging ideas and events in the logical order
Differentiating fact from opinion	Supporting an opinion with facts
Recognizing organizational patterns	Using appropriate organizational patterns
Drawing conclusions from ideas, stated or inferred	Writing deductively
Drawing conclusions from detail	Writing inductively
Detecting causal relationships	Analyzing a causal chain

Further, reading and writing are considered similar composing activities in that readers and writers use similar kinds of knowledge. Rubin and Hansen (1984, pp. 5- 15) identify five kinds as follows:

1- Information knowledge includes topical knowledge, grammatical background, and vocabulary.

2- Structural knowledge includes knowledge of structure of discourse and writing formulas that both readers and writers recognize to either comprehend or produce a text.

3- Transactional knowledge refers to the conceptualization of a text as a means of communication between writers and readers. In this case, writers consider the audience which affects their topic choice and revision, and readers question the writer's purpose and style.

4- Aesthetic knowledge involves the common devices favored by readers and writers such as style, topics …etc.

5- Process knowledge refers to the common steps that readers and writers go through to construct meaning.

Flower (1988) adds knowledge of purpose. She wonders how writers bring the sense of purpose, whether readers are influenced by the rhetorical structure chosen by the writers, and how individual purposes integrate with the context and convention to create and interpret a text.

Within the same context of knowledge and processes, Tierney and Shanahan (1991) in their article, *Research on the reading–writing relationship: Interactions, transactions, and outcomes*, highlight three fundamental directions underlying reading-writing relation.

1- Shared processing and knowledge resources in reading and writing. By this it is meant that knowledge that enhances reading is likely to enhance writing. Moreover, the processes employed by readers to understand texts are most likely similar to processes writers employ to produce texts.

2- Reading and writing as interactions between reader, writer, and text. This has been also discussed above. It highlights the notion of dialogue at a distance between the reader and writer through the means of written text.

3- Reading and writing as collaborative events. This implies that integrating reading and writing into classroom experiences can serve to reinforce each other and produce even greater benefits than if they are used alone.

Another area that drew more specifically on the issue of reading-writing connection refers to directionality. Eisterhold (1990) offers three models of describing how reading and writing may be related: the directional hypothesis, the nondirectional hypothesis, and the bidirectional hypothesis.

To elaborate, the directional hypothesis states that reading and writing are acquired using the same structural components and that once this has been acquired for one modality, it can be transferred to the other modality. This hypothesis or model is called directional because the transfer proceeds in only one direction, that is, either from reading to writing or from writing to reading. Although there is considerable evidence for both directional perspectives, Eisterhold (1990) argues that reading to write is the most common directional model. The argument is that reading has been proved to have a positive impact on writing and this latter does not necessarily have an impact on reading.

In the nondirectional hypothesis, the reading-writing relationship is nondirectional. In other words, reading and writing derive from the same cognitive processes of constructing meaning and transfer can happen simultaneously at either direction: from reading to writing or from writing to reading.

Finally, the bidirectional hypothesis posits that reading and writing are interactive and independent as well. This view of the reading-writing relationship focuses on the multiple processes and relations that make up this relationship.

Some other researches provided relatively similar resources of the reading-writing relationship. For example, Savage (1998) proposes three scopes of connection: meaning connection, language connection, and instructional connection. While the first two kinds of

connections have been mentioned above by other researchers, the instructional connection has been discussed by Shanahan (1988) in his article 'the reading-writing relationship: seven instructional principles'. These principles are:

1- The necessity of teaching both reading and writing.
2- Introducing reading and writing from the earliest years.
3- The relationships between reading and writing must be emphasized in different ways, considering the developmental stages of the students.
4- The reading-writing relationships need to be taught explicitly.
5- The focus should be on content and process relations.
6- Communication between reading and writing should be stressed.
7- The teaching of reading and writing should be in context.

3.3.3 Reading-Writing Connection in L2/FL

L1 studies which have been conducted in many ways supported the assertion that there is a positive relationship between reading and writing (Evanechko, Ollila, & Armstrong, 1974; Grobe & Grobe, 1977; Eckhoff, 1983). The question one might ask is whether the same relationship exists in L2/FL.

Carson and Leki (1993) and Hirvela (2004) provide that various influences might apply to L2 in regard to reading-writing connection and that one should take caution when applying L1 issues directly to SL/FL context. Moreover, Flahine and Bailey (1993) describe the generalization derived from L1 into L2 reading-writing connection as tentative, and therefore more studies need to be conducted in L2, they add. In another instance, Carson and Leki (1993) claim that contrastive research in both L1 and L2 reading-writing connection is scant, the fact which makes us uncertain about the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 reading-writing connection.

Reviewing the literature, few researchers examined the reading-writing relationship in L2 in comparison to L1. It was found that other factors, like L2 language proficiency, L1 literacy skills, or mother tongue rhetorical preferences may play a relevant role in identifying such relationship between reading and writing in L2. For Grabe (2003), the most influential approaches developed over the years to account for this relationship in the target language follow one of the following hypotheses:

1- The Interdependence Hypothesis proposes that "the level of L2 competence which a bilingual child attains is particularly a function of the type of competence the child has developed in L1 at the time when intensive exposure to L2 begins" (Cummins, 1979, p. 233). Based on Cummins's claim, L1 literacy development makes possible the development of similar literacy ability in L2 (Grabe, 2003).

2- Language Threshold Hypothesis conflicts with the above hypothesis, which maintains that literacy development in L1 is accomplished once, at least at the beginning of exposure to the second language. The threshold hypothesis, according to Grabe (2003, p. 248), implies that students must have an adequate amount of L2 knowledge to make transfer of L1 literacy skills to L2.

3- The Extensive Reading Hypothesis, simply, proposes that writing skills can be improved through extensive reading (Grabe, 2003). This last hypothesis was first put forward in the input hypothesis by Krashen (1984).

Like in L1 context, reading-writing connection in L2 is also regarded in terms of directionality: the impact of reading on writing or vice versa (the directional hypothesis); no direct relationship exists between reading and writing (the nondirectional hypothesis); or reading and writing have an impact on each other (the bidirectional hypothesis). Eisterhold (1990) believes that such hypotheses can offer "the second language writing teachers a valuable perspective on reading-writing interactions in the writing classroom" (p. 93).

Of the preceding hypotheses, most of the researches in L2 reading-writing relationship were limited to test Krashen's reading input hypothesis, an extension to his theory of comprehensible input, or the notion of directionality, mainly the reading-to write model. Similar to the context of this research work, these L2 researches emphasize the importance of reading in writing improvement, especially in terms of rhetorical organization, content information, and language use.

3.3.3.1 Reading to Write

The different terms used to describe the direction 'from reading to writing' are "reading for writing", "reading to write", "reading while writing", and "writely reading" (Hirvela, 2004, p. 110). Flower et al. (1990, p. 4) refer to this kind of directionality as "a tool used to learn, to test leaning, and to push students to build beyond their sources". Apart this broad definition, and more specifically, Carson and Leki point out "the phrase reading for writing can be understood as referring most specifically to the literacy event in which readers/writers use text (s) that they read, or have read, as a basis for text (s) that they write" (1993, p. 85).

To expound further this term, Delaney (2008) holds that reading to write can be viewed from two perspectives: pedagogical and theoretical. While the pedagogical perspective is linked to the instructional tasks that integrate reading and writing for many educational goals, the theoretical perspective pertains to the underlying abilities shown by the learners to accomplish these tasks. Delaney adds that the construct of reading to write is a reading, writing, or constructivist based approach, depending on the importance given to the skills evolved.

In reading-based approach, reading to write refers to either reading to learn or reading to integrate information (Delaney). The former, according to Enright et. al., requires the learners to recognize the larger organizational pattern that structure the information in a given text and perform a task revealing awareness of these larger organizing frames. The latter or

reading to integrate information requires the learners to integrate information from different sources, working across two or more text to create an organizational pattern that is not stated explicitly (2000). In the writing-based approach, the reading to write central issue is reading comprehension which serves three different purposes: accessing topic knowledge, understanding the task, and revising or evaluating the written outcome. Finally, from the constructivist perspective, reading to write is a tool to construct meaning, and this latter occurs by means of three key textual processes: organizing, selecting, and connecting (Delaney). Of the preceding three approaches, of course, the reading-based approach to the construct of reading to write, specifically reading to learn, represents the current study concern.

3.3.3.2.1 The Importance of Reading in Writing

Part of being a good learner rests upon the fact that we read. In applying this in the context of writing, many the researchers who are in agreement with the statement that reading is important for writing. For example, Flower and Hayes (1980, p. 28) say "a well-read person simply has a much longer and richer set of images of what a text can look like". Smith (1983, p. 560) by the same token states "everything points to the necessity of learning to write from what we read". In the words of Eisterhold (1990, p. 88), "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."

In considering the importance of reading as a recommended tool in the composition course, reading can serve different purposes. For example, it was found to exponentially enrich the learners' vocabulary (Grabe, 2003; Hyland, 2003; Weigle, 2002). Moreover, through reading, the learners may grasp the art of language (Grabe, 2003; Vandrick, 2003). In the area of skills and strategies related to the acquisition of writing, reading is also useful

(Grabe, 2003; Hyland, 2003; Weigle, 2002). In another instance, reading can serve as the best tool to acquire the rhetorical and textual organization of the target language (Grabe, 2003; Eisterhold, 1990). As the context of the current study relates to this last purpose, it is worthy to highlight Hirvela's quote:

> Exposure to texts through reading has probably contributed to their [students] acquisition of understanding about writing and those features that constitute writing: the rhetorical strategies, cohesive devices, and other tools of writing that writers use to present their ideas. Acquiring such knowledge from reading should eventually assist students while writing by equipping them with helpful knowledge of writing strategies and techniques.
>
> (2004, p. 2)

3.3.4 Teaching Reading-Writing Connection

As noted earlier, most of the researches on L2 reading-writing connection were conducted in consideration to the theory of comprehensible input advocated by Krashen (1980). It has been proved that reading is a major factor in the success of learning to write in the target language. Nation (2009) supports that extensive reading programs provide students with opportunities to enjoy both reading and writing. Similarly, Grabe (2003) claims that wide reading has a positive impact on learners' writing abilities. However, instruction is said to be constrained by long-term commitment so that it can be positive. Krashen (1993) points out that the researches conducted on free reading reveal better results if they last for as long as one year or more.

Besides the significance of time constraint, explicit instruction is crucial for the reading-writing connection (Leki, 1993). Mayo (2000, p. 74) declares that "it is not enough to tell students that reading more will make them better writers; the reading/writing connection needs to be made explicit". Shanahan (1988), on his part, suggests seven instructional principles for teaching reading-writing connection. One of them requires the explicitness of this connection since the transfer is not automatic. Moreover, Glazer (1973) recommends

making the reading-writing connection explicit through engaging students in reading discussion to improve their writing.

Other researches went further and investigated further instructional aspects. For example, Shanahan (1990) demonstrates the importance of developing the awareness of the writers through reading their texts, Spaulding (1992) proposes to use similar motivational techniques for teaching both reading and writing, and Langer (1992) discusses the developmental steps that students can go through when they read and write the different types of expository texts.

Reading also can be an indispensible part to teaching some writing techniques and textual features. For instance, Grabe (2009) considers reading as the best tool to have students take notes, paraphrase, analyze, and synthesize information. Moreover, relatively similar to the context of this study, Austin (1983) conducted a study, investigating the role of text analysis of rhetorical structure in the writing of college freshmen. He concludes that reading is effective for ESL/EFL learners to take advantage of improving their writing, but it is more effective if it is intertwined with the analysis of rhetorical structure.

Conclusion

This chapter has defined and explained some basic concepts and constructs related to the skill of writing. As it has been seen, writing is of great importance and can not be taken as simply a shadow cast by speech, but rather as a skill that requires the production of a more grammatically and coherently complete language. Further, it has been pointed out that although writing has been neglected before 1960, as one of the communicative activities, it has become increasingly interesting to EFL teachers and researchers who adopt many prevalent approaches to teach it; all of them contributed to the changing of its role and status. Additionally, it has been theoretically clarified how reading and writing can be related. More

importantly, the chapter was helpful to gain theoretical insights about the significance of incorporating reading in the composition course.

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Chapter Four

Research Methodology and Procedures

Introduction

The current chapter provides an overview of the methodological design and the steps that constitute the process of carrying out the study. Particularly, this chapter describes how the research was conducted, including detailed descriptions of the participants, research design, methods, and instruments. Thereafter, the procedures followed throughout the research period were depicted in details starting with the pilot study and ending with the main study. The statistical tools used in computation were displayed at the end of this chapter.

4.1 Research Methodology

4.1.1 Sampling and Research Participants

The first stage in selecting the representative informants is to identify the population. Theoretically speaking, the population in researches is "the entire group of individuals to be considered" (Kalat, 2011, p. 38). To ensure that the informants can be used to generate data from the entire population, two major techniques of selecting a sample, "subset of people from the population who actually participate in the study" (Jackson, 2011, p. 100), are available: probability sampling and nonprobability sampling.

Probability sampling is a technique used when "each member of the population has an equal likehood of being selected to be part of the sample" (Jackson, 2011, p. 100). This kind of sampling in turn consists of three types: random sampling (each individual of the population is given an equal chance to be selected as part of the study), stratified sampling (the entire population is divided to different sub-groups with specific characteristics and a random sample is selected according to these characteristics), and cluster sampling (the entire population is already divided to groups or clusters and a random group or groups are taken as

samples). Nonprobability sampling, on the other hand, is the sampling technique where the sample is collected in a process that does not give all the individual members of the population an equal chance to be selected. It comprises two sub-types: convenience sampling (taking the participant who are conveniently available), and quota sampling (deciding in advance certain characteristic that the study needs), Jackson (2011, pp. 100-2) explains. Besides the two types of nonprobability sampling discussed by Jackson, Zikmund and Babin (2007) add the judgment or purposive sampling type. This refers to the selection of the sample according to specific purposes, even when the sample is not fully representative. As such, considering the sampling techniques available, a combination of cluster random sampling for EFL students and judgment sampling for EFL teachers was used in this study.

4.1.1.1 Students' Participants

The researcher selected second year LMD students of the English department at Constantine University, during the academic year 2012-2013 as a population of the current study. It was limited to second year instead of first year, for knowing that untill second year that the students get introduced to the requirement of essay writing, particularly the expository mode which is our concern. Further, the choice of second year population rather than third year came from the assumption that writing organization should be mastered at the beginning levels so that the students can go beyond the basics and pursue other aspects with less anxiety in the higher level.

The students of the selected population had formally studied English for at least eight years at different educational stages. At the university level, they are prepared over a period of three years for getting a 'License degree' in English as a foreign language. During the first two years of education, they all have to attend the same kind of English courses such as Written Expression, Oral Expression, Grammar …etc. However, once in third year, the students belonging to a particular branch receive different courses in separate groups. Thus,

we may consider the English proficiency level of second year students as approximately the same.

Second year students population, to which we wish to generalize the findings of the study, comprises a total of approximately 800 students clustered over fourteen groups. From that parent population, the teacher researcher was fortunate to be given two groups to teach the module of Written Expression with the highly demands on this module. It is worth mentioning that during this academic year, many doctorate candidates were conducting different experiments as well. Accordingly, this would have affected the researcher's choice of having a larger sample. Initially, the sample consisted of 76 students, but later on six of them were discarded from either the experimental group or the control group. Four students declined from the instruction restriction; they have written paragraphs either in the pre-test or in the post-test instead of a full essay, while the remaining two students were deliberately eliminated by the researcher due to their frequent absences during the time of treatment.

The remaining sample who accompanied the teacher researcher until the end of the experiment was 70 participants assigned into experimental group and control group (35 participants per group). Their ages ranged from 19 to 26 years old. The number of female participants amounted to 54, whereas that of the male participants corresponded to 16, the fact which reflects the gender bias within the English department as a whole. The two groups were equally instructed by the same teacher researcher; however, the major difference between the two conditions is that the control group was taught differently from the experimental group. Lastly, the participants were not informed that they were taking part in a research study for the sake of avoiding the biasing of the experiment's results.

4.1.1.2 Teachers' Participants

Furthermore, the study was conducted with the participation of EFL teachers. We intended to exhibit basically their standpoints concerning the incorporation of reading in the

composition course as well as teaching written discourse structure levels in writing. Actually, part time teachers who hold MA and who are preparing their doctorate theses seem to constitute a considerable number of the teachers' population in the department of English at Constantine University, of course, in collaboration with full time teachers whose being there is notably weighty. As detailed earlier, a sample of teachers was selected from this population on the basis of purposive sampling. The researcher selected the teachers intentionally as they are involved in teaching the module of Written Expression with at least two years of experience. The teacher participants were both females and males (8 females and 6 males). Their experience of teaching EFL writing varies substantially (from 2 years to more than 25 years). Moreover, their levels of qualification are as follows: 11 teachers hold MA and 3 teachers hold PHD.

4.1.2 Research Design

Research design is the main subsequent step of a research after the identification of the problem and the formulation of the hypothesis. According to Zikmund and Babin (2007, p. 64) it "provides a framework or plan of action for the research". In the current study, the experimental and descriptive research types were the relevant research strategies. Descriptive research is typically carried out to explore a variable or a set of variables as they exist naturally. It is mainly concerned with describing individual variables than investigating the causal relationship between the variables (Gravetter & Forzano, 2011). Here, descriptive approach was used partially as closing research to report the students and teachers' attitudes toward some relevant research areas. In addition, it was used to find out about the major problems linked to aspects of discourse structure levels and which encountered in the students' pre-writing test.

The experimental research, on the other hand, is "the only research method in psychology that allows for systematically observing causal relationships between variables."

(Dumont, 2009, p. 17). The variables which constitute this research are classified under the sub-headings 'independent variable' and 'dependent variable'. This distinction is crucial to experimental research as it reveals how the independent variable affects in the dependent variable.

In the current context, investigating the influence of the independent variable (teaching discourse macrostructure and microstructure through reading paradigms) on the dependent variable (students' performance in writing) was based on pretest–posttest control group design. Kraska (2010, p. 1169) provides an inclusive description of this design as follows:

> A pretest is administered to a control group and an experimental group prior to the administration of the treatment. After the experiment, a posttest is administered to both groups, and gain scores from the pretest to the posttest may be compared. Statistically, differences between gain score means may be computed using a t-test for independent samples if only two groups are involved.

Explicit in the use of pretest–posttest control group design, therefore, was the nature of the variables under consideration. The independent variables contain two groups of students: the experimental group students who were taught aspects of discourse structure levels explicitly and equally through reading and the control group students who were taught some of the said aspects unequally and differently. As for the dependent variables, they consist of the writing tests scores which both groups obtained before and after the treatment.

4.1.3 Research Methods

Scientifically, most educational researches typically adopt two major methods for collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data: quantitative and qualitative (Denzin, 2009). In this study, the quantitative method appeared to be more used as it is appropriate to the nature of the research.

4.1.4 Data Collection Instruments

The validity and reliability of any research results depend to a large extent on the appropriateness of the instruments used. These instruments which include different types such as questionnaires, tests, interviews, and observations vary in their complexity, design, administration, and interpretation. Moreover, each instrument is apt for the collection of certain types of evidences and information. In accordance with the experimental and descriptive nature of the methodological decision opted for in the current study, data collection was based on the students' test and students' and teachers' questionnaires. This combination, in fact, was used for three main reasons: to confirm the hypotheses, provide a richer detail and analysis, and to confirm and corroborate the obtained results from each instrument.

4.1.4.1 Writing Tests

Tests are among the most significant instruments used in educational research as they provide the data for most experimental and descriptive studies. Very often, they are used to measure skills, aptitudes, and behaviors of a group of individuals. In this study, two tests were used as a form of measurement of the students' writing performance for the purpose of confirming or disconfirming the former hypothesis of this research. More specifically, the researcher was interested to measure the use of aspects of discourse structure levels in the students writing before and after the treatment. As such, a writing pre-test was administered prior to the beginning of the treatment and a post-test following it. Further details are reported throughout this chapter.

4.1.4.2 Students' and Teachers' Questionnaire

Other useful instruments used extensively in collecting data are questionnaires. They are "any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements

to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers" (Brown, 2001, p. 6). In the current study, two questionnaires were designed. The first questionnaire was addressed to the experimental group participants to elicit their attitudes toward using reading as a means to teach discourse structure levels as well as to elicit their feedback about the treatment that they were part of it. The second questionnaire was given to second year Written Expression teachers to demonstrate their attitudes and beliefs about nearly the same themes addressed in the students' questionnaire. Again, further details will be displayed throughout this chapter.

4.2 Research Procedures

Once the research design was completed, the researcher shifted to the application step by step. Before embarking on the main study procedures, it is worthy to mention that a pilot study was conducted foremost to find the bugs in these procedures.

4.2.1 Piloting the Study

Very often, the direct implementation of the research experiments could be risky, leading to dire consequences. Pilot study could be an important initial step to avoid any kind of practical problems which a researcher may encounter during conducting a research. Anderson and Arsenault (2004, pp. 11- 12) refer to the pilot study as:

> A small scale study conducted prior to the actual research. The entire pilot study is conducted in order to test the procedures and techniques to that they work satisfactory. Additionally, pilot studies are used to test questionnaires and other instruments and to see whether there is any possibility that worthwhile results will be found.

The pilot study of the current research was the initial step of the practical application of the experiment, as well as the initial step of the use of the students and teachers' questionnaires.

4.2.1.1 The experiment

4.2.1.1.1 Description

The students writing tests were not piloted because the instructions were simple and therefore comprehensible. Moreover, it was not possible to conduct a pilot study with its detailed procedures, with the same participants, during the same academic year 2012- 2013, because the time devoted to the main study would not be sufficient. Given this situation, a pilot study was undertaken in 2011- 2012 in the English department at Constantine University 1 with other participants who share the same characteristics with the participants of the main study. In other terms, during the academic year of 2011- 2012, the participants of the main study were in first year, while those whom the researcher conducted with the pilot study were in second year. Actually, during that year, the researcher did not intend to reach conclusions but, rather, to get properly prepared for the experiment which would take place the next year with other participants. Through the pilot study, the researcher endeavored to:

1- Design carefully the experiment.
2- Train himself and get accustomed with the aspects of the experiment.
3- Identify the potential practical problems which may occur while teaching aspects of discourse structure levels or when using reading as a means to teach these levels of discourse.
4- Discard or re-examine the difficult aspects of discourse structure.
5- Try out the selected texts used for the experiment.
6- Record approximately the time needed for conducting the experiment.

To attain the aforesaid aims, primary data was gleaned from the researcher classroom observation and secondary data from a conversation with the student participants. As obtaining final results was out of the researcher concerns, she reported what happens in the

pilot study qualitatively for the sake of describing only the design and the changes which took place in the main study.

The researcher carried out eight observation sessions in total. The duration of each was 30 minutes. She exclusively limited to observe what took place with regards to the aims set for the pilot study. She provided a description according to three dimensions: teaching aspects of discourse structure levels, time allocated, and the texts used in teaching (See Appendix E). The researcher recorded field notes by writing down short words or phrases which serve as prompts to a full interpretation after leaving the field.

As stated earlier, the pilot study took place in the English department at Constantine University 1. The participants were 39 second year students (32 female and 7 males). Five participants were not attending the course regularly during the observation sessions. As for the reading materials, they were selected from "Practical Faster Reading" by Mosback and Mosback (1976) and "More Reading Power" by Mikulecky and Jeferies (2001; 2004); in addition to the different texts available either in the different web sites or for teaching the module of second year Written Expression.

In each observation session, the teacher researcher engaged the students in reading, focusing on the analysis of a specific aspect of discourse structure level. The first three sessions were devoted to the rhetorical structures of expository writing, the second two sessions were about the macrostructures of written discourse (main ideas and their locations), and the last three sessions were left to deal with discourse microstructure; that is, each session was devoted to thematic progression patterns, cohesive devices, and coherence relations respectively.

More specifically, each time the teacher researcher focuses on a specific aspect, he provides the students with a particular text to read first and discuss its content with them, then he moves to introduce the selected aspect through referring to it. The students, after that, are

provided with other texts and are asked to analyze the selected aspect and demonstrate it to the class for a whole discussion.

Besides classroom observation, the researcher undertook a conversation with the student participants in order to understand which aspect of discourse structure levels was challenging to them. Further to that, the researcher sought to know their reactions toward using reading as a means to teach written discourse structure. This informal conversation with the students was useful as it provided the researcher with interesting details that he could not notice during the observation.

4.2.1.1.2 Results and Discussion

First, the results regarding teaching the selected aspects of discourse structure levels seemed to be problematic in some areas. The researcher noticed and even confirmed from the conversation with the students that it was difficult for the participants to understand the selected aspects directly from reading and analyzing texts, especially aspects of discourse microstructure which need detailed analysis to be grasped. Some students showed discomfort in the lectures of discourse devices and thematic progression patterns, the reason why they bombarded the teacher with a series of questions. This was quite reasonable as these two aspects were new for them and difficult even to those who are familiar with them. Another noticed problematic area was in teaching the rhetorical patterns of expository writing. In particular, comparison/contrast and problem/solution patterns were the most difficult patterns in comparison with the other patterns. Accordingly, based on the preliminary findings, the researcher decided to provide the students with theoretical handouts about each aspect of discourse structure levels to make foremost the students familiar with and then to use reading as a reinforcement. In other words, reading should be preceded by an introduction of these aspects through using different strategies to ensure a better and smoother comprehension of discourse structure.

As far as the selected texts are concerned, the researcher observed that some texts engendered a great difficulty for the students, especially the texts selected from "*Practical Faster Reading*" by Mosback and Mosback (1976). Though the said book is addressed to the target participants, they encountered difficulties to understand the content of texts. This could be an evident sign of the students' low reading abilities. As such, the researcher took this point into consideration and decided to discard any text which may decline him from the ultimate purpose of the research. In particular, he got rid of three texts taken from the aforementioned source. Most of the text used in the main study, then, were selected from the different essays which most teachers used to select while teaching second year Written Expression or the ones found in the different web sites, in addition to the two remaining sources stated previously by Mikulecky and Jeferies (2001; 2004).

The time allocated for teaching each aspect of discourse structure was also taken into consideration during the observation. It was clear that spending thirty minutes in reading assignments was not sufficient, especially the students were supposed to deal foremost with the content, the analysis of discourse structure aspects, and the whole discussion which would take place before the writing assignments in the main study. Additionally, one session for each aspect of discourse structure seemed to be insufficient to grasp the aspect effectively. On this account, the researcher concluded that the reading assignments' time should be increased without omitting to consider the time allocated for the writing assignment and the need for other sessions.

Regarding the students' reactions and attitudes toward incorporating reading in the writing course, the conversation which the researcher made with the student participants in the classroom revealed that the students enjoyed the reading assignments, especially when the texts were free from difficult terms and expressions. They added that it was good to negotiate with each other during the analysis of aspects of discourse. However, what annoyed them

were some concepts which were difficult for them to grasp such as thematic progression patterns and cohesive devices.

In summary, although the pilot study findings of the experiment revealed that there were some shortcomings, it could provide the researcher with some valuable insights. First, the researcher could identify the areas which might engender difficulties for the students. For example, teaching some aspects of discourse structure directly through reading and without preliminary theoretical basis could not be so useful. As such, the researcher proposed to give students handouts about each aspect so that they get familiar with them before the analysis. Second, the pilot study was a good attempt to try out the difficulty of the selected texts. Third, the pilot study allowed the researcher to reconsider the time allocated for the experiment. Finally, as the students' participants showed a positive attitude toward the reading assignments in the course of writing, the researcher maintained reading for writing as the main means for teaching.

4.2.1.2 Students' and Teachers' Questionnaires

Once the students and teachers' questionnaires were formulated, the researcher felt that piloting them is paramount. The aim was to check that the design works in practice and to point out, amend or discard the problematic questions. Any problem related to the content, layout, wording, length, or instructions was uncovered and amended accordingly.

The students' questionnaire distributed to seven participants of the main study out of thirty five participants of the experimental group to whom the questionnaire was targeted. On the other hand, the first draft of the teachers' questionnaire was sent to three teachers in the field for commenting. After receiving the students and teachers' comments, the researcher reworked the questionnaires based on the comments obtained. Undoubtedly, some items of the questionnaires were revised and modified, others were removed at all for they did not

provide pertinent data, and some others were appended to ensure getting the required information.

4.2.2 Conducting the Main Study

The procedures followed in the main study are as follows:

4.2.2.1 The Pre-test

At the beginning of the treatment, both experimental group and control group took the pre-writing test concurrently. It was designed for the purpose of assessing the students writing performance in terms of the appropriate use of some selected aspects of discourse structure levels and for making sure that there is no significant difference between the performance of the experimental and control group participants. Ultimately, the writing pre-test aim was to evince the participants' main writing stumbling blocks regarding the use of aspects of written discourse structure.

The pre-test consisted of a writing assignment which had to be completed in the classroom circumstances. It was dealt with in one of the regular writing sessions which lasted ninety minutes. The key requirement of the assignment was to produce an essay with not less than 250 words about the topic of "people do many things to stay healthy". In fact, the participants were given a ternary choice of the topic, but it eventually fell on the mentioned topic, because, according to them, it was the most familiar, interesting, and motivating.

Generally, the pre-test can be described as a simplified assignment since the instruction purposefully did not direct the participants' attention to the test's aim. It was entirely up to the subjects to fulfill the requirement according to their own interpretation. In other words, the statement of the topic was deliberately worded that way (See appendix A) so that the subjects themselves decide how to organize the essay on the basis of the topic and their interpretation. An extra advantage of this open approach was that it avoided making the task impossible for

the participants who had no knowledge of how a particular kind of expository essay should be structured. The unique emphasis of the instruction was on the words number of the essay. The aim was to ensure that all the participants would develop adequate sentences needed in the analysis, because the rubric guidelines of some aspects of written discourse structure are based on estimating the frequency of errors. The longer the essay is the more the errors can be seen in the participants' essays. Once the participants completed the pre-test, their copies were gathered for analyzing, assessing, and scoring.

4.2.2.1.1 Assessing the Pre-test

As detailed earlier in the theoretical account, there are three prominent ways of assessing students' written productions: analytic, holistic, and primary trait scales. Frequently used, the holistic scale reflects the rater's overall impression of the writing and therefore a single mark is assigned to the entire piece of writing. Analytic scale, on the other hand, provides separate scores in predetermined areas of effective writing like content, organization, grammar, etc. Trait primary scale offers some feedback potential for a particular aspect of written production which improves the ultimate accomplishment of the purpose.

Although the last scale is the least common scoring type in assessing writing, it is usually reserved for research situations or situations in which data are desired concerning students' mastery of specific writing aspects or skills. As the current study is concerned with bringing discourse dimensions in writing, the primary trait is written discourse organization. For this sake, the researcher has suggested six aspects arranged under two main levels of discourse for the evaluation of that trait. These levels and aspects include: discourse macrostructure (introduction organization, body organization, and conclusion organization) and discourse microstructure (thematic progression patterns, cohesive elements, and coherence relations).

Once the aforementioned aspects have been intelligibly established, the researcher has shifted to establish a relevant scoring system that could measure appropriately the performance of the experimental and control group participants. The researcher first examined equally the three aspects of discourse macrostructure along with aspects of discourse microstructure. Then, each aspect was given a score which was allocated in the rating scale from 05 points to 00 according to a specific guideline. In other words, each aspect was worth a total of five marks, which totaled up to 30 marks (see Appendix D). In order to establish validity of the scoring according to the guideline, assays were doubled examined and marked by another teacher. Discrepancies in the pair marking were resolved by having a third teacher.

The total scores obtained by each subject in the pre-test were calculated to make the global performance of each group emerge. This global pre-test performance was expressed statistically through the mean, mode, and dispersion aspects. The pre-test performance of each group in each aspect, however, was displayed only through the mean.

4.2.2.2 The Treatment

In educational researches, very often, a treatment or intervention is manipulated to examine the effectiveness of one variable on another. In this study, after completing the writing pre-test, the experimental group participants received a treatment which was based on reading and that aimed at raising the subjects' awareness to use appropriately some basic aspects of discourse structure levels in their writing; while the control group participants were treated differently. The treatment was delivered over a period of twelve weeks with an average of two sessions per week; that is, a total of twenty four sessions, each lasted ninety minutes. The teacher researcher also brought the students twice out of their normal sessions. Including this last, the pre-test, post-test, and the experimental group participants' questionnaire, the right number of all the sessions was twenty nine sessions.

As materials used with the experimental group subjects, the researcher selected detailed handouts related to each aspect of discourse structure and twenty three expository texts on different topics. As mentioned earlier in the pilot study, the texts were selected from four sources according to their good structure, readability, and content suitability. In addition to that, the researcher incorporated peer reading at the last phase of the treatment and therefore some students' writing samples were used as extra materials.

4.2.2.2.1 Teaching the Experimental Group

In the current study, the experimental group subjects received explicit instructions in two levels of written discourse structure with their selected aspects. The latter includes: introduction organization, body organization, conclusion organization, thematic progression patterns, cohesive devices, and coherence relations. On the basis of discourse structure levels, the treatment consisted of three phases: discourse macrostructure level, discourse microstructure level, and overall practice. Theses phases in turn involved different lectures as shown under:

Lecture 1: Introduction:

The treatment started with a broad introduction to the notions of discourse macrostructure and microstructure. The overall aim of this introduction was to pave the way for the upcoming instruction. More specifically, the subjects were first introduced to the notion of discourse since it was a new term for them. Then, they were told about the difference between the narrative and expository discourse because they constitute the macro genres in teaching writing. Further details, after that, were devoted to expository discourse since it was the study concern. Finally, the students got exposed to the idea that macrostructure refers to the global meaning of discourse and that microstructure is linked to

the local meaning. The subjects were also made aware that mastering the different aspects of these levels of discourse may improve their writing, especially in the organization of content.

Lectures 2-13: Discourse Macrostructure

Throughout this period of training, the researcher opted for four elements that reveal the macrostructure of essays; namely patterns of rhetorical organization, introduction organization, body organization, and conclusion organization.

Patterns of Rhetorical Organization

Through these lectures the researcher attempted to guide the subjects to become more aware and familiar with the different expository organizational patterns as they are critical in developing the topics the way they should be, either at the paragraph level or essay level. Covering as much possible patterns may place the students in a good position to analyze the macrostructure of any text and thus apply them in their future writing. More importantly, the researcher aimed at showing that teaching all patterns of expository writing could be efficient as well as sufficient regarding time devoted to teach writing. As for the patterns singled out in this study, they were five as identified by Mikulecky and Jeffries (2004, p. 108): list, sequence, comparison/contrast, cause/effect, and problem solution.

Introduction Organization

Once teaching top level structures was over, the participants moved to contend with the main parts which constitute any essay macrostructure. The participants' attention was drawn first to the introduction as it is the initial step of writing. Since they elucidate the main idea or part of it, the teacher researcher directed the subjects' attention to: 'the general statements', 'thesis statement', 'relevance in the general statement', and 'local coherence between the general statements and thesis statement'. The subjects were made aware that if any of the

preceding elements is violated, the introduction can not convey the global meaning of the essay effectively.

Body organization

The emphasis of instruction regarding this part of assay was on: topic sentence, consistency of the overall rhetorical pattern throughout the body of the essay, relevant and sufficient supporting sentences, and the paragraphs division.

Conclusion organization

The participants were introduced to the way a conclusion should be organized. The instructions centered on: restating the thesis statement, summarizing the main points, and including relevant comment

Lectures 14-22: Discourse Microstructure

Besides, basic to teaching written discourse organization was teaching aspects that are related to the local level of discourse. These aspects are also vital means without which satisfactory text organization fails. These lectures include: thematic progression patterns, cohesive devices, and coherence relations.

Thematic progression patterns

Through this lecture, the participants were introduced to four main thematic progression patterns that they require in order to organize information at the local level of discourse. These encompassed: simple linear progression pattern, constant progression pattern, derived hyperthematic progression pattern, and split progression pattern.

Cohesive devices

The overall purpose of this lecture was to make the participants aware of the different cohesive devices. They were introduced to Halliday and Hasan (1976) taxonomy which comprises: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, reiteration, collocation

Coherence relation

The last lecture in this phase was about the identification of the different coherence relations found between the sentences. The teacher researcher, here, did not designate the kinds of the relations because they are plenty, but rather he was more interested to make the subjects grasp the notion of logical coherence relations and apply it in written productions appropriately.

Lecture 23- 26: Overall Practice

The last phase of the treatment was devoted to the application of the knowledge gained from the previous lectures. Throughout this phase, the participants were asked to produce essays with the aim of putting in practice all what they learnt. The teacher's job was to provide them with corrective feedback. During this phase, the participants were also told to practise peer reading. In other words, once they completed the writing assignment which centered on the appropriate application of aspects of written discourse structure, they were requested to exchange their papers with each other for the sake of reading, analyzing, and discussing the success or failure of the essay structure.

2.2.2.1.1 Procedures of the Lesson Plan

During the first two phases of intervention, the instruction of the aforementioned aspects was explicit and reading-based. It involved four basic stages namely: anticipatory set,

modeling, awareness-raising, and writing practice. These stages of instruction portrayed below in details were applied to each individual aspect targeted in this study.

Anticipatory Set

This stage of instruction was designed to have a direct relevance to the instructional objectives set for the lecture. Via an opening statement, the teacher researcher attempted to acquaint the participants with the selected aspect of discourse structure. She provided a general description of what the aspect is about. It is worth mentioning that the participants were furnished prior to the lecture with a handout related to the selected aspect of discourse. However, the handout was given as a home reading assignment because of some practical constraints, mainly time. The researcher considered that taking the handouts home may allow the participants to take more time to read and understand as well as to use other available sources of information that could help them. They may, for instance, use Internet to get rid of a particular kind of difficulty or simply to enlarge their knowledge. In short, anticipatory set stage was planned to activate the participants' prior knowledge and to let them ask questions based on the handout that they read at home before learning the selected aspect in context.

Modeling

According to Hirvela (2004, p. 126), modeling is to "have students study, through close reading, models of the kinds of texts they are expected to write." In this stage, the participants were given a text to read foremost, discuss the reading assignment which were comprehension question, and finally analyze the selected aspect. During this stage, the teacher researcher got the lion share of the instruction, especially in text analysis, while the students' main job was to follow him.

Awareness-raising

To whatever extent the teacher can be successful in explaining and modeling the selected aspect, it does not replace the participants' individual performance. Because in the course of repeating the teacher behavior of dealing with the selected aspect, the participants may develop more awareness of its successful application. Accordingly, during this stage, the participants were provided with another text and asked to read and focus on the structural element used to shape the content, while the teacher's assistance was withdrawn increasingly. The aim was to cause the participants absorb lonely what they learnt in the two preceding stages, and therefore make conscious decisions about how to apply the selected discourse aspect in writing.

Writing Practice

In this stage, the subjects were asked to write an essay focusing on the learnt aspect of discourse structure, while the teacher's role was to provide feedback.

2.2.2.2 Teaching the Control Group

The control group participants were taught through the following procedures. They were not introduced to the notions of discourse macrostructure and microstructure explicitly. More specifically, they were taught aspects of discourse macrostructure through a set of compiled handouts providing theoretical lessons about introduction, body, and conclusion writing, as well as three types of top level structures namely: example, comparison/contrast, and cause/effect types. The participants of the control group were provided with only few models of essays for the sake of illustrating parts of the lessons, of course, without stressing the significance of reading or setting forth how one can establish text macrostructure which helps the reader to construct the meaning effortlessly.

With respect to teaching written discourse microstructure, the participants were not introduced explicitly to the aspects of thematic progression patterns, cohesive devices, and coherence relations. When it happened that the teacher focused on these aspects during this level, it was not through devoting specific explicit lectures, but rather through providing feedback.

In short, the teacher's main emphasis with the experimental group participants was to have the students learn, read, analyze aspects of discourse structure levels equally, and then apply them in writing. On the other hand, the teacher's major emphasis with the control group was on having the students write as many possible essays in order to provide feedback about aspects of written discourse structure along with aspects of writing in general.

4.2.2.3 The Post-test

Immediately, after the treatment was over, a post-test was administrated to both experimental group and control group under similar environmental conditions as were available for the pre-test. The aim was to check to what extent the experimental group participants' writing organization improved as a result of the proposed method of teaching.

4.2.2.3.1 Assessing the Post-test

The participants' post-test writing essays were assessed following the same procedures used in the pre-test.

4.2.2.4 Students' Questionnaire

4.2.2.4.1 Aim of the Questionnaire

Following the collection of the post-test essays and in a usually held class meeting, a questionnaire was administered to the experimental group participants with whom the researcher conducted the research treatment. It was mainly designed to find out about the

participants' attitudes toward the incorporation of reading as a means for teaching writing, especially teaching written discourse structure; as well as, to corroborate some of the findings obtained from the test. Less importantly, the questionnaire aimed at eliciting the participants' perception of the difficulty of writing.

4.2.2.4.2 Description of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire of the experimental group subjects covered five sections set to investigate the objective stated above. The first section was meant to gain better understanding of the respondents' perceptions of learning writing. The next section was designed to elicit the subjects' attitudes toward the significance of reading in general. More importantly, the third section investigated the subjects' opinions about the role of reading in building the students' discourse structure knowledge. The fourth section was meant to elicit the students' feedback about the application of discourse macrostructure and microstructure aspects in EFL writing. In the last section, the participants were requested to add any suggestion that they see relevant to the aim of the questionnaire.

As far as the items are concerned, they were 27 items arranged in the previous main sections. They were either (1) closed items (requiring from the students to choose 'yes' or 'no' answers, to pick up the appropriate answer from a number of choices, or just to order); (2) scale items (requesting them to select their responses from among a set of fixed alternatives representing degrees of difficulties); (3) or open ended items (designed with the purpose of yielding data through responses written in the respondents' own words).

The key objective of the first section, from item 1 to item 7, was to get an idea about writing in general since it is the skill desired by the researcher to be developed. For example, item 1 and 2 were devoted to know whether the students perceive the difficulty and the sources of the difficulty of this skill. Items 3 and 4 were designed to confirm the actual unsatisfying level of writing and what makes the students unsatisfied. Items 5, 6, and 7 were

put to get information about aspects of writing; the aim was to know whether the students were aware of the importance, difficulty, and improvement of some aspects, especially organization which is the study main concern.

The second section main aim was to view the students' standpoints about the significance of the reading skill in general as this research is partially centered on this skill. The section started from item 8 to item 15; that is, a total of 8 items. Initially, through item 8, the participants were required to rank the four language skills according to the importance they give them. This item was deeply interesting as it displayed rightly the position of reading vis-à-vis the other language skills. Item 9 was put as a further inquiry to show the correlation between the preceding rank of reading and the extent to which the participants like to read in EFL. Then, items 10, 11, and 12 were set for the sake of exhibiting the students' rate of reading in EFL before and after the experiment. Actually, it was relevant to mention the reasons that the students used to read for before the experiment, and the increase or decrease in the rate of reading they made as a result of dealing with texts intensively during the experiment. The last three items 13, 14, and15 were about the place of reading in the different language courses. The researcher first inquired how much teachers of the different courses assign reading so that she can get an idea whether the students were already experienced learning through reading texts. Then, she moved to shed light on the students' opinions about the incorporation of reading in these courses.

The focus of the third section (item 16 through item 23) was limited down to an inquiry into the students' perceptions of the impact of reading on writing, especially on raising the students' awareness and comprehension of discourse structure levels. As such, items 17 and 18 were designed to know about the participants' opinions about integrating reading and writing in one course. The researcher, especially, emphasized the direction of reading-to write and not the opposite: writing-to read. Besides, items 19 and 20 were designed to answer one

of the main questions set for this research: to know students' opinions about the role reading plays in gaining knowledge about discourse organization. Then, item 21 is a follow-up to the previous one; as the way it was phrased indicates, it requires the participants to identify the level of discourse structure which reading contributed most to make it easier to perceive. In other words, what is expected from this question is to highlight the assumption that without reading it would be difficult to understand the notions of discourse macrostructure and microstructure as well as their aspects. After that, in items 22 and 23 the students were left free to report any difficulty they experienced during the composition course while dealing with reading paradigms. The purpose of this question was to reveal any shortcomings of the experiment from the students' standpoints since, in our opinion, they were in a better position to talk about that. Finally, the researcher was inquisitive to know whether the treatment which the experimental group took will have long term effects. As a consequence, he directly asked about the students' ability or inability to analyze successfully all the learnt aspects of discourse encountered in any expository text (item 24).

