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The Influence of Culture on English as a Foreign Language Students' Writing.

Case Study: Senior Students of English at the Teachers' Training School of Constantine

Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of

"Doctorat Es-Sciences" in Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching

Presented by   Supervised by

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Dedication

In memory of my late father who has greatly shaped my life and always dreamt to see me a 'doctor'

To my mother, my true friend and the source of endless and unconditioned love and support

To my husband, Boubekeur, and my sister, Chéfia, for all the sacrifices that they have made for me.

To my children Ghazi, Nahla and Jouri who gave a new sense to my life

To my nephew Chahine, my nieces Ritej, Chahd and Roua and my brother-in-law Abdelkrim

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Abstract

The present study aims to explore the culture-related writing problems of learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) in the Teacher Training School of Constantine (TTSC). Two hypotheses have been put forward: 1) The writing of advanced EFL learners at the TTSC exhibits problems to realize macro-rhetorical elements of thesis statement, topic sentence, topic and paragraph unity and development according to the English writing conventions and realize them according to the first language (L1) patterns and 2) The persistence of those culture-related writing problems until an advanced level may be related to a set of cultural and educational factors other than L1 particular rhetorical patterns influence such as writing teachers' perceptions of the role of culture in foreign language (FL) writing development and the amount of writing experience in the training framework. To verify those hypotheses, a sequenced mixed methods design was adopted. First, a contrastive rhetoric analysis consisting of a comparison of the products of EFL and Arabic language students on a similar task written respectively in English and Arabic was undertaken to check whether Arabic language culturally-rooted rhetorical patterns can be found in essays written by Algerian advanced EFL students. Second, an interview was conducted with three Written Expression teachers in the Department of English with the aim of exploring their perceptions of the role of culture in the FL writing class. Then, a semi-structured interview with a group of content-subject teachers in the Department of English was carried together with a content analysis of exam questions with the aim to find out the place of writing in the current educational culture of EFL teachers. The results of the contrastive rhetoric analysis revealed that the paragraph and essay writing of many EFL students was still far below the conventional paragraph and essay writing in English and exhibit many rhetorical features of Arabic language writing. The results uncovered also some factors of the educational (teaching/learning) culture that could explain the persistence of L1 culture influence on EFL students' macro-rhetorical skills at the paragraph and essay level. In the light of these results, some suggestions are made to revise the overall teachers training framework, including the writing curriculum, by addressing the concept of culture from three different perspectives: FL, L1 and the educational (teaching/learning) perspectives.

Transliteration of the Arabic system use in this thesis

Arabic Letter	Pronunciation	English	English Example		Arabic Letter	Pronunciation	English	English Example
ء	Hamzah	`	*Water (Am Eng)*		ط	Ta'	**T**	Tie
ب	Ba'	**B**	Back		ظ	Thad	**TH**	-
ت	ta'	**T**	Tie		ع	Ain	**-**	-
ث	Tha'	**Th**	Think		غ	Ghayn	**Gh**	*Ghadi*
ج	Jim	**J**	Gym		ف	Fa'	**F**	Fear
ح	Ha'	**H**	*Muhammad*		ق	Qaf	**Q**	-
خ	Kha'	**Kh**	*Khalid*		ك	Kaf	**K**	King
د	Dal	**D**	Desk		ل	Lam	**L**	Lantern
ذ	Thal	**Th**	Though		م	Mim	**M**	Man
ر	Ra'	**R**	Rock		ن	Nun	**N**	Nation
ز	Zay	**Z**	Zebra		ه	Ha'	**H**	Home
س	Seen	**S**	Street		و	Waw	**W**	White
ش	Sheen	**Sh**	Shy		ى	Ya'	**Y**	Yard
ص	Sad	**S**	Sun		أ	Alif	**A**	Arabic
ض	Dad	**D**	Dark		ءا	I	**I**	Italic

Diacritics

Symbol	Transliteration	Example	Meaning		Symbol	transliteration	Example	Meaning
َ		كَتب / kataba	He wrote		Extended Alif	a	كتاب / kitab	
ُ		يكتبُ / yak.tubu	He writes		Extended Wow	u	مكْتوب / mak.tub	

ِ	I	كتاب/ kitab	Book	Extended Ya'	i	طريق/ Tariq	،
ْ	.	مَكْتَب/ mak.tab	A desk	ّ	doubled letter	مدَّ / madda	He streched
ً	An	كَتاباً / kitaban	A book	ٍ	in	كُتب / kutubin	books
ٌ	Un	كُتبٌ/ kutubun	Books				

Consonants without equivalents in English are represented with closer a consonant in pronunciation

(Adapted from https://alsunna.org/transliteration.html#gsc.tab=0)

List of Abbreviations

AFR: African civilization and Literature

ALM: Audio Lingual Method

AS: Arabic Language Students

ASS: Arabic Language Students Sample

ASE: Arabic Language Students essays

C: Correct

CA: Contrastive Analysis

CC: Communicative Competence

CI: Controlling Idea

Civ: Civilization

CL: Introduction to Western Civilization and Literature

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

CR: Contrastive Rhetoric

DM: Direct Method

EA: Error Analysis

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

ES: English Language Students

ESL: English as a Second Language

ESS: English Language Students Sample

FL: Foreign Language

FLT: Foreign Language Teaching

GRAM: Grammar

GTM: Grammar Translation Method

IC: Issues in Culture

ICC: Intercultural Communicative Competence

Inc.: Incorrect

IL: Inter-language

IP: Introduction to Psychology

IR: Inter-cultural Rhetoric

LAD: Language Acquisition Device

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LG: Linguistics

Lit: Literature

LT: Langue Teaching

MDD: Materials Design and Development

MT: Mother Tongue

OE: Oral Expression

P.PED: Psycho Pedagogy

PHON: Phonetics

PT: Pedagogical Trends

PTES: Pedagogical Trends and Educational Systems

QI: Question Instruction

RT: Reading Techniques

SD: Syllabus Design

SL :   Second Language

SP & PHON: Speaking and Phonetics

T.S.:   Topic Sentence

TC: Tronc Commun

TD: Travaux Dirigés/ Tutorial

TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language

TESD: Textbook Evaluation and Syllabus Design

Th.S: Thesis Statement

TL: Target Language

TTSC: Teacher Training School of Constantine

WE: Written Expression

WR & GRAM: Writing and Grammar

WSRE: Writing a Scientific Report in Education

WST: Writing for Science and Technology

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General Introduction

General Introduction

1. Background of the Study

Writing in a foreign language and writing in one's native language are not alike. The way of arranging words and ideas do not fit together in both languages. Such differences exist because each culture intervenes, and "how a person thinks largely determines how that person writes" (Bander, 1983, p.5). This implies that in addition to applying a set of learnt rules of writing, the foreign language learner needs to understand how English native speakers think and arrange their ideas in order to write effectively in English. For this, foreign language (henceforth FL) learners need also to be acquainted with the foreign language culture (henceforth FLC) which would enable them to understand how native speakers think and write.