Section four, from item 25 to item 27, gauged the students' responses about the degree of difficulty of applying aspects of discourse structure levels in writing after being introduced to them throughout the period of intervention. These included the degree of difficulty of writing a good introduction (items a, b, and c); writing good body paragraphs (items d and e); writing a good conclusion (items f, g, and h); using appropriate thematic progression patterns (items i, j, k, and l); using appropriate cohesive elements (items m, n, o, and p); and using appropriate coherence relations (item q). At the end of the section, two interesting items (26 and 27) were included to tackle the students' opinions regarding the learning of all the previous aspects equally and explicitly in the composition course. These items allow corroborating the obtained post-test results of the experimental group.

The questionnaire also included 'any suggestion' section. This last section aimed to allow the experimental group students to voice any concerns that they may had as regards the significance of reading and learning aspects of discourse structure levels.

4.2.2.5 Teachers' Questionnaire

4.2.2.5.1 Aim of the Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire was handed out directly to fifteen second year teachers of Written Expression at the department of English at Constantine University 1. The overall aim of this questionnaire was twofold: first to gather data about the teachers' attitudes toward teaching writing, especially teaching discourse organization; second, to elicit the teachers' views about the significance of reading in teaching writing, especially when it is devoted to teach a particular aspect of writing which most students have difficulties with.

4.2.2.5.2 Description of the Questionnaire

In order to meet the aforementioned aims set for this questionnaire, twenty four questions were put. These questions were, in turn, addressed into four broad sections which were entitled as follows:

1-General information

2-Teaching writing

3-Reading in the composition course

4-Further suggestion

As for the items, they were the same types used in the students' questionnaire. In other words, teachers were required to choose 'yes' or 'no' answers, pick up the appropriate answers from a number of alternatives, or just order. In addition, a scale of items was used to select a response among a set of fixed alternatives representing degrees of emphasis, as well

as open ended items designed with the purpose of yielding written responses in the teachers' own words.

The first two items (1 and 2) constituted the first section and were meant to get general information about the teachers' degree held and number of years of teaching Written Expression.

The second section, item 3 through item 12, aimed at finding out about the classroom teaching practices of Written Expression teachers. Initially, the participants were invited to show their satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the actual level of second year students writing (item 3). The purpose of this question was to compare the students' responses with that of the teachers. Again, to achieve this last purpose and to know the main sources of EFL writing from the teachers' standpoint, item 4 was put. Item 5 sought to determine the writing aspects which teachers tended to attach a great importance to, and item 6 was set to reveal the aspect which engendered the greatest difficulty to students while writing. Once again, this last item was devoted to both teachers and students. In items 7, the participants were required to characterize the students' essays' organization. Knowing about the actual level of the students in this aspect from the teachers' standpoint may corroborate to some extent the test findings and reveal the teachers perception of that aspect. Item 8 and 9 were set as detailed inquiry about the aspects of written discourse structure which were supposed to generate more difficulties for students in writing and which teachers used to place too much emphasis on. Then, item 10 complemented the previous one; it aimed at showing the form which writing instruction takes to make the students grasp the said aspects. Finally, teachers were invited to express their attitudes towards teaching the selected aspects of discourse equally and explicitly (item 11 and 12). These last two items were put to reinforce the test findings and therefore confirm or disconfirm the first hypothesis set for this research.

The third section which contains eleven questions mainly aimed at reporting the teachers' attitudes about incorporating reading in the composition course. These attitudes were first determined by whether reading and writing should be taught in tandem (item 13 and 14). Then, the researcher shifted her focus to get an idea about whether teachers of Written Expression have ever discussed such important issue during their regular meeting. In fact, this was a pedagogical matter to discuss than a learning matter; nonetheless, it was an interesting issue to raise here as it reveals how much the teachers are concerned with incorporating reading either as a separate course in the whole syllabus or at least in writing. Item 16 further explored the type of reading (intensive and extensive) which, in the teachers' opinions, is the most important to go through in teaching writing. This item was designed in accordance with the literature reviewed in the third chapter. As the practice, in some cases, is totally different from what we hold as theoretical beliefs, item 17 required teachers to really confess whether they assign reading in their writing class. Then, a subsequent of items was put to complement this last item. In more details, the participants who say that they assign reading were asked about the rate of assigning it (item 18), the form which it takes (item 19), and the purpose for which it is assigned in writing (item 20). However, the participants who say that they do not assign reading were required to point out the impediment behind the exclusion of this skill (item 21). Like the previous section, this section also ended with two items that are directly related to the second hypothesis of this study. As the way it was phrased indicates, item 22 sought to demonstrate the teachers' opinions about using reading as a means of teaching aspects of discourse structure level, and then were asked to justify their opinion through item 23.

At the end of the questionnaire, the researcher opened up 'any suggestions' section where the teachers were asked to share any comment or feedback regarding the aim set for this questionnaire.

4.3. Statistical methods

For a thorough and scientifically valid analysis of research results, a set of statistical analysis tools were opted for. First, the researcher used descriptive statistics to describe the obtained data. Second, she used inferential statistics to make conclusions beyond the data that she analyzed and to reach conclusions regarding the postulated hypotheses.

4.3.1 Descriptive Statistics

4.3.1.1 Central Tendency

In this study, it was displayed through two indicators: the mean and the mode. The mean "is found by adding together every score and dividing the total by the number of scores" (Miller, 1974, p. 23), while the mode is "the most frequently occurring value in a set of scores", Miller adds.

4.3.1.2. Dispersion

It was indicated through the lowest and highest scores with their respective frequencies.

4.3.2 Inferential Statistics

4.3.2.1 The Statistical Test

To strengthen the conclusion drawn from the comparison of central tendency and dispersion aspects, one needs necessarily to use a particular statistical test. The selection of an appropriate statistical test depends on a few decisions about the research design. It is one of the most difficult decisions a researcher makes in the experimental process, for a wrong test may lead to invalidate the results of the analysis.

The widely used statistical significance measures for the analysis of the findings in which the data of two independent groups of subjects are compared can be either parametric (the z-test and t-test) or non-parametric (the Mann-Whitney and Chi-square test); however,

the parametric tests are the most powerful ones to detect significance when it is present in the data (Miller, 1974, pp. 55-77).

Although the z-test and t-test are basically the same as they compare between two means, t-test is more adaptable than z-test since this latter often requires certain conditions to be reliable. Additionally, t-test has many techniques that suits any need. More importantly, the t-test is the most widely adopted test in language studies, Brown (1988, p. 165) asserts.

On that account, the researcher plumped for the t-test from the rest of the different statistical tests to discover the probability that the difference between the experimental group and the control group in discourse organization performance arose by raising the students' awareness of the basic aspects of discourse structure or by chance. This significance or non significance of difference between the mean scores of both groups on the variable of post-test scores was tested by using 'the independent samples t-test'.

4.3.2.1.1 The Independent Sample T-test

The independent t-test is a statistical test which is used to compare the means between two unrelated groups. It answers the question of whether the difference between the compared means is statistically significant. For this purpose, one needs two variables from one population and sample.

This test involves a mathematical formula for calculating the value of the observed t, and then comparing it to the value of the tabulated t. The latter is determined by three criteria namely: the type of the hypothesis, the number of the degree of freedom, and the level of significance. First, one needs to know the nature of the research hypothesis: whether it is one-tailed or a two-tailed hypothesis. In this study, it is one–tailed because the researcher was hoping to promote the aspects of discourse structure levels in the students' writing. In other words, the students' performance was expected to go in one direction: positive. However, in case the researcher did not determine the effects of the treatment being a positive or negative

one, the hypothesis should be two tailed so that the researcher can draw the right inferences from the statistical test. Second, to specify the critical value, it is important to calculate the degree of freedom. Mathematically, its formula is N1+N2 -2 (N1 and N2 stand for the number of the two independent sets of scores). The third criterion refers to the level of significance. In this study, the researcher selected 0.05 level; that is, she was 95% confident that the results were due to the reflection of the treatment, but 5% of the results were actually just due to chance.

Before listing the steps needed for calculating an independent t-test, below are the meanings of the abbreviation used in the computation of the observed t.

- N_1= stands for the number of the participants of the first group.
- N_2= stands for the number of the participants of the second group.
- X_1 = stands for the mean of the first group.
- X_2= stands for the mean of the second group.
- S_1^2= stands for the variance of the first group.
- S_2^2= stands for the variance of the second group.
- df= degree of freedom.

The steps:

1- Calculation of the two groups means

$\bar{X}_1 = \frac{\sum X_1}{N_1}$ and $\bar{X}_2 = \frac{\sum X_2}{N_2}$

2- Calculation of the two variances S_1^2 and S_2^2

$S_1^2 = \frac{\sum X_1^2}{N_1} - X_1^2$ and $S_2^2 = \frac{\sum X_2^2}{N_2} - X_2$

3- Calculation of the observed t for independent samples

$$tN1 + N2 - 2 = \frac{(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}2)\sqrt{(N_1 + N2 - 2)N_1 N2}}{\sqrt{(N_1 S_1 + N2\ S2)(N_1 + N2)}}$$

4- Determining degrees of freedom for t

df = $N_{1+} N_2 - 2$

5- Comparing the obtained t with the critical value

Conclusion

Throughout this chapter, the researcher attempted to describe what to be put into practice. As detailed earlier, the current study participants were students and teachers and the research design was a mixture of experimental and descriptive as the nature of the study entails. Moreover, the quantitative method of collecting data was dominantly used. In accordance with the experimental and descriptive nature of the methodological decision opted for, the writing tests, students' questionnaire, and teachers' questionnaire were used as instruments. The chapter finally dealt with the procedures adopted in the pilot and the main study. As for calculating the significance of the results, the independent sample t- test was used as a statistical test. In the next two chapters, data analysis and interpretation will be reported and lengthily discussed.

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Chapter Five

Analysis and Results of the Test

Introduction

This chapter aims at reporting part of the overall results of this study. It provides the analysis of the written productions handed out by the experimental and control group participants in both pre-test and post-test. Initially, the pre-test results are reported for the sake to demonstrate mainly how much both of the groups are equivalent in using aspects of discourse structure levels in writing. Afterwards, the post-test results are displayed in order to find out whether the performance of the experimental group has changed positively due to the experiment implementation. The data obtained throughout this chapter enables the researcher to validate the first postulated hypothesis which is formulated as follows:

- EFL students who are trained to use macrostructure and microstructure analysis would exhibit better overall text organization.

5.1 The Pre-test Results

In this section, the findings that emerged regarding the pre-test are presented. More precisely, the results of the overall performance of the experimental group and the control group need first to be treated in corresponding central tendency and dispersion so that the image of the participants overall behaviours gets more evident. Then, the results of each level of discourse structure are reported separately in the form of means, followed by a thorough discussion of each aspect and its most frequent problematic areas.

5.1.1 Overall Pre-test Performance

Table 5.1. The Participants' Overall Behavior during the Pre-test

	Central Tendency		Dispersion			
Group	Mean	Mode	Low	Fr.	High	Fr.
Experimental	**14.71**	14	09	01	23	01
Control	**15.14**	15	08	01	23	01

Table (5.1) illustrates that the mean score of the overall performance on the pre-test of the participants in the experimental group is (14.71), while that of the participants in the control group is (15.14). Accordingly, the group which performed better appears to be the control group. The mode shows that the most frequent score is (14) in the experimental group and (15) in the control group. As for dispersion indicators, both of the groups are nearly similar. The lowest scores (9) and (8) were obtained by only one participant of the experimental group and the control group respectively, and the highest score (23) was got by a single participant in both groups as well.

In short, comparisons of the means, central tendency, and dispersion aspects indicate that before embarking upon the treatment, the participants in both groups have exhibited nearly equivalent levels in discourse organization, and any change takes place after the treatment would be attributable to the teacher researcher's intervention.

5.1.2 The Pre- test Results of Discourse Macrostructure and Microstructure Levels

Table 5.2. Pre-test Means of Discourse Macrostructure and Microstructure Levels of the Experimental and Control Groups

Pre-test	Experimental group mean	Control group mean
Discourse macrostructure	**7.11**	**7.22**
Discourse microstructure	**7.68**	**7.91**

The data displayed in Table (5.2) indicate that discourse macrostructure mean of the experimental group is (7.11) and that of the control group is (7.22). As far as discourse

microstructure is concerned, the means of the experimental group and control group are (7.68) and (7.91) respectively. As it can be seen then, the performance of both groups in both discourse structure levels was nearly the same. Furthermore, in both groups, one may guarantee the equivalence between discourse macrostructure and microstructure scores, though the performance in the last level was slightly higher. The following is a detailed description of these data.

5.1.3 The Pre-test Results of Individual Aspects

Introduction Organization

Table 5.3. The Means of Introduction Organization

Pre-test	Groups	Mean
Introduction	Experimental	**2.74 (54.8%)**
	Control	**2.69 (53.8%)**

Table (5.3) indicates that the experimental group and the control group have marked respectively a mean of (2.74) and (2.69). That is, the participants in both groups have exhibited equivalent levels in introduction organization. Unlike the other two aspects of macrostructure, body and conclusion organization, the introduction organization mean was slightly higher and this might be due to the fact that the participants gave too much attention to it. The majority of the participants were successful in bringing all the elements of an introduction; however, they were unsuccessful as many problems have been noticed in the said elements. These main problems are as under:

a) Maintaining relevance

Relevance is at the top of building any text macrostructure, and being strict about it when writing an introduction makes it much easier for the reader to understand the global

meaning of the essay. Many papers in both experimental and control group did not conform to this principle. The problems related to relevance are of three kinds:

1. **Starting too far from the topic**

(9) Participants (4 of the experimental group and 5 of the control group) started too far from the topic and did not produce engaging openings. The following is an example:

People are seeing life in different ways. Thus, to some people it is very hard and they consider it as a punishment. Moreover, they see that nothing can ever be good and they are ptimistic in their views. To some other people life is a challenge in which the person must struggle everything to arrive to his goals and those people are optimistic in their views. Health interferes in making your life happy and it is considered more valuable than other things. We should do some simple, yet effective things that help us maintain our health.

As can be observed, the student was not in need to discuss the topic of life extravagantly. It sounds here irrelevant since the topic is health.

2. **Irrelevant details**

The second problem of relevance is the inclusion of some irrelevant details and random information that have nothing to do with the macrostructure of the essay, but make the introduction complex and lengthy. (14) Participants' introductions (8 of the experimental and 6 of the control group) have been found to be packed with irrelevant details. The latter is underlined in the introduction below:

we neglect the health when we are healthy and when we are occupied to other things which bring us happiness. One of this things which brings life of luxury is money. <u>*I as an example if I have money I invest it to make it more, buy houses and cars, travel from one country to another, and make parties without forgetting to do charity. If we ask other people some will agree with me and the others will give other opinions about that.*</u> *What we forget is*

that happiness is not money because one day it will play with our minds and turns us to bad and sick people. In that time the person will find himself alone and we know that loneliness has many bad effects specially after living a luxurious life. When all of this happen to us that time we know the value of health. So taking care of your health must be the first thing in your life and to do that you have to obey everyday the law of sleeping, eating and practicing sport.

3. Lack of local coherence

The third frequent problem of relevance in introduction organization refers to lack of local coherence; in other words, linking the thesis statement with the opening of the essay. Without local coherence, a gap can be noticed and one parts of the introduction either general statements or thesis statement may seem irrelevant to the other part. This is likely to happen because of the participants' inability to gradually narrow down the topic till they come out with the thesis statement. This was the case in (22) papers (9 of the experimental group and 13 of the control group). Below is an extract from one participant's paper.

In this life people have several concerns to think about like: getting a job, studying, getting marry, having children, and having a good health. There are three things which help you save your health like practicing sport everyday, eating well and avoiding stress as much as possible.

When reading the above introduction, a strong link can not be felt between its parts. One feels the need to introduce the topic adequately in the general statements before moving directly to the thesis statement.

b) The thesis statement as the initial sentence in the introduction

While some of the participants successfully delayed the articulation of the essay focus, thesis statement, until the very end of the introduction, (14) participants (6 from the experimental group and 8 from the control group) placed the thesis statement as the first

sentence, then they discussed what is going to be talked about in the rest of the introduction. Putting the thesis statement right as the very first sentence makes the introduction look as a summary. Most participants concerned with this kind of problem opened their introduction with such sentence: *"people do many things to stay healthy"*.

c) Lack of the thesis statement and pattern of organization

In (10) participants' papers (4 of the experimental group and 6 of the control group), the thesis statement was absent or not stated clearly as it should be and therefore unclear pattern of organization. This problem may well be a symptom of an essay beset by a lack of focus. Observe this extract:

My father is an old man who always works hard without thinking of his health. Even when he stay at home with us he prefer to do something but not to take a rest. He cant imagine himself without work. Indeed I always feel pity of him because he doesn't know the role of health in life. Different to many persons he doesn't look for the things which makes him healthy.

Nowadays we all want to live a long happy life and be secure emotionally and financially. some people they always focus on gaining some things like fortune, knowledge and material stuff but they often loose other things in return. For others they only try hard to keep what they already have and can not be gained back or replaced if lost. For instance, health is considered the most important and the only thing people try hard to keep safe and untouched. Or we can simply say that it is more like every person's treasure.

d) Wrong/ or no pattern of organization

This kind of problems pertains to the wrong selection of the type of essay that is appropriate to the topic. As far as the pre-test assignment is concerned, the participants of the study were expected to provide a list or examples of things to do so as to stay healthy.

However, (5) participants (3 from the experimental group and 2 from the control group) have discussed the consequences of being healthy.

Body Organization

Table 5.4. The Means of Body Organization

Pre-test	Groups	Mean
Body	Experimental	**2.11 (42.5%)**
	Control	**2.31 (46.2%)**

Looking at Table (5.4), the pre-test mean score is (2.11) for the experimental group and pre-test mean grade is (2.31) for the control group. Though there is a very slight difference, one can guarantee the equivalence of the participants' level in body organization between the two groups. A notable issue one can get while looking at all the means of the different aspects of discourse structure is that the means of body organization are among the lowest ones and therefore this aspect seems to be problematic for many students. The problems that appear to be quite obvious to anyone who goes through the students' writing are grouped below from the most frequent to the least one:

a) Insufficient supporting details

Supporting details are specific pieces of information aiming at defending the topic sentence and exciting the readers' interest. (38) Subjects of this study (21 of the experimental group and 17 of the control group) have been found to provide few or repetitious supporting details and therefore the promise of the topic sentence was not fulfilled. Without enough supporting details, participants also may show limited capacities in developing a topic, as well as they risk being misunderstood. The following two paragraphs respectively illustrate how the topic sentence is developed with few and repetitious details.

Practicing sport is very efficient to stay in a good health. Now people go often to the gym because it was proved in a scientific way that sport is needed in a regular manner by the body to stay strong, healthy and away from sickness.

Eating fruits and vegitables is helpful for your health. Firstly, it contains a lot of vitamins and other substances which the body needs too much. Secondly, it provides you to live more years longer because these two element prevent heart diseases, some types of cancer, and control blood pressure. So when eating them one can guarantee his health since some components are too available only in fruits and vegitables. In addition to that many diseases can disappear.

b) Unclear/ no topic sentence

Writing a paragraph with a clear topic sentence is surprisingly still a problem for some participants who are unaware of the importance of this sentence in building the macrostructure of their essay. In almost cases, the topic sentence is placed at the beginning of the paragraph giving the reader a sense of direction for that paragraph. However, (12) participants of the experimental group and (7) of the control group drifted aimlessly within the topic without setting it at all. Or they jumped right into supporting details without stating it clearly. Making such mistake, the participants run the risk of confusing readers or losing their interest. A paragraph, thus, with unclear or no topic sentence is a poorly focused paragraph as this example shows:

To be precise, healthy life is all that matters and those who do not want to know how to enjoy good health will keep on living careless till they find themselves with serious diseases. At that time they start to consider the factors which lead them to these diseases. For example, there are some people who let stress control their lives without thinking of the ways that prevent it or even reduce it. You must know that the stress in some cases is very beneficial as

a motivator but in some cases it is the killer number one. So, you must be careful with the factors that cause unhealthy life and control well ourselves.

One can notice in the above paragraph that the participant intended to discuss stress avoidance as one way to keep healthy. But he failed to do so in the whole paragraph because he didn't limit the idea clearly in a topic sentence.

It is worth noting that some of the subjects have two main problems with writing the topic sentence itself. They tend to write it without mentioning the topic (*e.g. the second thing is practicing sport*) or they write it as a phrase (*e.g. first, following a healthy diet*).

c) Irrelevant details or shift in focus

The supporting details guide the reader to a full understanding of the paragraph. To achieve that, only information pertinent to the topic sentence should be included in that paragraph; otherwise, the reader will be unable to follow the progression of ideas and remains unconvinced that the ideas or the claims have a credible foundation. This was the case in (15) papers (11 cases in the experimental group and 4 cases in the control group). In the following paragraph of one of the participants, the underlined sentences do not seem to relate to the controlling idea (checking weight); they are irrelevant.

One way to stay healthy is to check and control your weight all the time. People normally who have serious diseases are advised to check their weight carefully like those who have heart diseases and digestive problem. Most of the time serious diseases begin to develop silently so the doctor visit can help keep us healthy. He will control blood pressure, heart, breast and other organs and as a result we will feel better that we are far from healthy problems. In addition to that, people who are obese suddenly than ever before should control their weight carefully because they can have a healthy problem.

Look at another paragraph where no sentence is completely irrelevant to the topic sentence, but the specific focus of this paragraph (practising sport) shifts abruptly to (diabetes).

First of all, practicing sport saves or avoid you from various illnesses and bad habits that leads you to be unhealthy. For example, many sport activities like running, jumping and walking can make you stronger to defend the different virouses in the body. For example, if we take a diabetic person some kinds of sports or exercises can benefit him in his diabetes treatment since he will burn calories and lose weight. Moreover, sport helps him enjoy himself since he will feel that he is like all people. Today many diabetes associations advised the use of certain kinds of sport in order to decrease the effects of this disease which continues to spread in the world and becomes like global crisis that threaten even the economies of many countries. Finally, the diabetic person should take care of his health because it is all what he needs and sport helps him greatly.

d) Wrong or no organizational pattern

Not every piece of writing can fit snugly into one of the organizational patterns. The specific pattern chosen depends upon the topic and the objective which the participant wants to identify. In the pre-test assignment, the participants were supposed to develop their essays using the listing pattern. Accordingly, each developmental paragraph centers on only one way or example to stay healthy. However, (5) participants from both of the groups (3 of the experimental group and 2 of the control group) developed the body of their essays discussing the effects of being healthy, and other (6) participants (3 of the experimental group and 3 of the control group) let their thoughts and ideas wander aimlessly instead of following a particular pattern.

e) No paragraphs' division

The paragraph is the logical division of one central theme of a longer piece of writing. It helps the reader to understand the text by organizing it into groups of ideas that work together. This, however, was not the case with (3) students (2 of the experimental group and 1 of the control group) who have written the body of the essay in one block.

Conclusion Organization

Table 5.5. The Means of Conclusion Organization

Pre-test	Groups	Mean
Conclusion	Experimental	**2.17 (43.5%)**
	Control	**2.20 (44%)**

Table (5.5) shows that the scores of the conclusion of the experimental group in mean are (2.17) and that of the control group are (2.20). Therefore, there is no noticeable difference in the conclusion writing performance as the two means of the two groups in this table are close to each other. Like body organization, the conclusion means are lower in comparison with the other aspects. This explains the thoughts of the students that they have stated everything they know in the introduction and body paragraphs. The conclusion, according to them, becomes merely an afterthought as it is an unimportant bit tagged on the end of the essay. The frequent types of problems encountered in the subjects' papers are grouped below:

a) No personal opinion

A conclusion which merely summarizes is repetitive and reduces the impact of the essay. Thus, along with providing a synthesis of the main points presented in the body, a personal opinion in terms of a comment, recommendation for the future action, speculation on future trends …etc should be used to spice up the conclusion. When analyzing the

participants' papers, none of these were presented in (32) papers (18 in the experimental group and 14 in the control group). Consider the example below:

To sum up what has been said so far we can all agree on the importance of sport, proper diet, and sleep as the best ways to stay healthy.

b) Mere repetition of the thesis statement

(29) Participants (12 in the experimental group and 17 in the control group) have written a word for word repetition of the thesis statement instead of echoing it. This, undoubtedly, makes the conclusion boring and reveals the participants' incapacity to paraphrase.

c) No restatement of the thesis statement

(22) Participants (12 in the experimental group and 10 in the control group) did not include a sentence that refers to the main subject discussed in the body of the essay. The absence of this sentence deletes one of the aims of the conclusion which is to refocus the topic and remind the reader what the essay was about before bringing closure to it in the rest of the conclusion. Look at the following conclusion from the paper of one participant:

Finally, health is an extremely important matter in one's life. So without it, it would be no need to live.

d) No summary or synthesis

This kind of problem pertains to the participants' unawareness to summarize or synthesize the main points that have been previously discussed. This problem appeared in (16) papers (7 in the experimental group and 9 in the control group), here is an example:

By nowadays revolution, people discover new things and new tricks come to rise and they are always trying new ones to keep their souls and bodies healthy.

e) Raising new information

In (9) papers (7 of the experimental group and 2 of the control group), the conclusions did not arise from the evidence discussed in the body, but rather new material brought. Doing so makes part of the conclusion irrelevant and adds to it a sort of filler as these two examples show:

Example 1

Being healthy does not mean only the lack of physical diseases but also the lack of emotional problems which have great effects. If this kind of problems are left unchecked they also will contribute to make our life unhealthy.

In the above example, the participant has made of the conclusion as the best place to discuss the idea of 'emotional problems' instead of devoting one paragraph to it in the body.

Example 2

In short, health is the great gift that we must protect it through practicing sport, following a diet and maintaining good hygiene. We can also stay healthy by avoiding stress and knowing how to control our reactions to stressful things.

The underlined part of the conclusion (the idea of stress) was not discussed in the body; however, the participant raised it.

Thematic Structure

Table 5.6. The Means of Thematic Structure

Pre-test	Groups	Mean
Thematic structure	Experimental	**2.40 (48%)**
	Control	**2.57 (51.4%)**

As can be shown in Table (5.6), the pre-test mean scores of thematic structure of the experimental group and control group are respectively (2.40) and (2.57). Although this slight

difference, these findings ensure that both of the groups are equivalent in using thematic structure. The common problems related to that aspect are addressed below:

a) Random distribution of information

This problem has been exhibited by (11) participants of the experimental group and (08) participants of the control group. It has been noticed that some sentences did not fit into any of the thematic progression patterns, which creates a random distribution of information as well as lack of cohesion in some cases. Look at this example:

Hygiene is the first step to protect ourselfes from many diseases. For example there are some habits we should follow them regularly and teach them to children to mantain hygiene. also you should keep an eye on yourself hygiene through taking a bath every day, brush your teeth, and washing your hands. In addition to that the hygiene of the environment is important also like cleaning the house and throwing the garbage far away the buildings…

In the above example, the participant was more likely to use the constant thematic pattern with the first two sentences, and then move to use the thematic pattern of the split rheme with the rest of the sentences. Doing so would make the text look more cohesive; in addition, the participant would avoid the new information in the theme position in each sentence and the wrong use of the textual themes such as "for example" and "also". Consider the corrected extract where the first theme "hygiene" is repeated in the second sentence to create cohesion and the rheme of the same sentence "some habits" is split into two themes "first" and "second" :

<u>Hygiene</u> is the first step to protect ourselves from many diseases. <u>It</u> can be taught to children and maintained through following <u>some habits</u> regularly. <u>First,</u> the person should keep an eye on his self hygiene through taking a bath every day, brushing his teeth, and washing his hands. <u>Second,</u>, he should maintain the hygiene of the environment through cleaning his house and throwing the garbage far away the buildings …

b) Overuse of constant theme pattern

(16) Participants (7 of the experimental group and 9 of the control group) structured repeatedly their information essays using the constant theme pattern. In fact, this pattern is mostly preferred by the students because it is the easiest one; they do not need to find new themes. However, overusing constant thematic pattern made the participants' pieces of writing read as a list. A fragment below of a participant composition is a clear example of this pattern overuse:

Practicing sport helps to better your body health. it present some physical benefits such as good body shape and bones strength. It also helps you to burn the calories that are in your body. Playing sport has some psychological advantages as the experts confirmed. In addition it makes you happy because when you run, jump, hit, fall or do any other sport actions your body release a substance which is capable in making the person happy. In short practising sport is so beneficial to our health.

c) Wrong choice of textual themes

(16) Participants (8 from each group: experimental and control) selected mistakenly the textual themes. This will be further detailed in the section of cohesion errors.

d) Intervening material between the rheme and the succeeding theme

This problem refers to a large stretch of text between a certain concept stated in a rheme and its succeeding placement in thematic position. Doing so forces the reader to pursue back through the essay so as to reach the previous mentioned concept. This is also a sign of a lack of clear plan of organization. This problem was found repeatedly in (13) papers (8 of the experimental group and 5 of the control group). Look at this example:

You must be sociable and create new relationships. There are some times in which you have problems and you need someone to talk to him so you get rid of what makes you feel sad.

When you are sociable with people this leads you to achieve two things which are important to be healthy: to laugh and to appreciate life. But if you have problems and at the same time you do not have someone who help you in your bad situation, this is illness itself.

In the above example, the student introduced the idea of being sociable in the rheme of the first sentence. He later carried on with this idea in the theme of the third sentence. This subsequent development of the idea of being sociable could have been better mentioned after its introduction in sentence one.

e) Overuse of 'there'

Some students, in some cases, did not bother themselves looking for specific themes; they easily selected the word 'there' as the starting point of some sentences. This was the case in (13) papers (6 of the experimental group and 7 of the control group).

f) Empty rheme

The problem of empty rheme refers to the participants' failure to present new information in the rheme position. In other words, some sentences include no information or information which was repeatedly presented before. This problem occurred frequently in (09) papers (6 of the experimental group and 3 of the control group).

g) Absence of topical theme

Unlike textual and interpersonal themes which are optional, topical theme anchors the writer's message and thus its presence is very essential. In (3) papers of the experimental group and (2) of the control group, however, the topical theme was absent in some sentences. Look at this example:

First is practising sport in large forests.

h) Further observations

Unlike the topical and textual themes, interpersonal themes were rarely occurred in the students' papers. The role of the interpersonal meaning in a text is to realize the factual tenor of a discourse which reflects the writer's judgment. Few or lack of interpersonal themes in the students' papers is not surprising given that in expository writing the interpersonal mood may not be situated in the theme position. In addition to that, the students are always told to be more objective, academic and less conversational when they write.

Cohesion

Table 5.7. The Means of Cohesion

Pre-test	Groups	Mean
Cohesion	Experimental	**2.34 (46.8%)**
	Control	**2.37 (47.4%)**

According to the results in Table (5.7), the pre-test average score of cohesion is (2.34) for the experimental group and (2.37) for the control group. Thus, both groups could be treated as equal based on these approximate cohesion means. Below is a list of the most common cohesive errors in students' composition, ranging from the most problematic area to the least one.

a) Pronoun Shift

Pronoun shift is a grammatical error made frequently by (25) participants in this study (14 of the experimental group and 11 of the control group). They started a sentence using one noun or particular type of pronoun, and then inadvertently shift to another pronoun in the following sentence. This often confuses the reader. The following examples from the students' essays show how a pronoun in one sentence is not the same in the previous sentence.

1) To begin with health is very important for *the people* and especially when *they* get older. So *you* should protect it and follow what the doctors advice *you*.
2) The stress has a bad effects on the physical and mental abilities of *the person*. It is dangerous because it can damage *your* brain cells and leads *you* to other dangerous diseases or directly leads *you* to the death.
3) Another way to stay healthy is when you check your weight all the time. For instance *we* control the level of sugar in *our* blood …etc.

It is worth noting that the participants in this study strongly preferring using or shifting to the pronoun 'you' in their essays. This might reflect the fact that most of them did not take their voice into consideration.

b) Overuse of repetition

Repetition is an important technique for achieving lexical cohesion, but in an attempt to do so, (20) participants (9 of the experimental group and 11 of the control group) produced many redundancies which results to the production of some key words multiple times without adding new information. Put it differently, they just cluttered up sentences with a host of superfluous words and expressions that give nothing new but deter text flow and make the piece of writing boring, monotonous, and less academic. A possible explanation for this tendency is that the participants have limited repertoire of vocabulary and ideas. Read the examples below:

1) Health is something that we need to take care of it because it is more important than the other things in this life. Without the health, life is only an image for death. So when we disccuss the issue of health, we have to remember its importance…
2) Avoiding stress must be one of the priorities of persons to live in good health. when you avoid stress you will avoid a lot of diseases which harm our bodies. For

example when the pregnant woman do not avoid stress this will cause many effects such as …

3) To protect your health you should always consult your doctor at least every 6 months to have information about your health. Consulting a doctor from time to time can give you an account about your health in order to avoid what brings the diseases for you and for your families in the future. You can see that people who consult the doctors are usually in good health …

c) Faulty pronoun reference

(17) Participants (12 cases of the experimental group and 5 cases of the control group) structured some sentences such that they ended up containing pronouns that could refer back to wrong or ambiguous antecedents. These faulty pronouns lead to vague, confusing and grammatically incorrect sentences and therefore upset the clarity. Faulty pronoun reference falls into one of the three cases: pronoun with ambiguous antecedent, singular pronoun with plural antecedent, or plural pronoun with singular antecedent. The following are some examples of faulty pronoun reference found in the subjects' papers:

1) *First you start by eating good food. By this we mean eating vegetables and fruits and avoiding the junk food which is characterized by fat and sugar. In fact all of us know <u>it</u> is the best way to keep healthy.* ('*It*' here is ambiguous since we do not know whether it refers to eating vegetables and fruits or avoiding the junk food).
2) *Running move away all the negative power in the body. In addition to that <u>they</u> are concidered as an exit from stress to keep the body and the soul away from the different diseases.*
3) *All health experts always recomond to practice sport whether in the gym or directly in the open air. But we find that a lot of people ignore <u>his</u> advices because they don't have time to do sport.*

d) Conjunction errors

Errors related to conjunction are of three main kinds as follows:

1. Wrong use of conjunction

This kind of errors occurred in (16) papers (8 of the experimental group and 8 of the control group). The wrong choice of conjunctions might be due to the lack of sensitivity to conjunctions variety and the insufficient understanding of the usage of some of them. Consider some examples:

1) Some persons like to practice sport regularly in halls and do different kinds of sports. *Also* others like to practise it in the nature in which they can benefit more from all the aspects of the nature.
2) Staying always at home can cause women to suffer from stress and other psychological problems. *However,* every husband should take into consideration this fact…
3) The parents can establish good conditions of life in the house. *So*, they can take care of the children because they are the responsible for their health before the doctors.

In example (1), the conjunction *also* is used to show the additive relationship between the two discourse units it conjoins. Yet, the participant failed to employ it in the appropriate place as the first sentence adds nothing to the preceding sentence. Rather, this last introduces a contrast of what was mentioned before.

In example (2), the participant used the conjunction *however* without adversative relation. It can be seen that the second sentence does not act in opposition to the previously mentioned sentence, but rather appears to support it.

In example (3), the conjunction *so* failed to establish a cohesive relationship between the discourse units as it is neither result nor purpose of what has been formerly

mentioned. This conjunction then should be removed from between these sentences in order to make the text unified.

2. Overuse of conjunctions

Taking a closer look at the participants' use of conjunction devices, (14) participants (5 of the experimental group and 9 of the control group) had a tendency to overuse conjunctions between the sentences, relying on the mistaken belief that they were keeping the writing flowing. Unquestionably, conjunctions provide explicit cues about the logical relationships among sentences, and thus help readers to construct the mental representations of the meaning of the essays; however, an excessive use of them may make the essay boring and less academic instead.

3. Omission of conjunctions

While certain papers used improperly and too much conjunctions between the sentences, (6) others; 4 from the experimental group and 2 from the control group) have been found to use this cohesive device less frequently, letting the reader struggle to understand the intended meaning between the sentences.

In addition to the preceding three kinds of conjunction's problems in students' writing, it was noticed that the students do not care about using different conjunctions to relate the ideas, yet they stick to using the most common conjunctions such as *and, so, but, after,* …etc.

e) Further observation

It deserves to point out that in this study, the students were not familiar with all types of cohesive devices to the same degree, and therefore they only employed those that they are familiar with because they found them easy. They used repetition, reference and conjunctions in over abundance; whereas, substitution and ellipsis have rarely been used in both groups.

Coherence Relations

Table 5.8. The Means of Coherence Relations

Pre-test	Groups	Mean
Coherence Relations	Experimental	**2.91 (58.2%)**
	Control	**2.97 (59.4%)**

Examination of the data presented in Table (5.8) points out that the pre-test means of the experimental group is (2.91) and that of the control group is (2.97). According to these findings, one can say that both groups are homogeneous in using coherence relations. When comparing the mean of that aspect of both groups with the other aspects of discourse structure means, we find that it is the highest one. This means that this aspect is quite easy to students. Three cases of coherence relations were really noticeable as problematic in both groups:

a) Lack of elaboration relations

When linking two sentences with elaboration relations, the second sentence normally describes a part of the first sentence in more details. However, (15) participants of the experimental and (11) participants of the control group gave no or inadequate information when they state a given idea. As a consequence, one may struggle to picture what the participant was talking about. This kind of problems is generally attributed to the participants' difficulties of generating relevant and sufficient details to support their ideas. The following paragraph from one subject's paper is an example of that problem:

To be interested in amusing activities is also another way to stay healthy. It is obvious that stress impact harmfully our health. That is why doing some activities like listening to music, watching entertaining programs, and going for a walk is an important step to follow by many people in order to be healthy. So, be careful to waste your time doing silly things that increase the amount of stress instead of doing the entertaining things.

Notice in the above paragraph that the first sentence which includes the idea of "amusing activities" was not well elaborated in the next sentences, though it was the controlling idea. As readers, we also expected the participant to elaborate the second sentence and explain how stress can negatively impact our health in the third sentence.

b) Incorrect use of explicit connectives

The appropriate use of connectives aids the communicability of the text, yet an incorrect use may not allow high accuracy in the prediction of discourse relation type. In this study, (17) papers (9 of the experimental group and 8 of the control group) used mistakenly the connectives which show the type of relation between the sentences. This kind of problems might be due to the participants' misunderstanding of the relationship between the ideas, as well as the semantic functions' confusion of some connectives. Look at the following examples:

1) People in this life run after money, children, houses and so on as if they are the basis of life. They *also* forget about their health which is the most important one.
2) The quantity and the quality of the food are very important to have a healthy body. *So* eating fruits and vegetables with the required quantity may provide the body with minerals and vitamins
3) Practicing sport is an effective way to protect ourselves. *In addition*, running is a good thing that can help us be more active.
4) Practicing sport can save or avoid you from many diseases. *Moreover*, each one of us must practice it at least twice per week.
5) The healthy person has the chance to be happy in his life since he can enjoy it with his physical and emotional capacities. *In fact,* the ill person doesn't enjoy life because his first interest will be illness.

In the first example, the second sentence is not an addition to the first sentence, but rather a result. In example number (2), the use of *so* in the second sentence is inappropriate and should be replaced by *for example* because the participant provided the examples of fruits and vegetables. Similarly, the second sentence of the third example should be an exemplification relation instead of an addition relation. *Moreover* in the third example is used inappropriately since the second sentence is a result to the preceding sentence. Finally, the first and the second sentences in the fifth example should be related with *however* or another connective of contrast instead of *in fact*.

c) Lack of identifiable implicit relations

While some relations between the sentences could be easily identified because they were explicit and were expressed by unambiguous connectives, others which were implicit had no clear interpretation and could not be recognized. These ambiguous relations which lead the text to appear incoherent occurred due to the dereliction of the participants to provide enough contextual clues that help the reader to understand the relations easily. The students' problem here is that they generally omit information that they believe the reader already knows and would be bored by seeing it again. The papers that included such type of errors are (2) from the experimental group and (3) from the control group.

5.2 The Post-test Results

The post-test results of the overall performance of the experimental group and the control group are first displayed in the form of central tendency and dispersion aspects, followed by the means of each level of discourse, as well as their individual aspects obtained by the two groups.

5.2.1 Overall Post-test Performance

Table 5.9. The Participants' Overall Behavior during the Post-test

	Central Tendency		Dispersion			
Group	Mean	Mode	Low	Fr.	High	Fr.
Experimental	**20.02**	19	13	01	27	01
Control	**15.71**	15	11	02	24	01

As Table (5.9) indicates, the mean score for post-test of control group is (15.71), and the mean score for the post-test of experimental group is (20.02). That is, the participants in the experimental group achieved a higher mean post-test score than that achieved by the participants in the control group. When considering the mode, that of the experimental group (19) appears to be higher than that displayed by the control group (15). The dispersion aspects indicate that the experimental group participants' lowest score is (13) obtained by a single participant. By comparison, two control group participants obtained (11) as low scores. The top grade, another dispersion indicator, in the experimental group is (27), reached by one post-test taker. On the other hand, in the control group, there is one subject who could touch (24) out of (30).

So far, comparisons of the means, central tendency, and dispersion aspects are in favor of a general indication that the experimental group participants have performed better in the post-test which may imply that the research findings move in the direction of our first hypothesis.

5.2.2 The Post-test Results of Discourse Macrostructure and Macrostructure Levels

Table 5.10. Post-test Means of Discourse Macrostructure and Microstructure Levels of the Experimental and Control Groups

Pre-test	Experimental group mean	Control group mean
Discourse macrostructure	**9.65**	**7.57**
Discourse microstructure	**10.31**	**8.14**

The results obtained from the participants post-test indicate that the mean scores of the experimental group in both levels of discourse structure are higher than that of the control group. Furthermore, in both groups, discourse microstructure means seem slightly higher than that of discourse macrostructure. As such, a statistical testing is required to see if this slight difference is significant or not. The following is a detailed description of the aspects constituting each level.

5.2.3 The Post-test Results of Individual Aspects

In more details, the table below shows the individual aspects' means of the experimental and control groups in the post-test.

Table 5.11. The Post-test Means of the Individual Aspects

Levels of discourse	Aspects	Experimental group mean	Control group mean
Macrostructure	Introduction organization	**3.51 (70.2%)**	**2.89 (57.8%)**
	Body organization	**3.08 (61.6%)**	**2.11 (42.5%)**
	Conclusion organization	**3.08 (61.6%)**	**2.57 (51.4%)**
Microstructure	Thematic structure	**3.25 (65%)**	**2.57 (51.4%)**
	Cohesion	**3.22 (64.4%)**	**2.48 (49.4%)**
	Coherence relations	**3.80 (76%)**	**3.08 (61.6%)**

The first impression one gets while looking at the performance in each aspect of discourse structure is that there is a notable difference between the scores obtained by the experimental group and the control group. As it can be seen, the experimental group outperformed the control group in all aspects.

5.3 The Overall Results of Comparative Evaluation

This section covers the overall results obtained from the two groups in both pre-test and post-test. We will display a comparison of the two groups' results in terms of pre-test, post-test, and rates of increase or decrease. Then, we will present a detailed comparison between

the pre-test and post-test performance of each level of discourse structure and its individual aspects.