This study addresses the issue of teaching the conventions or skills of academic English writing to students of English who belong to a cultural tradition different from the English-speaking one within a teacher training context. Students in this context come from an Arabic first language (L1) writing tradition that is characterized by the use of certain patterns such as the use of parallel structures, repetition, and coordination (Kaplan, 1966) and is governed by its own specific conventions and rules. Alongside, there is a lack of direct equivalents of some English writing conventions and mechanics such as indentation and capitalization and the like. Such L1 writing characteristics and cultural differences contribute to making the process of learning to write in English and eventually writing 'well' in English a quite demanding task for Algerian students. Consequently, many students transfer their L1 writing strategies into theoretical FL writing.

Basically interested in L1 writing transfer phenomena, contrastive rhetoric (CR) is a discipline that emerged after Kaplan's (1966) published his seminal article where he examined and compared paragraph development in five languages (English, Arabic, Korean, Spanish and Russian). CR has since become a well-established discipline in the FL writing research sphere whose main concern is to explore the cultural and rhetorical differences between languages and account for the cultural influences on second language (SL) and FL writing. In practical terms, the CR purpose is to identify the writing troubles faced by students of English as a second or foreign language and attempt to explain them by referring to the rhetorical patterns of their L1 (Connor, 1996). One of the conclusions that recent CR

researches seem to overall agree on is that transfer from the L1 into the target language (TL) during the writing process decreases as the writers' TL proficiency develops. For example, Abu Radwan (2012) showed how Arabic native speakers with intermediate English proficiency transferred their L1 rhetorical patterns more frequently than Arabic native speakers with advanced English proficiency.

In a true EFL context such as the case of English language teaching at the Teacher Training School of Constantine TTSC, handling the L1 influence on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) writing does not seem to be a complicated task. The writing course is extended over three years (1st, 2nd and 3rd years) and is intended for a group of English students of English whose educational level is better than many other university students (at least as testified by their Baccalaureate scores). It is provided by Algerian instructors who teach an L1 homogenous class with which they quite often share a common linguistic and cultural background. At first glance, they have no trouble being aware of the differences existing between writing in English and writing in students' L1. They could easily make these differences overtly apparent to their students (Kaplan, 1966), for they are supposedly more cognizant of the two cultural and writing systems. The writing instructor in such a context appears to be in a better situation than their SL writing colleagues in ESL contexts.

But writing teachers are not the only influential variables on students writing performances. Since they are part of an integrated training program, learners could undergo the influence of different components in such a program. The training process itself, which does not take place in a target language environment and which is conducted by non-native instructors may just seem to perpetuate the cultural differences and minimize EFL students writing performance. The place of writing in the actual training, the role of culture in the writing process as well as the assessment practices of the written product are also factors that may influence learners' quality of writing as well their attitudes towards its mastery. It is then undeniable that cultural factors in the form of L1 and L2 different rhetorical patterns could not operate separately from the rest of the other cultural and educational factors in the form of teaching methodologies, writing evaluation and so on. These factors have in fact often been overlooked in SL and FL writing research in general and in Algerian EFL contexts in particular.

2. Statement of the Problem

EFL learners' English writing problems have been widely explored in recent years, and the attempts to identify potential causes of these problems seem to have focused on 'micro' level causes pertaining to the teaching conditions of writing. However, they have not attempted to consider the issue in its cultural-educational context.

Although students in the Department of English at the Teachers' Training School of Constantine (TTSC) are taught effective writing techniques in a three-year Written Expression (WE) course, reaching their graduating year (4th year for middle school teacher-student and the 5th year for secondary school one), they achieve an advanced oral proficiency, yet they are not able to demonstrate a similar proficiency level in writing. In effect, it is the usual complaint of most teachers when correcting students' examinations, training reports or final year dissertations. Many students do not seem to know how to manipulate the fundamentals of English writing conventions such as the role of the thesis statement in the introduction and the topic sentence in paragraphs. Moreover, for putting across ideas and arranging them, students seem to continue to think in Arabic and write in English.

3. Aims of the Study

This study aims at investigating potential writing problems experienced by advanced EFL students, namely final year ones at the TTSC, and attempts to dig into some of their less researched cultural and educational causes. In doing so, the researcher hopes to contribute to raise EFL learners' as well as teachers' awareness of the preponderant role that culture plays in a writing class. The study also attempts to drive teachers to consider the potential influence of the FL rhetorical patterns on students' writing starting from the early training. In other words, it aims to direct teachers to give more importance to writing at the discourse level. in addition, decision makers should also be aware of such cultural aspects of FL learning when devising training programs.

4. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The study intends to answer the following questions.

1. Does the writing of the senior EFL learners at the TTSC exhibit problems of realizing macro-rhetorical elements of the FL writing conventions?

2. Do senior EFL learners at the TTSC realize the macro-rhetorical elements of thesis statement, topic sentence, topic and paragraph unity and topic and paragraph development in closer fashion to Arabic L1 students?

3. Why is it difficult for students to perceive FL cultural aspects while learning it?

4. What kind of perceptions of the role of culture in EFL writing development do writing teachers in the TTSC have?

5. What are the possible causes of the persistence of L1 culture influence in the form of L1 rhetorical patterns influence on TTSC learners until an advanced level of proficiency?

In the light of these questions, it can be hypothesized that:

1. The writing of advanced EFL learners at the TTSC would exhibit problems to realize macro-rhetorical elements of thesis statement, topic sentence, topic and paragraph unity and development according to the English writing conventions and realize them according to the first language (L1) patterns.

2. The persistence of those culture-related writing problems until an advanced level may be related to a set of cultural and educational factors other than L1 particular rhetorical patterns influence such as writing teachers' perceptions of the role of culture in foreign language (FL) writing development and the amount of writing experience in the training framework.

5. Population and Sampling

A total of 70 final year students took part in this investigation: 35 students (out of 60) enrolled in an EFL class and 35 students (out 70) enrolled in an Arabic Language Department class. Initially, the research intended to cover all the final year EFL and Arabic language population. However, not all students could finish the assignment on time, and so only 70 could return their written products.

6. Methodology and Tools of Research

This research combines a quantitative and qualitative design. The research methodology involves first a contrastive rhetoric analysis of students' written products that consists of a comparison of the products of EFL students and Arabic (L1) speaking language students on a

similar task written in, respectively, English and Arabic at the end of the practical training course which normally takes place during the students' final year. The other research tool is an in-depth semi-structured interview with three teachers of writing in the department of English. The objective is to explore their perception of and attitudes towards writing, their knowledge of the place of culture in the writing class and their perceptions of L1cultural influence in writing. This is followed by an interview with 20 other content-subject teachers who are in charge of the different pedagogical teams that took part in the training of the population under study during five levels. This interview aims at determining the amount of frequency of writing assignments (other than exams) required throughout the different courses and identifying the evaluation practices of students' writing experience. This is to check whether the persistence of culture-related writing problems (thesis statement, topic sentence, topic unity and development) is perpetuated by other cultural and educational factors than L1 particular rhetorical patterns influence such as students experience with and amount of writing during their training cycles in the ENSC. Last, a content analysis of a sample of exam questions from different subjects throughout the 5 year-training cycle years is conducted. These are exams of the research population which took place in the CR analysis. The analysis examines the amount and frequency of writing required in the different exam questions.

7. Structure of the Research

The study is of seven chapters; three chapters are theoretical, and four are practical. The first chapter is an endeavor to define culture by outlining its diverse conceptualizations. It then presents a description of the way the concept relates to language, thought and language teaching through reviewing one of the theories on the relationship between language and culture, namely the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis.

The second chapter deals with the skill of writing and its teaching in EFL. First, the nature of writing and the evolution of its definition are reviewed. Then, teaching writing in English is discussed in regard to its main approaches as well as the evaluation and feedback procedures adopted for its assessment. The chapter ends by an examination of the main factors that influence EFL writing development.

The third chapter is about background information about contrastive rhetoric (henceforth CR) by defining the concept, relating its history and discussing its methods/approaches as well as its value. The next step in the chapter is to outline the different CR studies of Arabic and English and the rhetorical differences between the two languages.

The chapter closes with an account of the most common writing problems that are encountered by Arab speaking EFL learners and that are highlighted through the CR investigations.

The fourth chapter deals with a contrastive analysis of writing samples in Arabic and English. It involves a comparison of written products of EFL students and Arabic language (L1) students. The products in question are the introduction section in the training report that students produce after they finish their practical training course during the students' final years. The chapter combines a set of quantitative and qualitative statistical data to analyze and compare the two samples.

The fifth chapter discusses the use of the interview instrument. The latter is used to explore writing teachers' perceptions of the place of culture in the EFL writing class and their attitudes towards the writing skill and its teaching and evaluation.

The sixth chapter comprises a survey of a set of cultural and educational factors that could influence the writing skill in the current training of English language teachers in the TTSC and could perpetuate the influence of L1 culture until an advanced level. The chapter is about reporting the results of the interview conducted with a group of teachers in charge of the coordination between teachers of the same subjects. The aim is to inquire about the amount of writing required from students in those subjects. First, it explores the possibility of having extra-written assignments in these subjects and teachers' approaches toward the writing requirement in such assignments. Then it discusses the results of the analysis of a sample of content-subjects exam questions to investigate the level of writing targeted in examinations.

The seventh chapter represents some pedagogical implications and recommendations related to the teaching of writing in an Algerian EFL context as the TTSC and the place of culture in this instruction. Some practical suggestions concerning the place of writing, its relation to culture, its teaching, and use in the actual training framework of the TTSC are put forward in the light of the results.

8. Limitations of the study

At last, in spite of the tremendous endeavor to observe a purely systematic and objective line of work, the present research cannot pretend to escape limitations, some of which are listed below:

- The findings have confirmed some of the CR claims of L1 rhetorical strategies transfer. However, the limited scope and data in this study which represents a systematic examination of a specific context (one English department, in one higher education institution) does not allow making larger generalizations to similar contexts.

- The examination of culturally-based macro-rhetorical patterns, namely the thesis statement, the topic sentence and topic/ paragraph development, in expository essays written by Arab learners studying in a true EFL context (Algeria) aspire to add to the growing body of research in the field. However, because to the shortage of similar studies in the same context, this study has relied on previous CR studies on these culturally-based macro-rhetorical patterns in other languages like Cho (1999) and Petric (2005)

- A common practice to increase reliability when analyzing research corpuses is to employ multiple raters and use statistical tools to calculate inter-rater reliability. However, it was not possible to do so for purely practical reasons

  - Finally, the researcher could not afford texts written by native English speakers to provide more authentic data for the rhetorical comparison. The English language students' essays were compared to Arabic English language ones.

Chapter One

The Position of Culture in English as a Foreign Language Teaching

Introduction

The 1960's sweeping advances in linguistic research brought to eminence the subject of culture within sociolinguistics. The latter is a linguistic sub-branch that embraces the task of thoroughly inspecting the various basic interactions between language and the speaking community factors such as geography, identity, and culture though the interconnection between the latter two concepts (language and culture) was not as much a recent subject of scrutiny as the 1960's. The delicate bond between the two concepts has always fascinated and occupied interested scholars from various disciplines probably since classical thought.

In the particular field of language learning, pioneering attempts, hypotheses and theories to cater for the possible underlying influence of either concept on the other date back to the late 19th century and early 20th one (such as the well-known and cited works of Sapir, Whorf) Today, these theories form almost always an unavoidable departing point for any exploration of second/ foreign language learning context and the role that culture- both the target language one and learner's native one- would play during this process. Yet, neither the question 'which concept affects the other?', nor 'how does such an effect manifest itself?' does seem to be the primary goal in modern second/ foreign (S/F) language researches. A deeper-rooted attention is paid to identifying and understanding the most probable second/ foreign language learning intricacies resultant from such causality and eventually finding out the most adequate pedagogical instruments to maximize the (S/F) language learning process. However, the concept of culture on its own is a complex one that needs to be clarified before investigating its relationship with any other field of human activity such as the one of language learning. Thus, it is quite necessary to explore the concept of culture and its relation to language, language learning and writing.

1.1.   Understanding Culture: An Overview

Culture has always been a dynamic concept which witnessed noticeable evolution. Moreover, it has constantly been utilized in association with some other concepts such as nation, identity, race and ethnicity. As a result, it has never been an easy notion to define.

Since it is not a universally accepted concept, there are several ways to define it (Hofstede et al, 2002).

The term culture has its origins in the Latin word *cultura* standing for 'growing or cultivation and the Latin verb *colere* 'tend, cultivate'. The use of the term was then to refer to the cultivation of the soil. In the Oxford English Dictionary (2006), culture is viewed as the "ideas, customs, and social behavior of a particular people or society *'Afro-Caribbean culture'*" (p.285). To The online American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language[1],culture is the "arts, beliefs, customs, institutions, and other products of human work and thought considered as a unit, especially with regard to a particular time or social group: Edwardian culture; Japanese culture." Similarly, culture is defined in the Cambridge Advanced Learners' English dictionary[2] as "the way of life, especially of a particular group of people at a particular time".

1.1.1. Historical Evolution of the Concept

The shift in the understanding of culture has been the subject of a substantial historical evolution that is chiefly connected to development in the human thought and social sciences.

1.1.1.1.   The aesthetic sense

Basically culture implies the individual's possession of "high art," advanced education, superior knowledge, exalted social standing, refinement, or "taste" (Avruch, nd, p. 4) It is the "hallmark of the cultivated middle-class" (Kramsch, 2013, p. 65) which has been promoted by institutions like schools and universities as national patrimony. This conception of culture is best exemplified in Matthew Arnolds' *Culture and Anarchy* (1867), where culture referred to special intellectual or artistic endeavors or products having its origin not in curiosity, but as having its origin in the love of perfection. Arnold then proceeds by establishing the main role of culture stating:

If culture, then, is a study of perfection and of harmonious perfection, general perfection, and perfection which consists in becoming something rather than in having

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[1] American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language:
https://www.ahdictionary.com/word/search.html?q=Culture
[2]Cambridge Advanced Learners' English dictionary:
https://dictionary.cambridge.org/us/dictionary/english/culture

something, in an inward condition of the mind and spirit, not in an outward set of circumstances, -it is clear that culture, (…) has a very important function to fulfill for mankind (1867, p.37).