5.3.1 The Results of the Overall Performance

Table 5.12. Mean Scores of Overall Performance's Change from Pre-test to Post-test of the Experimental and the Control Group

	Experimental group			Control group		
	Pre-test	Post-test	Change	Pre-test	Post-test	Change
Mean	**14.71 (42.02%)**	**20.02 (57.2%)**	**5.31 (15.18%)**	**15.14 (43.25%)**	**15.71 (44.88%)**	**0.57 (1.63%)**

Glancing at table (5.12) above, one can notice that both experimental and control groups increased their scores. The participants in the control group started with a mean of (43.25%) on the pre-test and ended with a mean score of (44.88%) on the post-test, an increase of (1.63%). On the other hand, the mean of the experimental group was (42.02%) in the pre-test, but jumped to (57.2%) in the post-test, an increase of (15.18%). Furthermore, considering the progress of each experimental group's participant, in comparison with that of the control group's participants, it can be classified as remarkable. Look at the histograms below:

Figure 5.1. Histogram of the Experimental Group Individual Scores in the Pre-test and Post-test

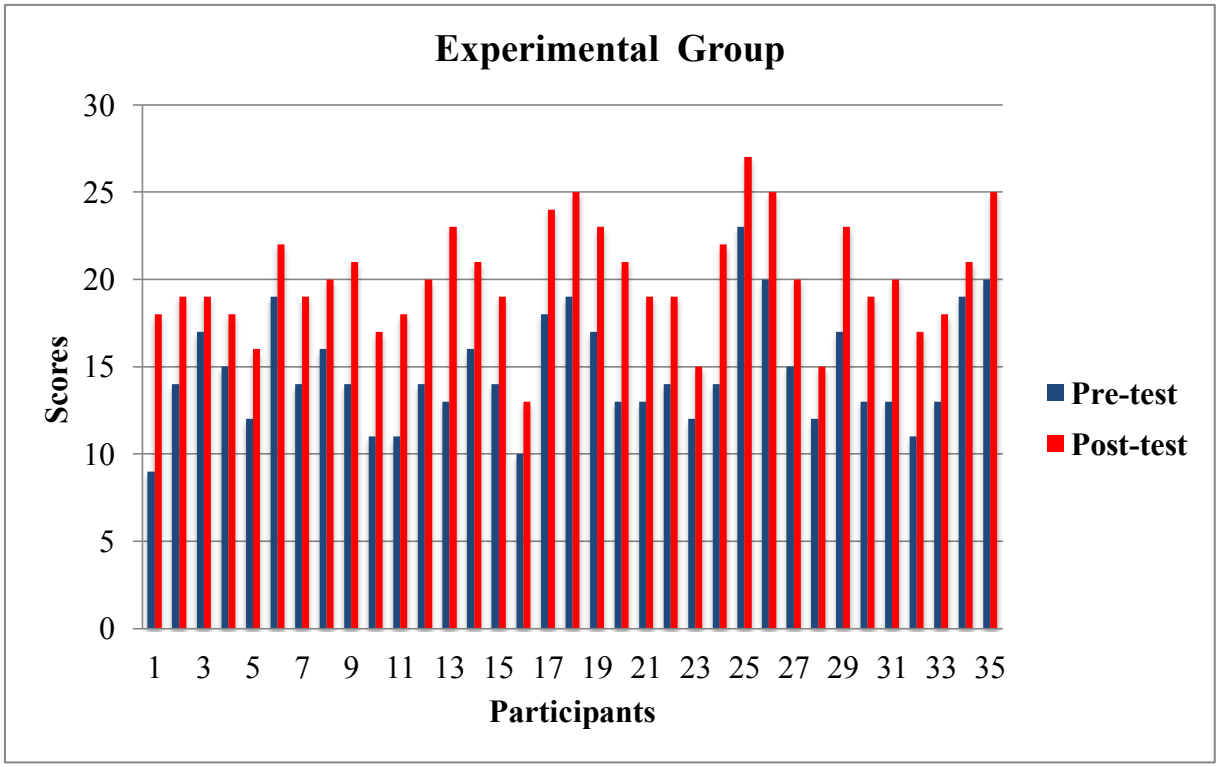
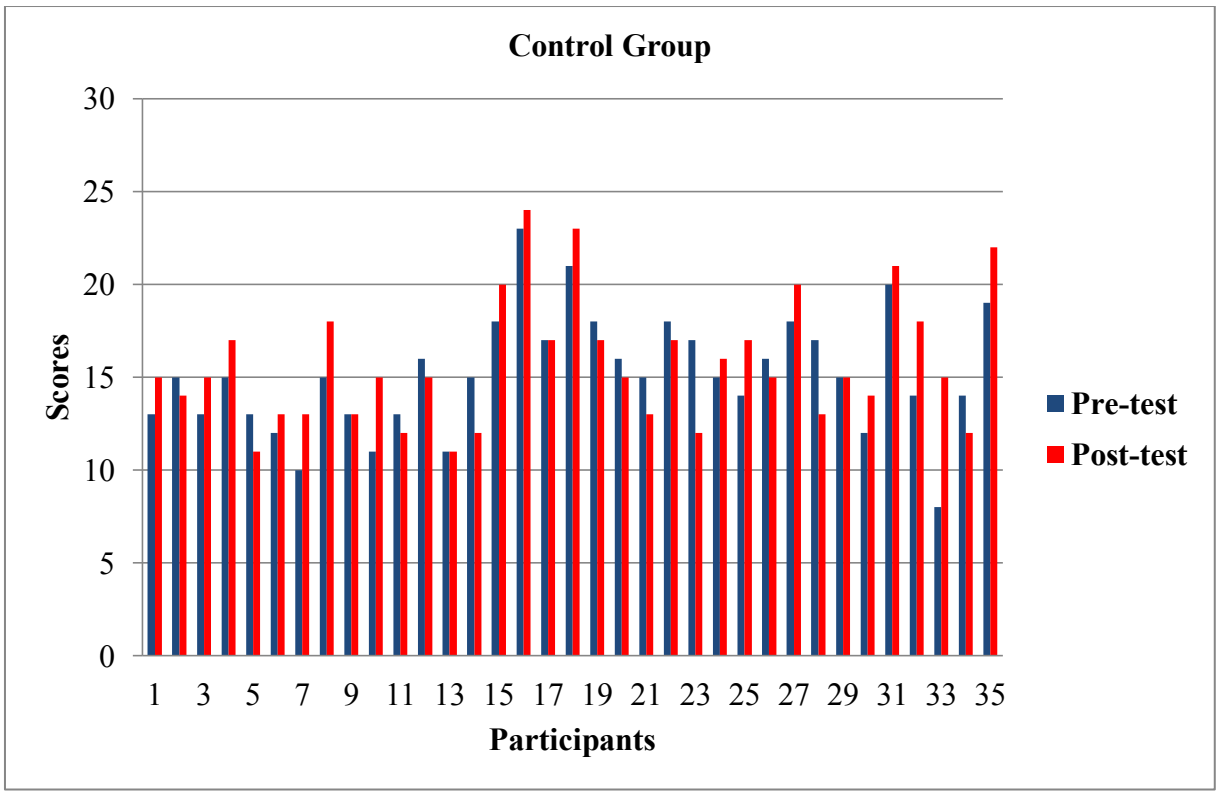


Figure 5.2. Histogram of the Control Group Individual Scores in the Pre-test and Post-test



5.3.2 The Results of Discourse Macrostructure and Microstructure Levels

Table 5.13. Comparative Evaluation of Pre-test and Post-test Performance in Discourse Macrostructure and Microstructure

Levels of discourse structure	Experimental group			Control group		
	Pre-test	Post-test	Change	Pre-test	Post-test	Change
Macrostructure	7.11 (47.4%)	9.65 (64.33%)	**2.54 (16.93%)**	7.22 (48.13%)	7.57 (50.46%)	**0.35 (2.33%)**
Microstructure	7.68 (51.2%)	10.31 (28.73%)	**2.63 (17.53%)**	7.91 (52.73%)	8.14 (54.26%)	**0.23 (1.53%)**

As can be observed from Table (5.13), the experimental group has made a notable increase in both levels of discourse structure than the control group did. Furthermore, one can notice that the increase that the experimental group has made in microstructure level (2.63%) is nearly the same as in macrostructure level (2.54%). Accordingly, the conducted experiment has had an equal positive impact on both levels of discourse structure.

5.3.3 The Results of the Individual Aspects

Table 5.14. Comparative Evaluation of Pre-test and Post-test Performance in Individual Aspects of Experimental and Control Groups

Levels of discourse structure	Aspects	Experimental group			Control group		
		Pre-test	Post-test	Change	Pre-test	Post-test	Change
Macrostructure	Introduction organization	2.74 (54.8%)	3.51 (70.2%)	**0.77 (15.4%)**	2.69 (53.8%)	2.89 (57.8%)	**0.20 (4%)**
	Body organization	2.11 (42.5%)	3.08 (61.6%)	**0.97 (19.1%)**	2.31 (46.2%)	2.11 (42.5%)	**-0.20 (-3.7%)**
	Conclusion organization	2.17 (43.5%)	3.08 (61.6%)	**2.91 (18.1%)**	2.20 (44%)	2.57 (51.4%)	**0.37 (7.4%)**
Microstructure	Thematic structure	2.40 (48%)	3.25 (65%)	**0.85 (17%)**	2.57 (51.4%)	2.57 (51.4%)	**00 (00%)**
	Cohesive elements	2.34 (46.8%)	3.22 (64.4%)	**0.88 (17.6%)**	2.37 (47.4%)	2.48 (49.6%)	**0.11 (2.2%)**
	Coherence relations	2.91 (58.2%)	3.80 (76%)	**0.89 (17.8%)**	2.97 (59.4%)	3.08 (61.6%)	**0.11 (2.2%)**

In the table above, it is evident that both group's participants achieved nearly the same means in all aspects in the pre-test. A more detailed description is that when comparing the low means of participants' performance in some aspects, we notice that the two groups obtained approximately the same low scores. For example, in conclusion organization, the experimental group got (43.5%) and the control group (44%). In body organization, another low achieved mean, the experimental group got (42.5%) and the control group (46.2%). Moreover, in cohesion, the experimental group got (46.8%) and the control group (47.4%). Similarly, when comparing the means of some aspects which are around the average, we find that the two groups obtained approximately the same means. For example, in thematic structure, the experimental group obtained a mean of (48%) and the control group (51.4%). In introduction organization, the experimental group obtained (54.8%) and the control group (53.8%). Lastly, in coherence relations, the experimental group obtained (58.2%) and the control group obtained (59.2%). Put succinctly, all the aspects' means tell us quite clearly that all the participants in both groups started with a comparable level. However, in the post-test, the results show that there was a notable difference in the six aspects of discourse structure levels across the two groups.

The data displayed in the third column of the above table concerns the rates of increase or decrease per aspect of each group. As it can be seen, the control group got one rate of decrease in body organization (-3.7%), and four rates of increase ranging from 7.4% in conclusion organization to 4% in introduction organization, and keep decreasing to reach low rates of increase 2.2% in both cohesion and coherence relations. The slight increase in the four aspects can be attributed to the students' writing overall development. One, however, needs to use a statistical test to prove whether this improvement is significant or not.

Unlike the control group, the experimental group got rates of increase in all aspects. Its highest rate of increase was in body organization (19.1%), followed by conclusion

organization (18.1%), coherence relations (17.8%), cohesion (17.6%), thematic structure (17%), and finally introduction organization (15.4%). This distinctive increase in all the aspects of discourse structure levels proves the positive effects of the treatment. Again, it will be only through using a statistical test that this obvious improvement must be justified. Therefore, we need to select a particular statistical test which must be suitable to our hypothesis and the type of raw data we accumulated.

5.4 Testing the First Hypothesis

To begin with, a null hypothesis together with the alternative hypothesis should be stated. They are as follows:

- Null hypothesis **(H_0)**: EFL students who are trained to use macrostructure and microstructure analysis would not exhibit a higher overall text organization.
- Alternative hypothesis **(H_1):** EFL students who are trained to use macrostructure and microstructure analysis would exhibit a higher overall text organization.

Considering the tables (Appendix H) which clearly show the performance of the experimental group and the control group, the version of the t-test examined in this study will compare between the experimental and the control group post-test performance from one side, and between the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group and the pre-test and post-test of the control group from the other side. The computed results are displayed below:

5.4.1. T-test for the Post-tests of the Experimental Group and Control Group.

The required data to compute t-value are provided in Appendix H.

1- Calculating the means:

$$X_1 = \frac{701}{35} = 20.02 \qquad X_2 = \frac{550}{35} = 15.71$$

2- Calculating the variances: S_1 and S2 .

$S_1 = \frac{14375}{35} - 20.02^2 = 9.91$ $S_2^2 = \frac{9034}{35} - 15.71^2 = 11.31$

3- Computing t:

$$tN1 + N2 - 2 = \frac{(\bar{X}1 - \bar{X}2)\sqrt{(N_1 + N2 - 2)N_1 N2}}{\sqrt{(N_1 S_1 + N2\ S2)(N_1 + N2)}}$$

$$= \frac{(20.02 - 15..71)\sqrt{(35 + 35 - 2)35 \times 35}}{\sqrt{(35 \times 9.91 + 35 \times 11.31) \times (35 + 35)}}$$

$$= \frac{4.31\sqrt{68 \times 1225}}{\sqrt{(346.85 + 395.85) \times 70}}$$

$$= \frac{4.31\sqrt{83300}}{\sqrt{742.7 \times 70}}$$

$$= \frac{4.31\sqrt{83300}}{\sqrt{51989}}$$

$$= \frac{1243.90}{228.01}$$

$$= \mathbf{5.45}$$

4- Calculating df :

df = 35 + 35 − 2 = 68

For 68 degrees of freedom corresponding to 0.05 level of significance, for one tailed hypothesis, the tabulated t value for independent samples is 1.66.

Thus, the results are statistically significant because the computed t of 5.45 is higher than the critical value of 1.66. We reject the null hypothesis which stated that the experimental group would not exhibit a high overall text organization in comparison with the control group.

5.4.2. T-test for Pre- and Post-tests of the Experimental Group

As a further check, the significance of difference between the mean scores of the experimental group on the variables of pre-test and post-test scores was also tested at 0.05 level by using the independent t-test, and then the same procedures were made with the control group. As for the necessary data to compute t-value, they are shown in Appendix H.

1- Calculating the means:

$$X_1 = \frac{515}{35} = 14.71 \qquad X_2 = \frac{701}{35} = 20.02$$

2- Calculating the variances: S_1 and S2 .

$$S_1 = \frac{7927}{35} - 14.71^2 = 10.1 \qquad S_2^2 = \frac{14375}{35} - 20.02^2 = 9.91$$

3- Computing t:

$$t\mathrm{N1} + \mathrm{N2} - 2 = \frac{(\bar{X}1 - \bar{X}2)\sqrt{(N_1 + N2 - 2)N_1 N2}}{\sqrt{(N_1 S_1 + N2\ S2)(N_1 + N2)}}$$

$$= \frac{(14.71 - 20.02)\sqrt{(35 + 35 - 2)35 \times 35}}{\sqrt{(35 \times 10.1 + 35 \times 9.91) \times (35 + 35)}}$$

$$= \frac{-5.31\sqrt{68 \times 1225}}{\sqrt{(353.5 + 346.85) \times 70}}$$

$$= \frac{-5.31\sqrt{83300}}{\sqrt{700.35 \times 70}}$$

$$= \frac{-5.31\sqrt{83300}}{\sqrt{49024.5}}$$

$$= \frac{-1532.51}{221.41}$$

$$= \mathbf{-6.92}$$

It is worth mentioning that it is not important whether the t value is positive or negative as long as the means are reported; it is acceptable to drop the negative sign when reporting the t-value. Therefore, t= 6.92.

Since the computed t of 6.92 is greater than the critical value of 1.66, the experimental group results are statistically significant. This significant improvement obtained by the experimental group at the end of the treatment explains the evidence that providing the subjects with such treatment that makes them aware of the levels of discourse structure through reading could effectively help them structure the content of their essays.

5.4.3. T-test for Pre- and Post-tests of the Control Group

The required data to compute t-value are presented in Appendix H.

1- Calculating the means:

$X_1 = \frac{530}{35} = 15.14$ $\qquad$ $X_2 = \frac{550}{35} = 15.71$

2- Calculating the variances: S_1 and S2 .

$S_1 = \frac{8364}{35} - 15.14^2 = 9.76$ $\qquad$ $S_2^2 = \frac{9034}{35} - 15.71^2 = 11.31$

3- Computing t:

$$t\mathrm{N1} + \mathrm{N2} - 2 = \frac{(\bar{\mathrm{X}}1 - \bar{\mathrm{X}}2)\sqrt{(N_1 + N2 - 2)N_1 N2}}{\sqrt{(N_1 S_1 + N2\ S2)(N_1 + N2)}}$$

$$= \frac{(15.14 - 15.71)\sqrt{(35 + 35 - 2)35 \times 35}}{\sqrt{(35 \times 9.76 + 35 \times 11.31) \times (35 + 35)}}$$

$$= \frac{-0.57\sqrt{68 \times 1225}}{\sqrt{(341.6 + 395.85) \times 70}}$$

$$= \frac{-0.57\sqrt{83300}}{\sqrt{737.45 \times 70}}$$

$$= \frac{-5.31\sqrt{83300}}{\sqrt{51621.5}}$$

$$= \frac{-164.50}{227.20}$$

= -0.72

As the computed t 0.72 is less than the critical value 1.66, the results of the control group could be reported as statistically non- significant. This insignificant improvement in the performance of the control group could be traced back to the subjects' unawareness of the use of some basic aspects of discourse structure.

5.4.4 Statistical Improvement in Discourse Macrostructure and Microstructure Levels

Table 5.15. Comparison of the Performance in Macrostructure Level between the Post-tests of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Post-test	Groups	Mean	Variances	t
Macrostructure	Experimental	9.65	2.88	**4.50**
	Control	7.57	4.38	

t < 1.66

Table 5.16. Comparison of the Performance in Microstructure Level between the Post-tests of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Post-test	Groups	Mean	Variances	t
Microstructure	Experimental	10.31	2.99	**5.03**
	Control	8.14	3.09	

t < 1.66

Table 5.17. Comparison between the Experimental Group Performance in Macrostructure and Microstructure Levels in the Post-test

Group	Levels of discourse structure	Mean	Variances	t
Experimental group	Macrostructure	9.65	2.88	**-1.58**
	Microstructure	10.31	2.99	

t < 1.66

The data displayed in Table (5.15) indicate that there was significant difference in discourse macrostructure performance between the experimental and control group in favor of the post-test results (t= 4.50, t < 1.66). Similarly, Table (5.16) depicts that there was a significant difference in microstructure performance as well (t= 5.03, t < 1.66). Again these results prove that the experimental group has outperformed the control group.

The results presented in Table (5.17) show that there was no significant change between the scores of the experimental group in the macrostructure level and microstructure level as (t= -1.58). These results highly confirm that reading was helpful in improving both levels of discourse and that the students have not been influenced by only one level.

5.4.5 Statistical Improvement in Individual Aspects

- **Introduction Improvement**

Table 5.18. Comparison of Introduction Organization between the Pre-Test and the Post-Test of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Groups	Test type	Mean	Variances	t
Experimental	Pre-test	2.74	0.67	**-3.95**
	Post-test	3.51	0.62	
Control	Pre-test	2.69	0.68	**-0.88**
	Post-test	2.89	1.05	

t< 1.66

Table 5.19. Comparison of Introduction Organization between the Post-tests of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Post-test	Groups	Mean	Variances	t
Introduction Organisation	Experimental	3.51	0.62	**3.17**
	Control	2.89	1.05	

t < 1.66

Table (5.18) displays that the mean of the experimental group's performance in writing introduction improved from (2.74) in the pre-test to (7.27) in the post-test and therefore the

difference was significant (t = -3.95, t< 1.66). On the other hand, the performance in writing introduction in the pre-test and post-test of the control group was not statistically different (t= - 0.88, > 1.66). Moreover, the results indicate that there was significant differences between the control and experimental groups in favor of the post-test results (t = 3.17, t< 1.66).

In more details, (13) participants in the experimental group have gained similar scores in both pre-test and post-test, and (22) participants have achieved improvement in terms of maintaining relevance, thesis statement placement, or using the appropriate organizational pattern. As for the control group, only (10) participants have improved their scores in the post-test, (16) participants have maintained the same scores, and (9) participants have obtained scores that are worse than the ones obtained in the pre-test. Those last participants have, especially, written introductions with no identifiable thesis statement and have made some errors related to maintaining relevance.

- **Body Improvement**

Table 5.20. Comparison of Body Organization between the Pre-test and the Post-test of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Groups	Test type	Mean	Variances	T
Experimental	Pre-test	2.11	0.48	**-5.36**
	Post-test	3.08	0.63	
Control	Pre-test	2.31	0.52	**1.06**
	Post-test	2.11	0.69	

t< 1.66

Table 5.21. Comparison of Body Organization between the Post-tests of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Post-test	Groups	Mean	Variances	T
Body organization	Experimental	3.08	0.63	**4.92**
	Control	2.11	0.69	

t < 1.66

When Table (5.20) is analyzed, a significant difference was found among pre-test and post-test achievement scores of experimental group students (t= -5.36, t < -/+ 1.66). On the other hand, the performance of the control group subjects was not significantly different across the tests (t= 1.06, t > -/+ 1.66). In terms of mean change scores between the post-tests of both groups, table (5.21) clearly shows that the experimental group outperformed the control group (t= 4.92, < -/+ 1.66).

In specific terms, (28) participants of the experimental group increased their scores slightly in body organization. Specifically, they reduced the number of errors related to the sufficiency and relevance of supporting details, unclear topic sentences, and paragraph division. The remaining (7) participants have made no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores. Concerning the control group, body organization has witnessed a notable decrease; it was found that (9) participants has performed worse than in the pre-test, (22) were not able to increase their scores and therefore maintained the same scores and errors of the pre-test, and only (4) improved their scores.

- **Conclusion Improvement**

Table 5.22. Comparison of Conclusion Organization between the Pre-test and the Post-test of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Groups	Test type	Mean	Variances	T
Experimental	Pre-test	2.17	0.50	**-5.59**
	Post-test	3.08	0.40	
Control	Pre-test	2.20	0.50	**-2.24**
	Post-test	2.57	0.42	

t< ±1.66

Table 5.23. Comparison of Conclusion Organization between the Post-tests of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Post-test	Groups	Mean	Variances	T
Conclusion organization	Experimental	3.08	0.50	**3.10**
	Control	2.57	0.42	

t< ±1.66

As it is represented in Table (5.22), there was significant difference between the pre-test versus post-test scores of the experimental group subjects (t-5.59, t > ±1.66) and the control group subjects as well (t= -2.24, t > ±1.66). The results of the t-test in Table (5.23), however, convey that the mean difference between the experimental group and control group of the post-tests was significant (t= 3.10, t > ±1.66). In other words, though both of the groups made a significant improvement in the post-test, the performance of the experimental group was better than that of the control group.

Unlike in the pre-test, in the post-test, (25) experimental group's participants obtained higher scores; (12) of them added personal opinions to their introductions, and some of the rest avoided the mere repetition of the thesis statement, summarized the main points, stated the thesis statement or avoided the new topic inclusion. The (10) other participants kept the same scores of the pretest; in other words, the same errors were approximately found. On the other hand, (12) participants of the control group improved their scores, especially, in terms of summarizing the main points and restating the thesis statement, only one participant got a low score, and (22) participants obtained similar scores with that obtained in the pre-test.

- **Thematic structure improvement**

Table 5.24. Comparison of the Use of Thematic Structure between the Pre-Test and the Post-Test of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Groups	Test type	Mean	Variances	T
Experimental	Pre-test	2.40	0.41	**-5.31**
	Post-test	3.25	0.46	
Control	Pre-test	2.57	0.48	**0.00**
	Post-test	2.57	0.54	

t< 1.66

Table 5.25. Comparison of the Use of Thematic Structure between the Post-Tests of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Post-test	Groups	Mean	Variances	T
Thematic structure	Experimental	3.25	0.46	**3.96**
	Control	2.57	0.54	

t < 1.66

According to Table (5.24), unlike the experimental group's pre-test, there was significant improvement in distributing thematic information in the post-test (t = -5.31, t <-/+ 1.66). However, there was no notable improvement between the pre-test and the post-test of the control group as (t = 0.00, p > -/+ 1.66). Moreover, a comparison of the use of thematic structure between the post-test essays of both groups indicates that more successful thematic structures were found in the experimental group than in the control group (see Table 5.25).

The change in the experimental group performance in the use of thematic structure was noticed in (27) papers, (13) of them used more precise and different thematic progression patterns, and the remaining others avoided some of the frequent errors encountered such as the intervening materials between the rheme and the subsequent theme, absence of topical theme, and other less serious errors. However, (8) participants maintained the same scores of pre-test. Regarding the control group's post-test, only (6) participants boosted their scores, the same number of participants lowered their scores, and (23) received equal scores with that of the pre-test.

- **Cohesion Improvement**

Table 5.26. Comparison of the Use of Cohesion between the Pre-test and the Post-test of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Groups	Test type	Mean	Variances	T
Experimental	Pre-test	2.34	0.58	**-4.89**
	Post-test	3.22	0.52	
Control	Pre-test	2.37	0.41	**-0.71**
	Post-test	2.48	0.39	

t< 1.66

Table 5.27. Comparison of the Use of Cohesion between the Post-tests of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Post-test	Groups	Mean	Variances	T
Cohesion	Experimental	3.22	0.52	**4.52**
	Control	2.48	0.39	

t < 1.66

As Table (5.26) illustrates, cohesion improved significantly between the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group (t = -4.89, t < +/- 1.66). On the other hand, the use of cohesion in the pre-test and post-test of the control group was not statistically different (t= -0.71, t > -/+ 1.66). The results also indicate that there was a prominent distinction between the post-tests of the two groups (see t value in Table 5.27).

Speaking precisely, (24) Experimental group participants showed improvement either in pronoun shifts, pronoun reference, or use of conjunctions, and (8) from them particularly avoided undue repetition of key words that have nothing to do with the structure and the content. The remaining (11) participants obtained similar marks with that of the pretest. As far as the control group is concerned, only (8) participants improved their scores, (24) maintained the same scores, and (4) received low scores in comparison with their pre-test scores.

- **Coherence Relations Improvement**

Table 5.28. Comparison of the Use of Coherence Relations between the Pre-test and the Post-Test of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Groups	Test type	Mean	Variances	T
Experimental	Pre-test	2.91	0.56	**-5.35**
	Post-test	3.80	0.38	
Control	Pre-test	2.97	0.43	**-0.67**
	Post-test	3.08	0.46	

t< 1.66

Table 5.29. Comparison of the Use of Coherence Relations between the Post-tests of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Post-test	Groups	Mean	Variances	T
Coherence relations	Experimental	3.80	0.38	**4.58**
	Control	3.08	0.46	

t < 1.66

As table (5.28) indicates, the results of the analysis show that the experimental group used appropriately coherence relations in the post-test than in the pre-test (t = -5.35, t < -/+1.66), whereas there was no significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test of the control group (t = -0.67, t > -/+ 1.66). To compare between the post-tests of the experimental group and the control group, table (5.29) displays that there was a statistically outstanding difference regarding the use of coherence relations (t = 2.5166, p < .05).

The improvement of the experimental group in the post-test was reflected in (27) papers, which used elaboration relations appropriately than in the pretest, and thus gave support to the stated ideas. Furthermore, the problem of incorrect use of connectives has been little reduced in these papers. In the control group, on the other hand, (25) participants stuck on their pretest marks, only (7) participants made an improvement, and (3) participants decreased their marks.

Conclusion

According to the discussion of the results presented above, the experimental group has made significant improvement in writing organization than the control group did. What seems quite likely to have differentiated the subjects in the experimental group was their awareness of the use of aspects of discourse macrostructure and microstructure that they grasped during the experiment implementation. Accordingly, one can conclude that the first stated hypothesis has been confirmed

Chapter Six

Students' and Teachers' Questionnaire

Introduction……

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6.2 Teachers' Questionnaire……

6.2.1 Analysis and Discussion of the Results…….

6.2.2 Summary of the Main Findings…….

Conclusion……

Chapter Six

Students' and Teachers' Questionnaire

Introduction

The findings of this study are displayed by means of three instruments as detailed in the methodology description. While the preceding chapter was devoted to discuss the data derived from the writing tests, this chapter analyzes data yielded by the students' and teachers' questionnaires. As the title indicates, this chapter is divided into two parts. The first part is concerned with the students' questionnaire; its analysis, discussion, and summary of the main findings, while the second part pertains to the teachers' questionnaire with the same procedures followed with the former questionnaire (analysis, discussion, and summary). The data obtained throughout this chapter enables the researcher to validate the second postulated hypothesis which is formulated as follows:

- Incorporating reading paradigms to teach writing in general and aspects of discourse macrostructure and microstructure in particular would trigger positive attitudes among teachers and students alike.

6.1. Students' Questionnaire

6.1.1 Analysis and Discussion of the Results

Students' Attitudes toward Learning Writing

Question 1: Is EFL writing more difficult to practice than the other language skills?

a- Yes

b- No

Table 6.1. Students' Perceptions of the Difficulty of EFL Writing

Option	N	%
a	27	77.15
b	08	22.85
Total	35	100

As the table indicates, (77.15%) of the respondents considered writing as a difficult skill to practise, while for (22.85%), it was not. The results obtained in answer to this former question prove that a large number of students (77.15%) perceived the difficulty of writing. It reflects the fact that this skill requires too much time and effort to learn how to compose an accurate and effective piece of writing, even from the part of native speakers. Accordingly, needless to mention that it is not easy at all for an EFL learner to practise something that an average native speaker usually recognizes as a difficult practice. Proposing as much as possible of approaches that can meet the students' needs to minimize this difficulty, therefore, should be a priority taken by writing teachers who aspire to develop their students' writing abilities. In spite that fact, we find that less than quarter (22.85%) of the students considered writing as less difficult than the other language skills. We assume that these students are either likely to have a good level in writing, or simply they are not aware of the difficulty of such skill, the reason why they dwarfed its difficulty.

Question 2: What are the sources of EFL writing difficulties?

a- Insufficient English language proficiency

b- First language interference

c- Lack of reading

d- Lack of interest and motivation

e- Time constraint

f- Others

Table 6.2. Students' Perceptions of Sources of Writing Difficulties

Option	N	%
a	15	12.94
b	24	20.68
c	27	23.27
d	15	12.94
e	17	14.65
f	00	00
b c	03	2.58
a, b, c, d, e,	15	12.94
Total	116	100

The above table points out that (12.94%) of the respondents selected all the options, while (2.58%) of them chose two options together, and no one added a further source. However, when considering the one-option answers, the most frequently mentioned source of EFL writing difficulty was 'lack of reading' with a percentage of (23.27%) of students and then 'first language interference' in the second position with a percentage of (20.68%). Other (14.65%) of students viewed 'time constraint' as their main obstacle in writing, while 'insufficient English language proficiency' and 'lack of interest and motivation' were opted for as the last source by an equal percentage of students (12.94%).

A detailed reading of the students responses to this second question indicates that lack of reading and first language interference constitute the main sources of the writing difficulty. In fact, these findings reinforce the teacher's assumption when he initially stated that the students tend to apply their perception of learning Arabic to write in English due to the absence of reading. More specifically, reading in the department of English is absent almost totally in writing and completely as an official program, which leads the students to devote a less attention to this necessary skill. Thus, reading plays, in our opinion, a crucial role in minimizing first language interference as it exposes the students to the writing conventions of the target language.

Question 3: Are you satisfied with your level of writing?

a- Yes

b- No

c- I can not decide

Table 6.3. Students' Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction with their Writing Level

Option	N	%
a	4	11.42
b	23	65.72
c	8	22.86
Total	35	100

Two thirds (65.72%) of the students did not seem to be satisfied with their level of writing; (11.42%) seemed satisfied; and (22.86%) found themselves in a position where they could not choose either way.

Question 4: If "no", please, say why

Students' responses to this question are collected and classified according to their sameness as follows:

Table 6.4: Students' Reasons for Dissatisfaction with their Writing Level

Option	N	%
Problems with some basic writing skills	9	39.13
General linguistic inferiority	4	17.39
Insufficient knowledge about the writing process	2	8.69
No answer	8	34.78
Total	23	100

As it was expected, considering writing as a difficult skill to practise makes the students unsatisfied with their writing level, even when they upsize their efforts. This was the case with twenty three students whose dissatisfaction's reasons are mainly traced back to the fact that their basic writing skills are not yet well developed, linguistically they are insecure, and their knowledge about the writing process is insufficient.

Question 5: Which aspect does always cause you the greatest difficulty while writing? (You may pick up more than one)

a- Content

b- Organization

c- Grammar

d- Vocabulary

e- Mechanics

Table 6.5. Students' Perception of the Difficulty of Writing Aspects

Option	N	%
a, b	6	17.14
a, c	2	5.71
a, e	3	8.57
b, e	2	5.71
d, e	5	14.28
a, b, c	4	11.42
b, d, e	2	5.71
a, b, c, d, e	11	31.42
Total	35	100

Once again, it is confirmed that writing is a difficult and a highly demanding task when the figures in the table above indicate that all the experimental group students locate their difficulty at more than one level by ticking two to three to all options. More precisely, the highest percentage of them (31.42%) said that all the aspects are difficult, (17.14%) opted for content and organization, (14.28%) opted for vocabulary and mechanics, (11.42%) opted for content, organization, and grammar, (8.57%) opted for content and mechanics, and the least percentage (5.71%) opted for either content and grammar, organization and mechanics, or organization, vocabulary and mechanics. This clearly unmasks the few students' pretence or unawareness when stating that writing is not a difficult task and that they are satisfied with their writing level.

Statement 6: Classify the above aspects according to the importance you give them in writing (From the most important to the least important).

Table 6.6. Students' Classification of the Aspects of Writing According to Importance

Option	N	%
a	12	20
b	19	31.66
c	9	15
d	5	8.34
e	10	16.66
a, b, c, d, e	5	8.34
Total	60	100

The results tabulated above make clear that "organization" was considered the most important aspect as (31.66%) of the respondents ranked it the first, followed by "content" with (20%), "mechanics" with (16.66%), and "grammar" with (15%). The least taken as important was "vocabulary" with (8.34%). Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that, for (8.34%) of the respondents, all the aspects are of equal importance and therefore all were ranked in the first position.

The rank of organization is, in our opinion, quite normal since organization plays an important role in writing expository essays. Having a strong organization in such kind of essays is the first priority which the student should afford; otherwise, the ideas will not proceed logically and the information will not be given in the right doses and at the right times, even when grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics are well used. Moreover, being affected by the experiment conducted about incorporating discourse structure in teaching writing might impact the students' perception of the significance of that aspect.

Question 7: Of the preceding aspects, which one do you feel you have improved most this year? (You may pick up more than one)

Table 6.7 Students' Improvement in Aspects of Writing

Option	N	%
a	2	3.39
b	30	50.84
c	8	13.55
d	00	00
e	5	8.48
b, a	2	3.39
b, c	5	8.48
b, e	5	8.48
No answer	2	3.39
Total	59	100

Regarding the students' responses, one should first make clear that (20.35% = 3.39% + 8.48% + 8.48%) of the respondents selected integrative options. As for one-option answers, the common shared answer between more than half (50.84%) of the students is that they improved the aspect of "organization". The remaining percentages of students (13.55%, 8.48%, and 3.39%) reported that they improved "grammar", "mechanics", and "content" respectively. However, no one felt that "vocabulary" is the most improved aspect.

Consistent with the test findings, of the 35 students of the experimental group, 30 confirmed that their writing organization has been mostly improved in comparison with the other aspects. This clearly indicates that teaching discourse structure aspects had a positive impact on the students writing organization. Along with this latter, some aspects such as grammar and mechanics have been also reported as improved aspects, yet not considerably. This means that being exposed to discourse structure improved the said aspects as well, especially the students were taught the grammatical cohesive elements and coherence relations. In the case of this latter, maybe, it was helpful in the sense that it identifies the sentence boundaries, and therefore, it improves punctuation.

Students' Attitudes toward the Significance of Reading

Statement 8: Rank the following language skills according to the importance you give them in your foreign language learning (From the most important to the least important 1- 4).

a- Speaking

b- Listening

c- Writing

d- Reading

Table 6.8. Students' Classification of the Foreign Language Skills According to Importance

Option	N	%
a	22	62.86
b	4	11.42
c	7	20
d	2	5.72
Total	35	100

It is evident from the table above that, of all the four language skills, a large proportion of students (62.86%) regards speaking as the most essential to get ahead today, followed by writing with (20%) and reading with (11.42%). Listening was the least ranked important with a rate of (5.72%).

When investigating the importance attached to the reading skill vis a vis the other language skills, one should be convinced that reading could not precede speaking or writing in terms of importance. This clearly explains that students still possess the classical tendency to center their attention on the productive skills at the expanse of the receptive skills. Therefore, it is not surprising that most students attach a great importance to speaking and writing as, in their opinion, they are the primary channels used to communicate in the target language.

Question 9: Do you like reading in EFL?

a- Yes

b- No

c- To some extent

Table 6.9. Students' Appreciation of Reading in EFL

Option	N	%
a	33	94.28
b	00	00
c	1	2.86
No answer	1	2.86
Total	35	100

The common shared attitude between almost all the students (88.57%) is that they all like reading in EFL; only 1 student stated that he likes it but to some extent, and another one did not answer this question. The students' responses reveal that though reading is not of much importance as speaking and writing, the majority of them appreciate the act of reading.

Question 10: Before the experiment you took, how often do you read in EFL out of the classroom?

a- Very often

b- Sometimes

c- Rarely

d- Never

Table 6.10. Students' EFL Reading Frequency outside the Classroom before the Experiment

Option	N	%
a	4	11.42
b	6	17.14
c	23	65.72
d	00	00
No answer	2	5.72
Total	35	100

Looking at table (6.10), one can notice that (5.72%) of the respondents did not provide any answer to this question, only (11.42%) confessed that they read very often in EFL outside the classroom, and (17.14%) replied sometimes. The highest percentage of them (65.72%), however, declared that they rarely do.

Question 11: For what purpose were you generally reading?

a- Looking for information

b- Doing language tasks and activities given by teachers

c- Developing specific language aspects and skills

d- Getting pleasure

e- Others

Table 6.11. Students' Purposes for Reading in EFL before the Experiment

Option	N	%
a	5	14.29
b	24	68.58
c	2	5.71
d	4	11.42
e	00	00
Total	60	100

The results obtained form table (6.11) denote that "doing language tasks and activities" were the most frequently named purpose (68.58%), followed by "looking for information" purpose with (14.29%). "Getting pleasure" was cited by (11.42%), and just over (5%) opted for "developing specific language aspects and skills". It is worth noting that no one added another purpose.

The students were frank in reporting that their major purpose for reading in EFL was to accomplish some language tasks and activities given by the teachers. So, fortunately, there have been some teachers who assign such tasks and activities which forced the students to read outside the classroom; otherwise, a large proportion of students would not do so. The other very small percentages of students claimed that they were reading for looking for information, getting pleasure, and developing specific language aspects respectively. This last purpose, which is relevant to this study has been cited by only two students, the fact which elucidates the students' unawareness about the significance of this skill in developing any language skill or aspect. In other words, one can deduce that some students were giving reading the label of passive skill which is, in fact, a misnomer. The students' misperception of

the importance of reading may stem from the fact that superficially, the students seem to only take a text, read it, and respond to some questions related to comprehension. However, it is not as passive as it has been claimed to be.

Question 12: After the experiment, how often do you read in EFL out of the classroom?

a- Very often
b- Sometimes
c- Rarely
d- Never

Table 6.12. Students' EFL Reading Frequency outside the Classroom after the Experiment

Option	N	%
a	13	37.15
b	18	51.43
c	4	11.42
d	00	00
Total	35	100

According to table (6.12), (11.42%) of the participants admitted that they still rarely read in EFL outside the classroom after the experiment, around (38%) said "Vey often", more than half (51.43%) opted for "Sometimes", but no one said "Never". Once again, the questionnaire findings corroborate the test findings in that the conducted experiment was beneficial to the students; it seemed to change positively their EFL reading habit. When comparing the students' responses to a question related to their frequency of reading in EFL outside the classroom before and after the experiment, it was found that the majority of the students (65.72%) were reading rarely before the experiment. This can be described as a normal act from the part of the students who were not given enough opportunities to perceive the importance of this skill. After the experiment these negative attitudes have been changed. For example, there were only (4) students who stated that they read rarely in EFL which was

not the case before the experiment where there were (23) who stated that. After the experiment, most students got more interested and motivated to read.

Question 13: How often do teachers assign reading in the other language courses (Grammar, Linguistics, Phonetics …etc.)?

a- Very often

b- Sometimes

c- Rarely

d- Never

Table 6.13. Frequency of Assigning Reading in the Different Language Courses

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	1	2.86
c	27	77.14
d	6	17.14
No answer	1	2.86
Total	35	100

As it was pointed out previously, reading is a neglected skill in EFL classrooms at Constantine University 1. That was apparent from the students' responses where an overwhelming majority (77.14%) reported that reading is rarely assigned in the different language courses, and some others (17.14) went far in stating that teachers do never assign readings. Therefore, it comes out clearly that the students did never experience learning language aspects through reading English materials. Actually, we are among the teachers to prove that incorporating reading practically in EFL classrooms could be more beneficial.

Question 14: In your opinion, is reading necessary for these language courses?

a- Yes

b- No

d- Somehow

Table 6.14. Students' Opinions about the Significance of Reading in the Different Language Courses

Option	N	%
a	33	94.28
b	00	00
c	2	5.72
Total	35	100

As it can be seen from table (6.14), basically, most students (94.28%) believe that reading is significant in learning the different language courses; meanwhile, (5.72%) regarded its significance as relative and therefore opted for the option of "somehow".

Question 15: Whatever your answer, please say why.

The two participants whose response was "somehow" did not provide any reason, but the remaining (33) participants whose response was "yes" were grouped and tabulated as under:

Table 6.15. Students' Reasons for the Significance of Reading in the Different Language Courses

Option	**N**	**%**
Reading represents the input or/and model to reinforce and facilitate the learning of language courses.	25	64.10
Reading creates a pleasant atmosphere in the EFL classroom.	6	15.38
Reading increases the students' critical thinking and attention to the target language issues.	5	12.82
No answer	3	7.70
Total	39	100

The responses attained reveal that more than two thirds of the students (64.10%) agreed that reading is significant in the different language courses as it represents the input or model to reinforce and facilitate the learning of these courses. Indeed, it is deeply satisfying to know that the students got aware of this major principle of intensive reading. Students also referred to the idea that reading creates a pleasant atmosphere. In learning a foreign language, being pleasant is probably the first demand; otherwise, the outcome will certainly not be brilliant.

Finally, some others offered the reason that reading increases the students' critical thinking and attention to the target language issues. This is also quite interesting because when the students read, they will recurrently reflect, analyze, synthesize, argue, hypothesize, evaluate, and apply. As for attention, when the instruction is intertwined with reading texts, this can increase more attention to what is supposed to be learnt than when the teacher merely explains.

The Significance of Reading in Promoting Aspects of Discourse Structure in Writing

Statement 16: Integrating reading and writing in one course is better than separating them.

a- Agree
b- Disagree
c- I do not know

Table 6.16. Students' Attitudes toward Integrating Reading and Writing in One Course

Option	N	%
a	33	94.29
b	00	00
c	2	5.71
Total	35	100

It is evident from table (6.16) that almost all the students (94.29%) consider reading and writing as two skills which should be developed in close collaboration. This means that they are highly aware of the interconnection between reading and writing.

Question 17: What do you think of the reading assignments in the composition course?

The students' answers are illustrated in the table below:

Table 6.17. Students' Opinions about the Reading Assignment in the Composition Course

Options	N	%
They are helpful as they illustrate models of either good or bad writing.	17	38.64
They are very important.	14	31.81
They create a joyful environment.	6	13.64
They are the best assignments.	4	9.09
They inspire us.	3	6.82
Total	44	100

Table (6.17) displays that the highest percentages of students (38.64%) and (31.81%) regarded the reading assignments in the composition course as helpful and very important respectively. Moreover, a small proportion (13.64%) said that these assignments create a joyful environment, (9.09%) said that they are the best assignments, and (6.82%) conveyed that they inspired them.

Question 18: Did reading help you to gain knowledge about discourse organization?

a - Yes

b- No

c- Somehow

Table 6.18. Students' Opinions about the Significance of Reading in Developing Discourse Knowledge

Option	N	%
a	34	97.14
b	00	00
c	00	00
No answer	1	2.86
Total	35	100

Except for one student who did not answer this question, and this certainly will not alter the final results, the results attained reveal that almost all the students agree that reading was helpful in gaining knowledge about discourse organization, in the sense that (97.14%) replied yes. This, in fact, substantiates the assumption that reading could be the best tool to have the students understand how written discourse is structured globally or locally. Once more, it was maintained that it would be of great interest for the achievement of this research that most

students, if not all, hold the same positive view about the role of reading in promoting discourse structure knowledge.

Question 19: If yes, how do you think it helped you?

The students replied to this open ended question as follows:

Table 6.19. Students' Clarification of the Contribution of Reading in Gaining Knowledge about Discourse Organization

Options	N	%
My writing got more organized	29	51.78
I got aware of the levels of discourse	18	32.14
I can comprehend texts more easily	9	16.07
Total	56	100

As a consequence of the knowledge gained about discourse structure by means of reading, a large proportion of the students surveyed responded that their writing got more organized. Indeed, this answer was anticipated because the test's findings indicated this foremost. What is rather looked forward to was the students' perception and affirmation. Besides, the students pointed out that they got aware of the levels of discourse. According to them, it is only through reading some text models that they could come to an inclusive understanding to these levels. Another important finding that emerged from this answer is that we did not await the students to allude to awareness consciously. We thought that, at this stage, it is only the teacher who perceives consciously the increase of students' discourse structure awareness. Accordingly, it is an interesting result knowing that the students are aware that they got aware of how discourse is structured; metacognitive knowledge. Finally, some other students clarified that gaining discourse structure knowledge has helped them greatly in text comprehension. This is quite reasonable as well since such knowledge had a positive impact on the students' written production, so why not on reading comprehension?

Though this issue is not relevant to this research, it is nonetheless, an interesting track to pursue hopefully in the future researches.

Question 20: Again if "yes", which level did reading contribute most to make it easier to perceive?

a- Macrostructure

b- Microstructure

Table 6.20. Students' Opinions about the Contribution of Reading in Making the Levels of Discourse Structure Easier to Comprehend

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	15	42.86
a, b	17	48.57
No answer	3	8.57
Total	35	100

The results show that the highest percentage (48.57%) opted for the two options: macrostructure and microstructure. This allows us to think that it was difficult for those students to understand both levels, but through reading, they could do. Another considerable percentage of students (42.86%) said that reading had much more effects on discourse microstructure comprehension. This explains the fact that, at this stage, those students found it difficult to understand the cohesive ties, thematic structure, and coherence relations, but being exposed to these aspects through reading made it possible and even easier to comprehend. Indeed, this was one of the researcher's challenges. Before the beginning of the study, some of the experienced teachers recommended the researcher to teach the cohesive ties and thematic structure explicitly at a more higher level because, in their opinions, such concepts may confuse the learners who are supposed to learn firstly the macrostructure of an essay. However, sticking to the belief that reading could be helpful made the researcher maintain this challenge. Thankfully, the findings were not very disappointing.

Question 21: Have you experienced any difficulties during the composition course while dealing with reading texts?

a- Yes

b- No

Table 6.21. Students' Attitudes toward Experiencing Difficulties while Dealing with Reading Texts

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	33	94.28
No answer	2	5.72
Total	35	100

According to table (6.21), quasi totality of students (94.28%) reported that they have not experienced any difficulties during the composition course when dealing with reading texts. The rest of the participants (5.72%) did not give any answer.

Question 22: If "Yes", please, mention these difficulties.

The experimental group students' were given space to voice any difficulties they encountered while dealing with reading texts. We expected the students to fill up the empty space devoted for such a purpose with many comments, but unfortunately, almost all of them ticked "no". There may be two possible reasons for that. Either the students were afraid of the teacher researcher, though the questionnaire is anonymous, or it is true that they did not experience any difficulty. If the last perspective is true, it means that incorporating reading is an effective technique for teaching, on the one hand, and texts as materials were best selected on the other hand. As evidence, the students at the outset of the course found some difficulties to understand theoretically thematic structure, organizational patterns, and cohesive elements, but when we move to analyze such aspects in texts, they could grasp them.

Question 23: Now, when you read, can you analyze critically the learnt aspects of discourse structure levels in any text?

a- Yes

b- No

c- I do not know

Table 6.22. Students' Opinions about their Ability to Analyze Critically Aspects of Discourse Structure

Option	N	%
a	16	45.72
b	07	20
c	12	34.28
Total	35	100

As it is mentioned in Table (6.22), (45.72%) of the students surveyed replied positively that they can analyze the learnt aspects of discourse structure levels successfully when they read any text. These findings are reasonable since this utter confidence certainly stemmed from the good understanding of all the learnt aspects as well as the development of active engagement and interaction with texts. One of the experiment potential outcomes, therefore, was creating in the students this habit of reading deliberately for the sake of analyzing the materials critically and then applying them in writing. On the other hand, (20%) students seemed that they did not yet develop the capacity to analyze all the learnt aspects in any text. Probably, they still require more time and texts to master fully the said aspects, and therefore, deal with the analysis successfully. The remaining (34.28%) students declared that they do not know. Certainly, no one blames them for an action that will take place in the future, because, maybe, those students can decide only in the presence of the text, especially, their worry seemed to relate to "in any text".

Students' Opinions about Using Aspects of Discourse Structure Levels in Writing

Question 24: After being introduced to discourse macrostructure and microstructure through reading, how difficult are the following aspects to you while writing an essay?

a- very Difficult

b- difficult

c- neither difficult nor easy

d- easy

e- very easy

a- Writing General Statements

Table 6.23. Degree of Difficulty of Writing General Statements

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	2	5.71
c	21	60
d	9	25.72
e	3	8.57
Total	35	100

b-Selecting Appropriate Rhetorical Pattern

Table 6.24. Degree of Difficulty of Selecting Appropriate Rhetorical Pattern to the Essay

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	3	8.58
c	1	2.86
d	5	14.28
e	26	74.28
Total	35	100

c-Writing Good Thesis Statement

Table 6.25. Degree of Difficulty of Writing a Good Thesis Statement

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	00	00
c	00	00
d	5	14.28
e	30	85.72
Total	35	100

d-Writing good topic sentences

Table 6.26. Degree of Difficulty of Writing Good Topic Sentences

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	00	00
c	2	5.71
d	27	77.14
e	6	17.15
Total	35	100

e- Writing Sufficient and Relevant Supporting Sentences

Table 6.27. Degree of Difficulty of Writing Sufficient and Relevant Supporting Sentences

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	9	25.71
c	18	51.44
d	8	22.85
e	00	00
Total	35	100

f-Restating the Thesis Statement in the Conclusion

Table 6.28. Degree of Difficulty of Restating the Thesis Statement

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	00	00
c	00	00
d	2	5.71
e	33	94.29
Total	35	100

g- Summarizing the Major Points of the Essay in the Conclusion

Table 6.29. Degree of Difficulty of Summarizing the Major Points of the Essay

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	00	00
c	9	25.72
d	26	74.28
e	00	00
Total	35	100

h-Writing a Relevant Comment at the End of the Essay

Table 6.30. Degree of Difficulty of Writing a Relevant Comment

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	4	11.43
c	24	68.57
d	7	20
e	00	00
Total	35	100

i-Linking the Sentences with Appropriate Coherence Relations

Table 6.31. Degree of Difficulty of Linking the Sentences with the Appropriate Coherence Relations

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	1	2.86
c	5	14.28
d	27	77.14
e	2	5.72
Total	35	100

j-Using Reference Ties

Table 6.32. Degree of Difficulty of Using Reference Ties

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	00	00
c	4	11.42
d	28	80
e	3	8.58
Total	35	100

k-Using Substitution and Ellipsis

Table 6.33. Degree of Difficulty of Using Substitution and Ellipsis

Option	N	%
a	3	8.58
b	15	42.86
c	12	34.28
d	5	14.28
e	00	00
Total	35	100

l- Using Conjunctions

Table 6.34. Degree of Difficulty of Using Conjunctions

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	00	00
c	3	8.57
d	22	62.86
e	10	28.57
Total	35	100

m- Using the Different Lexical Items

Table 6.35. Degree of Difficulty of Using the Lexical Cohesive Items

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	11	31.42
c	18	51.43
d	4	11.43
e	2	5.72
Total	35	100

n- Using the Simple Linear Thematic Progression Pattern

Table 6.36. Degree of Difficulty of Using the Simple Linear Thematic Progression Pattern

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	4	11.43
c	27	77.14
d	4	11.43
e	00	00
Total	35	100

o- Using Constant Thematic Progression Pattern

Table 6.37. Degree of Difficulty of Using the Constant Thematic Progression Pattern

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	00	00
c	8	22.85
d	23	65.72
e	4	11.42
Total	35	100

p- Using Hyperthematic Progression Pattern

Table 6.38. Degree of Difficulty of Using the Hyperthematic Progression Pattern

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	2	5.72
c	29	82.86
d	4	11.42
e	00	00
Total	35	100

q- Using Split Progression Pattern

Table 6.39. Degree of Difficulty of Using the Split Progression Pattern

Option	N	%
a	2	5.72
b	1	2.86
c	23	65.72
d	5	14.28
e	4	11.42
Total	35	100

Examining the table above, one can notice that the students' perceptions of degrees of difficulty of applying discourse structure aspects in writing vary from one aspect to another. In respect to introduction organization, the experimental group participants pointed out that it is not a difficult aspect except with writing general statements which was reported by (60%) of them as neither difficult nor easy. This last finding correlates, on the one hand, with the common belief that starting an essay is often one of the problems students run into, and with the experimental group post-test findings, on the other hand. We found that writing general statements still constitute one of the problems encountered in the students' papers, though there was a significant improvement in introduction writing as a whole. As for selecting an appropriate rhetorical pattern to the essay, the greatest majority of the experimental group participants said it is easy or very easy. In fact, this has been observed even in the classroom practice. For instance, the control group participants used to ask each other about the type of essay which fits most the topic statement; however, very few, if not none, of the experimental group participants asked about that after being well exposed to these organizational patterns. Finally, all the experimental group subjects considered writing a good thesis statement as an easy matter. Again, this was not noticed as a difficult area in the experimental group students' post- test papers or even in the classroom writing practice.

In writing an organized body, almost all the experimental group students said that they write the topic sentences with no difficulties. Unquestionably, this is the easiest part one can realize that the students are good in when analyzing the post-test papers. However, regarding the sufficiency and relevance of the supporting sentences, more than half of the surveyed

students considered them as neither difficult nor easy part. Once again, this last finding confirms that this interesting part of paragraph could not be fully grasped, though the post-test results indicated that the experimental group has outperformed the control group in this part.

Writing an organized conclusion seemed to be also a less difficult area after being exposed to discourse macrostructure. First, all the experimental group students agreed on the easiness of restating the thesis statement. This has been really observed in the students' post-test papers. Second, the vast majority of students (74.28%) reported that summarizing the major points of the essay is easy. Here, most students were also successful in applying that in their post-test writing. Third, concluding with a relevant comment, however, was mentioned to be neither difficult nor easy by a great deal of students. This clearly indicates why some students wrote very good comments, some wrote irrelevant ones, while others completely ignored that part of conclusion. However, on the whole, we have seen that the experimental group participants' conclusions were more organized than that of the control group, the fact which correlates with their aforementioned opinions.

As for applying discourse microstructure comprehension in writing, linking the sentences with the appropriate coherence relations were reported as an easy task by the great majority of the experimental group subjects. Reasonably, we expected the students to comment positively on that aspect since it was not too problematic in the students writing, in comparison with the other aspects, either in the pre-test or post-test.

As far as cohesion is concerned, most students stated that using the reference ties in writing is easy. This was reflected in the experimental group participants' post-test papers; it has been found that the errors linked to pronoun reference were reduced in the post-test. Students' opinions, however, about the degree of difficulty of using ellipsis and substitution are the opposite. The highest percentage of them (42.86%) conveyed that these two cohesive elements are difficult to be used in writing and according to another percentage of students

(34.28%), ellipsis and substitution are neither difficult nor easy. These findings are good reasons why the students use seldom or inappropriately these two cohesive elements in writing. Of all the cohesive devices, only ellipsis and substation were reported as difficult by a high percentage of the subjects surveyed, as well as the most absent elements in the students writing. Conjunction, as another cohesive device, is said to be as an easy element to apply in writing by a large part of the experimental group participants. Once more, the students' opinions coincided with their improvement in this area. Finally, in respect to the different lexical items, half of the students thought of them as neither difficult nor easy to apply in writing, (31.42%) determined its difficulty, while only (11.43%) said that they are easy to apply. The students' opinions here could be described as reasonable because the students have varying lexical knowledge. Those who stated that these elements are easy are likely to have a good command of vocabulary and therefore they could build a lexical cohesiveness easily. However, those who reported the opposite should have a limited lexical repertoire. As for those who are in between, neither difficult not easy, probably, their decision is delayed until they see the topic of writing.

Lastly, having a look on the students' opinions about the degree of difficulty of applying the different thematic progression patterns reveals that the simple linear thematic progression pattern, the hyperthematic progression pattern, and the split progression pattern are reported as neither difficult nor easy by the majority of the experimental group participants. Probably, the reason behind being undecided can be traced back to the fact the students are not enough confident that they can always use them appropriately, especially these three patterns are difficult to be used and need a lot of attention in creating the themes of each sentence. However, the constant thematic progression pattern has been accounted by the majority of the experimental group students as an easy pattern to be used in writing. Undoubtedly, considering this last pattern, the students do not need a lot of imagination since

the first theme of each sentence can be picked up and repeated at the beginning of the next sentences. Although the majority of the experimental group students believed that some thematic progression patterns are neither difficult nor easy, they significantly improved the aspect of thematic structure in the post-test, which was not the case with the control group students who made no significant improvement.

Question 25: In your opinion, is it beneficial to learn all the selected aspects equally and explicitly?

a- Yes

b- No

c- I do not know

Table 6.40. Students' Opinions about the Benefits of Learning all the Selected Aspects of Discourse Equally and Explicitly

Option	N	%
a	33	94.28
b	2	5.72
c	00	00
Total	35	100

Table (6.40) displays that the great majority of students (94.28%) appreciated the benefits of learning all the selected aspects equally and explicitly; whereas, only (5.72%) of them responded negatively.

Statement 26: Whatever your answer, please say why.

Out of the two students who responded negatively, only one clarified that learning the above aspects equally and explicitly confused him. Thankfully, it was only two respondents who had negative attitudes; otherwise, part of the hypothesis would not be confirmed at least from the students' standpoints. As for the remaining students who replied positively, their justifications were classified according to their sameness and tabulated as under:

Table 6.41. Students' Justifications for Appreciating the Benefits of Learning All the Selected Aspects of Discourse Structure Equally and Explicitly

Options	N	%
Their writing gets more organized	22	30.56
Explicit teaching ensures an appropriate comprehension of these aspects.	15	20.84
All the selected aspects are necessary in writing and therefore should be introduced equally.	14	19.44
Without explicit teaching, they could not pay more attention	11	15.27
They gain inclusive discourse knowledge	8	11.11
No answer	2	2.78
Total	72	100

Reconsidering the majority positive standpoints, around (31%) of the participants who are in favor of learning all the selected aspects equally and explicitly consented that their writing got more organized. Accordingly, one can confirm that explicit and equal teaching of all the selected aspects could be really helpful to the students. Moreover, (20.84%) of them saw that explicit teaching ensures an appropriate comprehension of these aspects. One participant explained this point saying "*if the teacher does not explain these aspects clearly and makes us read to understand or infer them alone from the text, this will lead us to understand them the way we want of course if we could understand them*". Other participants (19.44%) thought of the selected aspects as all necessary in writing; that is why, in their opinion, they should be taught equally. According to some others (15.27%), along with reading, explicit teaching was beneficial in the sense that it increased their attention to the selected aspects of discourse structure. Finally, (11.11%) of the participants offered the reason that being exposed to many aspects equally could help them gain inclusive discourse knowledge.

Further Suggestions

Question 27: Please, add any suggestion(s) you see relevant to learning discourse structure aspects through reading.

Out of (35) experimental group respondents, (16) provided the subsequent suggestions as grouped below:

- Learning all the selected aspects of discourse contributes to improve writing (7 students).
- Reading reinforces the students written discourse knowledge (6 students).
- Reading is necessary skill in all the courses, especially in writing (5 students).
- Reading and writing should be always taught together (2 students).
- *"Discourse macrostructure and microstructure should be taught together and equally"* (1 student).
- "*The teacher of writing must use reading to teach the other aspects of writing*" (1 student).
- "*We would like to have course of reading*" (1 student).

As it can be seen, in the last section, the experimental group respondents revealed some comments that have been predicted by the researcher and that were quite useful for the aim of the study. The students' suggestions confirmed that learning aspects of discourse macrostructure and microstructure contributed in making their writing more organized than before. In addition, the students were convinced that it is only through reading that their written discourse knowledge can be reinforced, and therefore, called for teaching reading and writing in tandem. Exceptionally, one student suggested having a course of reading separately. This is an interesting suggestion knowing that this will certainly add more to the teaching of both skills. Because there are some lessons which are exclusive to each skill.

6.1.2 Summary of the Main Findings

Based on the above discussion, the main findings of this questionnaire can be summarized as under:

- Lack of reading constitutes the main source of EFL writing.
- The most important aspect that constitutes the focus of the students' writing is organization.
- A significant majority of the participants confirmed the test findings that their writing organization has been improved.
- Many participants have changed their reading habit due to the experiment they have received.
- Reading is rarely assigned in the different language courses.
- Most participants are in favor of integrating reading in the different language courses, especially in writing.
- Nearly all the students' surveyed asserted that reading was helpful in developing their knowledge about discourse structure. In particular, it contributed in the perception of discourse macrostructure and microstructure.
- The highest percentage of participants replied confidently that they can analyze the learnt aspects of discourse structure levels successfully in any text.
- Students' opinions about the degree of difficulty of applying aspects of discourse structure levels in writing almost correlate with the test findings.
- Nearly all the participants expressed their positive attitudes toward learning all the selected aspects of discourse structure equally and explicitly.

6.2 Teachers' Questionnaire

6.2.1 Analysis and Discussion of the Results

Teaching Writing Organization

Question 1: Degree held

a-BA (Licence)

b-MA (Master / Magister)

c-PhD (Doctorate)

Table 6.42. Teachers' Degree Held

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	11	78.58
c	03	21.42
Total	14	100

With reference to the completion rate, it was not 100% as one teacher did not return his questionnaire. Thus, the total number of the teachers respondents is fourteen. As table 1 indicates, the majority of the respondents (11) hold either a Master degree or Magister degree, and all of them are involving in doctorate research projects. The remaining three teachers hold PhD (doctorate) degree.

Question 2: Number of years teaching Written Expression

Table 6.43. Teachers' Experience in Teaching Written Expression

Years	N	%
1-5	06	42.85
5-10	02	14.29
10-15	01	07.14
15-20	02	14.29
20-25	02	14.29
25-30	01	07.14
Total	14	100

According to table (6.43), teachers' years of experience in teaching Written Expression vary. One of them has been exerting in that field for more than (25) years, five between (10) and (25) years, and eight have done so for less than (10) years.

Question 3: Are you satisfied with your students' level of writing?

a- Yes

b- No

Table 6.44. Teachers' Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction with their Students' Writing Level

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	14	100
Total	14	100

Unfortunately, table (6.44) reported the fact that teachers of Written Expression do never get satisfied with their students' writing level. Like students' opinions, teachers' opinions come to confirm afresh the difficulty of this skill which requires the mastery of a complex array of aspects.

Question 4: In your opinion, what is (are) the source(s) of EFL writing difficulties for second year students?

a- Insufficient English language proficiency

b- First language interference

c- Lack of reading

d- Lack of interest and motivation

e- Time constraint

f- Others

Table 6.45. Teachers' Perceptions of Sources of Writing Difficulties

Option	N	%
a	08	19.51
b	04	9.75
c	14	34.15
d	09	21.95
e	03	7.32
f	03	7.32
Total	41	100

Comparing teachers' views with that of teachers, both of them agreed that the major source of writing difficulty stemmed from lack of reading. Undoubtedly, when the students do

not read much further inside or outside the classroom, their reading abilities remain week and therefore they will not be able to recognize how to use aspects of writing appropriately.

Besides lack of reading which was opted for by all the surveyed teachers, some other teachers referred to the other suggested sources. For example, lack of interest and motivation was selected by nine teachers. As a matter of fact, teachers should not complain about such issue because they are highly concerned. It is their main job to minimize the students' concentration on grades and maximize their involvement in and enjoyment of their writing through helping them find the different writing assignments significant and encouraging them to take risks.

Insufficient English language proficiency was also opted for by eight teachers. This answer looks reasonable when we know that our students are in the process of developing their general English language proficiency. Further, four teachers selected L1 interference. Here, needless to mention that the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the native language and any other second or foreign language is always viewed one of the main predictors or causes of errors in writing. Accordingly, exposing students to target language texts regularly can reduce the influence of L1 and therefore the number of writing errors.

As for time constraint, it is selected by only three teachers. Those teachers did not jump over the fact that some students always complain about the amount of time devoted to a particular writing assignment. Although writing is a complex process which requires them to manage time carefully, achieving effective final production can not be attributed mainly to such factor because mastering the organizational skills may help them overcome time obstacle.

Two teachers added two pedagogical sources of writing difficulty to the suggested ones: overloaded classes and the compensatory system. With respect to the former, teaching

larger classes is, indeed, a challenging task an instructor may encounter because of many issues. According to Byram and Hu (2013), some of which are related to time management, teacher stress and workloads, organization of classroom interaction, noise management and insurance of task attention, appropriate individual assessment, and the tackle of affective consequences for teachers and students. As for the compensatory system, the teacher who raised this issue may intend to reveal the negative effects of the LMD system. According to him, the students would not care to improve their writing level when they get bad marks, but rather they would seek to compensate with other high marks obtained from other modules.

In short, whatever the sources of writing difficulties are, lack of reading remains the foremost one, for it is recurrently pointed out by writing teachers. On this account, the present study is partly concerned with creating a reading habit within the classroom hoping to transfer this habit outside the classroom.

Question 5: Classify the following aspects in order of importance while teaching writing (From the most important to the least important).

a- Content

b- Organization

c- Grammar

d- Vocabulary

e- Mechanics

Table 6.46. Teachers' Classification of the Writing Aspects in Order of Importance

Option	First Position		Second Position		Third Position		Fourth Position		Fifth Position	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
a	07	23.34	04	28.58	02	18.18	01	11.11	00	00
b	09	30	02	14.28	01	9.09	02	22.22	00	00
c	06	20	03	21.43	02	18.18	01	11.11	02	33.34
d	04	13.33	03	21.43	01	9.09	02	22.22	04	66.66
e	04	13.33	02	14.28	05	45.46	03	33.33	00	00
Total	30	100	14	100	11	100	09	100	06	00

Having a look on table (6.46), one can notice that the most important aspect of writing is organization. It was the most frequently cited first by respondents with a rate of (30%), followed by content with (23.34%) and grammar with (20%). Vocabulary and mechanics were ranked the least important aspects with a rate of (13.33%) for each. We expected the teachers to attach great importance to organization because second year students are supposed to acquire the basic organizational skills at that level.

Question 6: Of the preceding aspects, which one engenders the greatest difficulty to students while writing?

Table 6.47. Teachers' Perception of the Difficulty of Aspects of Writing for Students

Option	N	%
a	07	19.44
b	09	25
c	09	25
d	06	16.67
e	05	13.89
Total	36	100

It is evident from table (6.47) that organization and grammar are the aspects which engender the greatest difficulty to students with a rate of (25%) for each. In the next position comes content and vocabulary with (19.44%) and (16.67%) respectively. In the last position comes mechanics with (13.89).

Question 7: In terms of organization, how would you characterize your students' essays?

a- Poor

b- Fair

c- Average

d- Good

e- Excellent

Table 6.48. Teachers' Classification of the Students' Essays Organization

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	10	71.42
c	04	28.58
d	00	00
e	00	00
Total	14	100

As can be seen, teachers' classification of the students' writing organization was arranged between "average" with (28.58%) and "fair" with (71.42%). This is a sign that the aspect of organization is not well developed by the students.

Question 8: Which of the following generate more difficulties for students in writing? (Use numbers – 1 for the most difficult)

a- Introduction organization

b- Body organization

c- Conclusion organization

d- Type of essay recognition

e- Thematic progression patterns

f- Cohesive devices

g- Coherence relations

Table 6.49. Teachers' Classification of Discourse Structure Aspects which Generate More Difficulties to Students

Option	First Position		Second Position		Third Position		Fourth Position		Fifth Position		Sixth Position		Seventh Position	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
a	07	16.27	04	22.22	01	06.66	01	10	01	16.66	00	00	00	00
b	10	23.25	02	11.11	01	06.66	01	10	00	00	00	00	00	00
c	01	02.32	05	27.77	05	33.33	00	00	02	33.33	01	33.33	00	00
d	02	04.65	02	11.11	04	26.66	03	30	02	33.33	01	33.33	00	00
e	05	11.62	02	11.11	03	20	02	20	00	00	00	00	02	66.66
f	09	20.93	02	11.11	01	06.66	00	00	01	16.66	01	33.33	00	00
g	09	20.93	01	05.55	00	00	03	30	00	00	00	00	01	33.34
Total	43	100	18	100	15	100	10	00	06	100	03	100	03	100

Investigating aspects of written discourse structure which generate more difficulties to students from the teachers' standpoint, table (82) shows that ten teachers out of fourteen ranked body organization in the first position. This result correlates with the test findings where most students are found to have problems with developing the topic sentence adequately and relevantly. They tended to write whatever comes to their minds or simply repeat the same ideas throughout the paragraph without elaborating or adding new details. The reason behind this difficulty can be traced back to the students' limited knowledge about the way body content should be structured. Following body organization, cohesive devices and coherence relations were reported as the first cited difficult aspects by nine teachers. Teachers' responses are quite normal since they always complain that their students' writing is most of the time neither cohesive nor coherent. Further, introduction organization is another difficult aspect selected by seven teachers. Again this finding is logical knowing that introduction is a problematic area to some students. Concerning thematic progression patterns, they were ranked in the fourth position as there were only five teachers who considered it as a difficult aspect. There may be two possible reasons for this last reply: either it is true that this aspect is not difficult according to these teachers or they do not know enough about such aspect and thus did not use to notice it in the students' papers. In the final position comes type of essay recognition and conclusion organization which were classified first by only two and one teachers respectively. As for the former, the teachers' responses look reasonable, for it is not very difficult to select the type of essay which fits most the topic statement. The latter, however, opposes the test findings which clearly indicated that conclusion organization was a problematic area in some students' papers. Seemingly, some teachers share the same thinking with students that a conclusion is an unimportant bit tagged on the end of the essay and thus becomes merely an afterthought.

Question 9: How much emphasis do you place on the aforementioned aspects to check the students' progress in writing organized essays?

a-Major emphasis

b-Moderate emphasis

c-Little emphasis

d-No emphasis

a-Introduction Organization

Table 6.50. Teachers' Degrees of Emphasis while Teaching Introduction Organization

Option	N	%
a	14	100
b	00	00
c	00	00
d	00	00
Total	14	100

Table (6.50) exhibits that all the respondents place major emphasis on teaching introduction organization.

b-Body Organization

Table 6.51. Teachers' Degrees of Emphasis while Teaching Body Organization

Option	N	%
a	14	100
b	00	00
c	00	00
d	00	00
Total	14	100

Again, all the respondents place major emphasis on teaching body organization.

c-Conclusion Organization

Table 6.52. Teachers' Degree of Emphasis while Teaching Conclusion Organization

Option	N	%
a	07	50
b	03	21.42
c	04	28.57
d	00	00
Total	14	100

Half of the respondents (50%) declared that they place major emphasis on teaching conclusion organization, around (29%) said they placed little emphasis, and (21.42%) opted for the second option: moderate emphasis.

d- Types of Essays

Table 6.53. Teachers' Degrees of Emphasis while Teaching Types of Essays

Option	N	%
a	03	21.42
b	09	64.28
c	02	14.28
d	00	00
Total	14	100

Teaching types of essays was given a moderate emphasis by a high percentage of the respondents (64.28%). Meanwhile, the remaining respondents (21.42%) and (14.28%) placed major emphasis and little emphasis respectively.

e-Thematic Progression Patterns

Table 6.54. Teachers' Degrees of Emphasis while Teaching Thematic Progression Patterns

Option	N	%
a	02	14.28
b	05	35.71
c	03	21.42
d	04	28.57
Total	14	100

The respondents' degrees of emphasis while teaching thematic progression patterns are ranged from moderate emphasis with a rate of (35.71%), to no emphasis with (28.57%), to little emphasis with (21.42%), to major emphasis with (14.28%).

f-Cohesive Devices

Table 6.55. Teachers' degrees of Emphasis while Teaching Cohesive Devices

Option	N	%
a	10	71.42
b	01	07.14
c	03	21.42
d	00	00
Total	14	100

It is evident from Table (6.55) that the majority of teacher respondents (71.42%) place major emphasis on teaching cohesive devices. The remaining small percentages (21.42%) and (07.14%) have selected little emphasis and moderate emphasis respectively.

e-Coherence Relations

Table 6.56. Teachers' Degrees of Emphasis while Teaching Coherence Relations

Option	N	%
a	12	85.72
b	02	14.28
c	00	00
d	00	00
Total	14	100

Around (86%) of the respondents stated that they place major emphasis when teaching coherence relations, while only (14.28%) of them stated that they place moderate emphasis.

Question 10: This emphasis is expressed in terms of:

a- Explicit teaching

b- Reading English materials

c- Providing feedback

d-Others

Introduction Organization

Table 6.57. Teachers' Forms of Emphasis while Teaching Introduction Organization

Option	N	%
a	13	39.39
b	06	18.18
c	14	42.42
d	00	00
Total	33	100

Table (6.57) shows that the respondents' forms of emphasis while teaching introduction organization are expressed in more than one form. However, when looking at each form, (42.42%) of them selected "providing feedback", (39.39%) "explicit teaching", and (18.18%) "reading English materials".

Body Organization

Table 6.58. Teachers' Forms of Emphasis while Teaching Body Organization

Option	N	%
a	14	46.66
b	05	16.66
c	11	36.66
d	00	00
Total	30	100

Teaching body organization is expressed in terms of "explicit teaching" by (46.66%) of the respondents who opted for this option. "Providing feedback" and "reading English materials" were selected by (36.66%) and (16.66%) respectively.

Conclusion Organization

Table 6.59. Teachers' Forms of Emphasis while Teaching Conclusion Organization

Option	N	%
a	09	52.94
b	03	17.64
c	05	29.41
d	00	00
Total	17	100

As can be observed, the highest percentage of the respondents (52.94%) opted for "explicit teaching", followed by "providing feedback" and "reading English materials" with rates of (29.41%) and (17.64%) respectively.

Organizational Patterns

Table 6.60. Teachers' Forms of Emphasis while Teaching Essay Organizational Patterns

Option	N	%
a	14	53.84
b	05	19.23
c	07	26.92
d	00	00
Total	26	100

Teaching essay organizational patterns are expressed respectively in the form of "explicit teaching" by (53.84%) of the respondents, "providing feedback" by (26.92%), and "reading English materials" by (19.23%).

Thematic Progression Patterns

Table 6.61. Teachers' Forms of Emphasis while Teaching Thematic Progression Patterns

Option	N	%
a	02	33.33
b	00	00
c	04	66.64
d	00	00
Total	06	100

As can be seen, (66.64%) of the respondents opted for the option of "providing feedback", while (33.33%) opted for "explicit teaching".

Cohesive Devices

Table 6.62. Teachers' Forms of Emphasis while Teaching Cohesive Devices

Option	N	%
a	05	33.33
b	02	13.33
c	08	53.33
d	00	00
Total	15	100

According to Table (6.62), "providing feedback" constitutes the highest percentage (53.33%) of emphasis' forms, followed by "explicit teaching" and "reading English materials" with percentages of (33.3) and (13.33) respectively.

Coherence Relations

Table 6.63. Teachers' Forms of Emphasis while Teaching Coherence Relations

Option	N	%
a	10	47.61
b	01	04.76
c	10	47.61
d	00	00
Total	21	100

Table (6.63) demonstrates that the highest same percentage (47.61%) went to each of "explicit teaching" and "providing feedback". However, the least percentage (04.76%) went to "reading English materials".

Question 11: In your opinion, could teaching all the above aspects equally and explicitly be helpful to second year students to write more organized essays?

a- Yes

b- No

c-I do not know

Table 6.64. Teachers' Opinions about Teaching all the Selected Aspects of Discourse Structure Equally and Explicitly

Option	N	%
a	12	85.72
b	00	00
c	02	14.28
Total	14	100

Table (6.64) displays that the majority of teacher respondents are in favor of the idea that teaching all the selected aspects of discourse structure equally and explicitly could be helpful to second year students. Meanwhile, there were two teachers who stated that they do not know. Actually, it would be of great interest for the final outcome of this research that most teachers adopt similar position on the effectiveness of teaching explicitly both discourse macrostructure and microstructure in writing.

Question 12: If "No", please say why.

As no respondent opted for "no" option, no clarification is reported.

Teachers' Opinions about Reading in the Composition Course

Question 13: Reading and writing should be taught in tandem.

a-Yes

b-No

Table 6.65. Teachers' Opinions about Teaching Reading and Writing in Tandem

Option	N	%
a	14	100
b	00	00
Total	14	100

When considering table (6.65), the answers of all fourteen informants to question thirteen reveal that they all agree that reading and writing should be taught in tandem. In fact,

it is an interesting finding knowing that teachers are not captive of the classical pedagogy which separates between these two subjects.

Question 14: If "yes", to what extent?

a- Slightly

b- Moderately

c- Greatly

Table 6.66. The Extent to which Reading and Writing Should be Taught in Tandem

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	03	21.42
c	11	78.58
Total	14	100

Regarding the respondents' answers, most of them (78.58%) agreed that reading and writing should be taught in tandem to a great extent. This answer is also quite reasonable realizing that both reading and writing rely on the representation of various aspects of linguistic knowledge levels and are affected by similar contextual constraints. Other few teachers (21.42%) reported that reading and writing should be moderately integrated. One possible reason for this last reply is that those teachers see that there are some lessons which should be exclusive to each skill.

Question 15: Have you ever discussed such issue in Written Expression teachers' meetings?

a- Yes

b- No

Table 6.67. Teachers' Discussions about Integrating Reading and Writing in Written Expression Meetings

Option	N	%
a	06	42.85
b	08	57.15
Total	14	100

Though all teachers were in favor of teaching reading and writing in tandem, they did not show a total harmony regarding the discussion of this issue in the meeting of teachers who are in charge of Written Expression. Among the fourteen teachers, only six teachers who stated that they already discussed this issue of integrating reading and writing, while eight from them definitively answered "no". As it was expected, teachers who answered "yes" are the most experienced ones, and seemingly, they raised too much such issue. It is not surprising, therefore, to know that they got tired of tackling this issue recurrently with the new and less experienced teachers; especially integrating a reading course was totally refused by curriculum designers for unknown reasons.

Question 16: Of the following types of reading, what is the most important for teaching writing?

a- Extensive reading

b- Intensive reading

Table 6.68. Teachers' Opinions about the Type of Reading which is the Most Important for Teaching Writing

Option	N	%
a	03	20
b	12	80
Total	15	100

As for the type of reading which is the most important to integrate with writing, most teachers' respondents (80%) leaned toward intensive reading and only (20%) favored extensive reading. Theoretically speaking, neither extreme is the best option. However, it seems to be clear for the majority of teachers that intensive reading is the most useful type in EFL writing, if one should take into account time constraints and texts' length and variety. More importantly, one potential reason why most teachers opted for this type can be traced back to its effectiveness in directing the learners' attention to features of text that can be found in almost any text, and the strategies for dealing with any text. Stances of the few

teachers who opted for extensive reading do not seem to be founded on any objective reason, for applying this type in EFL writing is commonly reckoned as a challenging task.

Question 17: Practically, do you assign reading in your composition course?

a- Yes

b- No

Table 6.69. Teachers' Opinions about Assigning Reading in the Composition Course

Option	N	%
a	14	100
b	00	00
Total	10	100

Practically, all teachers asserted that they assign reading in the composition sessions. Actually, we did not foresee all teachers to incorporate reading in their writing courses. Our anticipation was based on the belief that time is insufficient, reading materials and resources are not easily obtainable, and more importantly, some teachers may think that reading would be time-wasting as it is not linked to the syllabus and examination.

Question 18: If "yes", how often do you do?

a- Often

b- Sometimes

c- Rarely

Table 6.70. Teachers' Rate of Assigning Reading in the Composition Course

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	04	28.57
c	10	71.43
Total	14	100

Though all teachers assign reading practically, none of them does so often as the majority of them plumped for the option of "rarely". Those teachers are likely to focus on practising writing on a regular basis, so they prefer to spend only few times in reading. In

short, this finding reveals clearly that reading is almost a neglected skill in writing, though all teachers show a total accord that it should be highly integrated in writing.

Question 19: Again if "yes", what sources of reading do you employ most in writing?
a- Reading students' papers
b- Reading English texts

Table 6.71. Forms of Reading Used in Teaching Writing

Option	N	%
a	09	60
b	06	40
Total	15	100

An investigation of the resources of reading which are most employed in writing, (60%) of the respondents selected 'students' papers'. Seemingly, reading here is not used deliberately, but rather for the sake of peer review. This reading resource is unquestionably an effective means to have students receive different comments either from the teachers or other classmates; however, being exposed to English materials which are well written, as (40%) of teachers think, would be more effective because they serve good models to respond to them in writing.

Question 20: Once again, if "yes", for what purpose do you generally do?
a- To look for specific information
b- To accomplish some writing tasks and activities
c- To develop some specific language aspects (e.g., vocabulary, grammar …etc)
d- To let students get pleasure
e- Others

Table 6.72. Teachers' Purposes of Assigning Reading in the Composition Course

Option	N	%
a	03	12.50
b	10	41.66
c	07	29.16
d	03	12.50
e	01	04.16
Total	24	100

Another important inquiry we endeavor to know about refers to the purposes of assigning reading in the composition course. Examining table (6.72), the results indicate that a significant majority of teachers assign reading for the purpose of accomplishing some writing tasks and activities and for developing some specific language aspects. With respect to the first purpose, we expected all fourteen teachers to tick this option because students can not accomplish some writing tasks without the act of reading. It is a prerequisite to initiate any written assignment. With reference to the second purpose, it is really interesting to know that some teachers integrate reading for the sake of developing specific language aspects. However, doing so rarely, as indicated previously, may not bring about brilliant outcomes, for reading should be incorporated on a regular basis. To look for specific information and to let students get pleasure were the least cited purposes of reading. This is logical when we know that time is not sufficient for achieving such purposes which are more appropriate to teaching reading rather than writing. Finally, it is worth mentioning that one teacher reported that he used to incorporate reading in the writing class to develop the students' reading habit. Though reaching this objective appears to be a challenging task in the absence of reading as a module, it may bring about positive results in the course of writing.

Question 21: If "no", what is (are) the impediment(s)?

a- Insufficient time

b- Lack of resources and unavailability of reading materials

c- Reading is not linked to the syllabus and examination

d- Lack of understanding of the reading techniques and their benefits

e- Others

Table 6.73. The Impediments behind the Absence of Reading in the Composition Course

Option	N	%
a	00	00
b	00	00
c	00	00
d	00	00
e	00	00
Total	00	100

With reference to Question (17), all the participants reported that they assign reading in the composition course. Consequently, no one responded to the current question which is linked to question (17).

Question 22: Would you assert that incorporating reading to teach aspects of discourse structure levels indicated in question 9 could be effective to have students grasp them?

a- Yes

b- No

c-I do not know

Table 6.74. Teachers' Opinion about Incorporating Reading to Teach Aspects of Discourse Structure Levels

Option	N	%
a	14	100
b	00	00
c	00	00
Total	14	100

The answer tabulated above reveals that all the respondents asserted that incorporating reading in writing could be effective to have students grasp aspects of discourse structure.

Question 23: Whatever is your answer, please say why

Some teachers' responses samples are as follows:

- *Reading helps the students be in touch with discourse elements; with time they start internalize these elements and use their own.*
- *It is important to focus on reading when teaching discourse structure aspects because when students look at others' appropriate use of these aspects they can imitate that in their own writing.*
- *The way discourse is organized could be well seen and observed in the different types of texts our students are asked to read. Here, I believe that reading serves as a reinforcement of what the students have learned in writing courses; they could then be inspired by the way a text is structured and improve their writing skills accordingly.*
- *Reading is undoubtedly very important in improving the students' discourse knowledge because it offers them the opportunities to examine and analyze some specific features which they would employ in writing.*
- *Students can relate texts' organization encountered through reading with what they have learnt in theory (definitions and explanations already provided in the lecture). This would easily help them picture how an essay is organized through well chosen models.*
- *If the students cannot recognize these features in their reading, they obviously cannot respond to them in their writing.*
- *Reading offers a promising direction in meeting any challenge a teacher of writing may face in teaching discourse elements. Through reading, students can notice how these elements follow some rules in a wide range of different situations.*

To conclude, all teachers of WE showed a positive attitude towards the incorporation of reading for teaching aspects of discourse structure levels. It is interesting for the achievement of this research that all teachers adopted similar positions on that subject which is linked directly to the second hypothesis. More importantly, examining the teachers' answers to

question twenty three proves that reading is indeed an effective means to teach writing. In particular, it was evident that the majority of them share the same idea that reading can provide students with opportunities to examine and analyze some specific discourse aspects which they would respond to them in their writing.

Further suggestion

Question 24: Please, add any suggestion(s) you see relevant to the significance of reading in teaching writing, on the one hand, and teaching aspects of written discourse structure, on the other.

Among the fourteen respondents, ten of them provided some comments which are grouped according to their sameness as follows:

- Eight teachers have stressed the idea that reading and writing are to be taught in tandem.
- Eight teachers have largely expressed their dissatisfaction of the deprivation from reading as an official program.
- Three teachers pointed out the significance of reading as a means for teaching writing.
- Two teachers appreciated the idea of teaching explicitly discourse elements in writing.
- Two teachers stated that discourse structure may have an impact on the overall writing quality.

What is noticed in this last section is that the respondents' comments did not contradict the common beliefs and theories that stress the idea that reading and writing should be taught in tandem. Other interesting comments proposed by some teachers referred to their dissatisfaction of the absence of reading as an official program. Teachers were fully right to express their resentment because reading is a fundamental skill upon which the students' language proficiency depends. As a final interesting comment to be discussed is that two teachers stated that teaching discourse elements may also have an impact on the students'

overall writing quality. What these two teachers sought to demonstrate is that discourse organization should not be the only aspect to be taken into consideration when teaching writing. Indisputably, these teachers were also fully right, but what they need to know is that the teacher researcher was in the process of conducting a research where it would be better to limit it to specific problematic areas hoping to contribute in the improvement of the overall writing quality. In other words, improving a specific writing aspect will certainly improve the overall writing quality. Though it was not reported, it was evident that there was an improvement in the overall writing quality of the experimental group participants' papers.