This conception is what is commonly called today 'high culture' as opposed to 'popular culture' (or 'folkways' in an earlier usage) wherein culture was used to designate the ways of the elite and dominant social groups. According to this definition, only a small portion of any social group has culture; the rest are potential sources of 'anarchy' (Arnold, 1867). Used in this sense, culture would not have a plural, for there are not different cultures: there is only a single model of refinement along which all people are compared. Those who differ from the standards of this model are not usually credited as having a different culture but simply as being uncultured.

1.1.1.2.   The anthropological-evolutionist sense

The growth of the social sciences, particularly anthropology, led to the emergence of a second usage of culture. In reaction to Arnold's aesthetic meaning of culture, Taylor (1871) tried to establish a rather scientific basis for the concept by using culture to refer to a quality possessed by all people in all social groups. His conception of culture as "that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society" (Taylor, 1871, p.1) continues to be one of the most prominent definitions and an almost unavoidable starting point for any culture related research. Taylor's definition is significant in that it asserts that, compared to Arnold's, (1) all people own culture which they acquire by virtue of membership in a given social group; it is not limited to only a privileged social group, and (2) culture involves a whole set of usual things, ranging from everyday habits to knowledge to capabilities; it is not limited to only arts and manners. Still, Taylor, though claiming to provide a scientific grounds to the study of culture (the title of his first chapter is in fact 'The Science of Culture') assumes that these people could be categorized on a development, simply evolutionary, continuum from "savagery" through "barbarism" to "civilization" as exemplified by his "lower races" vs "higher nations"; "barbarous hordes" vs 'civilized nations" , etc. and many other descriptive expressions (Taylor, 1871).

1.1.1.3. The scientific sense

The twentieth-century work of Boas and his students in anthropology led to establish the third shift in the usage of culture in reaction to Taylor and other social evolutionists who maintained the universal nature of a single culture, with different societies ordered from savage to civilized. On the contrary, Boas wanted to put an end to the value judgments implied in both Arnold's and Taylor's understandings of culture through stressing the uniqueness of the many and varied cultures of different peoples or societies. For Boas, there should be no such divisions as high and. low culture nor civilized and savage (Lyons, 1983).

This approach to culture gave raise the sociolinguistic concept of culture that deals with the culture of everyday life, the one that "includes the native speakers' ways of behaving, eating, talking, dwelling, their customs, their beliefs and values" (Kramsch, 2013, p. 65).

1.1.2. Culture Patterns and Components

Since there is a great difficulty to define the concept, describing it which is seemingly much easier might yield insightful information. Reviewing several definitions and descriptions of culture, Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) extracted a three-fold segmentation of culture that has since been exhaustively and regularly used to inspire the various components' typologies of culture. Accordingly, "the major domains of culture are: (1) the relation of man to nature, subsistence concerns, techniques, " material" culture; (2) the more or less fixed interrelations of men due to desire for status and resulting in social culture; and (3) subjective aspects, ideas, attitude:, and values and actions due to them, insight, "spiritual" culture" (Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952, p.97).In other words, culture involves three basic human components: what people think, what people do, and what people make.

In a similar vein, Horn (2009) talks about **material** culture, involving eating, housing, tools and trade and economy; **intellectual** culture which involves language, art, science and technology, religion and belief and philosophy; and finally culture as **social organization** involving family structure, group rules, and state.

Another widely cited typology of culture traits is the iceberg analogy of culture introduced by Hall (1976, cited in Avruch, nd).The latter implies that if the culture of a society was an iceberg, then the tip of the iceberg above the water corresponds to the external, conscious, or visible part of culture which includes behaviors and material artifacts, but the

largest segment of the iceberg is unseen below the waterline just as the internal, or subconscious, part of culture is below the surface of a society and includes some beliefs , values and thought patterns that underlie behavior.

On the other hand, Shein (1987; cited in Nissila, 1997) identifies three levels of culture: The surface level includes artifacts and creations, technology, art, material culture, language and perceivable behavior; the second level includes values, attitudes and perceivable behavior; and the deepest, unconscious and invisible cultural level includes fundamental assumptions such as the people's relationship to environment, nature, other people, time, space, and even their position in the universe. While the surface level can be easily identified and learned by students and most of components in the second level can be overtly described to explain the reasons for and background of the behaviors and practices, the third level is not grasped in class, and only specialists, such as language teachers are expected to achieve a mastery of this level (Nissila, 1997)

1.2. Culture, Language and Thought: The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis

The relationship between language and cognition has been researched for years. Piaget puts cognitive development at the center of the human organism and sees language to be dependent upon and spring from cognitive development. So, for Piaget, development on the whole is the outcome of children's interaction with their environment, with an interaction between their developing perceptual cognitive capacities and their linguistic experience (Brown, 2007). That is, what children learn about language is determined by what they already know about the world. Other researchers have actually highlighted the influence of language on cognitive development. Vygotsky, for instance, claimed that social interaction, through language, is prerequisite to cognitive development (cited in Brown 2007). Another influential, yet largely debated thought, was put forward by Sapir and took over by his disciple Whorf. Sapir and Whorf claimed that language determines perception and thought rather than the reverse.

The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, as it came to be widely known claims that the language we speak shapes the way we perceive the world and that our culture influences the way we think. The principle of relativity is put forward through Whorf's (1956) words: "users of markedly different grammars are pointed by the grammars toward different types of observations and different evaluations of extremely similar acts of observation, and hence are not equivalent as

observers but must arrive at somewhat different views of the world" (cited in Lyons, 1981, p. 87)

In its most extreme version, the 'hypothesis' can be described as consisting of two associated principles. According to the first, *linguistic determinism*, our thinking is determined by language; thus, particular languages control perception or thought in particular ways. According to the second, *linguistic relativity*, people who speak different languages perceive and think about the world quite differently; so, perceived reality is `relative' to the language of the perceiver. That is to say, different language structures lead us to see and interpret the world in different ways. Analyzing indigenous, languages, Whorf discovered astonishing differences with European languages in terms of how they reflected and spoke about reality and claimed that they encoded a different view of the world seen through for example how they segment the time continuum, construct lexical hierarchies (Lyons, 1981). Consequently, the members of a culture share a world view by virtue of the language which they use in communicating with each other. A world view describes a consistent and integral sense of existence and provides a theoretical framework for generating, sustaining and applying knowledge. Linguistic determinism and relativity can be summarized in Fantini's (1995) words: "the language we acquire influences the way we construct our model of the world (hence determinism)… other languages convey differing visions of the same world (relativity)" (p.11) In other words, the language people are born to has a direct effect upon how they conceptualize, think, interact, and express themselves..