6.2.2 Summary of the Main Findings

With reference to the above discussion, the following is a summary of the main findings:

- Lack of reading is the foremost source of writing difficulty.
- In teaching writing, organization has been cited as the most important aspect, and it is the aspect which engenders the greatest difficulty to second year students along with grammar.
- Respectively, body organization, cohesive devices, coherence relations, introduction organization, thematic progression patterns, essay type recognition, and conclusion organization are classified as difficult aspects.
- Teachers of Written Expression in English department at Constantine University 1 focus almost exclusively on teaching essay macrostructure at the expanse of essay microstructure as the latter is presented merely in the form of feedback.
-'Reading English materials' is rarely used as a form for teaching aspects of discourse structure in comparison with 'explicit teaching' and 'providing feedback'.
- The majority of teachers sustained that teaching all the selected aspects of discourse structure levels equally and explicitly could be more helpful to second year students.
- All teachers agreed that reading and writing should be taught in tandem.

- Most teachers favor intensive reading to be integrated in writing over extensive reading.
- Practically, though in a rare rate, all teachers assign reading in their composition sessions.
- All teachers exhibited a positive attitude toward the incorporation of reading for teaching aspects of discourse structure levels.

Conclusion

Throughout this chapter, the researcher attempted to display, analyze, discuss, and summarize the findings gathered through the students and teachers questionnaires. On the basis of the results obtained, the second postulated hypothesis which stresses the probability that the teachers and students would have positive attitudes towards the incorporation of reading to teach writing in general and aspects of discourse macrostructure and microstructure in particular has been confirmed. Though teachers and students' answers confirmed that reading is a neglected skill in English department at Constantine University 1 as it is rarely assigned, they both asserted that its incorporation as a means of teaching is very helpful. As for students, they reported that reading represents the input that reinforces and facilitates learning, creates pleasant atmosphere, increases their critical thinking and attention, and inspires them. More importantly, the surveyed students asserted that reading was helpful in developing their knowledge about discourse organization. Additionally, some of them confidently replied that they can analyze the learnt aspects of discourse structure levels successfully in any text. With respect to teachers' opinions, they all hold the view that reading should be highly integrated in writing, though this integration is rarely practised in their WE sessions. Moreover, all teachers were in favor of the idea that reading could be effective in teaching aspects of discourse structure levels.

Chapter Seven

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Chapter Seven

Overall Discussion and Pedagogical Implications

Introduction

This chapter attempts first to respond to the research questions. It summarizes the overall results which are gleaned from the three data collection instruments: the test, students' questionnaire, and teachers' questionnaire. Then, on the basis of what has been discussed in both theoretical and practical parts, the remaining of the chapter is dedicated to some pedagogical implications and recommendations for future research.

7.1 Discussion of the Overall Results

Question One

Does teaching aspects of written discourse macrostructure and microstructure formally and equally enhance students' writing organization?

Initially, the results of the pre-test analysis show that the participants' overall performance of the experimental and the control group is nearly the same, though the mean scores of the control group (15.14) was slightly higher than that of the experimental group (14.71). This pre-test performance which can be described as near the average or average as the scores represent half of the expected best performance is not satisfying, because the trait of organization should be well mastered at the beginning levels so that the students can go beyond the basics and pursue other aspects of writing with less anxiety in the higher levels. Therefore, before embarking upon the treatment, it was evident that the participants in both groups have exhibited equivalent levels in writing organization, and any change takes place after the treatment would be attributable to the teacher researcher's intervention.

Further, when the pre-test results are examined separately and according to the means of each level of discourse structure and its aspects, it comes out that the experimental group

participants performed nearly the same as the control group participants did. The reasons of failure were found to be linked to the bad scores and means in the following aspects of the experimental and control group respectively: body organization (42.5% / 46.2%), conclusion organization (43.5% / 44%), and cohesion (46.8% / 47.4%). However, the participants had around the average scores in thematic structure (48% / 51%) and above the average in introduction organization (54.8% / 53.8%) and coherence relations (58.2% / 59.4%).

The post-test results, on the other hand, indicate that the mean score of control group was (15.71 / 44.88%), and that of the experimental group was (20.02 / 57.2%). That is, the participants in the experimental group achieved a higher mean post-test score than that achieved by the participants in the control group. Statistically, it was proved that there is a significant difference in the overall performance between the experimental and the control group.

In the post-test, the results also show a notable difference due to the positive performance of the experimental group in all aspects. Specifically, the control group made a significant improvement only in conclusion organization, insignificant improvement in the introduction organization, thematic structure, cohesion, and coherence relations, and worse performance in body organization. The subjects from the experimental group, on the other hand, leaped forward in their performance with some reductions in the number of errors in the chosen six aspects. The mean score of the introduction organization increased from (2.74) to (3.51), body organization from (2.11) to (3.08), conclusion organization from (2.17) to (3.08), thematic structure from (2.40) to (3.25), cohesion from (2.34) to (3.22), and coherence relations from (2.91) to (3.80). These significant differences indicate that the experimental group had positive responses towards bringing the notion of discourse structure levels in writing.

Additionally, the experimental group students themselves asserted through the questionnaire directed to them that their writing organization has been improved due to their exposure to the notions of discourse macrostructure and microstructure. They have reported that none of the aforementioned aspects constituted a great difficulty to them after the experiment implementation. Teachers, on their parts, sustained that teaching all the selected aspects of discourse structure levels equally and explicitly could be more helpful to second year students to write more organized pieces of writing.

Question Two

What are the major problematic areas that are recurrently noticed in students' written production with regard to discourse structure?

From the findings of the pre-test, students' writing organization can be profiled as unsuccessful in some areas. The pre-writing means of the individual aspects of discourse structure levels implied that the most problematic areas in both groups were in body organization, conclusion organization, cohesion, thematic structure, introduction organization, and coherence relations respectively. At the global level or discourse macrostructure level, the problems of body organization that appeared to be quite obvious to anyone who goes through the participants' writing were: insufficient supporting details, unclear or no topic sentence, irrelevant details or shift in focus, and wrong or no organizational pattern. Like body organization, the conclusion mean was lower in comparison with the other aspects. This explains the thoughts of the students that they have stated everything they know in the introduction and body paragraphs, so the conclusion is an unimportant bit tagged on the end of the essay and then becomes merely an afterthought. The frequent types of problems encountered in the subjects' papers were: no personal opinion, mere repetition of the thesis statement, no restatement of the thesis statement, no summary or synthesis, and raising new information. The introduction organization mean, on the other hand, was slightly higher than

that of the two previous parts, and this might be due to the fact that the participants give too much attention to it. Its main problems attributed to the ways of maintaining relevance, wrong placement or absence of the thesis statement, and wrong/ no clear pattern of organization.

At the local level, it was noticed that the subjects' essays (1) lacked a topical theme and a clear thematic progression pattern because of the random distribution of information, (2) overused the constant thematic progression pattern and the word 'there' in the position of theme, (3) and contained wrong textual themes, empty rheme, as well as intervening materials between the rheme and the succeeding theme. With regard to cohesion, the errors were found to be mainly associated to pronoun shift, overuse of repetition, faulty pronoun reference, and wrong use/ misuse/omission of conjunctions. As far as coherence relations are concerned, lack of elaboration relations, incorrect use of explicit connectives, and lack of identifiable implicit relations were the most problematic areas of that aspect.

Question Three

How are aspects of written discourse structure levels taught in the department of English at Constantine University?

On the basis of the teachers' questionnaire findings, one can notice that teachers generally place major emphasis on teaching introduction organization, body organization, conclusion organization, cohesive devices, and coherence relations. However, teaching types of essays and thematic progression patterns were found to be given moderate emphasis by the highest percentage of teachers. It comes out clearly from these findings that the majority of teachers teach all the selected aspects of discourse structure levels with either major or moderate emphasis. However, what is more interesting and worth mentioning is that how this emphasis is expressed. On the one hand, introduction, body, and conclusion organization were found to be taught explicitly by the majority of teachers. Thematic progression patterns, cohesive devices, and coherence relations, on the other hand, are taught implicitly as they take

the form of feedback. Teaching aspects of discourse structure through reading English materials did not constitute the highest percentage in teaching either aspect. This reflects the fact that reading is rarely used to teach writing. On that account, it is proved that Written Expression teachers at English department at Constantine University 1 tended to focus almost exclusively on teaching essay macrostructure at the expanse of essay microstructure which is presented merely in the form of feedback.

Question Four

How are students' attitudes impacted by a composition course focused on the discourse structure levels of assigned readings?

At the outset, it is worth mentioning that the students have changed positively their EFL reading habit. When comparing the students' responses to a question related to their frequency of reading in EFL outside the classroom before and after the experiment, it was found that the majority of the students were reading rarely before the experiment. This can be described as a normal act from the part of the students who were not given enough opportunities to perceive the importance of this skill. They were frank in reporting that their major purpose for reading in EFL was to accomplish some language tasks and activities given by the teachers. However, after the experiment, most students' reading frequency ranged between "sometimes" and "very often", which means that those students got more interested and motivated to read.

Moreover, the questionnaire revealed that the students are in favour of the idea of integrating reading and writing in one course. The students considered reading and writing as two skills which should be developed in close collaboration. This clearly indicates that they perceived the interconnection between reading and writing. They went further to explain that bringing reading assignments into the composition course is very important and helpful because reading, in their opinion, demonstrates clearly models of either good or bad writing.

Moreover, they reported that reading creates a joyful environment in the writing course, and some others described the reading assignment as the best one as it inspires them when they start writing. More specifically, the students asserted that reading was helpful in developing their knowledge about discourse organization. As a consequence, they pointed out that their writing got more organized, their text comprehension was improved, and that they got aware of the levels of discourse structure.

Additionally, some of the experimental group participants replied confidently that they can analyze the learnt aspects of discourse structure levels successfully in any text. This utter confidence is certainly attained from the good understanding of all the learnt aspects as well as the development of active engagement and interaction with texts. One of the experiment potential outcomes, therefore, was to create in the students this habit of reading deliberately for the sake of analyzing the materials critically and then applying them in writing.

Question Five

What are the different EFL teachers' attitudes about the incorporation of reading in teaching writing in general and aspects of written discourse structure in particular?

The teachers' questionnaire showed clearly that all teachers agree that reading and writing should be taught in tandem. In fact, it is an interesting finding knowing that teachers are not captive of the classical pedagogy which separates between these two subjects. More importantly, the majority of teachers went further in stating that these two skills should be integrated to a great extent. This answer is also quite reasonable realizing that both reading and writing rely on the representation of various aspects of linguistic knowledge levels and are affected by similar contextual constraints. The questionnaire also revealed that teachers generally favour intensive reading as the most useful type of reading in EFL writing. They are fully right if one should take into account time constraints, texts' length and variety, and other factors.

Practically speaking, all teachers assign reading in the composition course. The contradiction, however, is that their theoretical beliefs mismatch their teaching practice. In other words, though they stress highly the integration of reading and writing, they rarely make such association practised in EFL writing classrooms. As mentioned earlier, probably, those teachers prefer to focus on practising writing on a regular basis, so they do not find time to integrate the reading assignments intensively.

As for teaching aspects of discourse structure levels, all teachers of WE show a positive attitude towards the significance of reading for teaching these aspects. More importantly, it was evident that the teachers comments were all pivoted around the idea that reading could provide students with opportunities to examine and analyze some specific discourse aspects which they would respond to them in their writing.

7.2. Pedagogical Implications

7.2.1 Implications for Teaching

Based on the survey of literature and the empirical evidence of the current study presented in the different above chapters, some instructional actions to be undertaken in this or similar teaching contexts can be put forward as under:

7.2.1.1 On the Importance of Discourse Analysis in the Field of EFL Writing

Discourse analysis can provide overriding insights in the field of language teaching and learning in general. In particular, through this study, it can be recommended as a fruitful practice to second year students in the field of EFL writing. We mean here that those students should be exposed and sufficiently trained to use aspects of discourse analysis in their writing because it is during this year that they start to deal with the basic organizational writing skills. Discourse analysis, in this situation, can result in greater writing versatility as the students will acquire a variety of written genres and types of written discourse which present a series

of rhetorical alternatives and patterns of establishing cohesion and coherence that the students can adapt to their own writing.

7.2.1.2 On the Significance of Discourse Macrostructure

In this study, it was an interesting finding that the experimental group students produced more organized introductions, bodies, and conclusions than the control group did. This outperformance from the part of the former group can be attributable to the students' awareness of discourse macrostructure processing. The pedagogical implication would be that when teaching writing organization, teachers are recommended to deal with the notion of discourse macrostructure as a vital type of thinking language users can employ to organize the global meaning of their piece of writing. This notion is very helpful to second year students in the sense that it boosts their awareness of the significance of producing, deciding, and locating the important information and concepts within the main parts of their writing. Furthermore, adopting a macrostructural strategy will make the writer students think as readers since they will be vigilant to sidestep every irrelevant detail which may mess the global meaning of their writing.

Another pedagogical implication to be raised regarding discourse macrostructure is the significance of teaching many top level text structures to second year students. Teachers of second year Written Expression usually show their discomfort about teaching other organizational patterns along with the ones they used to teach. The reasons behind limiting the number of the organizational patterns, according to them, are as follows: students may confuse all the patterns at that stage, some patterns are more difficult to grasp, and time would not be sufficient to practise all of them. However, through this study, it has been noticed that neither students encounter serious problems with comprehending the selected organizational patterns, nor the time was an evident obstacle. Contrariwise, in the last stage of the treatment which was devoted to the overall practice, some students were attempting to apply these

patterns at the paragraph level. In other words, teachers should teach several patterns for the sake of enlarging the students discourse knowledge, because even if these patterns are not used in some contexts they could be used in others.

7.2.1.3 On the Significance of Discourse Microstructure

Cohesion and coherence are two standards of textuality without which it would be difficult to constitute structural textual entities. Based on the current body of research, thematic structure patterns, cohesive devices, and coherence relations which were investigated at a micro level were also found to contribute effectively in the hierarchical organization of textual units in the students' papers. Therefore, these discourse microstructure aspects should take a substantial part in the design of Written Expression lessons of second year so that the students get familiar with them and therefore start to adapt them in their own writing in a more sophisticated way. What EFL teachers should take into account is to avoid presenting these new concepts in the form of a mere detailed theoretical handouts, because it is often hard for the students to properly grasp something that they have never directly seen or experienced before. As such, presenting these microstructure aspects through incorporating reading may allow students to directly observe and understand what makes the text hang together.

7.2.1.4 On the Necessity of Balancing Discourse Microstructure and Macrostructure

It is paramount to introduce the above discourse macrostructure and microstructure aspects equally, for stressing one level over another can affect negatively the students writing performance. It was noticed that students may introduce successfully their main ideas, but they fail to create links between the main chunks of content and vice versa. Through the current study, we hope that teachers override the classical tendency of giving high priority to text macrostructure, which is worthless without text microstructure. Students, in fact, may

find difficulties with controlling aspects of both levels in their writing, but as they develop the habit of analyzing their own writing from a discourse perspective, they manage to grasp the two levels progressively.

7.2.1.5 On Teaching Reading and Writing together

Traditionally speaking, reading and writing were not conceptualized as being related because they expand from different traditions. They have been shaped by different scholars adopting different thoughts and perspectives. However, most recent pedagogies contributed toward a growing conception of reading and writing relationships by designing different activities which promote this close collaboration. Accordingly, a recommendation here would turn around the necessity to teach reading and writing in tandem in the department of English at Constantine University 1 for the sake of at least enriching one of the linguistic skills.

7.2.1.6 On the Importance of Reading for Writing Approach

More specifically, in the said department, the pedagogical value of reading has been neglected. Accordingly, EFL teachers and course designers should reconsider incorporating reading as a regular part of the writing curricular since it has been widely reckoned that it plays an important role in the writing sessions. The current study suggests some implications on this importance as follows:

- Many researches stress the importance of providing as much as reading materials as possible for ESL/EFL students. According to these researches, extensive reading raise awareness of the way English is used in written productions. However, just supplying reading materials and hoping that students will develop their writing competence is certainly not sufficient. In the case of our students, intensive reading could be the most appropriate type to incorporate in Written Expression, for its instruction takes the form of short texts used to comprehend and demonstrate specific features of either syntactic,

semantic, or discoursal system of the foreign language. In addition to that, it is a common fact that our students do not appreciate the reading in light of extensiveness, especially most of them possess low reading skills and bad reading habits. Thus, teachers should address intensive reading programs as they take into account the amount and timing of the reading assignment in the composition course as well as the students' needs. The following are some guidelines proposed by Hedgcock and Ferris (2009, pp. 161- 2) for teachers who intend to adopt intensive reading programs:

- The texts to be read are chosen by the teacher.
- All the students read the same text simultaneously and complete the exercises and assessment designed by the teacher either in class or out class.
- The teacher calls the students attention to specific linguistic features and content dimensions of the text, introducing some specific reading strategies through whole- class instruction and activities.
- The teacher should avoid excerpts and rather selects entire texts.

- The use of models as a source of input seems to have helped the student participants to create a vivid picture of the aspects of written discourse organization. Modern emphasis in SLA theory on the crucial importance of input may even be regarded as reinforcing this finding. Therefore, getting over the different writing difficulties necessitates the presence of a sort of input that matches appropriately the students' level and that the students can rely on to achieve their needs as composers. As for teachers of writing, they need to provide the students with good models of the type of writing they are expected to produce in order to, at least, reduce the time spent explaining new difficult concepts such as discourse organization or the like.
- The incorporation of reading may yield in interesting results because it assists the students to develop the habit of analyzing the reading materials from different

perspective. Considering the finding of this study, some students reported that they can analyze successfully some texts' discourse features as they used to do in the classroom. Text analysis activities then could be beneficial to students because they call the students' attention to specific language features. Moreover, they make the students discover a particular writing aspect for themselves and therefore transfer the knowledge they gain to their own written production. Last but not least, textual analysis could be an interesting implicit way for teaching writing in particular and for developing a spirit of learning inquiry in general.

- Another important pedagogical tool that can be used as an integral exercise in the reading for writing class is peer sharing. Similar to the context of this study, teachers may incorporate peer sharing at the end of the class, as a part of feedback, to increase the students' engagement and critical thinking. Actually, much can be accomplished with relatively little effort on the teacher's part and few minutes when he provides the students with such opportunities to become active agents in their writing. More importantly, it has been noticed that this kind of activities adds a social dimension as it creates a real debate between two students about a particular aspect of writing.

7.2.2 Implications for Further Research

The present research has provided answers to the questions posed at the beginning of the experimental work and made emerge, in return, more areas that require further research in several perspectives. These opened horizons for future research are highlighted as under:

- It is worth mentioning that at the very outset of this study, the researcher main aim was to explore the cognitive processes involved in studying complex and multiple textual materials. In other words, the researcher sought to improve the students' text comprehension through training them to apply a set of macrorules which help them to

form a coherent mental representation of any encountered situation in the text, along with some microstructure strategies which could equally help them establish local links between the small chunks of the text. However, due to the absence of reading as an official program in our department, reaching such an aim was not feasible. As a consequence, the researcher shifted his attention to the students' written production investigation instead of discourse comprehension. Given this situation, other future research may be undertaken to prove the effectiveness of discourse macrostructure and microstructure processing in developing the students' discourse comprehension capacities.

- The current research work major emphasis was on promoting aspects of discourse structure levels in the students writing namely: top level structures, cohesion and coherence. Other future research may tackle other aspects, areas, or dimensions of discourse analysis knowing that this latter is an indispensible tool to teaching EFL writing. As an example, further studies can be conducted to investigate the relationship between discourse and ideology in the students writing. These studies, more specifically, may analyze the language with which students choose to express themselves and the context in which they do so to display their social identities and group affiliations.
- Another salient area of research to be raised through this study refers to the incorporation of reading to teach other aspects of writing. Throughout this study, it has been proved that reading is an essential instructional tool to promote the students discourse structure comprehension and therefore written production. Researchers in the future may devote part of their researches to corroborate our current research findings but in other different writing areas. For example, they may shed light on the

lexical or stylistic aspects since they constitute stumbling blocks in the students writing as well.

- In conclusion, further research will certainly be required if we are to eventually understand the relationship between reading and writing. Unlike this research work which adopted reading-for-writing approach, other future investigations may include studies on the significance of writing-for-reading approach and its contribution in the written production enhancement of EFL students.

Conclusion

The improvement in writing organization which the students achieve at the end of the experiment denotes that reading together with discourse can be a step forward in adapting a more suitable writing teaching program. Adhering to these two fields can diminish the classical tendency of limiting the teaching of writing to the grammatical and syntactic level. Together, they may provide new insights which help EFL writing teachers to diagnose the students' writing failure and therefore seek for the best instructional methods.

General Conclusion

The interest lying behind this research is the quest for a teaching EFL writing methodology that best aids the students to write like academics. Through this research, it has been established that students who are trained to use discourse macrostructure and microstructure analysis would exhibit a higher overall text organization. As part of this study, we have also expected teachers to have and students to develop positive attitudes towards the incorporation of reading paradigms to teach writing in general and discourse structure in particular.

Prior to the analysis of data and testing the hypotheses, the first part of the paper provides the theoretical foundations on which this study is backed. It tackles various issues regarding discourse structure levels, reading, writing, and reading-writing connection. The objective to be reached behind the theoretical account has been to lay some background information pertinent to the experimental part. This latter has involved three data collection procedures: the writing test, the students' questionnaire and the teachers' questionnaire.

Conducting the research has gone through many stages. At the outset, both the experimental and the control group took the pre-test at the same time. The ultimate aim has been to exhibit the students' writing blocks regarding the use of discourse structure aspects. Next, both groups have been provided with different treatments. While the experimental group has received explicit and equal training in some aspects of discourse structure levels through reading, the control group treatment emphasis has been to have students write many essays in order to receive feedback either about aspects of writing in general or about aspects of discourse structure in particular. Immediately, once the treatment has been over, a post-test has been administered to both groups under similar environmental conditions as have been available for the pre-test. Additionally, the experimental group students have been given a questionnaire to corroborate some of the test findings and mainly to collect information about

their attitudes towards incorporating reading in teaching writing. Lastly, the teachers have been also granted a questionnaire to elicit their attitudes about the same subject of reading as well as to find out about their writing teaching practices regarding the selected aspects of discourse structure.

First, on the basis of the writing test results and part of the students' questionnaire, the first hypothesis has confirmed that the experimental group students who were trained to use aspects of discourse structure equally and formally through reading have exhibited a higher overall text organization than the control group students have done. Evidently and statistically, it has been proved that the experimental group has made a significant improvement in all aspects of discourse structure namely: introduction organization, body organization, conclusion organization, thematic progression patterns, cohesive devices, and coherence relations. The control group, on the other hand, has lowered its performance in body organization, made significant improvement in conclusion organization and insignificant improvement in the remaining aspects. Second, with reference to the data obtained from the students' and teachers' questionnaire, the second hypothesis has been also confirmed in the sense that the students and teachers showed positive attitudes towards the incorporation of reading in teaching writing in general and teaching discourse structure levels in particular.

Eventually, some pedagogical implications in the form of guidelines for writing teaching practices and for further researches have been made. The guidelines for teaching have been clustered into a number of points involving the significance of discourse analysis in the field of EFL writing, the significance of discourse macrostructure, the significance of discourse microstructure, the necessity of balancing discourse microstructure and macrostructure in teaching writing, and the significance of teaching writing through reading paradigms. Likewise, several research propositions have been mentioned to be deemed probable hypotheses for further future investigations.

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APPENDICES

-Appendix A: Pre-test/Post-test Assignment

-Appendix B: Students' Questionnaire

-Appendix C: Teachers' Questionnaire

-Appendix D: The Primary Trait Rubric for the Assessment of the Participants' Essays

-Appendix E: Observation Sheet of the Pilot Study

-Appendix F: Instruction

-Appendix G: Students' Writing Samples

-Appendix H: Students' Detailed Scores

Appendix A: Pre-test/ Post-test Assignment

Write an essay with not less than 250 words about the following topic:

- Things which people do to stay healthy.

Appendix B: Students' Questionnaire

Dear students,

You are kindly requested to fill in this questionnaire to express your opinions and attitudes about learning writing, and using reading as a method of teaching discourse structure aspects in writing. Your answers are very important for the validity of this research work. As such, we hope that you will give us your full attention and interest. Remember that your responses will be kept confidential and will be reported in the dissertation anonymously. So, please, provide straight and sincere answers that enable us to achieve reliable results in this research work.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

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Section One: Students' Attitudes toward Learning Writing

1. Is EFL writing more difficult to practice than the other language skills?

a- Yes ☐

b- No ☐

2. What are the sources of EFL writing difficulties?

a- Insufficient English language proficiency ☐

b- First language interference ☐

c- Lack of reading ☐

d- Lack of interest and motivation ☐

e- Time constraint ☐

f- Others ☐

……

3. Are you satisfied with your level of writing?

a- Yes ☐

b- No ☐

c- I can not decide ☐

4. If "no", please, say why.

……
……
……

5. Which aspect does always cause you the greatest difficulty while writing? (You may pick up more than one)

a- Content ☐

b- Organization ☐

c- Grammar ☐

d- Vocabulary ☐

e- Mechanics ☐

6. Classify the above aspects according to the importance you give them in writing (From the most important to the least important)

a- Content ☐

b- Organization ☐

c- Grammar ☐

d- Vocabulary ☐

e- Mechanics ☐

7. Of the preceding aspects, which one do you feel you have improved most this year? (You may pick up more than one)

……

Section Two: Students' Attitudes toward the Significance of Reading

8. Rank the following language skills according to the importance you give them in your foreign language learning (From the most important to the least important 1- 4).

a- Speaking ☐

b- Listening ☐

c- Writing ☐

d- Reading ☐

9. Do you like reading in EFL?

a- Yes ☐

b- No ☐

c- To some extent ☐

10. Before the experiment you took, how often do you read in EFL out of the classroom?

a- Very often ☐

b- Sometimes ☐

c- Rarely ☐

d- Never ☐

11. For what purpose were you generally reading?

a- Looking for information ☐

b- Doing language tasks and activities given by teachers ☐

c- Developing specific language aspects and skills ☐

d- Getting pleasure ☐

e- Others: Please specify …….

12. After the experiment, how often do you read in EFL out of the classroom?

a- Very often ☐

b- Sometimes ☐

c- Rarely ☐

d- Never ☐

13. In the different language courses (grammar, linguistics, phonetics …etc.), how often do teachers assign reading?

a- Very often ☐

b- Sometimes ☐

c- Rarely ☐

d- Never ☐

14. In your opinion, is reading necessary for these language courses?

a- Yes ☐

b- No ☐

d- Somehow ☐

15. Whatever your answer, please say why.

……
……
……

Section Three: The Significance of Reading in Promoting Aspects of Discourse Structure in Writing

16. Integrating reading and writing in one course is better than separating them.

a- Agree ☐

b- Disagree ☐

c- I do not know ☐

17. What do you think of the reading assignments in the composition course?

……
……
……

18. Did reading help you to gain knowledge about discourse organization?

a - Yes ☐

b- No ☐

c- Somehow ☐

19. If "yes", how do you think it helped you?

……
……
……

20. Again if "yes" which level did reading contribute most to make it easier to perceive?

a- Macrostructure ☐

b- Microstructure ☐

21. Have you experienced any difficulties during the composition course while dealing with reading texts?

a- Yes ☐

b- No ☐

22. If "Yes", please, mention these difficulties.

……
……
……

23. Now, when you read, can you analyze successfully the selected aspects of discourse structure levels in any text?

a- Yes ☐

b- No ☐

c- I do not know ☐

Section Three: Students' Opinions about Using Aspects of Discourse Structure Levels in Writing

24. After being introduced to discourse macrostructure and microstructure through reading, how difficult are the following aspects to you while writing an essay?

	Item	**Very difficult**	**Difficult**	**Neither difficult nor easy**	**Easy**	**Very easy**
a	Writing relevant general statements at the beginning of the introduction					
b	Selecting an appropriate rhetorical pattern to the essay					
c	Writing a good thesis statement					
d	Writing good topic sentences					

e	Writing sufficient and relevant supporting sentences					
f	Restating the thesis statement in the conclusion					
g	Summarizing the major points of the essay					
h	Writing a relevant comment at the end.					
i	Linking the sentences with the appropriate coherence relations					
j	Using reference ties					
k	Using substitution and ellipsis					
l	Using conjunctions					
m	Using the different lexical items (same words repetition, synonyms, general words, …)					
n	Using the simple linear thematic progression pattern					
o	Using the constant thematic progression pattern					
p	Using the hyperthematic progression pattern					
q	Using the split progression pattern					

25. In your opinion, is it beneficial to learn all the selected aspects equally and explicitly?

a- Yes ☐

b- No ☐

c- I do not know ☐

26. Whatever your answer, please say why.

……
……
……

Section Four: Further Suggestions:

27. Please, add any suggestion(s) you see relevant to learning discourse structure aspects through reading and its effects on writing.

……
……
……

Appendix C: Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

You are kindly requested to fill in this questionnaire to express your attitudes toward incorporating reading as a means of teaching writing, especially teaching written discourse structure aspects. Your answers are very important for the validity of this research work. As such, your help is greatly appreciated.

Thank you for the thought, time, and efforts you will devote.

Miss Khadidja KOUICEM

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Section One: General Information

1.Degree held:

-BA (Licenc) ☐

-MA (Master / Magister) ☐

-PhD (Doctorate) ☐

2. Number of years teaching Written Expression: …….. years.

Section Two: Teaching Writing Organization

3. Are you satisfied with your students' level of writing?

-Yes ☐

-No ☐

4. In your opinion, what is (are) the source(s) of EFL writing difficulties for 2nd Year Students?

-Insufficient English language proficiency ☐

-First language interference ☐

-Lack of reading ☐

-Lack of interest and motivation ☐

-Time constraint ☐

-Others: Please specify

…….

5. Classify the following aspects in order of importance while teaching writing (From the most important to the least important).

-Content ☐

-Organization ☐

-Grammar ☐

-Vocabulary ☐

-Mechanics ☐

6. Of the preceding aspects, which one engenders the greatest difficulty to students while writing?

……..

7. In terms of organization, how would you characterize your students' essays?

- Poor ☐
- Fair ☐
- Average ☐
- Good ☐
- Excellent ☐

8. Which of the following generate more difficulties for students in writing? (Use numbers – 1 for the most difficult)

- Introduction organization ☐
- Body organization ☐
- Conclusion organization ☐
- Type of essay recognition ☐
- Thematic progression patterns ☐
- Cohesive items ☐
- Coherence relations ☐

9. How much EMPHASIS do you place on the aforementioned aspects to check the students' progress in writing organized essays?

Aspects	Major emphasis	moderate emphasis	Little emphasis	No emphasis
Introduction organization				
Body organization				
Conclusion organization				
Organizational patterns (types of essays)				
Thematic progression patterns				
Cohesive elements				
Coherence relations				

10. This emphasis is expressed in terms of:

Aspects	Explicit teaching	Reading English	Providing feedback	Others

		materials		
Introduction organization				
Body organization				
Conclusion organization				
Organizational patterns (types of essays)				
Thematic progression patterns				
Cohesive elements				
Coherence relations				

* In case you select "Others", please specify the form of emphasis in the box.

11. In your opinion, could teaching all the above aspects EQUALLY and EXPLICITLY be helpful to second year students to write more organized essays?

-Yes ☐

-No ☐

-I do not know ☐

12. If "No", please say why.

……
……
……

Section Three: Teachers' Opinions about Reading in the Composition Course

13. Reading and writing should be taught in tandem.

-Yes ☐

-No ☐

14. If "yes", to what extent?

- Slightly ☐

-Moderately ☐

-Greatly ☐

15. Have you ever discussed such issue in Written Expression teachers' meetings?

- Yes ☐

- No ☐

16. Of the following types of reading, what is the most important in teaching writing?

a- Extensive reading (the reading of large amounts of material for personal pleasure or interest, and without the addition of productive tasks or follow up language work) ☐

b- Intensive reading (the detailed reading of texts with the two goals of understanding the text and learning language features through a deliberate focus on items) ☐

17. Practically, do you assign reading in your composition course?

- Yes ☐

- No ☐

18. If "yes", how often do you do?

- Very often ☐

- Sometimes ☐

- Rarely ☐

19. Again if "yes", what sources of reading do you employ most in writing?

- Reading students' papers ☐

- Reading English texts ☐

20. Once again, if "yes", for what purpose do you generally do?

- To look for specific information ☐

-To accomplish some writing tasks and activities ☐

-To develop some specific language aspects (e.g., vocabulary, grammar …etc) ☐

-To let students get pleasure ☐

e- Others: Please specify

……..

21. If "no", what is (are) the impediment(s)?

- Insufficient time ☐

- Lack of resources and unavailability of reading materials ☐

- Reading is not linked to the syllabus and examination ☐

- Lack of understanding of the reading techniques and their benefits ☐

- Others: Please specify

……

22. Would you assert that incorporating reading to teach aspects of discourse structure levels indicated in question 9 could be effective to have students grasp them?

- Yes ☐

-No ☐

-I do not know ☐

23. Whatever is your answer, please say why.

……
……
……

Section Four: Further Suggestion

24. Please, add any suggestion(s) you see relevant to the significance of reading in teaching writing, on the one hand, and teaching aspects of written discourse structure on the other hand.

……
……
……

Appendix D: The Primary Trait Rubric for the Assessment of the Participants' Essays

		5 marks	4 marks	3 marks	2 marks	1 mark
Macrostructure	**Introduction**	(1) Relevant **general statements** about the topic. (2) Very clear **pattern of rhetorical structure**. (3)Very clear and effective **thesis statement.**	The paper executes all the three elements mentioned before, but there may be **very few** problems with **one** of the elements.	The paper executes all the three elements, but there may be **few** problems with **more** than one element.	The paper executes all the three elements mentioned before, but there may be **many** problems with **all** elements.	Many **serious** problems with **all** the elements. **Or lack** of one of the elements.
	Body paragraphs	**All** the paragraphs have **(1)** very clear and effective **topic sentences** **(2)** relevant **supporting details**, and **(3)** very clear **pattern of organization** throughout the body	**All** the paragraphs have the three mentioned elements, but there may be **very few** problems in **one** paragraph.	**All** the paragraphs have the three mentioned elements, but there may be **few** problems with **more** than one paragraph**. Or many** problems in **one** paragraph.	**All** the paragraphs have the three mentioned elements, but there may be **many** problems in **more** than one paragraph**. Or lack of one** element in **one** paragraph.	Lack of **more** than one element in **more** than one paragraph. **Or lack** of paragraph division.
	Conclusion	**(1)Restatement** of the thesis statement. **(2)**Brief **summary** of the major points. **(3)** Final effective relevant **comment**.	The paper executes all the three elements mentioned before, but there may be **very few** problems with **one** of the elements.	The paper executes all the three elements, but there may be **few** problems with **more** than one element.	**Lack** of **one** of the three elements mentioned before.	**Lack** of **more** than one of the three elements mentioned before.

Microstructure	**Thematic structure**	**Theme** and **rheme** and **thematic progression patterns** are used effectively and appropriately in/ between **all** the sentences.	**Very few** sentences have problems with theme and rheme **or** lack thematic progression patterns.	**Some** sentences have problems with theme and rheme **or** lack thematic progression patterns.	**Many** sentences have problems with theme and rheme **or** lack thematic progression patterns.	**Almost all** sentences have problems with theme and rheme **or** lack thematic progression patterns.
	Cohesion	**The cohesive elements** are used effectively and appropriately between **all** the sentences.	**Very few** sentences are not linked appropriately with the cohesive elements.	**Some** sentences are not linked appropriately with the cohesive elements.	**Many** sentences are not linked appropriately with the cohesive elements.	**Almost all** sentences are not linked appropriately with the cohesive elements.
	Coherence relations	**Coherence relations** are used effectively and appropriately between **all** the sentences.	**Very few** sentences are not linked with the appropriate coherence relations.	**Some** sentences are not linked with the appropriate coherence relations.	**Many** sentences are not linked with the appropriate coherence relations.	**Almost all** sentences are not linked with the appropriate coherence relations.

Appendix E: Observation Sheet of the Pilot Study

Date of the observation:

Place of the observation:

Duration of the observation:

Number of students:

Objective of the observation:

N	Review section	Description notes
1		
2		
3		

Strengths observed:

Suggestions for improvement:

Overall impression of teaching effectiveness:

Appendix F: Instruction

1- Listing Pattern of Rhetorical Organization

Students' handout

Listing Pattern

Listing pattern, also known as **enumeration, example, and illustration** is a way an author organizes his information as **a list** of related examples, items, facts, features or characteristics. The main idea, therefore, should be supported by one of the aforementioned lists.

This pattern is marked by such transitions: first, second, next, finally, in fact, then, most importantly, for instance, such as, in addition, beside …etc.

The text used in the modeling stage

Greatness

Just as there are many definitions of success, there are also many definitions of greatness. Alexander Smith said "the great man is the man who does a thing for the first time." He's right and the list of those great people is long and includes the likes of Neil Armstrong, Alexander Fleming, and Thomas Edison. But Smith's definition isn't broad enough to include many other people, beyond doubt, are great as well. Greatness can also be attained by doing something to improve the lives of others. One example was Mother Teresa. Another is Albert Schweitzer, and a third is Harriet Tubman.

The thesis statement includes **a list in terms of examples** of people who attained greatness.

Mother Teresa may be a good example of great people to come to mind under this broadened definition. Mother Teresa, who received the Nobel Peace Prize in 1979, dedicated her life to helping the poor, the sick, and the hungry. She left her homeland of Yugoslavia to work with the impoverished people of India, where she selflessly served others for almost 70 years. She founded the Missionaries of Charity sisterhood and the House for the Dying. She embraced those that many in society chose to disdain and ignore: the crippled and diseased, the homeless and helpless. She was what it means, to be compassionate towards others. This made her greatness.

The first topic sentence reveals the **first example**: Mother Teresa.

A further great person who also won a Noble Peace Prize was Dr. Albert Schweitzer, a German doctor who, like Mother Teresa, also unselfishly served the unfortunate and sick**.** Schweitzer dedicated himself to the people of the continent of wars and insecurity: Africa. There, he built a hospital and a leper colony, a refuge for those who had been in need. He gave them food, shelter, medical care, and the compassion that so many others denied them. Without his hospital, people would suffer or die. Schweitzer was not the first to offer care and comfort for the sick and suffering. But he was certainly a great man.

The second topic sentence reveals **the second example**: . Dr. Albert Schweitzer.

In addition to these two eminent names, Harriet Tubman is clearly a notable illustration of greatness. She is famous for being a woman who kept going back to the South to free slaves. She led them through the "underground railroad" and brought them to freedom. She led hundreds of American slaves to freedom, risking her life over and over again to bring her fellow slaves to freedom. She gave them the greatest gift one can offer; freedom to live a better way of life. She wasn't the first to escape, and she wasn't the first to go back for others. But she was the one who kept going back. She knew that each time she returned for another, she was risking her life. But like Mother Teresa and Dr. Schweitzer, Harriet Tubman was utterly dedicated to improving the life of others.

The third topic sentence reveals **the third example**: Harriet Tubman.

Greatness comes in many forms, and we are lucky to have many examples of greatness upon which to model our lives. Some great people are those who were able to be the first to accomplish something marvelous. Others, like Mother Teresa, Albert Schweitzer, and Harriet Tubman, are great because they worked tirelessly to ease the suffering of their fellow human beings.

Taken from Written Expression Module

- **Pre-reading activity**

Before reading and modeling the above text, students were told to name some great people.

- **Post-reading activity**

Orally, the students negotiated the content of the above text with the teacher who was modeling its structure at the same time.

The text used in awareness raising stage

Students were given the text below to:

- read,
- divide its paragraphs,
- identify the transition words and phrases used to mark the organizational pattern,
- and make a graphic organizer.

Words That Camouflage

People use words, of course, to express their thoughts and feelings. As everyone knows, choosing just the right word to convey an idea can be difficult. Nevertheless, it is important to choose words carefully, for words can suggest meanings not intended at all; words can also deceive. In order to express ourselves accurately and to understand what other people express, we must be aware that words and camouflage real attitudes; English is full of examples. Take, for instance, the language of advertising. Advertisers obviously want to emphasize the virtue of their products and detract from the products' faults. To do this, they use carefully chosen words designed to mislead the unwary customer. Carl P. Wrighter in his book I Can Sell You Anything has dubbed these expressions "weasel words,» which the dictionary defines words "used on order to evade or retreat from a direct or forthright statement or position." Let's say, for example, that the advertiser wants you to think that using this product will require no work or trouble. He cannot state that the product will be trouble free there usually no such guarantee; instead he suggests it by using the expression "virtually", as in this product is "virtually free." The careless listener will ignore the qualifier "virtually" and imagine that the product is no trouble at all another misleading expression is "up to". During a sale a car dealer may advertise productions of "up to 25 percent". Our inclination again is to ignore "up to" and think that the most of the reductions are 25 percent, but too often we find that only a few products are reduced that much. The other day I saw a sign on a shoe store advertising "up to 40 percent off" for athletic shoes. Needing some walking shoes and wanting a good bargain, I went in, merely to find that there were only a few shoes marked down by 40 percent: most of the shoes weren't even on sale. A second example of words that camouflage meaning is euphemisms. A euphemism is defined as "the substitution of an agreeable or inoffensive expression for one that may offend or suggest soothing unpleasant". We often use euphemisms when our intentions are good. For instance, it is difficult to accept that someone

we love has died, so people use all kinds of euphemisms for death such us “she has passed away,” “he’s gone to meet his maker,” or “she is no longer with us.” To defend against the pain of such a reality some use the humorous euphemisms, “He kicked the bucket.” To make certain jobs sound less unappealing, people use euphemisms. A janitor is now a “custodial worker” or “maintenance person.” A trash man may be called a “sanitation engineer.” Such euphemisms are not harmful, but sometimes euphemisms can be used to camouflage potentially controversial or objectionable actions. For examples, instead of saying we need to raise taxes, a politician might say we need “revenue enhancement measures.” When psychologists kill an animal they have experimented with, they prefer to use the term “sacrifice” the animal. Doctors prefer “terminate a pregnancy” to “abort the fetus.” We must always be careful to choose the words that communicate what we really mean. If we do not want to be misled by advertisements, then we should keep our ears open for weasel words. Likewise, if we use a euphemism, we ought to be aware that we are trying to make an idea more acceptable. At times this may be preferable, but let’s not forget that euphemisms camouflage reality. After all, “coloring the truth” is still lying.

Taken from: http://www.drmalotaibi.com/courses/example-essay-exercises.pdf

- **Paragraphs’ division**

Words That Camouflage

People use words, of course, to express their thoughts and feelings. As everyone knows, choosing just the right word to convey an idea can be difficult. Nevertheless, it is important to choose words carefully, for words can suggest meanings not intended at all; words can also deceive. In order to express ourselves accurately and to understand what other people express, we must be aware that words and camouflage real attitudes; English is full of examples.

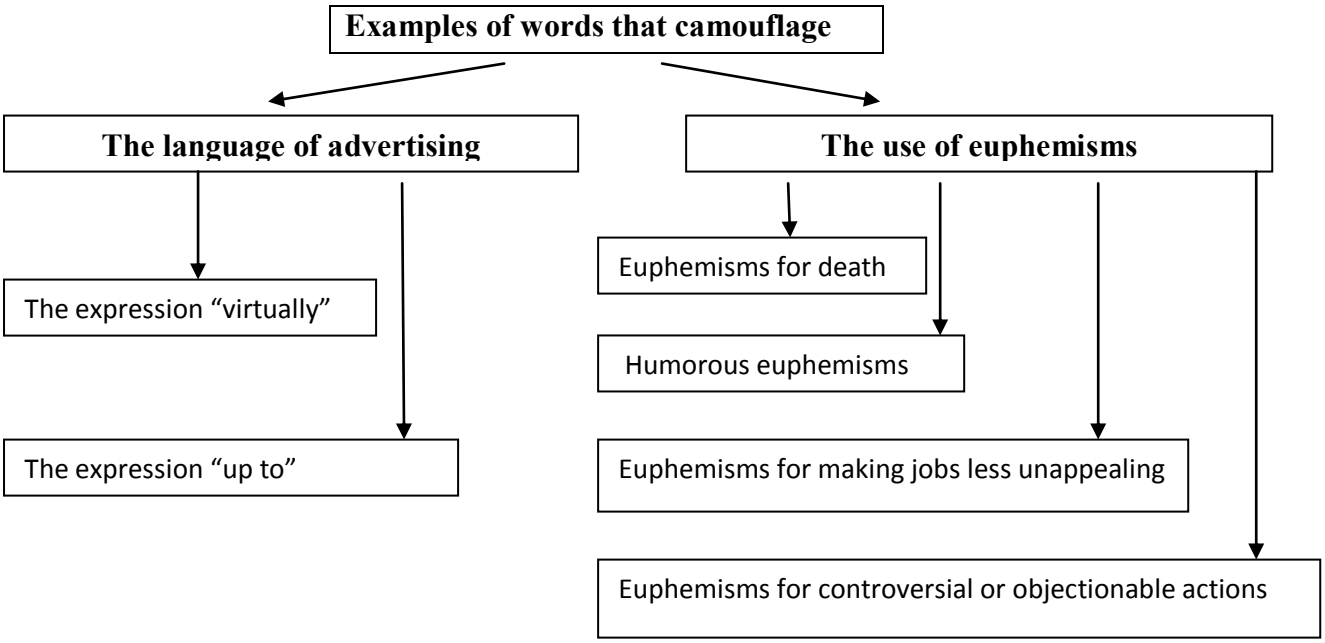
Take, **for instance**, the language of advertising. Advertisers obviously want to emphasize the virtue of their products and detract from the products’ faults. **To do this**, they use carefully chosen words designed to mislead the unwary customer. Carl P. Wrighter in his book I Can Sell You Anything has dubbed these expressions “weasel words,» which the dictionary defines words “used on order to evade or retreat from a direct or forthright statement or position.” Let’s say, **for example**, that the advertiser wants you to think that using this product will require no work or trouble. He cannot state that the product will be trouble free there usually no such guarantee; instead he suggests it by using the expression

"virtually", as in this product is "virtually free." The careless listener will ignore the qualifier "virtually" and imagine that the product is no trouble at all another misleading expression is "up to". During a sale a car dealer may advertise productions of "up to 25 percent". Our inclination again is to ignore "up to" and think that the most of the reductions are 25 percent, but too often we find that only a few products are reduced that much. The other day I saw a sign on a shoe store advertising "up to 40 percent off" for athletic shoes. Needing some walking shoes and wanting a good bargain, I went in, merely to find that there were only a few shoes marked down by 40 percent: most of the shoes weren't even on sale.

A second example of words that camouflage meaning is euphemisms. A euphemism is defined as "the substitution of an agreeable or inoffensive expression for one that may offend or suggest soothing unpleasant". We often use euphemisms when our intentions are good. **For instance**, it is difficult to accept that someone we love has died, so people use all kinds of euphemisms for death **such us** "she has passed away," "he's gone to meet his maker," or "she is no longer with us." To defend against the pain of such a reality some use the humorous euphemisms, "He kicked the bucket." To make certain jobs sound less unappealing, people use euphemisms. A janitor is now a "custodial worker" or "maintenance person." A trash man may be called a "sanitation engineer." Such euphemisms are not harmful, but sometimes euphemisms can be used to camouflage potentially controversial or objectionable actions. **For examples,** instead of saying we need to raise taxes, a politician might say we need "revenue enhancement measures." When psychologists kill an animal they have experimented with, they prefer to use the term "sacrifice" the animal. Doctors prefer "terminate a pregnancy" to "abort the fetus."

We must always be careful to choose the words that communicate what we really mean. If we do not want to be misled by advertisements, then we should keep our ears open for weasel words. Likewise, if we use a euphemism, we ought to be aware that we are trying to make an idea more acceptable. At times this may be preferable, but let's not forget that euphemisms camouflage reality. After all, "coloring the truth" is still lying.

- **The graphic organizer**



Writing Practice

Students were asked to write an example essay with a special attention to the above organizational pattern. The topic was "examples of people who do not deserve high salaries".

2- Sequence/ Process Pattern of Rhetorical Organization

Students' handout

Sequence Pattern

Sequence pattern is a top level text structure where items, events, or even ideas are arranged in **the order** in which they occur. Sequence pattern can suit other different rhetorical modes or patterns of exposition. It naturally fits in narration and description. It also applies to **processes**; that is, sequences are told through **dates, times** or **numbers**, while processes are explained through **steps** and **stages**.

Transitions often used in sequence pattern are: after, at the same time, before, first, next, second, then, following that, last, initially, now, on (date), previously, simultaneously, when…etc.

The text used in the modeling stage

How to Be a Good Traveler

Many people like to travel, meet different people, be in touch with other cultures, and increase their knowledge. When traveling, people like to feel safe and comfortable, and so a question comes: How can I be a good traveler? The answer is very simple, you just have to follow some basic steps. These steps are decide the purpose of your trip, keep in mind the place you are visiting, and find out a guide and a map of the place you are about to visit.

The thesis statement includes the steps of being a good traveler

The first step you have to follow to be a good traveler is to decide the purpose of your trip. It is not the same to travel for holiday, with the family during vacations or with some friends than traveling to study or to work. When you decide the purpose of your trip, you know what you need to do and so you can plan your activities taking the best advantage of time.

The first topic sentence reveals the **first step**: decide the purpose of trip

The second step is to keep in mind the place you are visiting. That includes knowing the currency, the weather (to choose your clothes if the place is warm or cold), and the expenses that you will have (to know if you have to take money in cash, credit card or traveler checks.) You have to take your confirmation of any booking or reservation, some medicines, and you should have all your important documents ready (passport, visa in case you need it, medical insurance card, etc.

The second topic sentence reveals **the second step**: decide the purpose of trip

And a third step is to find out a guide and a map of the place(s) you are visiting. Try to identify where you are going to stay and the places you would like to visit in order to have some previous knowledge that will allow you to enjoy more your stay. Also, this would prevent you from getting lost and you will take advantage of time having the possibility of visiting all those exciting places that you cannot miss.

The third topic sentence reveals **the third step**: decide the purpose of trip

It is really easy to follow the previous steps to assure a safety and comfortable trip. Of course there are many things you cannot prevent, but if you do these, at least you will have an advantage than those who do not consider these basic steps. And remember, when traveling open your eyes, give yourself the opportunity to admire everything, even those differences that are

so valuable. Take many pictures to have the greatest moments with you forever, and be happy anytime, anywhere.

Adapted from: http://www.eslbee.com/how_to_be_a_good_traveler.htm

- **Pre-reading activity**

Before reading and modeling the above text, students were asked whether they have ever traveled to a particular country. The few students whose answers were "yes" were asked again about the steps they went through in their travel.

- **Post-reading activity**

Orally, the students negotiated the content of the above text with the teacher who was modeling its structure at the same time.

The text used in the awareness raising stage

Students were given the text below to:

- read,
- rearrange its jumbled paragraphs,
- identify the transition words and phrases which mark the organizational pattern,
- make a graphic organizer.

Real change in women's sport came after 1972, with a new law called Title IX (Title nine). This law made a dramatic change in how schools and colleges spent government money on sports. Before Title IX, they had spent the government money mostly on boys' and men's sport. Part of the reason for this was financial. The boy's and men's teams often earned money for the schools and colleges through sales of tickets to games. After Title IX, however, schools and colleges had to spend the same amount of money on women's and girls' sports as on men's and boys'. Under the new law, college sports departments had to build new showers and dressing rooms for women.

One hundred years ago, American women were not very active in sports. Most women did not take part in athletic activities at all because people thought only men should play sports. Many sports, especially team sports, were considered too difficult or violent for women. They could only play tennis or golf, or go skiing, ice-skating, or swimming. Even in these sports,

very few women took part in competitions, and even fewer played professionally. This situation remained unchanged until after the first half of the twentieth century. Then, in 1960s, people began to change their ideas about women in American.

Now, almost 30 year after Title IX was passed, women's sports have become enormously popular. This fact is demonstrated by the number of high school girls who were involved in sports in 1999: one in three. Another sign of the popularity of women's sport is in the business. Equipment and shoes for women's sports now have multi-million dollar sales. Big companies are paying women athletes, such as the tennis player Mary Pierce, to design products for them. Women now play professionally in many sports that were once for men only. In basketball, for instance, the games played by the teams of the Women's National Basketball Association- started in 1996- attract large crowds at the stadiums and large audience on television. Women have also been successful in soccer. When the U.S women's soccer team played the final game of the 1999 Women's World Cup tournament, 90,000 fans watched them win the championship.

At first, no one was sure what effect Title IX would have in the long term. Those people who were against the law worried about financial issues. They thought that schools and colleges would lose money because of the law. They also thought that girls and women would not really be interested in sports. They were sure that all the new rooms and equipment would not be used. It soon became clean, however, that this was not true. As schools and colleges begun to spend more money on girl's and women's sports, interest in the sports grew. Girls and women began to play baseball, basketball, soccer, rugby, hockey, and other competitive team sports. They also began to complete in running, rowing, cycling, and other kinds of races. Because of this growing participation, women's athletic performances improved greatly and records were broken.

- **The revised Text**

Women in American Sports

One hundred years ago, American women were not very active in sports. Most women did not take part in athletic activities at all because people thought only men should play sports. Many sports, especially team sports, were considered too difficult or violent for women. They could only play tennis or golf, or go skiing, ice-skating, or swimming. Even in these sports, very few women took part in competitions, and even fewer played professionally. This

situation remained unchanged **until after** the first half of the twentieth century. **Then,** in 1960s, people began to change their ideas about women in American society.

Real change in women's sport came **after** 1972, with a new law called Title IX (Title nine). This law made a dramatic change in how schools and colleges spent government money on sports. **Before** Title IX, they had spent the government money mostly on boys' and men's sport. Part of the reason for this was financial. The boy's and men's teams often earned money for the schools and colleges through sales of tickets to games. **After** Title IX, however, schools and colleges had to spend the same amount of money on women's and girls' sports as on men's and boys'. Under the new law, college sports departments had to build new showers and dressing rooms for women.

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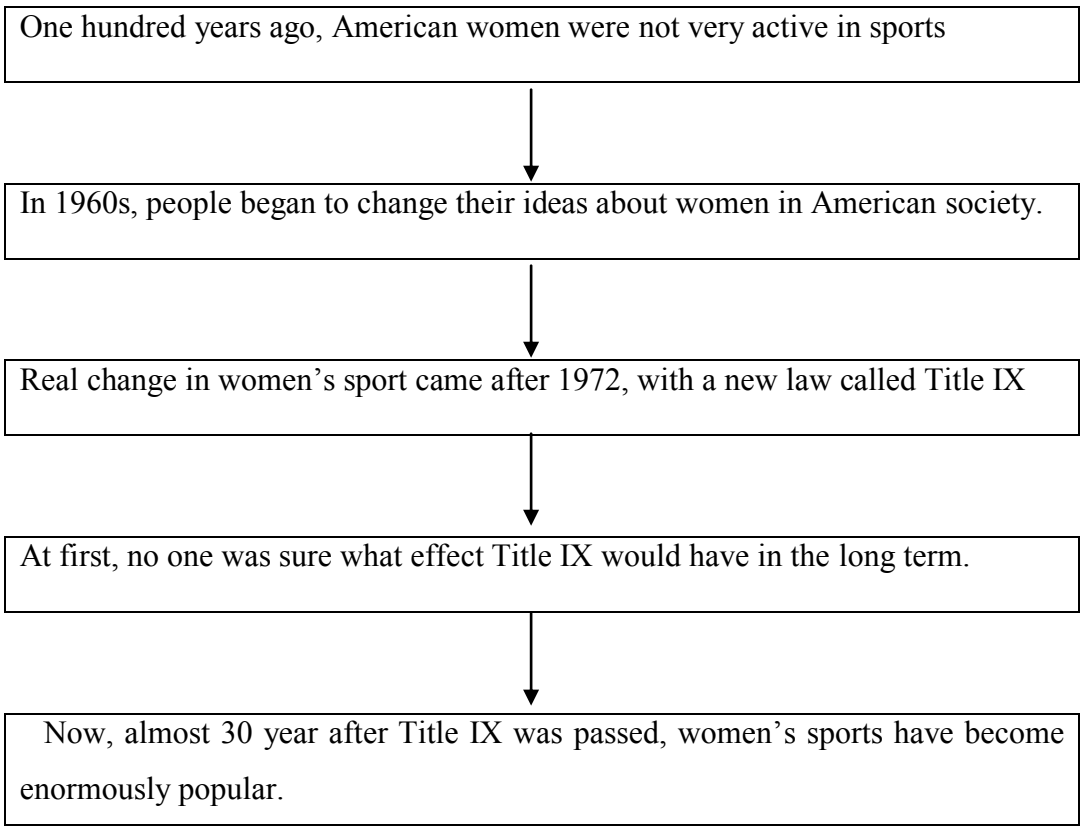
Now, almost 30 year **after** Title IX was passed, women's sports have become enormously popular. This fact is demonstrated by the number of high school girls who were involved in sports in 1999: one in three. Another sign of the popularity of women's sport is in the business. Equipment and shoes for women's sports now have multi-million dollar sales. Big companies are paying women athletes, such as the tennis player Mary Pierce, to design products for them. Women **now** play professionally in many sports that were once for men only. In basketball, for instance, the games played by the teams of the Women's National Basketball Association- started in 1996- attract large crowds at the stadiums and large audience on television. Women have also been successful in soccer. When the U.S women's soccer team played the final game of the 1999 Women's World Cup tournament, 90,000 fans watched them win the championship.

Adapted from: Mikulecky and Jeffries (2001, pp. 43-4)

- **The graphic organizer**



Writing Practice

Students were asked to write a sequence essay with a special attention to its macrostructures. The topic was about "the educational system in Algeria".

3- Comparison/ Contrast Pattern of Rhetorical Organization

The Students' handout

Comparison/ contrast pattern

A comparison-contrast text structure shows **the similarities and/or differences** between two things, people, ideas or events. Generally speaking, comparison-contrast expository writing has certain features, including two subjects, and the presentation of compared similarities or contrasted differences.

There are two ways to develop a comparison-contrast essay. One is **the point-by-point method**, and the other is **the block method**. It is the body of the essay that demonstrates

differences between these two methods of development.

1. The Point-by-Point Method
When applying the point-by-point method, the writer discusses one characteristic of both subjects at a time and then moves on to a second characteristic about both subjects and then a third characteristic. Usually there must be at least two characteristics discussed so as to make the comparison or contrast convincing.

2. The Block Method
In the block method, the writer discusses a set of characteristics about one subject and then moves on to discuss the same set of characteristics about the second subject. It is important that the discussion of the characteristics of the two subjects should be in the same order.

Transitions often used in comparison-contrast pattern include: in comparison, by contrast, similarly, but, on the other hand, on the contrary, yet, however, despite, similarly, as opposed to.

The text used in the modeling stage

- **Text 1**

Two Restaurants

Have you eaten at Linda's Restaurant lately? If you haven't, you have missed all the great improvements that she has added to her beautiful and inviting restaurant. I used to be a regular customer at José's Restaurant down the corner. But after discovering all of the new secrets at Linda's, I said: No way José! The more affordable prices, the great service, and the improved facilities are some of the reasons why I prefer Linda's restaurant over José's.

The thesis statement shows that the essay will **compare two restaurants** in terms of three issues.

First of all, you feel more relaxed eating at Linda's because of the reasonable prices. For example, salads cost $3.50 and sandwiches are at a low $4.00. On the other hand, both of these items cost $4.50 at José's Restaurant. At Linda's, you can eat soup for just $3.00, but you have to pay $3.50 at José's for the same soup. Last but not least, drinks and desserts cost $1.50 and $2.00 at Linda's, whereas at José's they go up to $2.00 and $3.00 respectively.

The first topic sentence includes **the first item** to be compared between the two restaurants: price. This indicates that the method used in organization is point-by-point .

In addition to the lower prices, Linda's Restaurant offers a better service. For instance, it opens from 7 a.m to 9 p.m. giving its customers two extra hours that they cannot have at José's. Although both restaurants have a convenient drive-in service, Linda has added a home delivery service to satisfy her

The second topic sentence includes **the second item** to be compared between the two restaurants: service.

customers at their homes. During rush hours, Linda has three cashiers working to speed up the line but José has only two, which usually slows down the line and makes the customers become impatient.

Finally, the improved facilities at Linda's Restaurant make the place more comfortable than José's. To begin with, when you get there, you have 20 parking spaces available at Linda's, different from the only 10 limited spaces at José's. Once inside the restaurant, there is a lot more space and room because Linda has expanded the place to accommodate 12 tables with 48 chairs, while José has kept his 8 tables and 32 chairs. Linda also bought a brand new central air conditioner that provides absolute coolness to her restaurant. On the contrary, José still has his traditional ceiling fans, which sometimes become an annoyance to the customers. To top it off, Linda constructed a colorful playground for kids, which has become her customers' favorite attraction. Now, they can eat and relax while their children play. At José's Restaurant, the kids look out the window trying to see the colorful playground at the other side of the street.

The third topic sentence includes **the third item** to be compared between the two restaurants: comfort.

In conclusion, Linda's Restaurant has considerable advantages over José's. Little by little, all of José's customers are going to run away and jump into Linda's air conditioned facilities the way I did. If José doesn't do anything to improve his restaurant in the near future, he is going to be out of business!

(Adapted from http://www1.uprh.edu/ccc/Ingles/Comparison%20and%20Contrast%20Essay/Comparison%20and%20Contrast%20Essay%20FINAL.pdf)

- **Pre-reading activity**

Students have been first asked whether it happened that they changed the restaurants they used to eat in. Those who replied with "yes" have been asked to state some of the reasons.

- **Post-reading activity**

The students answered the questions the teacher asked about the content, and then the teacher made the organizational pattern clear for the students.

➢ **Text 2**

Backpacking or Staying in Hotels

Traveling is a hobby which many people now enjoy. It is a hobby which is becoming more and more popular as opportunities for travel become greater. These days there are several ways to travel around the world; two of the most common are backpacking and staying in hotels. There are two main differences between backpacking and staying in hotels; cost and safety.

The thesis statement shows that the essay **will compare backpacking and staying in hotels.**

First, backpacking is quite different from staying in hotels regarding costs and safety. To begin with, backpacking has been popular for many years with young people who do not have a lot of money to spend on traveling. By backpacking people can save a lot of money and see many more places than if they spent the same money staying in a hotel. Furthermore, as backpackers will need to sleep in a hostel or outside in a tent while backpacking, there will always be an issue of safety and security because backpackers sleep in the same area as other people, many of whom they do not know.

The first topic sentence states **only one item:** backpacking. This indicates that the method used in organization is the block

Second, staying in hotels, on the other hand, differs from backpacking in terms of cost and safety. Unlike backpacking, staying in hotels requires a lot more money. Hotels are one of the most comfortable ways of traveling, but only if you have enough money. By staying at a hotel people will spend much more money than they would spend in a hostel. In addition, a hotel provides a higher level of security to the traveler. Hotels require specific security details such as flight, credit cards or passport numbers to ensure the correct identification of their customers.

The first topic sentence states **the second item**: staying in hotels.

In brief, there are differences in cost and safety between backpacking and staying in hotels. The world is a much smaller place than it used to be, many people have the opportunity to travel and they have many ways in which to travel. People should consider their budget and take responsibility for their own safety and go out and see the world.

Adapted from: http://writing.itu.edu.tr/cc1.pdf

- **Pre-reading activity**

The teacher held a brief discussion with the students about the way they used to travel either within the country or outside the country.

- **Post-reading activity**

The teacher followed the same procedure with the first text.

The text used in awareness raising stage

Students were given the text below to:

- read,
- divide its paragraphs,
- identify the transition words and phrases used to mark the organizational pattern,
- and identify the main ideas.

In recent years more and more people are eating more of their food outside of the home. Due to changing work and social lifestyles, many people spend a lot more time in restaurants and cafes. There are many choices of food to eat, but in this country two of the most common are American fast food and Turkish fast food. American and Turkish fast foods are similar to each other in two main ways, they are both unhealthy and they are both convenient. Firstly, both American and Turkish fast food can be harmful to our health. Both are high in fat, in sugar and in calorie content. Because of this, they can be addictive, often leading to an increase in body weight and in some cases obesity. Moreover, both American and Turkish fast foods are created in factories and are made to have a long shelf life. They both contain many preservatives and chemical additives which have unforeseen effects on bodily health. Secondly, American and Turkish fast foods are both similar in that they are convenient. To begin with, both are inexpensive. These foods, which will easily fill your stomach, can be bought for the same price as a bowl of soup. In addition, as indicated in the name, both are very 'fast'. With busy work and social schedules, many people need to eat quickly and often whilst walking, using public transport or driving. Therefore, not only American but also Turkish fast foods are conveniently quick and easy to eat. In summary, American and Turkish fast food are alike in that they are both damaging to health and that they are both convenient. In the 21st century fast food is very common and very popular; we must consider the negative impact of these foods on our future as individuals and as a society.

- **The revised text**

American Fast Food and Turkish Fast Food

In recent years more and more people are eating more of their food outside of the home. Due to changing work and social lifestyles, many people spend a lot more time in restaurants and cafes. There are many choices of food to eat, but in this country two of the most common are American fast food and Turkish fast food.

The thesis statement

American and Turkish fast foods are **similar** to each other in two main ways, they are both unhealthy and they are both convenient. Firstly, both American and Turkish fast food can be harmful to our health. **Both** are high in fat, in sugar and in calorie content. Because of this, they can be addictive, often leading to an increase in body weight and in some cases obesity. **Moreover**, **both** American and Turkish fast foods are created in factories and are made to have a long shelf life. They **both** contain many preservatives and chemical additives which have unforeseen effects on bodily health.

The first topic sentence

Secondly, American and Turkish fast foods are both **similar** in that they are convenient. **To begin with**, **both** are inexpensive. These foods, which will easily fill your stomach, can be bought for the same price as a bowl of soup. **In addition**, as indicated in the name, **both** are very 'fast'. With busy work and social schedules, many people need to eat quickly and often whilst walking, using public transport or driving. Therefore, **not only** American **but also** Turkish fast foods are conveniently quick and easy to eat.

The second topic sentence

In summary, American and Turkish fast food are **alike** in that they are **both** damaging to health and that they are both convenient. In the 21st century fast food is very common and very popular; we must consider the negative impact of these foods on our future as individuals and as a society.

Adapted from: http://writing.itu.edu.tr/cc1.pdf

Writing Practice

Taking into consideration the organizational pattern of the above type of essays, students were told to write a comparison/contrast essay about their experiences before and after giving up a bad habit.

4- Cause/ Effect Pattern of Rhetorical Organization

The Students' handout

Cause/effect pattern

Cause and effect is a common expository text structure that shows how facts, events, or concepts (effects) happen or come into being because of other facts, events, or concepts (causes).

This kind of text structure has three common organization, they are:
1-Cause ---multiple effects: (the major idea is a cause and the minor ideas in the passage are effects)
2-Effect---multiple causes: (the major idea of the text is an effect and the minor ideas are causes)
3-Causal chain: (one event leads to one another)

Cause and effect pattern is marked by such transitions: as a result, accordingly, because, if …then, furthermore, for this reason, may be due to, nevertheless, therefore, thus, since, etc.

The text used in the modeling stage

- **Text 1**

Causes of Mental Retardation

A couple who is expecting a baby looks forward to the birth of their child with hopes and expectations. Fortunately, most babies are born in good health, with their brains and bodies intact. Sometimes, of course a baby is born with physical and/or mental defect. One such defect is mental retardation. There is no single cause of mental retardation, but researchers, have uncovered several causes, some of which are preventable.

The thesis statement reveals that the essay is about **causes** of mental

Brain damage due to genetic condition is well-known cause of mental retardation. Most people are familiar with Down syndrome, which occurs more often in babies whose mothers are over 35 years old, Down syndrome is caused by the formation of an additional chromosome. The normal number of chromosomes for people is 46; babies born with Down's syndrome have 47. Another chromosome-related cause of mental retardation is a malformation of the X-chromosome. Evidently, the X-chromosome breaks in two, thereby altering the normal development of the fetus. There are also several recessive-gene diseases that result in mental retardation. For example, an infant born with

The first topic sentence reveals the **first cause** of mental retardation: brain damage

the recessive gene disease called phenylketonuria will end up with profound mental retardation because this disease affects the transmittal of information between the cells in the brain, particularly the neurons in the frontal lobes. Fortunately, blood tests can detect this problem at birth, and immediate measures can be taken to limit the damage. Another disorder caused by recessive genes is Tay-Sachs disease, which is found primarily among Jewish families of northeastern Europe ancestry. This disease also affects the nerve cells, though not in the same way as phenylketonuria. But there are blood tests that can detect carriers, so it can be prevented.

Not all brain damage resulting in mental retardation occurs because of problems in genetic makeup of the infant. Certain infectious diseases that the mother may contract during pregnancy can adversely affect the developing brain of the baby, especially if the mother catches these diseases during the first three months of her pregnancy. The most commonly known diseases include rubella (German measles), herpes, simplex and syphilis. Because these diseases are infectious, to a certain extent they are preventable.

The second topic sentence reveals **the second cause** of mental retardation: infectious diseases that the mother may contract during pregnancy.

Another preventable cause of mental retardation in newborns relates to what the pregnant woman ingests. Certain drugs are known to hinder the development of the baby's brain. In the early 1960's, for instance some pregnant women suffering from pregnancy-related nausea were prescribed a drug called thalidomide. This drug interfered with the development of the embryo and resulted in physical deformation and mental deficits. These women had no way of knowing at the time what this drug could cause, but now we know that many drugs can adversely affect the development both physical and mental-of the fetus. The most easily preventable cause of mental retardation is fetal alcohol syndrome. Drinking as little as one or two glasses of wine a week during pregnancy could result in physical and intellectual impairment in the infant. The mother's diet during pregnancy is also important during her pregnancy. Researchers find mental retardation more common among babies whose mothers were malnourished during pregnancy.

The third topic sentence reveals **the third cause** of mental retardation: pregnant woman consumption.

Once the child is born, other factors can cause mental retardation, such as head injuries and environmental pollutant, such as mercury and lead. But even

before the child is born, the damage may already have been done. Fortunately, much of this damage can be prevented by the pregnant woman. Genetic counseling, caution to avoid infectious diseases, avoidance of drugs, including alcohols, and proper diet can increase the chances that a woman will bear a child whose intellectual functioning will be in the normal range.

Taken from Written Expression Module

- **Pre-reading activity**

The teacher asked the students whether they know about mental retardation. They held a very brief discussion about that topic.

- **Post-reading activity**

The students negotiated text meaning with the teacher who was, at the same time, modeling the text organizational pattern.

➢ **Text 2**

Global Warming

The government of the island nation of Tuvalu in the South Pacific wants to buy land in another country because it believes that rising ocean levels will force its ten thousand citizens to leave. The danger is very real, not just to Tuvalu and other Pacific islands but also to river deltas in Bangladesh and cities such as Venice, London, New York, Boston, and Miami. Why is this happening? As we will see, rising see levels **are the results** of long chain of events.

The thesis statement reveals that the organizational pattern of the text is **causal chain**. The writer introduced the causes of see level rise/ or effects of global warming

The earth has an insulating blanket of gases surrounding it. This blanket allows heat from the Sun to enter the Earth's atmosphere. It also allows some heat to escape back into space, but it traps enough to keep our planet at an average temperature of 16 degrees Celsius (60 degrees Fahrenheit). However, growth in industry, agriculture, and transportation since the Industrial Revolution has produced larger amounts of the gases that form the blanket. As a result, the blanket has become thicker, and because the blanket is thicker, it traps more heat under it. More trapped heat, in turn, causes **higher air temperature**. In fact, the decade of the 1990s produced six of the hottest years

The first topic sentence includes **the first main effect** of global warming: **blanket of gases.**

The supporting details show that the blanket of gases lead to **higher air temperature**

ever recorded. Estimates for future temperature increases range from 4 to 20 degrees in the next one hundred years.

Because of higher temperatures, ice near the North and the South Poles has begun to melt at a faster rate. For example, the Arctic ice cap has shrunk 40 percent. The average thickness was ten feet in 1958-1976. But by 1993-1997, it was just six feet. Hundreds of glaciers in Alaska are melting, and the largest glacier in Europe has retreated five miles.

The second topic sentence includes the effect of higher air temperature: **ice melting**.

The water produced by the rapidly melting ice **has resulted** in arise in sea level of several inches. Joseph Kono, a narrative of chuuk, an island in Micronesia, said the rising water of the western Pacific Ocean has caused the disappearance of thirty feet of a beach where he used to swim and fish as a boy. Scientist predict a rise of at least ten to eighteen inches as more glaciers and snow masses melt away. Consequently, the citizens of Tuvalu have good reason to worry.

The third topic sentence includes **the** effect of ice melting: **arise in sea level.**

In conclusion, it is clear that global warming is not just a threat; it is a reality. The nations of the world must take action soon, or the earth will suffer these and possibly other consequences that we have not yet noticed.

Taken from Written Expression Module

- **Pre-reading activity**

Students were asked to give a list of the global phenomena that threat our planet.

- **Post-reading activity**

Like the first text, the students negotiated the content with the teacher who was, at the same time, modeling the text organizational pattern.

➢ **Text 2**

<u>The text used in awareness raising stage</u>

Students were given the text below to

- read,
- divide its paragraphs,

- and identify its main ideas and the transition words and phrases which mark the type of the organizational pattern.

Do It

Some do it to music, some while watching television; others do it in the privacy of their own homes, others in gyms. For some, they do it in the morning, others at night. But no matter where or when, millions of people do not get enough exercise. The benefits of regular aerobic exercise are so great that it's a wonder everybody doesn't start on a program today. Probably the most well-known effect of aerobic exercise can be achieved in a relatively short period of time, and that is improved cardiovascular and pulmonary functions. When a person exercises long and hard enough, the heart pumps faster and blood is circulated well throughout the body. Since the heart is a muscle, exercise serves to strengthen it. As the heart becomes stronger, a person's stamina improves, as well as her energy level. The same is true of the lungs. It doesn't take long to reap these benefits. A person can get such results within a few weeks just by walking briskly for 30 minutes three or four times a week. Another physical benefit of regular aerobic exercise takes longer to achieve, but it is well worth the effect, particularly for women. Exercise can help prevent the crippling bone degeneration called osteoporosis. Osteoporosis is a gradual process of loss of bone mass that occurs naturally as people age, but it can be halted by regular aerobic exercise. Exercise actually helps increase bone mass and is said to be the best preventive measures to take to avoid ospteoporosis. Just a regular exercise can help people achieve cardiovascular and skeletal fitness, it can also help people improve their emotional fitness. One of the good things about exercise is that it reduces stress. It does this in different ways. By improving one's overall fitness. Aerobic exercise makes a person more capable of handling stress because he is less tense. When exercising, blood circulation improves and people burn off the adrenalin that stress causes the body to produce. Another way that exercise helps people handle stress causes the body to produce. Another way that exercise helps people handle stress is that after sufficient aerobic exercise, the body produces beta-endorphins, which are natural stress relieving chemicals. In addition to helping people cope with stress, exercise can also help to alleviate depression. There are no doubt many other benefits of regular aerobic exercise. It doesn't require that much time or effort to become a healthier person within weeks. Instead of watching television so much, people would be better off cycling or walking.

- **Paragraphs' division**

Do It

Some do it to music, some while watching television; others do it in the privacy of their own homes, others in gyms. For some, they do it in the morning, others at night. But no matter where or when, millions of people do not get enough exercise. The benefits of regular aerobic exercise are so great that it's a wonder everybody doesn't start on a program today.

The thesis statement

Probably the most well-known **effect** of aerobic exercise can be achieved in a relatively short period of time, and that is improved cardiovascular and pulmonary functions. **When** a person exercises long and hard enough, the heart pumps faster and blood is circulated well throughout the body. **Since** the heart is a muscle, exercise serves to strengthen it. **As** the heart becomes stronger, a person's stamina improves, as well as her energy level. The same is true of the lungs. It doesn't take long to reap these benefits. A person can **get such results** within a few weeks just by walking briskly for 30 minutes three or four times a week.

The first topic sentence

Another physical benefit of regular aerobic exercise takes longer to achieve, but it is well worth the effect, particularly for women. Exercise can help prevent the crippling bone degeneration called osteoporosis. Osteoporosis is a gradual process of loss of bone mass that occurs naturally as people age, but **it can be halted** by regular aerobic exercise. Exercise actually helps increase bone mass and is said to be the best preventive measures to take to avoid ospteoporosis.

The second topic sentence

Just a regular exercise can help people achieve cardiovascular and skeletal fitness, it can also help people improve their emotional fitness. One of the good things about exercise is that it **reduces** stress. It does this in different ways. By improving one's overall fitness. Aerobic exercise **makes** a person more capable of handling stress **because** he is less tense. When exercising, blood circulation improves and people burn off the adrenalin that stress **causes** the body to produce. Another way that exercise helps people handle stress **causes** the body to produce. Another way that exercise helps people handle stress is that after sufficient aerobic exercise, the body produces beta-endorphins, which are natural stress relieving chemicals. In addition to helping people cope with stress, exercise can also help to alleviate depression.

The third topic sentence

There are no doubt many other benefits of regular aerobic exercise. It doesn't require that much time or effort to become a healthier person within weeks. Instead of watching television so much, people would be better off cycling or walking.

Taken from Written Expression Module

Writing Practice

Students were told to write an essay with a special focus on the above organizational pattern. The topic was "the effects of being a foreign student".

5- Problem- solution Pattern of Rhetorical Organization

The Students' handout

Problem/ solution pattern

In a problem-solution text structure, the writer presents a significant problem and explains it in details. Then, he proposes a method for solving it. The problem he/she chooses to analyze should be one that offers some challenges but is still possible to resolve. A problem-solution text structure should have the following characteristics:

- a problem that needs to be solved.
- a thesis statement that identifies the problem and points toward the solution.
- identification of several possible solutions.

Transitions often used in problem- solution pattern include: problem, need, difficulty, dilemma, enigma, challenge, issue, answer, propose, suggest, indicate, solve, resolve, improve, plan, and respond to a need.

The text used in the modeling stage

Don't Be a Target

"This is just like I have got an ATM in my room!" When I used Internet Banking at first, I was impressed by the usefulness of the Online Banking system. Thanks to the Internet, rapid information technology advances have led us to a more convenient world. Now we can manage our own account without going to the bank. Even if you don't have enough time to go to a bank, you will immediately be able to transfer your money by using the Internet. However, in this convenient way to access a bank account, your money might be exposed to

serious problems and has the potential to be stolen by someone whom you don't know. To protect our property from crime, and to use the Internet Banking effectively, there are several ways in which we should pay more careful attention.

The thesis statement shows **the problem** (being exposed to the crime of bank stealing) and points toward **the possible solutions**.

A few years ago, my sister told me that, on her credit history, she had found some weird withdrawals. According to my sister, one day she was looking at her credit account to check monthly payments by using the Internet. Actually, she had not recognized the fact, until that day, that a small amount of money had been taken from her account over a few months. She wondered what she had paid for, so she soon checked all receipts, which she had kept just in case. However, she couldn't find any receipts for the payments. Moreover, she still had no idea about the purchases, so she called to the bank and asked a bank worker to stop the account. Fortunately, the bank returned the money to her, and the bank worker said to her she might have been cheated on her credit number and password while she was shopping online.

Explanation of the problem

If so, how can we protect money from crime? First, the most basic thing is don't access your bank account from the computers in an Internet cafe or other public places. The computers in public places have a much greater possibility to be a target of the "Key Logger" program (Kim). If the program is set up on a computer, the program will memorize every key operation which you type. Furthermore, the program has an automatic function itself to send the collected information, such as your password or ID number, to the criminal.

The first topic sentence reveals the **first solution.**

Next, you shouldn't keep the same password for a long time. Even if you only accessed the bank account from your own computer, it's not enough to prevent your account being a target. Especially, if you are using the automatic login system, the possibility to be cheated on your password will increase. Hackers have attempted various ways to get people's information; furthermore, hacking is not such a difficult thing to do. Therefore, we have to recognize that our security isn't perfect any time and we should make a new password frequently.

The second topic sentence reveals the **second solution.**

Another way to protect your account is to avoid using your password for just any request. Recently, many people have been damaged by ".phishing." The technique to steal people's account information is simple but intricate. The criminal sends an HTML e-mail which pretends it comes from the bank. The form looks just like a real web site, so customers put their information in the fake window without deep concern.

The third topic sentence reveals the **third solution.**

In short, as the world advances in technology, fraudsters are also advancing and becoming more clever. These criminals continue to explore new ways to deceive people in the online world as they look for their next victim. To enjoy a secure experience you should take into consideration all the above solutions that would certainly make you, in one way or another, safe from the crime you may expose.

Taken from https://lindsayturbett.files.wordpress.com/2013/07/the-problem-solution-essay.pdf

- **Pre-reading activity**

Before reading and modeling the above text, students were asked whether they have been exposed to any kind of problems due to their Internet access or use.

- **Post-reading activity**

Orally, the students negotiated the content of the above text with the teacher who was modeling its structure at the same time.

<u>The text used in awareness raising stage</u>

Students were given the text below to:

- read,
- rearrange its jumbled paragraphs,
- identify the transition words and phrases which mark the organizational pattern,
- and identify the main ideas.

As Dr. Carmen Guanipa of San Diego State University, states, "The term, culture shock. . . expresses the lack of direction, the feeling of not knowing what to do or how to do things in a

new environment, and not knowing what is appropriate or inappropriate." Since different countries have different cultures, when people get into a new country, they may encounter different challenges. Because people have different views about beliefs, values, and norms, it is not easy to adjust to a new culture. They can't live in the same way as they did before. Therefore, they will feel strange when they meet situations which are unfamiliar to them, and they don't know how to solve their problems properly. For example, after I came to America, the first big challenge that I encountered was the language. Although I had learned some English before I came here, that was far from enough. Having problems in communicating with other people often makes me worried. When I need to go to study in college, I'm always afraid that I can't understand the courses because college is difficult. Before people come to a new country, they may be excited and enthusiastic. However, when they come to the new country, after short term of being excited, they will encounter difficulties instead of interesting experiences. When people suffer from culture shock, they may feel sad, lonely, dejected and stressed. They may not sleep well. They don't have confidence to do things. These can cause people to have bad health. Consequently, people should take the problem of culture shock seriously and find ways to overcome it.

Therefore, people should take some positive steps such as changing their attitude and putting themselves into the new environment in order to solve this problem. If people have patience to go through the difficulty of culture shock, they can learn how to interact with a different culture and find that it's a valuable experience for their life.

The first way that people can try is changing their attitude. When people have culture shock, they don't feel comfortable in the new place. They may think the new environment won't accept them, so they don't adjust to the new environment. They may only see the negative side of things. People should try to think about all the things positively. Culture shock can provide a chance for people to redefine their life objectives, though it can make people feel real pain. People can take this great chance to learn and obtain new perspectives. According to Dr. Guanipa, culture shock can let people know more about themselves and activate their creativity. When people can deal with their negative feelings, it's easier to develop a new comprehension of the things that they don't understand. They can try to figure out a suitable way to live in the new place. I try this way when I am affected by culture shock. I tell myself that since I came here, I should accept all the difficulties, though it takes time to overcome them. Actually, I find that living in a new country not only gives me a new look at

life, but also trains my own abilities. A good attitude can help people get through culture shock more easily.

"Why did I come here?" This is a question that I have asked myself many times since my family immigrated to America. I was so depressed and frustrated that I really wanted to go back to China after a short period of time. In my mind, I kept thinking that this was not my home. I didn't know how to settle down in this new country. What's more, not only me, but also my parents had the same feeling. Therefore, my family has experienced culture shock. Culture shock is an unavoidable problem that many people need to face and solve when they go to a new country.

Another way that people can try is to force themselves out into the new environment. Some people don't like to communicate with native speakers or join their activities. They only like to stay at home. It is not a good way to know more about the new culture. Some people like to read the newspaper or watch TV in order to know more about the new place. However, talking with the native speakers is more efficient. People not only can practice the language, but also can know more things about the new place. Through different conversations or activities, people may find some new things which they are interested in about the new place. That is one way that can help people kill their loneliness. For example, I have a friend who is an international student. At first, she was afraid of talking with people because she thought her English was bad and didn't know what kind of topics she should talk about. Even when she was with her host family, she preferred to stay in her own room. Gradually, she found that she was so lonely, and she still knew nothing about the new place. She tried to force herself to communicate with people, and her host family helped her to know more about the new culture. Now, she feels more comfortable in this new place. When people can put themselves into a new culture, they can enjoy the new culture more. Culture shock commonly happens to people who have to live in a new country. It can have a negative effect on people.

- **The revised text**

Sense of Place

"Why did I come here?" This is a question that I have asked myself many times since my family immigrated to America. I was so depressed and frustrated that I really wanted to go back to China after a short period of time. In my mind, I kept thinking that this was not my home. I didn't know how to

settle down in this new country. What's more, not only me, but also my parents had the same feeling. Therefore, my family **has experienced** culture shock. Culture shock is an unavoidable problem that many people need to face and solve when they go to a new country.

The thesis statement

As Dr. Carmen Guanipa of San Diego State University, states, "The term, culture shock. . . expresses the lack of direction, the feeling of not knowing what to do or how to do things in a new environment, and not knowing what is appropriate or inappropriate." Since different countries have different cultures, when people get into a new country, they may encounter different **challenges**. Because people have different views about beliefs, values, and norms, it is not easy to adjust to a new culture. They can't live in the same way as they did before. Therefore, they will feel strange when they meet **situations** which are unfamiliar to them, and they don't know how **to solve** their **problems** properly. For example, after I came to America, the first big **challenge** that I encountered was the language. Although I had learned some English before I came here, that was far from enough. Having **problems** in communicating with other people often makes me worried. When I need to go to study in college, I'm always afraid that I can't understand the courses because college is **difficult**. Before people come to a new country, they may be excited and enthusiastic. However, when they come to the new country, after short term of being excited, they will encounter **difficulties** instead of interesting experiences. When people **suffer** from culture shock, they may feel sad, lonely, dejected and stressed. They may not sleep well. They don't have confidence to do things. These can cause people to have bad health. Consequently, people should take **the problem** of culture shock seriously and find ways **to overcome** it.

The problem in details

The first way that people can try is changing their attitude. When people have culture shock, they don't feel comfortable in the new place. They may think the new environment won't accept them, so they don't adjust to the new environment. They may only see the negative side of things. People should try to think about all the things positively. Culture shock **can provide** a chance for people to redefine their life objectives, though it can make people feel real

The first topic sentence

pain. People can take this great chance to learn and obtain new perspectives. According to Dr. Guanipa, culture shock can let people know more about themselves and activate their creativity. When people **can deal with** their negative feelings, it's easier to develop a new comprehension of the things that they don't understand. They can try **to figure out** a suitable way to live in the new place. I try this way when I am affected by culture shock. I tell myself that since I came here, I should accept all the **difficulties**, though it takes time to overcome them. Actually, I find that living in a new country not only gives me a new look at life, but also trains my own abilities. A good attitude **can help** people get through culture shock **more easily**.