As evidence that members of different cultures perceive the world differently, Whorf cites the different uses of grammatical categories across cultures, codability and the way semantic systems of languages work (color terms, snow terms, ..). For example, particular tense markers or the lack of them are considered to influence and define the concept of time in a particular culture. If a language has no grammatical marker to distinguish between, say, present simple and present continuous, then the speaker does not perceive these temporal distinctions (Al Hassan, 1992).For example, Hopi language, an Indian language studied by Whorf, is characterized by the absence of verb tenses. Also, the Trobriand Islanders of Papua New Guinea do not conceptualize linear, chronological sequences of events. They have no time line but only temporal points organized as non-causal patterns with 'a series of beings but not becoming' (Fantini, 2009)

Different color terms across languages have also been used to prove that members of different cultures perceive and divide the spectrum of colors differently. If one imagines the color spectrum, it is a continuum, each color gradually blending into the next; there are no orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo and violet. For each decomposition of the spectrum of the rainbow, a scheme of color words is possible. However, these discriminations are arbitrary; in other languages the boundaries are different. The number and the type of the basic color words of a language determine how people in that cultural group see the rainbow. So, according to this hypothesis, if a given language does not have a word to designate the brown color for instance, speakers of that language do not perceive the color brown (Al Hassan, 1992).

The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis has received a great attention and remained at the center of debate for decades, but it has also been considerably criticized. Translation between one language and another, for example, is from Whorfian perspective difficult and sometimes impossible. In this respect, we have the famous example of Pablo Neruda who noted that the best translations of his poems were Italian (because of its similarities with Spanish), but that English and French "do not correspond to Spanish – neither in vocalization, nor in the placement, the color, or the weight of words". He continued:

> It is not a question of interpretative equivalence: no, the sense can be right, but this correctness of translation, of meaning, can be the destruction of a poem. In many of the translations into French – I don't say in all of them – my poetry escapes, nothing remains; one cannot protest because it says the same thing that one has written. But it is obvious that if I had been a French poet, I would not have said what I did in that poem, because the value of the words is so different. I would have written something else. (cited in Chandler, 1995, p.17)

A translation, Hussein (2020) argues, is feasible format only if it can transform the language and sentences of the source text (which are logically true to the author) into the language and sentences of the target text while maintaining the same logical truth of the original sentences. So, a sentence that is true or false in the logical context of the source language must be translated into the target language while maintaining the same logical truthfulness values. This ability to translate from one language to another greatly reduces the possibility of any enormous or fundamental differences between the cognitive and thought patterns of different communities (Hussein, 2020).

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The hypothesis was strongly attacked by advocates of universalism (followers of Chomsky) in the following decades, who pointed to aspects common to all languages-cultures despite their great diversity and creativity. Those studies tackle what human beings share, suggesting that people (across cultures and across races) are also quite alike in many ways. Shared human features such as Chomsky's LAD (Language Acquisition Device) and semantic hierarchies permit people to be intelligible to each other despite differences (Fantini, 1995).

Therefore, today only few linguists would accept the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis in its 'strong', extreme or deterministic form, and many others accept a 'weak', more moderate, or limited Whorfianism, namely that the ways in which we see the world may be influenced by the kind of language we use. Moderate Whorfianism differs according to Chandler (1995) from extreme Whorfianism in the following ways:

• The emphasis is on the potential for thinking to be 'influenced' rather than unavoidably 'determined' by language;

• It is a two-way process, so that 'the kind of language we use' is also influenced by 'the way we see the world';

• Any influence is attributed not to 'Language' as such or to one language compared with another, but to the use *within a language* of one variety rather than another;

• Accent is given to the social context of language use rather than to purely linguistic considerations.

The weak version of the hypothesis (namely that although language plays a role in creating our world view, it is not the total nor the only determinant) appears to be philosophically less appealing; still, the issue continues to influence approaches to language and cross-cultural education establishing the ground that language undoubtedly influences speakers' view of the world and makes them share a given system intelligible to each other. In this context, the term 'linguaculture' has been increasingly used by many scholars to acknowledge the interplay between the two concepts (Fantini, 1995; Crozet and Liddicoat, 1997; Risager, 2008; 2012)

1.3. Culture and Education

The relationship between culture and education has constantly enthralled scholars since the classical era. Reflecting upon that relationship in modern societies, Winch and Gingell (1999) observe that though education is a process of cultural transmission, there is little in the

literature about the exact role of culture in any educational enterprise. While the concept of 'culture', they noted, has at least three separate meanings: "(1) All the beliefs and practices of a given society, (2) The intellectual and artistic beliefs and practices of a given society and (3) The best intellectual and artistic beliefs of a given society" (p.50), discussion of the philosophical literature has focused on the relationship between (2) and (3) and their respective roles in education (if any), rather than of all three meanings. Moreover, there seems to be a strong conviction to keep 'high' culture as the basis of education.

1.3.1. The Impact of Education on Culture

The relationship between culture and education can be described from various angels, but the most palpable one is that education imposes upon an individual his cultural heritage whereby they should learn the cultural values and norms to lead to their progression and that of the society (Kapur, 2018). Although some Philosophers influenced by postmodernist thought have questioned the very possibility of giving an account of knowledge which is universalistic and culture-free, suggesting to pay more consideration to the different accounts of knowledge found in different cultural contexts, the widely adopted view, purports that "schools should be in the business of passing on the valued knowledge—theoretical and practical—of the cultures they inhabit"(Winch and Gingel, 1999, p.130).Every society instills in its children the habits, values, skills, practices, and beliefs that are required to guarantee its preservation. This process, whether taking place in formal settings such as schools or in informal ones like within or outside the home environment, is characterized by the transmission of culture and values from one generation to another. In this way, the society strives to preserve its culture and its distinctiveness in its original form; education is the only manner through which this task can be accomplished (Kapur, 2018).

The function of education is also to bring the needed and desirable change in the cultural ideals and values for the progress and continued development of the society without which social progress cannot take place. In doing so, education modifies cultural processes by research and deeper investigations into all areas of human requirements and thus ensures the development of culture (Kumar, 2018). While material culture grows more rapidly due to scientific and technological advances, non material culture consisting of ideas, values and norms lag behind and produce a gap between the two. So, education can be a useful instrument to bridge these gaps, and school or the educational system in general reflects the underlying cultural patterns of that society (Morotti, 2006).

1.3.1. The Impact of Culture on Educational Institutions

Not only does education transmit the cultural patterns of a society, but the latter guide its educational patterns as well. The world-view of a society determines how or what kind of education is to be transmitted. For example, if a society has a spiritual pattern of culture, then its educational procedures will emphasize the achievement of moral and eternal values of life; on the other hand, if the culture of a society is materialistic, then its educational pattern will be shaped for the attainment of material values which promotes pleasures of senses and material comforts (Kapur, 2018). Bisong and Ekanem (2020) notice how science education has remained underdeveloped in Africa because of its special understanding of causal relations wherein Africans view of causality is influenced by the African general perception of the world. The latter stipulates events to be "determined by the will of spiritual beings, the operation of automatic forces, and the self-willed actions of men and other animals, which follow in orderly and comprehensive sequence" (p.63). As a result, the primary causes of diseases, for example, are attributed to supernatural entities like the spirits, deities, witches, wizards, ancestors, etc. while the secondary causes are similar to the empirical sources– bacteria, virus, and so on.