Another way that people can try is to force themselves out into the new environment. Some people don't like to communicate with native speakers or join their activities. They only like to stay at home. It is not a good way to know more about the new culture. Some people like to read the newspaper or watch TV in order to know more about the new place. However, talking with the native speakers is more efficient. People not only can practice the language, but also can know more things about the new place. Through different conversations or activities, people **may find** some new things which they are interested in about the new place. That is one way that **can help** people kill their loneliness. For example, I have a friend who is an international student. At first, she was **afraid** of talking with people because she thought her English was bad and didn't know what kind of topics she should talk about. Even when she was with her host family, she preferred to stay in her own room. Gradually, she found that she was so lonely, and she still knew nothing about the new place. She tried to force herself to communicate with people, and her host family helped her to know more about the new culture. Now, she feels more comfortable in this new place. When people can put themselves into a new culture, they **can enjoy** the new culture more. Culture shock commonly happens to people who have to live in a new country. It can have a negative effect on people.

The second topic sentence

Therefore, people should take some **positive** steps such as changing their attitude and putting themselves into the new environment in order **to solve** this

problem. If people have patience to go through the **difficulty** of culture shock, they can learn how to interact with a different culture and find that it's a valuable experience for their life.

Taken from: https://lindsayturbett.files.wordpress.com/2013/07/the-problem-solution-essay.pdf

Writing Practice

Students were told to write an essay with a special focus on the above organizational pattern. The topic statement was as follows:

"More and more qualified people are moving from poor to rich countries to fill vacancies in specialist areas". What are the different solutions to discourage this movement?

6- Essay Macrostructure

Students were not given handouts because they have already been taught how an essay should be organized in terms of introduction, body, and conclusion.

The text used in the modeling stage

Water Sports in Hawaii

If you enjoy water sports, Hawaii is the place for you. With its warm climate and warm water, it is possible to be on the water or in the water all years around. Many different sports are popular on the islands. Anyone of any age can go swimming at one of the many beautiful Hawaiian beaches. Or you can choose sport fishing from the shore or from a boat. Many people enjoy sailing, but if you prefer, you can go canoeing or windsurfing. Other sports that are especially popular on the islands are surfing, snorkeling, and scuba diving.

Relevant general statements

The thesis statement

Introduction

Surfing, the islands' most famous sport, started in Hawaii many years ago. The Hawaiians called it "he enalu", which means "to slide on a wave." Long before the arrival of the Europeans, the Hawaiian would ride on the waves on long, narrow wooden boards. When the first Europeans came to the Islands, they were amazed by these surfing Hawaiians. Since that time, surfing has become a very popular sport not only in Hawaii, but also on the California coast and in Australia, among

The writer uses the sequence patten to support his topic sentence

The first topic sentence

Sufficient and relevant supporting details.

First body paragraph

In the second part, he uses listing patten to support his topic

other places. Actually, this kind of sport requires you to be a good swimmer. You must also have an excellent sense of balance. To go surfing, you must swim out from the beach with your surfboard under your arm. When you get to the place where the waves begin to break, you have to wait for the right moment- the moment of calm just before a wave arrives. Then you need to try to stand up on the board as the wave begins to rise under you. At the same time, you must try to steer the board with your feet so you stay on top of the wave. The important thing is to keep your balance and not fall. If you can manage this, you will have an exciting ride all the way in to the shore.

The writer first elaborates the topic sentence

The writer then moves to support his topic sentence through using comparison and contrast method

Two additional popular sports in Hawaii are scuba diving and snorkeling. These sports allow you to look at what is under the surface of the ocean. Of the two, scuba diving allows you to see the most interesting undersea sights because you can go farther underwater. "Scuba" means "Self-Contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus," which is the equipment used for breathing and swimming far under water. In Hawaii, you must take special courses to learn how to scuba dive because it can be dangerous. If you are less adventurous, you might try snorkeling instead of scuba diving. Less equipment is needed to snorkel-just a face mask, a breathing tube (snorkel), and flippers for your feet. Unlike scuba diving, snorkeling is easy to learn and does not require any special instruction. You breathe through the snorkel, float on the surface of the water, and look down through the mask. Often fish will come close to you and eat out of your hand.

Sufficient and relevant supporting details.

Second body paragraph

As we can see, surfing, scuba diving, and snorkeling are the most famous sports in Hawaii. Whatever the sport you choose, you will understand why Hawaii is known as a perfect place to enjoy water sports.

Restatement of the thesis statement and summary of the main subtopics

A brief comment

Conclusion

Adapted from: Mikulecky and Jeffries (2004, p. 139)

- **Pre-reading activity**

Students have been first asked about Hawaii, specifically, its location and what is it famous of.

- **Post-reading activity**

The students negotiated the content of the text which were comprehension questions, and then the teacher explained the parts of essay, referring to the above model.

The text used in awareness raising stage

Students were given the text below to:

- read,
- order the sentences of each paragraph,
- and identify all the parts that constitute the essay macrostructure.

(1) The computer revolution that started after the Second World War is now developing exponentially and computers are beginning to influence and take over nearly every aspect of our lives. (2)The two main areas in which computers have brought about a profound change in our lives are in the economic field and in the field of communications. (3)Computers are clearly changing and affecting society in many ways. (4)The twenty-first century is already turning out to be the century of the computer.

(1)Every big corporation bases its operations on computing, regardless of which sector they are in. (2)The computer has led to immense changes in economic and business life. (3)Furthermore, the developed world is moving from an industrial-based economy to a computer and IT-based one. (4)First, businesses now have to be computerized or they risk failure. (5)Second, computing is an economic dynamo. Japan, China, India and many other countries have large IT sectors which drive their economies upwards. (6)For example, Coca-Cola, the BBC and Levi's market and sell different products and services, yet they all share one basic property–without computers their operations would collapse.

(1)Secondly, many people use computers to communicate with people all around the world using chat rooms and chat programs, this was impossible before the computer became widespread. (2)It is not just in business that computers have affected us so profoundly; communication has been revolutionized totally. (3)For instance, instead of waiting weeks for a letter now, we can read it instantly, seconds after it is been written. (4)As a result, now people who live thousands of kilometers away from each other can communicate as much as they want and whenever they want using e-mail and/or chat rooms. (5)Firstly, whereas before, people wrote letters, which would often take weeks to reach their destinations, or speak on the phone, which was terribly expensive, now they e-mail.

(1)In the future, if the computer continues evolving at such speed, our business practices and methods of communication will undergo even more radical changes. (2)In conclusion, computers have had a profound effect on our lives in many ways and it is in business and communication that they have had the greatest influence.

- **The revised text**

What effects has the computer had on our lives?

The twenty-first century is already turning out to be the century of the computer. The computer revolution that started after the Second World War is now developing exponentially and computers are beginning to influence and take over nearly every aspect of our lives. Computers are clearly changing and affecting society in many ways. The two main areas in which computers have brought about a profound change in our lives are in the economic field and in the field of communications.

Relevant general statements

The thesis statement

The computer has led to immense changes in economic and business life. First, businesses now have to be computerized or they risk failure. Every big corporation bases its operations on computing, regardless of which sector they are in. For example, Coca-Cola, the BBC and Levi's market and sell different products and services, yet they all share one basic property–without computers their operations would collapse. Second, computing is an economic dynamo. Japan, China, India and many other countries have large IT sectors which drive their economies upwards. Furthermore, the developed world is moving from an industrial-based economy to a computer and IT-based one.

The first topic sentence

Sufficient and relevant supporting details.

It is not just in business that computers have affected us so profoundly; communication has been revolutionized totally. Firstly, whereas before, people wrote letters, which would often take weeks to reach their destinations, or speak on the phone, which was terribly expensive, now they e-mail. For instance, instead of waiting weeks for a letter now, we can read it instantly, seconds after it is been written. Secondly, many people use computers to communicate with people all around the world using chat rooms and chat programs, this was impossible before the computer became widespread. As a result, now people who live thousands of kilometers away from each other can

The second topic sentence

Sufficient and relevant supporting details.

communicate as much as they want and whenever they want using e-mail and/or chat rooms.

Restatement of the thesis statement and summary of the main

In conclusion, computers have had a profound effect on our lives in many ways and it is in business and communication that they have had the greatest influence. In the future, if the computer continues evolving at such speed, our business practices and methods of communication will undergo even more radical changes.

Final comment

Adapted from: http://writing.itu.edu.tr/ce1.pdf

Writing Practice:

The students were free to choose any topic, of any organizational pattern, to write about, but they have been told to focus specifically on the effectiveness and clarity of the thesis statement, topic sentences, and conclusion, as well as the adequacy and relevance of the general statements and supporting details.

7- Thematic Progression patterns

The Students' handout

Thematic progression patterns

1. Definition of theme and rheme

The **theme** is the point of departure of a message which indicates what the sentence is going to be about. Very often, it is the grammatical subject of the sentence, which may be a proper noun (e.g. *Gregory Stock*), pronoun (e.g. *He, She*), or noun phrase (e.g. *One of the reasons, Population growth*).

The **rheme** is everything that follows the theme; it usually develops whatever is the theme.

Examples:

A mature reasoner *is someone who argues with his or her audience in mind.*
Theme Rheme

Rising unemployment rates *have put a strain on the economy.*
Theme Rheme

Sometimes, sentences do not begin with the grammatical subject of the sentence. In this case, the theme can be a prepositional phrase, adverb of time, or subordinate clause.

In the beginning, *all committee members gathered to discuss the issue*.
Theme Rheme

Yesterday *a decision was finally made.*
Theme Rheme
Although studies have proven that smoking causes cancer, *many people continue to smoke.*
Theme Rheme

2. Types of themes:

The themes discussed previously—the grammatical subject, prepositional phrases, adverbs of time, and subordinate clauses—are called **ideational themes**.
Example:
The government *has enacted strict gun laws.*
Ideational Theme Rheme

A sentence can begin with transition words, such as *for example, to sum up, moreover*, to make a connection to the previous sentence. These are called **textual themes**.
Example:
Nevertheless, *it* *continues to be very easy for people to purchase firearms.*
Textual Theme Ideational Theme Rheme

Sentences may also have **interpersonal themes** which express the writer's attitude. This can include: *Personally, In my opinion,(Un) fortunately… etc.*
Example:
Unfortunately, *the United States* *has rejected the Kyoto Protocol.*
Interpersonal Theme Ideational Theme Rheme
*All sentences **must** have an **ideational** theme, while textual and interpersonal themes are optional.

3. Thematic progression

The organization of themes and rhemes in a text can make a text more or less successful. There are four main types of theme-rheme **patterns** that appear across multiple sentences and paragraphs but they can be integrated in different ways to get other patterns.

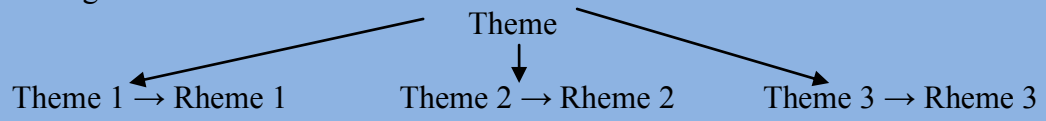
- **The simple linear thematic progression patterns** occurs when an element in the rheme of sentence one gets introduced into the theme of sentence two. The figure is as follows:

Theme 1 → Rheme 1
Theme 2 → Rheme 2
Theme 3 → Rheme 3

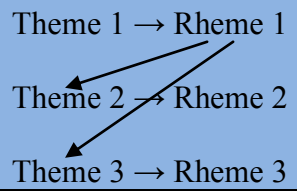
- **Thematic progression with a continuous/ constant theme** refers to the selection of the exact theme or a pronoun that refers to it in a sequence of sentences. The figure of this pattern is as follows:

Theme 1 → Rheme 1
↓
Theme 2 → Rheme 2
↓
Theme 3 → Rheme 3

• **Derived hyperthematic progression pattern** is characterized by a hyper theme functioning as an element from which the themes of the subsequent sentences are derived. Consider the figure:



• **Split progression pattern** occurs when the rheme of one sentence is split into two items each in turn being then taken as a theme element in subsequent sentences. It is represented below:



<u>The text used in the modeling stage</u>

Africa Today

(1)Newspapers and television reports around the world show Africa as a continent with many problems. (2)They focus on the wars, the starving children, the terrible diseases, and the natural disasters. (3)Other, more positive aspects of life in Africa are rarely shown.

(1)There are, indeed, serious problems in many parts of Africa. (2)The biggest problem facing Africans today is continuing threat of wars. (3)These wars are in part due to historic competition among tribes. (4)However, in the past, the fighting was local and small scale. (5)In recent years, it has become far more violent and destructive. (6)This is partly because of the destructive power of modern weapons. (7)It is also because the situation has changed dramatically.

(1)Starting in the sixteenth century, European powers began to move into Africa. (2)They took African people to sell as slaves in North and South America. (3)They also took any valuable resources they could find, such as ivory, gold, or diamonds. (4)In the nineteenth century, the European rulers divided up the continent into countries. (5)They did not understand much about African tribal traditions, and so the borders of these countries did not match the traditional borders of tribal lands.

(1)When the countries of Africa become independent in the twentieth century, there were often several different tribes in a country, and each tribe wanted to rule. (2)The result was conflict and civil war. (3)In many countries, the civil wars have been going on for decades as different groups fight for control of the government. (4)Governing means having not only

power, but also having access to wealth- and one of the few ways out of a life of poverty. (5)In recent years, it has also meant having control over international aid and, therefore, access to food in times of starvation.

(1)Many of the problems facing Africa today have been worsened by this fighting over control of the government. (2)Countries that are at war have little time or resources to deal with poverty, hunger, or disease. (3)They are unable to take any measures for a better future, and so many countries are becoming poorer and their problems are growing. (4)For example, HIV, the virus that causes AIDS, has spread rapidly in Africa because of the lack of education and health care, as well as the lack of medical supplies. (5)Other diseases, many preventable, have spread quickly for the same reasons.

(1)In spite of these problems, however, many Africans are hopeful about their future. (2)Ordinary people in many countries are joining together to change and improve their lives. (3)Young and talented Africans are looking out to the rest of the world. (4)They are experimenting with ways to use the Internet and other new technology to try to solve some of their problems. (5)In the arts, and especially in music, many talented performers are showing the world what it means to be African.

Adapted from: Mikulecky and Jeffries (2004, p. 211)

- **Pre-reading activity**

Before reading and modeling the above text, in few minutes, the students held a discussion with the teacher about the problems Africa often faces.

- **Post-reading activity**

Orally, the students negotiated the content of the above text with the teacher through answering some text comprehension questions. The teacher then showed clearly how thematic progression patterns contribute in the organization of content at a local level of a text.

<u>Paragraph 1</u>

(1)**Newspapers and television reports** around the world **(T)** show Africa as a continent with many problems **(R).**

Constatnt theme pattern

(2)**They (T)** focus on **the wars, the starving children, the terrible diseases, and the natural disasters (R).**

Simple linear pattern

(3)**Other, more positive aspects** of life in Africa **(T)** are rarely shown **(R).**

Paragraph 2

(1)There **(T)** are, indeed, **serious problems** in many parts of Africa **(R).**

Simple linear pattern

(2)**The biggest problem** facing Africans today **(T)** is continuing threat of **wars (R).**

Simple linear pattern

(3)**These wars (T)** are in part due to historic competition among tribes **(R).**

Constatnt theme pattern

(4)However, in the past, **the fighting (T)** was local and small scale **(R).**

Constatnt theme pattern

(5)In recent years, **it (T)** has become far **more violent and destructive (R).**

split rhemepattern

(6)This **(T)** is partly because of the destructive power of modern weapons **(R).**

(7)It **(T)** is also because the situation has changed dramatically **(R).**

Paragraph 3

(1)Starting in the sixteenth century, **European powers (T)** began to move into Africa **(R).**

Derived hyperthematic pattern

(2)**They (T)** took African people to sell as slaves in North and South America **(R).**

(3)**They (T)** also took any valuable resources they could find, such as ivory, gold, or diamonds **(R).**

(4)In the nineteenth century, **the European rulers (T)** divided up the continent into countries **(R).**

(5)**They (T)** did not understand much about African tribal traditions, and so the borders of these countries did not match the traditional borders of tribal lands **(R).**

Paragraph 4

(1)When the countries of Africa become independent in the twentieth century **(T), there were often several different tribes in a country, and each tribe wanted to rule (R)**.

Simple linear pattern

(2)The result of **this (T)** was conflict and **civil war (R).**

Simple linear pattern

(3)In many countries, **the civil wars (T)** have been going on for decades as different groups fight for control of **the government (R).**

Simple linear pattern

(4)**Governing (T)** means having not only power, but also having access to wealth- and one of the few ways out of a life of poverty **(R).**

Constatnt theme pattern

(5)In recent years, **it (T)** has also meant having control over international aid and, therefore, access to food in times of starvation **(R)**.

Paragraph 5

(1)**Many of the problems** facing Africa today **(T)** have been worsened by this fighting over control of the government **(R).**

Derived hyperthematic pattern

(2)**Countries that are at war (T)** have little time or resources to deal with poverty, hunger, or disease **(R).**

Constatnt theme pattern

(3)**They (T)** are unable to take any measures for a better future, and **so many countries are becoming poorer and their problems are growing (R).**

(4)**For example, HIV, the virus that causes AIDS, (T)** has spread rapidly in Africa because of the lack of education and health care, as well as the lack of medical supplies **(R).**

(5)**Other diseases**, many preventable, **(T)** have spread quickly for the same reasons **(R).**

Paragraph 6

(1)In spite of these problems, however, **many Africans** (T) are hopeful about their future (R).

Derived hyperthematic pattern

(2)**Ordinary people** in many countries (T) are joining together to change and improve their lives (R).

(3)**Young and talented Africans** (T) are looking out to the rest of the world (R).

Constatnt theme pattern

(4)**They** (T) are experimenting with ways to use the Internet and other new technology to try to solve some of their problems (R).

(5)In the arts, and especially in music, **many talented performers** (T) are showing the world what it means to be African (R).

The texts used in the awareness raising stage

From Nomad to Farmer

For many African people, life has changes dramatically in recent years. This is especially true for the Tuareg people of north-central Africa. Historically, the Tuareg led the life of nomads, people with no permanent home. They traveled across the Sahara Desert in caravans of camels, carrying goods between Arab Africa in the north and black Africa in the south.

The Tuareg did not belong to either of these groups. They were a light-skinned Berber people, with a culture and language of their own. Because they dressed all in blue, even their shoes, European called them the "blue men" of the desert. They were well known for their great skill in finding their way across the open desert, with only the stars to guide them. They were also known for their independent spirit. In fact, they loved the nomad way of life, which allowed theme to come and go as they chose. National borders had no meaning for them in the desert. During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, Africa, was divided up and ruled up by various European countries, but this did not affect the Tuaregs, who continued to move freely.

In the mid-twentieth century, however, there were big changes in Africa. In many centuries, black Africans began to break free of European rule and set up their own governments. As the new governments gained power, national borders became more important and it became more difficult for the Tuaregs to travel and trade. They fought against the changes, but eventually, national borders were closed, and the Tuaregs were forced to limit their travels.

At the same time, another big change had come to come to the area. People were beginning to use motor vehicles to travel across the desert. Cars and trucks were faster and more efficient than camels and hus, the Tuareg caravans lost their important role in the desert. Then came the great drought of the 1970s and 1980s. With no rain, especially in 1984, large areas of grassland near the Sahara turned into desert. With no grass to eat, many animals died, including the Tuaregs' camels. Their old way of life was now definitively over.

The question was, how could the Tuaregs now make a living? They noticed that the people who lived near water holes could plant vegetables gardens and suffered less from the drought. Soon Tuaregs began to settle down near the old watering places in the desert. One of these was Timia, in central Niger. Until forty years ago, Timia was just a well in the middle of the

desert where travelers stopped to rest. Now it has a population of about 6,000. Most of the people who live there were nomads in the past, but now they make a living from their fruit and vegetables gardens. They grow oranges, grapefruits, pomegranates, dates, and corn, which they send by truck to Agadez, a city about ninety five miles away. Many miss their caravan days and some dream of teaching their children the old ways, but instead, they are teaching them to be farmers.

Adapted from: Mikulecky and Jeffries (2004, p. 223)

Paragraph 1

(1) For many African people, life **(T) has changes dramatically in recent years (R).**

Simple linear pattern

(2) **This (T)** is especially true for **the Tuareg** people of north-central Africa **(R).**

Simple linear pattern

(3) Historically, **the Tuareg (T)** led the life of nomads, people with no permanent home **(R).**

Constant theme pattern

(4) **They (T)** traveled across the Sahara Desert in caravans of camels, carrying goods between Arab Africa in the north and black Africa in the south **(R).**

Paragraph 2

(1)**The Tuareg (T)** did not belong to either of these groups **(R).**

Constant theme pattern

(2)**They (T)** were a light-skinned Berber people, with a culture and language of their own **(R)**.

Constant theme pattern

(3) Because **they** dressed all in blue, even their shoes, **(T)** European called them the "blue men" of the desert **(R).**

Constant theme pattern

(4) **They (T)** were well known for their great skill in finding their way across the open desert, with only the stars to guide them (R).

Constant theme pattern

(5) **They (T)** were also known for their independent spirit **(R).**

Constant theme pattern

(6) In fact, **they (T)** loved the nomad way of life, **which allowed theme to come and go as they chose (R).**

Simple linear pattern

(7) **National borders (T)** had no meaning for them in the desert **(R).**

None of the mentioned patterns

(8) During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, Africa, **(T)** was divided up and ruled up by various European countries, but this did not affect the Tuaregs, who continued to move freely **(R).**

Paragraph 3

(1) In the mid-twentieth century, however, there **(T)** were big changes **in Africa (R)**.

Simple linear pattern

(2) In many centuries, **black Africans (T)** began to break free of European rule and set up **their own governments** (**R**).

Simple linear pattern

(3) As **the new governments** gained power **(T)**, national borders became more important and it became more difficult for **the Tuaregs** to travel and trade **(R).**

Simple linear pattern

(4) **They (T)** fought against the changes, but eventually, national borders were closed, and the Tuaregs were forced to limit their travels **(R).**

Paragraph 4

(1) At the same time, **another big change (T)** had come to come to the area **(R).**

Derived hyperthematic pattern

(2) People **(T)** were beginning to use **motor vehicles** to travel across the desert **(R).**

Simple linear pattern

(3) **Cars and trucks (T)** were faster and more efficient than camels and thus, the Tuareg caravans lost their important role in the desert **(R).**

(5) **Then (T)** came **the great drought of the 1970s and 1980s (R).**

Split rheme pattern

(6) **With no rain**, especially in 1984, large areas of grassland near the Sahara **(T)** turned into desert **(R).**

(7) **With no grass to eat**, many animals **(T)** died, including the **Tuaregs'** camels **(R).**

Simple linear pattern

(8) **Their** old way of life **(T)** was now definitively over **(R).**

Paragraph 5

(1)The question **(T)** was, how could the **Tuaregs** now make a living **(R)**?

Simple linear pattern

(2) **They (T)** noticed that the people who lived near water holes could plant vegetables gardens and suffered less from the drought **(R)**.

Constant theme pattern

(3) Soon **Tuaregs (T)** began to settle down near **the old watering places** in the desert **(R)**.

Simple linear pattern

(4) **One of these (T)** was **Timia,** in central Niger **(R)**.

Simple linear pattern

(5) Until forty years ago, **Timia (T)** was just a well in the middle of the desert where travelers stopped to rest **(R)**.

Constant theme pattern

(6) Now **it (T)** has a population of about 6,000 **(R)**.

Constant theme pattern

(7) Most of the people who live **there (T)** were nomads in the past, but now **they** make a living from their fruit and vegetables gardens **(R)**.

Simple linear pattern

(8) **They (T)** grow oranges, grapefruits, pomegranates, dates, and corn, which they send by truck to Agadez, a city about 1 **(R)**.

Constant theme pattern

(9) **Many (T)** miss their caravan days and some dream of teaching their children the old ways, but instead, they are teaching them to be farmers **(R)**.

An Exciting Way to Visit the Wilderness

People who are looking for outdoor adventure often go to Maine. This state in the northeastern United States contains large areas of wilderness and many rivers. There you can enjoy a popular sport: white-water rafting. In the past, this sport was practiced only in the western states. But now, several outdoor travel companies offer weekend rafting trips in Maine. They provide guide service, equipment, and even food, and they welcome people who have had no experience at all. Thus, city residents, too, can get a taste of wilderness. All they need to bring with them is a desire for adventure.

"White water" is the water of a river when it moves very fast over rocky areas. As the water fills with air bubbles, it looks white. The areas of white water are the most exciting areas for rafters and also the most dangerous. In fact, rafting guides must always be on the

lookout for white water. And rafters must be ready to swim because the raft can tip over in white water. For that reason, rafters must wear special life vests that will keep them afloat.

Rafting is not a sport that everyone can do. It often requires great physical strength. Sometimes, at very rocky parts of the river, rafters will need to walk for a while. They may also have to carry their rubber rafts at times. Fortunately, though, the rafts are very light. Because they are going downriver, paddling the boats is easy. But everyone on the raft has to be alert for changes in the river current. They cannot simply sit and enjoy the wonderful wild scenery.

Most rafting companies offer overnight trips that combine with camping. This kind of trip is ideal for a family with children over twelve. Several rafts of families will start out from a base camp. Their food supplies, sleeping bags, tents, and other necessities are sometimes packed onto the rafts. Or all the supplies might be brought by car to the next campsite. Their guide often is also the cook for the group of rafters and may be quite a good chef. After a day of rafting, in any case, the food tastes good and sleep comes easily.

Adapted from: Mikulecky and Jeffries (2004, p. 149)

Paragraph1

(1) People who are looking for outdoor adventure often **(T)** go to **Maine (R).**

Simple linear pattern

(2) **This state** in the northeastern United States **(T)** contains **large areas of wilderness and many rivers (R).**

Simple linear pattern

(3) **There** you **(T)** can enjoy **a popular sport**: white-water rafting **(R).**

Simple linear pattern

(4) **In the past**, **this sport (T)** was practiced only in the western states **(R).**

Constant theme pattern

(5) But **now**, **several outdoor travel companies (T)** offer weekend rafting trips in Maine **(R).**

Constant theme pattern

(6) **They (T)** provide guide service, equipment, and even food, and they welcome **people who have had no experience at all (R)**.

Simple linear pattern

(8) Thus, **city residents**, too, **(T)** can get a taste of wilderness **(R).**

Constant theme pattern

(9) All **they (T)** need to bring with them is a desire for adventure **(R).**

Paragraph 2

(1) "White water" **(T)** is **the water** of a river when it moves very fast over rocky areas **(R).**

Simple linear pattern

(2) As **the water (T)** fills with air bubbles, **it looks white (R).**

Simple linear pattern

(3) The areas of **white water** (**T**) are the most exciting areas for **rafters** and also the most dangerous **(R).**

Simple linear pattern

(4) In fact, **rafting guides (T)** must always be on the lookout for white water **(R).**

Constant theme pattern

(5) And **rafters (T)** must be ready to swim because the raft can tip over in white water **(R).**

Constant theme pattern

(6) For that reason**, rafters (T)** must wear special life vests that will keep them afloat **(R).**

Paragraph 3

(1) **Rafting (T)** is not a sport that everyone can do **(R).**

Constant theme pattern

(2) **It** often **(T)** requires **great physical strength (R).**

Split rheme pattern

(3) Sometimes, at very rocky parts of the river, **rafters (T) will need to walk for a while (R).**

Constant theme pattern

(4) **They (T) may also have to carry their rubber rafts at times (R).**

Simple linear pattern

(5) Fortunately, though, **the rafts (T)** are very light **(R).**

(6) **Paddling the boats is easy(T)** because **they** are going downriver **(R).**

Simple linear pattern

(7) But **everyone** on the raft (**T**) has to be alert for changes in the river current **(R).**

Constant theme pattern

(8) **They (T)** cannot simply sit and enjoy the wonderful wild scenery **(R).**

Paragraph 4

(1) Most rafting companies **(T)** offer **overnight trips** that combine with camping **(R).**

Simple linear pattern

(2) **This kind of trip (T)** is ideal for a **family with children** over twelve **(R).**

Simple linear pattern

(3) **Several rafts of families (T)** will start out from a base camp **(R).**

Constant theme pattern

(4) **Their food supplies, sleeping bags, tents, and other necessities (T)** are sometimes packed onto the rafts **(R).**

Constant theme pattern

(5) Or **all the supplies (T)** might be brought by car to the next campsite **(R).**

Constant theme pattern

(6) **Their** guide often **(T) is also the cook for the group of rafters and may be quite a good chef (R).**

Simple linear pattern

(7) After a day of rafting, in any case, **the food (T)** tastes good and sleep comes easily**(R).**

Writing Practice

The students were told to write an essay, focusing on the effective use of thematic progression patterns. The topic was about the negative effects of youth unemployment on society.

8- Cohesive Devices

The Students' handout

Cohesion

Cohesion refers to the way clauses and sentences are brought together to make a unified text. To fulfil this last purpose, two main categories of cohesive devices are used: grammatical and lexical devices. Grammatical cohesion embraces four different devices: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction; while lexical cohesion encompasses two devices reiteration and collocation.

1. Grammatical Cohesion

1.1 Reference

It is taken to be as the relation between an element of the text and something else by reference to which it is interpreted in the given instance. It involves the use of:

1. Personal pronouns: *I, my, you, he, she, he, it, they, we, our, ours, us ... etc.*
2. Demonstratives: *this, that, these, those.*
3. Locative adverbs: *here, there.*
4. Temporal adverbs: *now, then, before, after, later, earlier, sooner*.
5. Other interrogative, indefinite, reciprocal, reflexive, or intensive pronouns such as: *who,*

what, which, whom, why, where, whose, whoever, some, any, none, someone, one, nobody, anyone.
Examples:
John has moved to a new house. *He* built *it* last year. (Anaphoric reference)
He always prepares *his* lessons carefully. John is really a devoted teacher. (Cataphoric reference)

1.2 Substitution

It is a replacement of lexical expressions of any size such as a word, phrase or clause by other lexical items. The result is different wording rather than a different meaning. The common items used for substitution are:
One: I offered him a seat. He said he didn't want *one.*
Do: did Marry take that letter? She might have *done.*
So/not: do you need a lift? If *so,* wait for me, if *not* I will see you there.
Same: she chose the roast duck; I chose the *same.*

1.3 Ellipsis

It is the omission or deletion of some items of the surface text which the writer assumes is obvious from the context and therefore need not be raised.
Examples:
Nelly liked the green tiles; myself I preferred the blue.
Will anyone be waiting? Jim will.

1.4 Conjunction

It is a semantic relation which refers to the process in which words or sentences are systematically connected. There are four types of conjunctions; additive, adversative, causal and temporal.
*Additive conjunctions refer to addition relationship between what has been said and what is to come; e.g. *and, or, beside, moreover, on the other hand, also,…etc.*
*Adversative conjunctions refer to the contradiction between what has been said and what is to come; *e.g. but, however, yet, by contrast, although,…etc.*
*Causal conjunctions refer to the relationship between two sentences in which an event is the cause of the other; *e.g. because, so, therefore, consequently,…etc.*
*Temporal conjunctions refer to the time sequence relationship between sentences; *e.g. then, next, after, at the same time, while,…etc.*
…etc.

2. Lexical Cohesion

It concerns the way in which lexical items relate to each other. There are two major categories of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collection.

2.1 Reiteration

It includes:

- **Repitition**: (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 is not all that *steep)*
- **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 did not like the things much)

2.2 Collocation

It relates to all items in a text that are related semantically and belongs to a particular field. The following items can create lexical cohesion in a particular text because they all belong to the scientific field of biology*: plants, synthesise, organic, green plants ...etc.*

The text used in the modeling stage

Maria Montessori: Childhood

When Maria Montessori was born in Italy in 1870, her future seemed certain. Women did not have careers in those days, nor did they attend college. People generally believed that women were not very intelligent and not capable of complex thought, so Maria, it seemed, had little choice. Like her mother and most woman of her day, she would become a mother and a housewife.

Maria did, in fact, become a mother, but otherwise, her life took a very different course. She became a doctor- the first woman doctor in Italy. With her brilliant medical studies and research, she proved that women could indeed think and work as well as men. Later, she became internationally famous as the inventor of the Montessori method of teaching. To this day, Montessori schools around the world follow her method.

She was born in Chiaravalle, near Ancona, Italy. Her father, Alessandro Montessero, was a government official in the state- run tobacco industry. In his youth, he had fought for the liberation and unification of Italy. Well- educated himself, he wanted the best for his daughter. However, he was also conservative and did not approve of her unusual choices. Only later, when she became famous, he did change his mind and became proud of her.

Maria's mother never had any doubts about her daughter. She supported all of Maria's decisions and helped her through many difficult times. Her own life was ordinary enough but she wanted her daughter's life to be brilliant. It was she who gave Maria the optimism and the ideals necessary for success. She also taught Maria not to be afraid of hard work. Even as a small girl, Maria always had her share of housework to do. And finally, Maria's mother gave her a sense of responsibility toward others. This was an important factor in her later work as a doctor and as an educator.

The Montessori family moved several times when Maria was young. When she was five, they went to live in Rome, and there she started primary school. Only an average student at that time, Maria did not seem very ambitious. Nor did she sympathize with the competitive behavior of some of her classmates. When she won a prize in the first grade, it was for good behavior. In second grade, she won another prize for sewing and needlework. So far, her interests and achievements were the same as those of any other girl of her time.

However, something in Maria's character stood out among the other children and she was often the leader in their games. Self-confident and strong-willed, she came to believe that her life was somehow going to be different. At the age of ten, when she became dangerously ill, that belief in herself was already strong. She told her mother she could not die because she had too much to do in life.

Adapted from: Mikulecky and Jeffries (2004, p. 245)

- **Pre-reading activity**

Students were asked whether they know Maria Montessori.

- **Post-reading activity**

The students negotiated the content of the above text with the teacher through answering some text comprehension questions. The teacher then showed clearly how the cohesive devices contribute in the organization of content.

Paragraph 1

(1) When Maria Montessori was born in Italy **in 1870**, her future seemed certain.

Reference

(2) **Women** did not have careers in **those** days, nor did they attend college.

Reiteration

(3) People generally believed that **women** were not very intelligent and not capable of complex thought, so **Maria**, it seemed, had little choice.

Reference

(4) Like **her** mother and most woman of her day, she would become a mother and a housewife.

Paragraph 2

(1) **Maria** did, in fact, become a mother, but otherwise, her life took a very different course.

Reference

(2) **She** became a doctor- the first woman doctor in Italy.

Reference

(3) With **her** brilliant medical studies and research, she proved that women could indeed think and work as well as men.

Reference

(4) **Later, she** became internationally famous as the inventor of **the Montessori method of teaching**.

coniunction Reference Reiteration

(5) To this day, **Montessori schools** around the world follow **her** method.

Paragraph 3

(1) **She** was born in Chiaravalle, near Ancona, Italy.

Reference

(2) **Her** father, **Alessandro Montessero**, was a government official in the state- run tobacco industry.

Reference

(3) In **his** youth, he had fought for the liberation and unification of Italy.

Reference

(4) Well- educated **himself, he** wanted the best for his daughter.

coniunction Reference

(5) **However, he** was also conservative and did not approve of **her** unusual choices.

coniunction Reference

(6) **Only later**, when **she** became famous, he did change his mind and became proud of her.

Paragraph 4

(1) **Maria's mother** never had any doubts about her daughter.

Reference

(2) **She** supported all of Maria's decisions and helped her through many difficult times.

Reference

(3) **Her** own life was ordinary enough but she wanted her daughter's life to be brilliant.

Reference

(4) It was **she** who gave Maria the optimism and the ideals necessary for success.

Reference

(5) **She** also taught **Maria** not to be afraid of hard work.

Reiteration

(6) Even as a small girl, **Maria** always had her share of housework to do.

conjunction Reiteration

(7) **And** finally, **Maria**'s mother gave her **a sense of responsibility toward others**.

Reference

(8) **This** was an important factor in her later work as a doctor and as an educator.

Paragraph 5

(1) **The Montessori family** moved several times when **Maria** was young.

Reference Reference

(2) When **she** was five, **they** went to live in Rome, and there she started primary school.

Reference

(3) Only an average student at that time, **Maria** did not seem very ambitious.

Reference

(4) Nor did **she** sympathize with the competitive behavior of some of her classmates.

Reference

(5) **When** **she** won a prize in the first grade, it was for good behavior.

conjunction Reference

(6) In second grade, **she** won another prize for sewing and needlework.

Reference

(7) So far, **her** interests and achievements were the same as those of any other girl of her time.

Paragraph 6

coniunction

(1) **However,** something in **Maria**'s character stood out among the other children and she was often the leader in their games.

Reference

(2) Self-confident and strong-willed, **she** came to believe that her life was somehow going to be different.

Reference

(3) At the age of ten, when **she** became dangerously ill, that belief in herself was already strong. She told her mother she could not die because she had too much to do in life.

The text used in the awareness raising stage

Why People Save Books

Many people who like **to read** also save **the books** they have read. If you walk into any home, you are likely to see anywhere from a single **bookshelf** to a whole **library** full of all kinds of **books.** I know **a family** whose **library** has shelves reaching up to their ceiling; they keep a ladder for climbing up to the high **books**. Obviously, **they** have collected books for many years and though **they** rarely actually open the books again, **they** keep them on the shelves, dusted and lined up neatly. **Why** do people save their books? **There** may be several reasons, but three stand out.

Lexical cohesion

Reference

One reason **people** save their books is to use them as reference materials. **People** whose job training included studying a lot of **textbook material** may save some of **those books** for future reference. A doctor, for instance, may keep his *Gray's Anatomy* and his pharmacology **books**; an English teacher will hold on to *The Norton Anthology of British Literature* and other **anthologies** and **novels** for **reference**; a lawyer usually keeps her **case books**. **But** it isn' t only the professionals who save **their books**. **People** who like to cook keep **recipe books**. **Those** interested in electronic equipment hold on to their books about stereos,

Lexical cohesion

Conjunction

Lexical cohesion

computers, videotape machines, and the like. Many families keep **encyclopedias** and **almanacs** handy for their children to use for **school**. Having your own **reference book** available is so much more convenient than running to the **library** every time you want to check a fact.

Ellipsis

Lexical cohesion

Another reason **some people** save books is to make a good impression. **Some** think that a library full of the library classics, dictionaries, and books about art, science, and history **make them look well read and therefore sophisticated.** Of course, **this** impression may be inaccurate. **Some** have never bothered to read the majority of those **books** at all! In fact, **a few people** even have libraries with fake **books**. **In addition**, **some people** like to reveal to visitors their wide range of tastes and interests. **They** can subtly reveal their interests in Peruvian art, Indian music, philosophy, or animals without saying a word.

Ellipsis

Reference

Ellipsis

Reference

L. cohesion

Conjunction

Reference

While some **people** may keep books for practical reference and for conveying an impression; I suspect that there is a deeper reason. **People** who enjoy reading have discovered the magic of **books**. **Each book**, whether it is *The Treasury of Houseplants* or *Murder on the Orient Express*, has transported the reader to another place. **Therefore,** **each book** really represents **an experience** from which the reader may have **grown or learned something**. When **I** sit in my study, I am surrounded by my **whole adult life**. *The Standard First Aid* and *Personal Safety* manual, in addition to providing information, reminds **me** of the first-aid course **I** took and how more assured **I** felt as a result. *Bullfinch's Mythology* brings the oral history of Western civilization to **my** fingertips, reminding **me** of my link with other times and people. Of course, all of the novels have become part of the mosaic of **my** life. **In short**, saving books makes **me** feel secure as I hold on to what they have given me.

Lexical cohesion

Conjunction

Lexical cohesion

Reference

Conjunction

Why So Many Children

In many of the developing countries in Africa and Asia, **the population is growing fast**. The reason for **this** is simple: **Women** in these countries have a high birth rate- from 3.0 to 7.0 children per woman. The majority of **these women** are poor, without the food or resources to care for their families. Why do **they** have many so children? Why don't **they** limit the size of their families? The answer may be that **they** often **have no choice**. There are several reasons for **this**.

Reference

Lexical cohesion

Reference

One reason is **economic**. In a traditional **agricultural economy**, **large families** are helpful. **Having more children** means having more **workers** in **the fields** and someone to take care of the parents in old age. In an **industrial economy**, the situation is different. **Many children** do not help a family; instead, they are an expense. **Thus, industrialization has generally brought down the birth rate**. **This** was the case in **Italy**, which was industrialized quite recently and rapidly. In the early part of the twentieth century, **Italy** was a poor, largely **agricultural country** with a high birth rate. **After** World War II, Italy's economy was rapidly **modernized** and **industrialized**. **By the end of the century**, the birth rate had dropped to 1.3 children per woman, the world lowest.

Lexical cohesion

Conjunction

Reference

Lexical cohesion

Conjunction

However, **the economy** is not the only important factor that influences birth rate. Saudi Arabia, for example, does not have an **agriculture-based economy**, and it has one of the highest per capita incomes in the world. **Nevertheless**, it also has a very high birth rate (7.0). Mexico and Indonesia, **on the other hand**, are poor countries, with largely agricultural economies, but they have recently reduced their population growth.

Lexical cohesion

Conjunction

Greatly, **other factors** are involved. The most important **one** is the condition of **women**. A high birth rate almost always goes together with **lack of education and low status for women.** **This** would explain the high birth rate of **Saudi Arabia**. **There**, the traditional culture gives women little education or independence and few possibilities outside the home. **On the other hand,** the improved condition of woman in **Mexico, Thailand, and Indonesia** explains the decline in birth rates in these countries. **Their** governments have taken measures to provide more education and opportunities for women.

Substitution
Lexical cohesion
Reference
Conjunction
Reference

Another key factor in the birth rate is **birth control**. Women may want to **limit their families** but have no way to do so. In countries where governments have made **birth control** easily available and expensive, **birth rates** **have gone down.** **This** is the case in **Singapore, Sri Lanka, and India, as well as in Indonesia, Thailand, Mexico, and Brazil**. In **these** countries, women have also been provided with health care and help in planning their families.

Lexical cohesion
Reference

These trends show that **an effective program** to reduce population growth does not have to depend on better economic conditions. **It** can be effective if it aims to help women and meet their needs. Only then, in fact, does **it** have any real chance of success.

Reference

Adapted from: Mikulecky and Jeffries (2004, p.245)

Writing Practice

The students were asked to write an essay about the steps they go through when they face a serious problem. They were told to focus on the effective application of cohesive devices.

9- Coherence Relations

The Students' handout

Coherence relations

Coherence relations are meaning relations or the links between a given sentence and the sentences which precede or follow it. In other words, for ideas to be logically presented, a set of coherence relations which link the different constituents of a text to one another should be constructed. The category of these relations is either made explicit by means of connectives such as: the conjunctions (and, but, although, if . . . then, for, because, or, unless, and despite), the sentence adverbs (therefore, however, consequently), and adverbial compounds (on the contrary, as a consequence, or on the one hand and on the other hand). Or it is entirely implicit, and thus readers need to infer these relations via other means such as context clues and background knowledge.

The text used in the modeling stage

The Internet in Africa

When it comes to technology, Africa is far behind the rest of the world. **For example**, Africa has very few telephone lines compared with other areas. **In fact,** it has only about 2 percent of all the telephone lines in the world. In Africa, there are about 2.5 phone lines for every 100 Africans, while there are about 70 phone lines for every 100 Americans. There are **also** very few computers- only about 6 million on the entire African continent. As for the Internet, there are fewer Internet users in Africa than in the city of London alone.

The lack of telephone and computers in Africa may not seem like an important problem on a continent with many serious problems. **However,** more telephone lines and computers would allow more Africans to connect to the Internet. Through the Internet, Africans could have better access to information and better contacts with the rest of the world. In this way, they could end their dependence on others and begin to take control of their own development.

Opposition

People in many African cities are already using the Internet. **However,** there are often

Elaboration

problems with the quality and the speed of the satellite connections to the Internet. Cables can carry much more Internet data than satellites and can do it more quickly, so new cables are

List

being put down on the ocean floor along the coast of Africa. One cable will go along the west coast, making connections from South Africa to eight other countries and finally ending in

Addition

Spain. The other cable will circle all around Africa, connecting countries on the east and west coasts.

Though many people cannot afford to buy a home computer, they can go to "cybercafés"

Elaboration

and pay for computer use by the hour. The cybercafés are especially popular with young

Elaboration

Example

people. They use the Internet to get in contact with people from other countries. One company that has opened many cybercafés is Africa Online, started by a young Kenyan who studied in

Elaboration

the United States. Africa online now has cybercafés in Kenya, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Namibia, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zimbabwe, and it is planning to open cafés in Egypt and other countries.

Elaboration

The Internet is also an important resource for students. School and college libraries often do not have many up-to-date books and students usually cannot afford to buy the books

Elaboration

themselves. With the Internet, students can access libraries and databanks around the world.

Addition

They can **also** sign up for and follow distance- learning courses at many universities in the developed countries.

As the connections for the Internet are made more direct and reliable, new opportunities

Elaboration

will open up for jobs. The Internet will allow Africans to develop an information-based

Example

economy that can do business with the whole world. **For example**, even today an American health insurance company in Kentucky has hired computer operators in Ghana to do some of

their correspondence work. With a direct Internet connection between Kentucky and Ghana, the real distance becomes unimportant.

Adapted from: Mikulecky and Jeffries (2004, p. 217)

- **Pre-reading activity**

The students were asked to list some of the benefits of Internet access.

- **Post-reading activity**

The students negotiated the content of the above text with the teacher through answering some text comprehension questions orally. Then, the teacher made it clear for the students how coherence can be established through explicit or implicit relations. Look at the above text.

The texts used in the awareness raising stage

The World is Warming

The evidence is clear. Wherever the permanent ice- Greenland, Antarctica, the Alps, the Himalays- that ice is melting. Anybody who has been to high mountains will have noticed this fact. Scientists agree that the cause for this melting is very simple: The earth's atmosphere is warming up.

The melting ice, in turn, is causing sea levels to rise as the extra water from the melting ice pours into the oceans. Already, sea levels have risen about 8 inches (20cm) in recent years, and scientists believe they could rise at least another 20 inches (50cm) by the year 2100. This could put many heavily populated coastal areas at risk. Coastal Florida, The Nile Delta, Bangladesh, and many other areas would end up under water.

Along with rising air temperature, the ocean temperatures are also rising. This has brought changes in weather patterns, with more frequent and more severe storms. Rising ocean

temperatures are **also** one of the factors in the death of coral reefs in the southern oceans. These reefs are the natural homes to 65 percent of the world's fish. When the reefs die, so do the fish.

The warmer air temperatures are also causing changes in the world's climate zones. In Europe, the southern countries along the Mediterranean are already becoming drier and more desert-like. Opposition **On the other hand**, countries in northern Europe, such as Germany and England, have experienced terrible floods from too much rain. Addition Worldwide, agriculture will soon be negatively affected in many places. Addition Life will become more difficult in the poorer countries of Asia and Africa, which already suffer from poor soil and lack of water. Result Millions of people could be forced to leave their homes and countries in search of food and a better life.

The climate changes are affecting wildlife as well. Elaboration Scientists have noted that some animals have moved to new areas where temperatures are cooler. Example The monarch butterfly, **for example**, can now be found farther north in California than in the past. Addition **Other** animals, such frogs, and toads, are disappearing because they are unable to move to a new area or adapt to the changes.

Why are temperatures rising? Response Scientists no longer have any doubt about the cause. List The burning of fossil fuels like coal and petroleum releases carbon dioxide (CO2) into the atmosphere. Restatement CO2 has always been a part of the atmosphere. Contrast **However,** over the past 150 years, the amount of CO2 released into the atmosphere has increased enormously. Addition At the same time, the forests that once absorbed CO2 are being cut down. Result The result is a thick blanket of CO2 that covers the earth, making it warmer.

There is only one way to slow down this warming of the earth and that is by reducing the amount of CO2 released into the atmosphere. Condition This can be done by replacing fossil fuels with new energy sources-such as wind power, solar power, or hydrogen fuel cells-that do not release CO2 or other polluting chemicals.

Adapted from: Mikulecky and Jeffries (2004, p. 233)

Thirsty Planet

If you live in a city in North America or Europe, you have probably never thought much about water. Whenever, you need some, you turn on the tap and there it is. Millions of people in other parts of the world are not so lucky. They have trouble getting enough clean water for their basic needs. This situation may soon become common all around the world, scientists believe. In fact, they say that the lack of clear water may be one of the biggest issues in the twenty-first century.

The reasons for this are clear. **On the one hand**, people are using more water than ever. Over the last fifty years, the population of the world has more than doubled, so the demand has for water-for home use, for farming, and for industry. **On the other hand**, supplies of clean water are disappearing. Many sources of surface water- such as rivers, lakes, and streams-are too polluted and unhealthy for use as drinking water. This has forced more and more people to drill wells so they can get water from underground.

There are enormous amounts of water deep underground in lakes called aquifers. Until recently, scientists believed this groundwater was safe from pollution. **Then,** in the 1980s, people in the United States began to find chemicals in their well water, and scientists took a closer look at what was happening. Weldon Spring, Missouri, **for example**, was the site of a bomb factory during World War II. The factory was destroyed after the war, but poisonous chemicals dripped down through the ground and into the aquifer. It took thirty-five years for the chemicals at Weldon Spring to reach the aquifer. Once they did, **however**, the water from that aquifer was no longer drinkable.

Cause

It probably never will be drinkable again. Groundwater is not renewed regularly by the rain, like lake or river water. **Thus** if a harmful chemical gets into an aquifer, it will stay there for a very long time. **Furthermore**, it is nearly impossible to remove all the water in an aquifer and clean out the pollutants.

Effect

Addition

Elaboration

Industrial sites like Weldon Spring are one cause of ground pollution. There are thousands of such sites in the United States alone, and many others around the world. Groundwater pollution is **also** caused by modern farming methods, which require the use of large amounts of chemicals in the fields. **And** finally, yet **another** important cause of groundwater pollution is waste. That includes solid waste (garbage) thrown away in dumps and landfills, and also untreated human and animal waste.

Addition

Elaboration

Elaboration

The situation is indeed very serious. Fortunately, there are many aquifers and they are very large. Only a small number have been seriously damaged so far. **But** if the world does not want to go thirsty in the near future, further pollution must be prevented. Around the world, governments must make real changes in industry, agriculture, and waste disposal.

Exception

Contrast

Summary

Adapted from: Mikulecky and Jeffries (2004, p. 241)

Writing Practice

The students were asked to produce a comparison/contrast essay about their experience in secondary school and university. They were told to pay attention to coherence relations that they use.

Appendix G: Students' Sample Writing

It is worth noting that the students' mistakes which are not related to discourse organization were not corrected in these papers purposefully.

Student 11 Control group

Pre-test

1/ Nowadys, getting sick is the easiest thing in the person daily life, and the reason is referred to many factors. 2/ One of this fattors is being careless. 3/ Although it seems a little bit strange, to stop being careful nowadys about some details will make you live in peace, because the problems of this world will not finish. 4/ So, it is found in houses, families, schools, universities, places of work and everywhere. 5/ We even get familiar with different kinds of problems. 6/ As they said a problem free life does not exist. 7/ However, being careless should not be in case of health which is the most valuable thing. 8/ But, what are some of the ways that we should do to keep healthy?

1/ To keep healthy means to stay free from any illness, either moral or physical. 2/ But can this happen and you stay free from any illness? 3/ I don't think because we are created in this life to be sick and therefore be tested whether to be patient or you seek other bad manners. 4/ So, the first thing that we should learn in this life is how to be patient since we are a simple (creatu) creature on this earth.

1/ Health is a gift from God, so the person should protect it by all means. 2/ For example, there are a plenty of ways to do so. 3/ First, you practise sport everyday to mak the blood circulates in a good way and to better your mood a well. 4/ Second, you eat in a healthy way, that is to say to select the food carefully and avoid what leads you to have diseases. 5/ Avoiding stress can also be the best way to be healthy.

1/ What ever you do to keep healthy can't prevent you totally from having diseases. 2/ But to be careful and have the least knowledge of how to protect your health can save us in many situations. 3/ Our parents in the past used to have many good habits either of eating, clothing, or living, that is why they were not exposed to diseases like us today. 4/ Life is really changing.

1/ In short, the ways to keep healthy are many, the person needs only to put in practise what he believes in to be the most appropriate to his health.

Aspect	Score	Comment
Introduction organization	02	-Some irrelevant details from sentence (3) to sentence (6). -Thesis statement was written in a question form.
Body organization	01	-No rhetorical organizational pattern throughout the whole essay.
Conclusion organization	02	-Lack of brief summary of the major points discussed in the essay.
Thematic progression patterns	03	-Intervening materials between the rheme of sentence (2) and the theme of sentence (7) in paragraph (1). -The use of "there" as a theme in sentence (2)/paragraph (3) instead of starting with "to do so". -No thematic progression pattern between sentence (3) and (4)/paragraph (4).
Cohesive elements	02	-Pronoun shift problem in paragraph (1): "the person", "you", and "we" and in paragraph (4): "you" and "we". -Faulty pronoun reference in sentence (4)/paragraph (1). -Wrong use of "but" in sentence (8)/paragraph (1). -lack of the substitution item "so" in sentence (3)/paragraph (2). -The use of repetition in sentence (2)/paragraph (2) instead of the use of ellipsis.
Coherence relations	03	-The relation is of "example" in sentence (4)/paragraph (1) instead of "consequence". -Sentence (8)/paragraph (1) is not in opposition with its previous sentence. -No example was found in sentence (2)/paragraph (2), though the student used "for example". -No identifiable relation between sentence (3)/paragraph (4) and its previous one.

Student 13
Experimental group

Pre-test

One of the things that all people would agree about is considering the health as the person's jewel. In that case we are in a mission that says we should keep the jewel safe.

There are three things that we have to do in order to stay healthy: eating good food, sleeping at least eight hours a day, and avoiding stress and anxiety. First, by eating good food we mean fresh vegetables and fruits. Obviously, your body needs essentially them. However, we have to avoid junk and fast food and this will be a huge step because like everyone knows, it is hard to say no to delicious food even if you know that it is not good for our health. There are some habits also that the person must follow when he eats food. For example, there is some food which is only suitable for day and another at night or the opposite. Sleeping 8 hours a day is also so important. The person has to sleep when he gets really tired. personally I need at least 12 hours so that I can wake up in good mood and be ready to start my day with all my energy. Moreover, when the person do not sleep enough when he gets tired he will catch many diseases over the long run. Stress and anxiety create a huge problem to the health. Today, all of us live under stress so at the end of the day we find ourselves full of (us) negative energy.

As a conclusion, I may say that health is irreplacable that is why everyone should take care of himself.

Aspect	Score	Comment
Introduction organization	01	-Lack of the thesis statement.
Body organization	01	-Lack of paragraph division.
Conclusion organization	02	-Lack of brief summary of the major points discussed in the essay.
Thematic progression patterns	03	-Starting with new information in the theme position "your body" instead of starting with the old information "they are essential to your body" (sentence 3)/paragraph (2). - No thematic pattern used in sentence (5)/paragraph (2) because of the inclusion of "there" as a theme. -The use of "there" as a theme in sentence (6)/paragraph (2) instead of using directly "some food". -Intervening materials between the rheme of sentence (8) and the theme of sentence (10)/paragraph (2).
Cohesive elements	03	-Pronoun shift from "people" to "we" in sentences (1) and (2)/paragraph (1). -Pronoun shift from "we" to "you" in sentences (2) and (3)/paragraph (2). -Wrong use of the conjunction "however" in sentence (4)/paragraph (2). Wrong use of the conjunction "moreover" in sentence (10)/paragraph (2).
Coherence relations	03	-Lack of elaboration relation after sentence (3)/paragraph (2). -Sentence (4)/ paragraph (2) is not a contrast to its previous one. -Sentence (6) is not an example to its previous one, but an elaboration. -Lack of explicit connective between sentences (7) and (8). -Sentence (10) is not an addition to its previous one, but a contrast.

Student 17

Experimental group

Pre-test

People are seeing life in diffrent ways. Thus, to some people it is very hard and they consider it as a punishment. Moreover, they see that nothing can ever be good and they are pessimistic in their views. To some other people life is a challenge in which the person must struggle everything to arrive to his goals and those people are optimistic in their views. Health interferes in making your life happy and it is considered more valuable than other things. We should do some simple, get effective things that help us maintain our health.

As many professors say, sports remain the most effecti way to have good health and also a good body shape. And there is no better advice for those who want to stay healthy than sport practice. Also there is no need to bother yourself with other stuff, because every thing you try or any doctor you would see, all that is going to lead to one thing: sport practice.

Healthy food is one of the important ways that may protect people from diseases. Nowadays, most people do not eat healthy food because the majority work and study, so they all resort to fast food such as Hamburgers + Pizza.

Smoking is harmful to our health and thus should be avoided. There is a large number of young people who smoke, though they know that it causes a lot of fatal diseases including lung, mouth, and larynx cancer. Normally, today you are so lucky because there are many ways to stop smoking.

There are many ways that the human should follow to have a good health; practising sport, eating healthy food, avoiding smoking are some examples.

Aspect	Score	Comment
Introduction organization	03	- Starting too far from the topic and therefore irrelevant details.
Body organization	03	-Insufficient supporting details in paragraph (3) and (4).
Conclusion organization	02	-Lack of final relevant comment.
Thematic progression patterns	03	-No thematic progression pattern between sentences (5) and (6)/paragraph (1) because of introducing new information in the theme position in sentence (6) instead of maintaining the old information "health" as a theme. -The use of "there" as a theme in sentences (2) and (3)/paragraph (2) instead of creating appropriate themes. -Again the use of "there" in sentence (2)/paragraph (4). -No thematic pattern in sentence (3)/paragraph (4) because the student neither links this sentence with the previous one, nor he develops it through another sentence.
Cohesive elements	03	-Wrong use of the conjunction "thus" in sentence (2)/paragraph (1). -Pronoun shift from "people" to "you" in sentences (4) and (5)/paragraph (1). -Pronoun shift from "you" to "we" in sentences (5) and (6)/paragraph (1). -Wrong use of "and" in sentence (2)/paragraph (2). -Pronoun shift from "young people" to "you" in sentences (2) and (3)/paragraph (4).
Coherence relations	04	-Sentence (2)/paragraph (1) is not a result to its previous one, but an elaboration. -Sentence (2)/paragraph (2) is not an addition to its previous one.

Student 18
Control group
Pre_test

The person's life has changed dramadically. If we compare today's life with that of the past, there is a huge difference. Nowadays and in our modern time, even with all the achievements in medicine, illnesses are still ranging throughout the world taking lives. Most of these illness occur because we don't take care of ourselves. Some people are overwhelmed by stress and work, and some others gave in to food and were taken by obesity. Moreover, the lack of physical activities made some people bodies weak and fragile. However, there are three ways to counter these health problems: relaxing diets, and sport are some examples.

Relaxing is without a doubt a good way to keep our health good. Many doctors give them as a cure as simple as it is. To keep our health safe, we need to relax. To relax is an evident norm given by all doctors. Stress causes many suicides per year although the cure of it is simple and reachable. And even if one does not have stress, some resting is highly recomended. Therefore, relaxing may be simple, but it is a quite effective cure for many illnesses.

Moving, obesity is a lethal door that opens up the road to many illnesses and the cure of it is also quite simple: diet. It is known that people nowadays crave eating as it is food is widely varied. Diet may be a simple word but many people don't apply it. Despite the fact that we know that to be healthy we should eat healthy food, we do not do it. The reason for not eating healthy food is our weak human nature that keeps pushing us to yield to our desires. However, with some will and some practice, diet can save a myriad of lives.

Last but not least, sport is by far the most important mean to keep our health in a good shape. And there are many types of sports. Walking for example is a simple and a good one; it relaxes our muscles and helps our blood circulation. Another example is swimming which helps in curing many pulmonary diseases. The area of sports is wide, and I'm sure that any human being can find a sport that he likes. To sum up, sport is nearly the ultimate cure that each one of us should do.

All in all, you can spare yourself the cost of doctor just by doing simple things to stay healthy like the examples above.

Aspect	Score	Comment
Introduction organization	04	-The first two sentences are irrelevant.
Body organization	04	-Some repetitious supporting details in paragraph (2).
Conclusion organization	02	- The student did not summarize the major points discussed in the body.
Thematic progression patterns	04	- Intervening materials between the rheme of sentence (1)/paragraph (3) and the theme of sentence (3). -The inappropriate use of "there" as a theme in sentence (2)/paragraph (4) instead of using directly "sport" as a theme.
Cohesive elements	03	- Faulty pronoun reference in sentence (2)/paragraph (2). -Inappropriate repetition in sentence (4)/paragraph (2). -The use of repetition in sentence (5)/paragraph (3) instead of using reference, substitution or ellipsis. -The wrong use of "and" in sentence (2)/paragraph (4).
Coherence relations	04	- Sentence (7)/paragraph (2) is a concluding sentence and does not function as a result to its previous ones. -No identifiable relation between sentences (2) and (3)/paragraph (3).

Student 11 Control group Post-test

There is no doubt that our health is something priceless and it should be kept out of harm. But unfortunately many people don't care about and they are loosing it stupidly. So, we do not know that a little harm we do can result in so many bad effects.

When people have a good health they appreciate life. So, the person can go wherever he whants to discover new life style and new mentalities. For sure, you will feel happy that you could meet new environment. For example, people mentalities will influence you to the extent you can develop your thinking and behavior to the best.

However, when the person has problem of health he will not appreciate life at all. You find him always sad and in some cases he prevents himself from talking to people. For instance, his thinking changes gradually to the worst because he starts to realize that his life has no meaning after loosing health. Moreover, preventing himself to talk to people can create many other bad effects.

So, the best solution to prevent all the above from happening is to do some things which makes you healthy all the time. First of all, food is a major factor which makes you healthy, especially if you eat a lot of vegetables, fruits and vitamins. Also the person must sleep well because this is the key to make all the daily activities run as we will. Finally practising sport maintain your health and fitness and makes you active all the time and as a result you live longer.

To conclude, health is all that you have, it can not be bought at any price. So, we should make at least few things to preserve it.

Aspect	Score	Comment
Introduction organization	01	-No thesis statement.
Body organization	01	-No rhetorical organizational pattern throughout the whole essay.
Conclusion organization	02	-Lack of brief summary of the major points discussed in the essay.
Thematic progression patterns	03	- No thematic progression pattern between sentences (2) and (3)/paragraph (1) because of the pronoun shift from "people" to "we". -Intervening materials between the rheme of sentence (2)/paragraph (2) and the theme of sentence (4). - No thematic progression pattern between sentences (1) and (2)/paragraph (3) because of the unnecessary inclusion of "you find". -Intervening materials between the rheme of sentence (2)/paragraph (3) and the theme of sentence (4).
Cohesive elements	02	-Pronoun shift from "people" to "we" in sentences (2) and (3)/paragraph (1) -Noun shift from "people" to "person" in sentences (1) and (2)/paragraph 2. -Wrong use of the conjunction "so" in sentence (2)/paragraph (2). -Inappropriate use of the exact repetition "makes you healthy" in sentence (2)/paragraph (4). -Pronoun shift from "you" to "the person" in sentences (2) and (3)/paragraph (4). -Pronoun shift from "the person" to "you" in sentences (3) and (4)/paragraph (4). -Pronoun shift from "you" to "we" in sentences (1) and (2)/paragraph (5).
Coherence relations	03	-Sentence (3)/paragraph (1) and its previous one are not related through consequence. -Sentence (2)/paragraph (2) and its previous one are not related through consequence. -Sentence (4)/paragraph (2) and its previous one are not related through example, but through elaboration. -Sentence (3)/paragraph (3) and its previous one are not related through example, but through elaboration or addition.

Student 13
Experimental group
Post-test

Being healthy is the most important thing for the human body. This latter requires many things to be healthy and to do its biological activities. So, health is valuable, and we have to take care of ourselves. There are different ways to help people to stay healthy such as practising sport, being on a diet and doing periodical medical check. So, you have to follow them to take care of your health.

People practise sport in order to stay healthy. Exercising or practising sport is one way to be on shape and to keep a healthy body. It is an efficient way because when people practise sports; they make their bodies and immunity systems stronger and more resistable to viruses and infections. However, when people do not practise sport, they will be exposed to so many physical and emotional bad diseases.

Following a healthy diet is another way to stay healthy. When people follow healthy diets, they try to eat healthy food like vegetables, fruits, and fresh organic food. People also try to avoid certain types of food like sweets and fast food which are bad for their health. As a result people become healthier because they are eating right.

Doing a periodical medical check is also one of the ways that helps people to stay healthy. A medical check could protect them from any chronical disease or unknown one. So, to check blood pressure and sugar in blood is important because these diseases have no symptoms, so they have to take care of their health.

Finally, practising sport, being on a diet, and doing periodical medical check are the different ways that help people to stay healthy. To make an end to this topic, we should all take care of ourselves especially our health, because it is valuable and unpriceable. We should treat it as the most important thing in our body, because if we do not nobody would do.

Aspect	Score	Comment
Introduction organization	04	-The last sentence is additional and repetitious.
Body organization	03	-The paragraphs need few supporting details.
Conclusion organization	04	-Mere repetition of the thesis statement.
Thematic progression patterns	04	-Overuse of the constant thematic pattern.
Cohesive elements	04	- Overuse of repetition.
Coherence relations	04	-Wrong use of the connective "as a result" in sentence (4)/paragraph (3) because this sentence functions as a conclusion and not as a result to the previous ones. - Wrong use of the explicit connective "so" in sentence (3)/paragraph (4) as the relation is not a result or consequence.

Student 17

Experimental group

Post test

Health is a treasure and a gift from God that many people ignore its value. To be healthy means to live longer and enjoy each moment of our existence. But as any precious thing in life health can be in danger if we don't take care of it. There are many things people do in order to stay healthy such as to eat healthy food, to practise sport and to read Quran.

Eating healthy food is one thing to do when you want to stay healthy. Even if it tastes good, fast food like Hamburgers, French Fries and Pizza are bad and harmful for our health. There are many people prefer to eat fresh vegetables and fruits they generally cultivate in their own gardens. This natural food provides own body with enough energy and vitamines to protect you from diseases and keep you healthy for a long time.

Practising sport is another thing that people do to protect their health. First, it helps us to burn calories and to get rid of all the bad fat in our body. Furthermore, it's a good way to use our energy and to evacuate the stress that allways threatens our health. Then, it boosts the blood circulation from the heart to all the organs of the body which makes us feel healthy and young.

Finally, reading Quran is a very important ways to stay healthy. It gives power to our soul and mind and helps us to release our anger, fears, and stress which are the main enemies of a good health.

As a conclusion, eating healthy food, practising sport and reading Quran are three examples among many other things that most of people often do to protect their body and stay healthy. God gave us this mercy of health, we have to keep an eye on

Aspect	Score	Comment
Introduction organization	04	-Lack of coherence relation between the general statements and the thesis statement.
Body organization	04	-Insufficient supporting details in paragraph (4)
Conclusion organization	04	-The final comment is not so effective.
Thematic progression patterns	04	-The use of "there" as a theme in sentence (4)/paragraph (1) instead of creating an appropriate theme. -Again the inappropriate use of "there" as a theme in sentence (3)/paragraph (2).
Cohesive elements	04	-Pronoun shift in paragraph (2): "you", "our", "people", "own".
Coherence relations	04	-Lack of explicit connective that identifies the relation between the thesis statement and general statements in the introduction. -Lack of elaboration relation after sentence (2)/paragraph (2).

Student 18
Control group
Post-test

People are constantly running after health realizing that it is the equivalence of a good and accomplished life. People could not deny that without a good health, one can satisfy his needs and do his daily tasks. People have many options to remain healthy such as nutrition, medical care, and sport practice.

Nutrition plays an immense role as regards people's health. A well ~~body~~ nutrition can develop ~~the~~ the body organs perfectly. The person should ensure that he is receiving the necessary protein, fat, vitamins, and water. These when consumed ~~pro~~properly, the human body extracts the massive benifits out of them. Nutrition also powers up the immune system.

Medical care is also necessary to preserve our health. We know that so many illnesses today are treated easily and so many others are avoided ~~by~~ by means of anticipation. We should regularly check our health when we get sick. For instance, what could happen to the pregnant woman health without a medical care from the first months of her pregnancy? Undoubtedly, if the pregnant woman doesn't follow a medical care regularly, she will be exposed to some diseases.

Thirdly, what most people are recomended in order to stay always healthy is sport. Doctors' advice is all around the person should practise at least one activity that must be done regularly and seriously. It should not be neglected at all because we can develop a better resistance against the different diseases. Moreover, practising sport makes our body more powerful and active. And most importantly it brings a psychological health to our brains and souls since it frees all stress found in our body.

At the end, health is a big challenge, ~~it~~ but to stay healthy is a choice and it is quite an easy choice. One just needs for example to take care of his nutrition, follow his medical check, and practise sport regularly. But, if things did not work right, the person should focus on the spiritual side which is another factor to reach happiness and thus keep healthy.

Aspect	Score	Comment
Introduction organization	04	-Lack of coherence relation between the thesis statement and the general statements.
Body organization	04	- The last supporting sentence in paragraph (2) was not developed sufficiently.
Conclusion organization	04	- The last sentence raises a new topic.
Thematic progression patterns	04	- Inappropriate use of the constant thematic progression pattern in the introduction.
Cohesive elements	03	- The use of repetition in sentence (5)/paragraph (3) instead of using reference and substitution. -Pronoun with ambiguous antecedent "it" in sentence (3)/paragraph (4): "advice" or "activity"! -Lack of conjunction in sentence (3)/paragraph (2). -Lack of conjunction in sentence (3)/paragraph (3).
Coherence relations	04	- No identifiable relation between the last sentence in the introduction and its previous one. - Lack of explicit connective of consequence in sentence (3)/paragraph (2). -Lack of explicit connective of consequence in sentence (3) paragraph (3).

Appendix H: Students' Detailed Scores

Participants' Pre and Post-test Overall Scores

	Pre-test		Post-test	
Participants	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**
1	09	13	18	15
2	14	15	19	14
3	17	13	19	15
4	15	15	18	17
5	12	13	16	11
6	19	12	22	13
7	14	10	19	13
8	16	15	20	18
9	14	13	21	13
10	11	11	17	15
11	11	13	18	12
12	14	16	20	15
13	13	11	23	11
14	16	15	21	12
15	14	18	19	20
16	10	23	13	24
17	18	17	24	17
18	19	21	25	23
19	17	18	23	17
20	13	16	21	15
21	13	15	19	13
22	14	18	19	17
23	12	17	15	12
24	14	15	22	16
25	23	14	27	17
26	20	16	25	15
27	15	18	20	20
28	12	17	15	13
29	17	15	23	15
30	13	12	19	14
31	13	20	20	21
32	11	14	17	18
33	13	08	18	15
34	19	14	21	12
35	20	19	25	22
N= 35	**$\sum x = 515$**	**$\sum x = 530$**	**$\sum x = 701$**	**$\sum x = 550$**
Mean	**$\bar{X} = 14.71$ (42.02%)**	**$\bar{X} = 15.14$ (43.25%)**	**$\bar{X} = 20.02$ (57.2%)**	**$\bar{X} = 15.71$ (44.88%)**
Mode	**14**	**15**	**19**	**15**
Low score	**09**	**08**	**13**	**11**
High score	**23**	**23**	**27**	**24**

The Overall Results of Comparative Evaluation

Participants	Experimental group			Control group		
	Pre-test	Post-test	Change	Pre-test	Post-test	Change
1	9	18	9	13	15	2
2	14	19	5	15	14	-1
3	17	19	2	13	15	2
4	15	18	3	15	17	2
5	12	16	4	13	11	-2
6	19	22	3	12	13	1
7	14	19	5	10	13	3
8	16	20	4	15	18	3
9	14	21	7	13	13	0
10	11	17	6	11	15	4
11	11	18	7	13	12	-1
12	14	20	6	16	15	-1
13	13	23	10	11	11	0
14	16	21	5	15	12	-3
15	14	19	5	18	20	2
16	10	13	3	23	24	1
17	18	24	6	17	17	0
18	19	25	6	21	23	2
19	17	23	6	18	17	-1
20	13	21	8	16	15	-1
21	13	19	6	15	13	-2
22	14	19	5	18	17	-1
23	12	15	3	17	12	-5
24	14	22	8	15	16	1
25	23	27	4	14	17	3
26	20	25	5	16	15	-1
27	15	20	5	18	20	2
28	12	15	3	17	13	-4
29	17	23	6	15	15	0
30	13	19	6	12	14	2
31	13	20	7	20	21	1
32	11	17	6	14	18	4
33	13	18	5	08	15	7
34	19	21	2	14	12	-2
35	20	25	5	19	22	3
N= 35	**$\sum x = 515$**	**$\sum x = 701$**	**$\sum x=186$**	**$\sum x = 530$**	**$\sum x= 550$**	**$\sum x= 20$**
Mean	**$\bar{X} = 14.71$ 42.02%**	**$\bar{X} = 20.02$ 57.2%**	**$\bar{X} = 5.31$ 15.18%**	**$\bar{X} = 15.14$ 43.25%**	**$\bar{X} = 15.71$ 44.88%**	**$\bar{X} =0.57$ 1.63%**

Participants' Pre and Post-test Scores of Macrostructure

	Pre-test Scores		Post-tests scores	
Participants	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**
1	6	6	9	8

2	7	7	10	7
3	8	5	9	7
4	9	8	9	9
5	3	7	7	4
6	10	6	10	7
7	7	7	9	7
8	8	7	10	9
9	7	6	10	7
10	7	5	9	7
11	4	5	9	4
12	7	7	9	8
13	4	5	11	4
14	7	7	9	5
15	8	8	9	10
16	4	11	7	11
17	8	9	12	10
18	8	10	12	12
19	9	9	11	9
20	6	8	9	8
21	7	8	9	7
22	8	8	10	8
23	6	8	8	4
24	7	8	11	8
25	11	7	14	8
26	10	8	12	8
27	7	9	10	9
28	7	8	8	4
29	8	8	12	8
30	5	5	7	8
31	6	10	9	10
32	5	6	8	9
33	6	3	8	7
34	9	6	9	4
35	10	8	13	10
N= 35	**$\sum x = 249$**	**$\sum x = 253$**	**$\sum x = 338$**	**$\sum x = 265$**
Mean	**$\bar{X} = 7.11$**	**$\bar{X} = 7.22$**	**$\bar{X} = 9.65$**	**$\bar{X} = 7.57$**

Participants' Pre and Post-test Scores of Microstructure

	Pre-test Scores		**Post-tests scores**	
Participants	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**
1	3	7	9	7
2	7	8	9	7
3	9	8	11	8
4	8	7	9	8
5	9	6	9	7

6	11	6	12	6
7	7	3	10	6
8	8	8	10	9
9	7	7	11	6
10	4	6	8	8
11	7	8	9	8
12	7	9	11	7
13	9	6	12	7
14	9	8	12	7
15	6	10	10	10
16	6	12	6	13
17	10	8	12	7
18	11	11	13	11
19	8	9	12	8
20	7	8	12	7
21	6	7	10	6
22	6	10	9	9
23	6	9	7	8
24	7	7	11	8
25	12	7	13	9
26	10	8	12	7
27	8	9	10	11
28	5	9	7	9
29	9	7	11	7
30	7	7	10	6
31	7	10	11	11
32	6	8	9	9
33	7	5	10	8
34	10	8	12	8
35	10	11	12	12
N= 35	**$\sum x = 269$**	**$\sum x = 277$**	**$\sum x = 361$**	**$\sum x = 285$**
Mean	**$\bar{X} = 7.68$**	**$\bar{X} = 7.91$**	**$\bar{X} = 10.31$**	**$\bar{X} = 8.14$**

Participants' Pre and Post-test Scores of Introduction Organization

	Pre-test Scores		**Post-tests scores**	
Participants	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**
1	3	2	4	3
2	3	3	4	3
3	3	2	3	3
4	3	3	3	4
5	1	3	3	1
6	4	2	4	3
7	3	3	3	3
8	3	3	4	4
9	3	3	4	3

10	3	2	3	3
11	2	2	3	1
12	3	2	3	3
13	1	1	4	1
14	3	3	4	1
15	3	2	3	4
16	2	4	3	4
17	3	3	4	3
18	4	4	5	4
19	3	4	4	4
20	2	3	3	3
21	2	3	3	3
22	3	3	4	4
23	2	3	3	1
24	3	3	4	3
25	4	3	5	4
26	4	3	5	3
27	3	3	3	3
28	3	3	3	1
29	3	3	4	3
30	2	1	2	3
31	2	4	3	4
32	1	2	3	3
33	2	2	2	3
34	3	2	3	1
35	4	3	5	4
N= 35	**$\sum x = 96$**	**$\sum x = 95$**	**$\sum x = 123$**	**$\sum x = 101$**
Mean	**$\bar{X} = 2.74$**	**$\bar{X} = 2.69$**	**$\bar{X} = 3.51$**	**$\bar{X} = 2.89$**

Participants' Pre and Post-test Scores of Body Organization

	Pre-test Scores		**Post-test Scores**	
Participants	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**
1	1	2	3	2
2	2	2	3	2
3	2	1	3	1
4	2	3	3	2
5	1	2	2	1
6	2	2	2	2
7	2	2	3	2
8	2	2	3	2
9	1	2	3	2
10	2	1	3	1
11	2	1	3	1
12	2	3	3	3
13	1	2	3	1

14	3	2	3	2
15	2	3	3	3
16	1	3	2	3
17	3	3	4	3
18	2	4	4	4
19	3	3	4	3
20	2	3	3	2
21	3	3	3	2
22	3	2	3	1
23	2	3	3	1
24	2	3	4	3
25	4	2	5	2
26	3	2	4	2
27	2	3	4	3
28	1	3	2	1
29	3	2	4	2
30	1	2	1	3
31	2	2	3	3
32	2	2	2	3
33	2	1	3	2
34	3	2	3	1
35	3	3	4	3
N= 35	**$\sum x = 74$**	**$\sum x = 81$**	**$\sum x = 108$**	**$\sum x = 74$**
Mean	**$\bar{X} = 2.11$**	**$\bar{X} = 2.31$**	**$\bar{X} = 3.08$**	**$\bar{X} = 2.11$**

Participants' Pre and Post-test Scores of Conclusion Organization

	Pre-test Scores		**Post-test Scores**	
Participants	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**
1	2	2	2	3
2	2	2	3	2
3	3	2	3	3
4	3	2	3	3
5	1	2	2	2
6	2	2	4	2
7	2	2	3	2
8	3	2	3	3
9	3	1	3	2
10	2	2	3	3
11	0	2	3	2
12	2	2	3	2
13	2	2	4	2
14	1	2	2	2
15	3	3	3	3
16	1	4	2	4
17	2	3	4	4

18	2	2	3	4
19	3	2	3	2
20	2	2	3	3
21	2	2	3	2
22	2	3	3	3
23	2	2	2	2
24	2	2	3	2
25	3	2	4	2
26	3	3	4	3
27	2	3	3	3
28	3	2	3	2
29	2	3	4	3
30	2	2	4	2
31	2	4	3	3
32	2	2	3	3
33	2	0	3	2
34	3	2	3	2
35	3	2	4	3
N= 35	**$\sum x = 76$**	**$\sum x = 77$**	**$\sum x = 108$**	**$\sum x = 90$**
Mean	**$\bar{X} = 2.17$**	**$\bar{X} = 2.20$**	**$\bar{X} = 3.08$**	**$\bar{X} = 2.57$**

Participants' Pre and Post-test Scores of Thematic Structure

	Pre-test Scores		**Post-test Scores**	
Participants	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**
1	1	2	3	2
2	2	3	3	2
3	3	3	3	3
4	2	2	3	2
5	3	2	3	2
6	3	2	4	2
7	2	1	3	2
8	3	3	3	3
9	2	2	3	2
10	1	2	2	2
11	2	3	3	3
12	2	3	3	2
13	3	2	4	2
14	3	3	4	2
15	2	3	3	3
16	2	4	2	4
17	3	3	4	2
18	3	4	4	4
19	3	3	4	3
20	2	2	4	2
21	2	2	3	2

22	2	3	3	3
23	2	3	2	2
24	2	2	4	2
25	4	2	4	3
26	3	3	4	2
27	3	3	3	4
28	2	3	2	3
29	3	2	4	2
30	2	2	3	2
31	2	3	3	4
32	2	2	3	3
33	2	2	3	3
34	3	2	4	2
35	3	4	4	4
N= 35	**∑x = 84**	**∑x = 90**	**∑x = 114**	**∑x = 90**
Mean	$\bar{X}$ **= 2.40**	$\bar{X}$ **= 2.57**	$\bar{X}$ **= 3.25**	$\bar{X}$ **= 2.57**

Participants' Pre and Post-test Scores of Cohesive Devices

	Pre-test Scores		**Post-test Scores**	
Participants	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**
1	1	2	3	2
2	2	2	2	2
3	3	2	3	2
4	2	2	3	3
5	3	2	3	2
6	4	2	4	2
7	2	1	3	2
8	2	2	3	3
9	2	2	4	2
10	1	2	3	3
11	2	2	3	2
12	2	3	4	2
13	3	2	4	2
14	3	2	4	2
15	2	3	3	3
16	2	4	2	4
17	3	2	4	2
18	4	3	4	3
19	2	3	4	2
20	2	3	4	2
21	2	2	3	2
22	2	3	3	2
23	2	3	2	3
24	2	2	3	3
25	4	2	4	3

26	3	2	3	2
27	2	3	3	3
28	1	3	2	3
29	3	2	3	2
30	2	2	3	2
31	2	3	4	3
32	2	3	2	3
33	2	1	3	2
34	3	3	4	3
35	3	3	4	4
N= 35	**$\sum x = 82$**	**$\sum x = 83$**	**$\sum x = 113$**	**$\sum x = 87$**
Mean	**$\bar{X} = 2.34$**	**$\bar{X} = 2.37$**	**$\bar{X} = 3.22$**	**$\bar{X} = 2.48$**

Participants' Pre and Post-test Scores of Coherence Relations

	Pre-test Scores		**Post-test Scores**	
Participants	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**	**Experimental Group Scores**	**Control Group Scores**
1	1	3	3	3
2	3	3	4	3
3	3	3	4	3
4	3	3	3	3
5	3	2	3	3
6	4	2	4	2
7	3	1	4	2
8	3	3	4	3
9	3	3	4	2
10	2	2	3	3
11	3	3	3	3
12	3	3	4	3
13	3	2	4	3
14	3	3	4	3
15	2	4	4	4
16	2	4	2	5
17	4	3	4	3
18	4	4	5	4
19	3	3	4	3
20	3	3	4	3
21	2	3	4	2
22	2	4	3	4
23	2	3	3	3
24	3	3	4	3
25	4	3	5	3
26	4	3	5	3
27	3	3	4	4
28	2	3	3	3
29	3	3	4	3

30	3	3	4	2
31	3	4	4	4
32	2	3	4	3
33	3	2	4	3
34	4	3	4	3
35	4	4	4	4
N= 35	**∑x = 102**	**∑x = 104**	**∑x = 133**	**∑x = 108**
Mean	$\bar{X}$ **= 2.91**	$\bar{X}$ **= 2.97**	$\bar{X}$ **= 3.80**	$\bar{X}$ **= 3.08**

الملخص

تعتبر الكتابة الخطابية فن من فنون التحدي يسعى من خلاله الطالب اللغة الأجنبية لأسباب عدة تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى التحقيق في مدى امتلاك مستوى البنية الخطابية التي يتطلبها الكتابة في اللغة الأجنبية. وتسعى هذه الدراسة إلى تعزيز وعي الطالب حول أهمية بنية الصغيرة والنهائية للخطاب من خلال القراءة كمصدر رئيسي إلى الدخال اللغوي. وفق الفرضية تفترض أن الطالب اللغة الانجليزية الذين تدربوا على تحليل البنية الصغيرة والنهائية للخطاب التي يتطلبها سوف يظهرون فهمًا أفضل لتنظيم الأمثلة النص. الفرضية تفترض ان ادماج نماذج القراءة تعزز كتابة وجوانب مستوى البنية الخطاب على وجه الخصوص من شأنه أن يحدث موقفًا إيجابيًا عند الطلبة والطالبات ذوي المستويات . وقد أجريت هذه الدراسة مع مجموعتين المجموعة التجريبية والمجموعة الضابطة. ولمقارنة أداء الطالب من حيث استخدام الفعال بعض جوانب مستوى البنية الخطاب اجرى الباحث اختبارين في الشهر قبل حصص تعليم الكتابة وبعدها وذلك تجريان شاء فه عرض موضوع من المواضيع بعد ذلك تم توزيع استبيان الطالب المجموعة التجريبية وذلك التحليل آراء هم حول أهمية القراءة في مستوى البنية الخطاب. علاوة على ذلك تم توزيع استبيان الأساتذة الكتابي الكشف معرفة مهارات هم التدريسية الكتابة في مهام تخصص تنظيم الخطاب والحصول على آراء هم حول إدماج القراءة في تدريس بنية الخطاب. وقد أظهرت نتائج التحليل على ما من حساب اختبار ي على تحسن كبير في المجموعة التجريبية في جميع جوانب بنية الخطاب: المقدمة، العرض، الخاتمة، أنماط البنية الموضوعية، وسلاسة النص والقواعد النحوية في حين أن المجموعة الضابطة فخضت تباينًا على نتائج هذين تنظيم العرض وتحقق تحسن كبير في تنظيم الخاتمة وتحسن طفيف في الجوانب الأخرى. وتشير الدراسة أيضًا إلى أن المهارات الطالب والطالبات ذوي مستوى متوسط القراءة في الكتابة خاصة إذا تم دمج استراتيجيات جوانب مستوى البنية الخطاب.

RÉSUMÉ

La confection d'un bon discours (texte) écrit est un obstacle constant auquel se heurtent les étudiants en langues étrangères, et ce pour plusieurs raisons. La présente étude se propose d'évaluer les niveaux de compréhension des structures du discours dans la compétence de l'écriture en Anglais comme langue étrangère. Elle vise à sensibiliser de manière significative les apprenants sur l'importance de la lecture dans le développement du discours écrit à travers la maîtrise de la macrostructure et la microstructure du texte. En conséquence, nous avons formulé l'hypothèse que les étudiants aguerris à l'analyse des macrostructures et des microstructures du texte présenteraient une meilleure organisation dans leurs écrits, et que l'intégration des paradigmes structuraux de lecture dans l'enseignement des aspects de l'écrit pourrait déclencher des attitudes positives chez les enseignants et les étudiants. L'étude a été menée avec deux groupes en cours d'expression écrite, l'un expérimental et l'autre de contrôle. Pour comparer les performances des sujets en termes d'utilisation efficace des niveaux de la structure du discours, un pré-test et un post-test ont été administrés sous la forme d'essais expositoires rédigés en classe. Après la collecte des essais du post-test, un questionnaire a été distribué aux sujets du groupe expérimental afin de mesurer leur connaissance et opinions sur l'importance de la lecture dans la compréhension des niveaux de la structure du discours. En outre, un questionnaire a été administré à des enseignants d'expression écrite dans le but de déterminer leurs pratiques d'enseignement de l'écrit par rapport à l'organisation du discours. Les résultats obtenus à partir du test ont démontré une amélioration significative du groupe expérimental dans tous les aspects de l'organisation structurale du texte--introduction, organisation du développement, organisation de la conclusion, modèles de structure thématique, cohésion et cohérence- Par contre, le groupe de contrôle a vu ses scores réduits de manière significative, notamment dans la partie 'développement' du texte, et les a améliorés dans la partie 'conclusion'. L'étude a également confirmé que les étudiants et les enseignants favorisent l'incorporation de l'acte de lecture dans les cours d'expression écrite, en particulier lorsqu'elle est intégrée avec la finalité de promouvoir les niveaux de la structure du discours.