So, the aims and ideals of the educational institutions are influenced by the values and patterns of society, and such an influence is noticeable through various levels and aspects. The **curriculum**, for instance, is prepared according to the culture of society. The system of education tries to realize the cultural needs of society through curriculum which conditions all educational activities and programs (Kumar, 2018). This curriculum is contained in the **textbooks** that are written according to the formulated or determined curriculum, and only those textbooks are welcomed which foster and promote cultural values and ideals (Kumar, 2018).

In addition to its influence on curricula and textbooks, cultural tendencies influence the **methods of teaching** and the ways learners take part in the learning process. Using the five dimensions of national culture identified by Hofstede on cultural differences (namely power distance index, individualism vs collectivism, masculinity vs feminity (uncertainty vs avoidance index and long term orientation) as an analytical tool for understanding the local differences in educational policy and teaching methods in school systems, Wursten and Jacob (2013) show that culture does in fact influence the way people are educated and the way they learn in significant manners. They observed that in individualist cultures, for instance,

students are urged to work independently and engage themselves in discussions and arguments to learn to think critically. Confrontation and challenge in learning situations can be brought into the open. The school environment is managed in an indirect manner, and student self-control is encouraged. However, in the collectivist perspective, students are encouraged to work with peers and provide assistance when required. They are expected to be quiet and respectful in the class in order to learn efficiently, and so that the formal harmony in learning situations is maintained at all times.

The concept of **discipline** is also defined differently from one culture to another. Considering the first dimension in Hofstede's model, power distance, which refers to the extent to which less powerful members of a society accept that power is distributed unequally, Minkove and Hofstede (2012) argue that in high power-distance cultures, everybody has his/her rightful place in society; old age is respected, and status is important. In low power-distance cultures, on the other hand, people try to look younger, and powerful people try to look less powerful. An example of the effect of this on education is the fact that in high power-distance cultures, the teacher should never be contradicted nor criticized; otherwise, this would be perceived as lack of respect and discipline whereas in low power-distance cultures, students are allowed to contradict and criticize (Wursten and Jacob, 2013).

1.4. Culture and Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Culture has become a central issue in FLT research and practices. The concept has in fact contributed significantly in the advance of FL and L2 education

1.4.1. Culture and Foreign Language Education

Understanding the nature of the relationship between language and culture is vital to the process of learning another language. When using language in real life situations, it is not only the forms of language that convey meaning. Rather, it is language in its cultural context that creates meaning; in other words, creating and interpreting meaning is done within a cultural framework. That is why, when learning a foreign language (FL), learners need to engage with the ways in which context affects what is communicated and how. In this situation, both the learner's culture and the culture in which meaning is created or communicated have an influence on the ways in which possible meanings are understood (Scarino and Liddicoat, 2009). That is to say, this context is not a single culture since both the target language culture and the learner's own culture are present at the same time and can be

simultaneously engaged. Hence learning to communicate in an additional language involves developing an awareness of the ways in which culture interrelates with language whenever it is used (Scarino and Liddicoat, 2013). This calls for systematic culture teaching in FL teaching.

Although the teaching of culture began to attract FLT researchers and practioners only during the sixties, and gradually became a trendy issue during the eighties and the nineties, a review of FLT literature reveals that culture teaching has played a deep role in most FL and L2 education (Atamna, 2008). Aimed at implicitly generating in learners empathy toward and an appreciation for the culture of the TL community, the teaching of 'culture' has been an "unstated aim" in FLT and has grown into "the hidden curriculum" (Byram, 1989, p.1 & 3) of those FL programs. A deep scrutiny of different FL course books at the lower levels of education and university English courses worldwide shows that language teaching has always had a cultural dimension (Risager, 2008). However, the way culture is inculcated into a language program seems to be highly dependent on the particular understanding of the concept itself.

1.4.2. Modern Conceptualizations of Culture in Foreign Language Education

As research has considerably progressed over these years, the conception of culture and the relationship between language teaching and culture have been defined and redefined. This has produced new ways of conceiving culture and raised significant issues related to the way it should be approached within the FLT sphere.

1.4.2.1. Big 'C' culture versus small 'c' culture

Modern research literature has produced a widely cited dichotomy: big 'C' culture and small 'c' culture. Culture with 'big C', more closely related to the aesthetics sense, (Lyons, 1981), is a denotation that is currently commonly utilized in language learning, and more particularly in second and foreign language learning literature (Chlopek, 2008; Lee, 2009; Kramsch, 2013). The Big C culture represents the easiest aspect to be aware of and learn about culture, and it embodies "a set of facts and statistics relating to the arts, history, geography, business, education, festivals and customs of a target speech society" (Lee, 2009, p.78). Such a type of culture has often constituted the content of literature, history, cultural, etc., courses in most FL/SL language curricula all over the world.

With the advent of communicative language teaching, the humanistic concept of culture has given way to a more pragmatic concept of culture as way of life, though the prestige of big C culture has remained (Kramsch, 2013). Thus, little/ small 'c' culture represents the deeper sense of culture that is not easily observable (Lee, 2009), for it encompasses a wide range of non-tangible, inter-connected features. Small 'c' culture features include "attitudes, assumptions, beliefs, perceptions, norms and values, social relationships, customs, celebrations, rituals, politeness conventions, patterns of interaction and discourse organization, the use of time in communication, and the use of physical space and body language (Chlopek, 2008, p.11). With the exception of some of them, many of these features are hidden' and deeply internalized and subconscious to the individual and are often observable only in contrast with another culture (Chlopek, 2008; Kramsch, 2013, Matic, 2015).

The Big 'C' vs Small 'c' conceptions may be easily juxtaposed to the 'cultural iceberg' discussed earlier. The big 'C' culture, then, would correspond to the small fraction of the iceberg visible above the waterline which is constituted of observable behaviors and practices. Small 'c' culture, however, would be equated with the larger, invisible section below the water line made of attitudes and core values. Similar to an iceberg, the part of culture that is noticeable (observable behavior and practices) constitutes only a small fraction of a much bigger and more complex whole.

Being more influential and determinant of people's way of thinking, linguistic/non-linguistic behavior and expectations and interpretations of other people's linguistic/non-linguistic behavior (Chlopek, 2008), this type of culture is often the perfect input for the development of a communicative competence and the acquisition of conversational skills in communicative EFL teaching (Kramsch, 2013). Therefore, successful cross-cultural communication requires the knowledge of the small-c culture of a given community (Matic, 2015). However, by contrast to Big 'C' culture, this type of culture is not easy to inculcate and learn in SL or FL learning contexts.

1.4.2.2. Culture as product versus culture as process

As pointed out in earlier discussions, culture has always been a very complex issue to address. Nieto's definition of culture as "the ever-changing values, traditions, social and political relationships, and worldview created, shared, and transformed by a group of people bound together by a combination of factors that can include a common history, geographic

location, language, social class, and religion" (1999, p.129) stresses this complex and intricate nature of culture and highlights the fact that it is made of not only content or product (the what of culture), but also the process or how this product is created and transformed in addition to who *i*s responsible for generating and altering it.

In a similar vein, Atkinson (2004) observes that, while studying culture, there is a considerable focus from researchers on describing the product-oriented side of culture, but the processes that produce the products are not sufficiently scrutinized. For a long time, the basic backbones for cultural anthropology and anthropological linguistics have been aspects like belief, ritual and cultural systems, kinship systems, myth systems, linguistic systems of everyday life. Rather than looking just at the products themselves, it is also essential to reflect on the processes leading to those products.

Similarly, Scarino and Liddicoat (2013) criticize approaches displayed in certain language textbooks in the form of cultural notes that present images of recognized cultural attributes of nations as cultural content. In this conception, the internal diversity of any culture is filtered out of representations of national culture, producing a static understanding of culture that is presented as a finished product. In his context, they claim that

> Although there will be some place for cultural facts in a language curriculum, it is more important to study culture as a process in which learners engage rather than as a closed set of information that he/she will be required to recall. Viewing culture as a dynamic set of practices rather than as a body of shared information engages the idea of individual identity as a more central concept in understanding culture (Scarino and Liddicoat, 2013, p. 23).

1.4.2.3. Culture in the head versus culture in the world

Another recurring issue when dealing with culture is its location. In this respect, two distinctions have been made. First, culture residing inside individuals refers to shared cognitive knowledge of beliefs, values, and internalized interaction patterns. This is ''what people must know in order to act as they do, make the things they make, and interpret their experience in the distinctive way they do''(Atkinson, 2004, p.282). It is also referred to by some scholars as subjective culture or "software of the human mind" (Minkove and Hofstede, 2013, p. 13). The second type is culture outside individuals or the man-made environment that comprises everything that people have created such as institutions and art. Atkinson (2004)

points out that both culture in the head and culture in the world are imperative, for although culture consists largely of public symbols, people need to be able to make sense of those symbols which "have meaning only for actively cognizing, interpreting, complex pattern-recognizing beings" (p.283)

1.4.2.4. Big cultures versus small cultures

Big or large culture and small culture are two other paradigms introduced into the culture-related research by Holliday (1999) that are also commonly cited since then. Large cultures refers to prescribed ethnic, national and international entities and is characterized by uniformity, coherence and timelessness; small culture, on the other hand, is not subordinate to large cultures and is defined as an abstract, analytical notion that explains or summarizes – rather than causes- cohesive behavior within any social grouping (Holliday, 1999). This connotation is widely taken on in the media and in the popular usage of the concept producing expressions like hip-hop culture, youth culture, legal culture, the culture of dependency, drug culture, and in education, the one of classroom culture has become a significant notion (Connor, 2002). The purpose of introducing this concept, Holliday argues, was to make a distinction between two paradigms that already existed, but were not used as different, so as to explain what is meant when the concept of culture is used for different purposes and in different ways. The basic assumption underlying this distinction, Atkinson explains, is that

> (1) various social scenes, big and small, seem to have many of the same characteristics as (usually more or less received versions of) culture: methods of socialization; more or less durable norms, values, and social practices; well-defined roles and hierarchies; symbolic and material artifacts; and (2) we should therefore be able to use the concept of culture to study these phenomena, and to adjust the scale of the notion to fit our analytical needs (2004, p. 285).

The small culture approach, Holliday (1999) argues, is not only appropriate for a world that is more and more multi-cultural at every level, but also it is the only manner to elucidate full inter-cultural complexity.

Thus, any proper methodology would have to cater for the wide range of complex and overlapping social institutions for understanding emergent behaviors. To this effect, Atkinson (2004), basically echoing Holliday (1994), suggests a diagram which seems useful in educational settings such as language learning ones and which elucidates the different sizes

and levels of these interacting cultures, from the culture of individual classrooms to national culture and the overlapping relations among them.
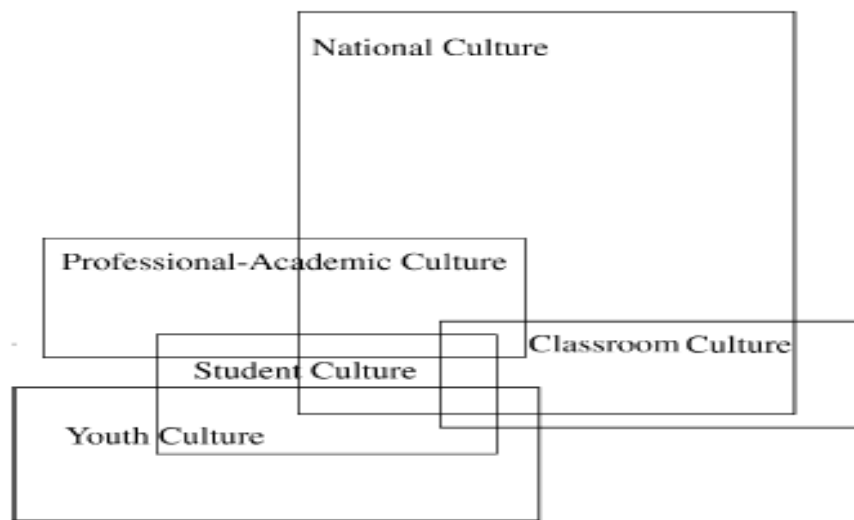
Figure 1.1: Complexly Interacting Small Cultures in an Educational Setting (Atkinson, 2004, p. 286)

Therefore, taking student culture which is situated near the bottom of the diagram as an example, one would notice that it has both its own unique internal norms and practices such as specific interaction patterns and particular socialization practices—in any particular education situation, and these norms would overlap (but not be subsumed under) national cultural norms and practices; in addition, those of youth culture (themselves overlapping with national culture, but by not be subsumed by it since youth culture spreads well beyond national boundaries), etc. Similarly, the professional–academic culture of teachers/professors in a particular situation would partially overlap with national culture and also partly be shared with other professors in other parts of the world (Atkinson, 2004).

1.4.3. The Place of Culture within the Foreign Language Teaching Approaches

The different language teaching approaches and methods are the product of continuous advances in human thought and activity and developments in the fields of philosophy, language studies and social sciences. Each one echoes the specific requirements a society inflicts upon the language teaching at a given era. Language teaching (LT) approaches have tackled the incorporation of culture in LT programs in various manners. The latter depend

mainly on the general goals of foreign language education and on the particular conception of culture prevailing at the specific era.

1.4.1.1. Traditional methods

The **Grammar Translation Method** (**GTM**) dominated the teaching of foreign languages in the nineteenth and early twentieth century during which Latin and Greek were highly regarded, and thus classical knowledge constituted the main input for instruction. The method was concerned with the presentation and analysis of correct linguistic forms, appropriate translation and the reading of literature. Teaching culture within this method was an activity implicitly practiced by its proponents. Culture was seen as the literacy or humanities component of language study (Kramsch, 2013). It consisted of the selection and presentation of cultural achievements, great events in the history of the target country, artistic texts and classical Latin and Greek literary works. It is clear that this method totally neglected small 'c' culture which represents the most of culture and advocated the aesthetic sense or "big C" culture, representing just a small portion of what culture is. This may not promote significantly students' ability to function linguistically and socially in a real-life social interaction in the foreign language, nor to a full understanding of the foreign people. Such a conception of culture and how it should be taught is a reflection of the main view at the time that institutional foreign languages teaching was limited to an elite group of pupils characterized as the ideal educated and refined gentleman (Arnold, 1871). Kramsch (1996, p. 5) notes that students did not obtain an understanding of the ways Roman actually spoke and thought; "yet, nine years of Latin were the best entrance ticket to the universal culture of the European educated elite". In addition, the GTM insisted too much on the grammar rules which are of no pragmatic value (Atamna, 2008). Although one of the technical characteristics of the method involves the comparison of the two languages through translation, there was no concern with the teaching of either cultural awareness or authentic spoken communication (Heidari et al, 2014).

With the early 20s the **Direct Method (DM)** substitutes the grammar translation method. Named so because meaning is to be conveyed directly in the target language through the use of demonstration and visual aids with no recourse to the students' native language (Heidari et al, 2014), the DM method entails that the use of culturally oriented pictures makes students aware of some of the everyday situations they might encounter in the foreign culture. It focused interest in raising verbal and communication skills. Still, there was no significant

progress in the process of culture implementation. The cultural knowledge in this method consisted of the history of the people who speak the target language, the geography of the country or countries where the language is spoken, and information about the daily lives of the speakers of the language (Atamna, 2008). So, culture teaching is associated with some aspects of small 'c' culture and mainly big 'C' culture.

It is only with the emergence of the **Audio Lingual Method (ALM)** in 1960's where culture is seen as a necessary component of language teaching. The **ALM** emphasizes the use of daily speech pattern presented to the learners in the form of conversational dialogues. In this method, language cannot be separated from culture. Thus, cultural aspects of life are displayed through contextualized dialogues such as in the bank, in the hotel...etc. Compared to the previous methods, the ALM does not conceive culture as only literature, but it also consists of the everyday behavior and daily lifestyle of the target language people (Atamna, 2008).

1.4.1.2. Communicative language teaching

The communicative turn in language pedagogy, led to the focus on the social function of language in society. In this context, the humanistic concept of culture has given way to a more pragmatic concept of culture as a way of life (Kramsch, 1996). Littlewood (2014) argues that Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) builds on two main principles: a communicative perspective on language, i.e., what we learn, and a communicative perspective on learning, that is, how we learn. Thus, "in CLT "students would practice expressing functions (such as 'making suggestions') and then use them in 'communicative activities' (such as pair work, role-play, discussion and the use of authentic materials" whereby language is acquired through "communication without explicit instruction" (Littlewood, 2014, p. 3). The ultimate objective is to promote within learners a communicative competence (CC) that is made of the linguistic competence, discourse competence, socio-linguistic competence , and strategic competence and which provides the foundations for CLT (Hymes, 1972).

The communicative approach builds on the assumption that Language is mainly used for communication, and to achieve this, requires the CC not only the linguistic competence, that is, the ability not only to use grammatical forms correctly but also to use language appropriately (Hymes, 1972). So, knowledge about linguistic rules and structures constitute only one component of the CC; the other important aspect is knowledge of the different

functions language used to fulfill in different social situations. In other words, the approach sets FLT in a social and cultural context following the socio-linguistic view that language is influenced by the society, economics, culture and the people who use it. Therefore the social aspect of language, a long neglected component of CC, is now allotted a high importance (Brown, 2007). The cultural component of language teaching, then, consisted of the pragmatic functions and notions articulated through language in everyday's speech and acts (Kramsch, 1996). And so, the teaching involves every day, real-world language use in a variety of socio-cultural situations where features of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and culture are selected and graded according to their priority in actual communication (Heidari, 2014).

Culture became, within CLT, synonymous with the way of life and everyday behaviours of members of speech communities who were bound together by common experiences, memories and aspirations (Kramsch, 2013).As such, the focus is on communication and interaction in social contexts, and the basic conception of culture teaching and learning within CLT has been that of "little c" culture. Also, the 'small cultures' concept of culture in EFL (Holliday, 1997) is mostly of tourist kind with instructions on how to get things done in the target country (Atamna, 2008). As an implication of all this, other texts were included in language teaching than literary ones in the traditional approaches. Called authentic texts, these include non-fiction texts of various kinds, like texts from newspapers and magazines, or texts used in everyday life like menus and tickets. Understanding these texts calls, according to Risager (2012) for a greater knowledge of the outside world than the literary. Risager notes also that due to the technological developments, the visual aspect of culture became as important as its interpretive one as video technology made it easy for language teachers to present the learners with films and documentaries.

1.4.1.3. The intercultural approach

With the interest in intercultural learning and culture pedagogy taking off in the 1990s, voices raised questioning the very soundness of the communicative competence. Byram (1997) argues that to define communicative competence mainly in terms of sociolinguistic standards of a particular community or on a native speaker model basis was not enough because it disregards the social identity of the learners in any intercultural communicative event.

Thus, the objective of language learning is no more seen as just the acquisition of a communicative competence in a FL, that is, the ability to act in a FL in linguistically, socio-

linguistically and pragmatically appropriate ways (Hymes, 1972) but to acquire an Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC). Suggested by Byram (1997), ICC is defined as "ability to ensure a shared understanding by people of different social identities, and [the] ability to interact with people as complex human beings with multiple identities and their own individuality" (Byram, Gribkova and Starkey, 2002, p. 10). In other words, the success of interaction implies not only an effective interchange of information but also the "the ability to decentre and take up the other's perspective on their own culture, anticipating and where possible, resolving dysfunctions in communication and behavior " (Byram, 1997, p. 42).

Byram (1997) presents a model (figure 1.2)comprising five components or *savoirs* which has become widely influential. In this model, *Skills of interpreting and relating* imply the ability to identify and explain cultural perspectives, mediate between and function in new cultural contexts. Then, *Skills of discovery and interaction* are related to the ability to acquire new knowledge of culture and cultural practices and the ability to activate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraint of real-time communication. The third component, *knowledge,* includes learning about social groups, products, practices and processes of interaction. *Attitudes* involve curiosity and openness towards the other as well as readiness to revise cultural values and beliefs and to interact and engage with otherness.   Finally *critical* cultural *awareness* includes Political education and is defined as the ability to evaluate critically the perspectives and practices in one's own and other cultures. Integrating these components, intercultural learning entails the process of acquiring knowledge, skills, and attitudes that help learners to understand cultures and interact with people from different cultures (Eisenmann et al, 2013)

<div align="center">

Skills
interpret and relate
(*savoir comprendre*)

</div>

Knowledge	Education	Attitudes
of self and other;	political education	relativising
of interaction:	critical cultural	self
individual and	awareness	valuing other
societal	(*savoir s'engager*)	(*savoir être*)
(savoir être)		

<div align="center">

Skills
discover and/or
interact
(*savoir
apprendre/faire*)

</div>
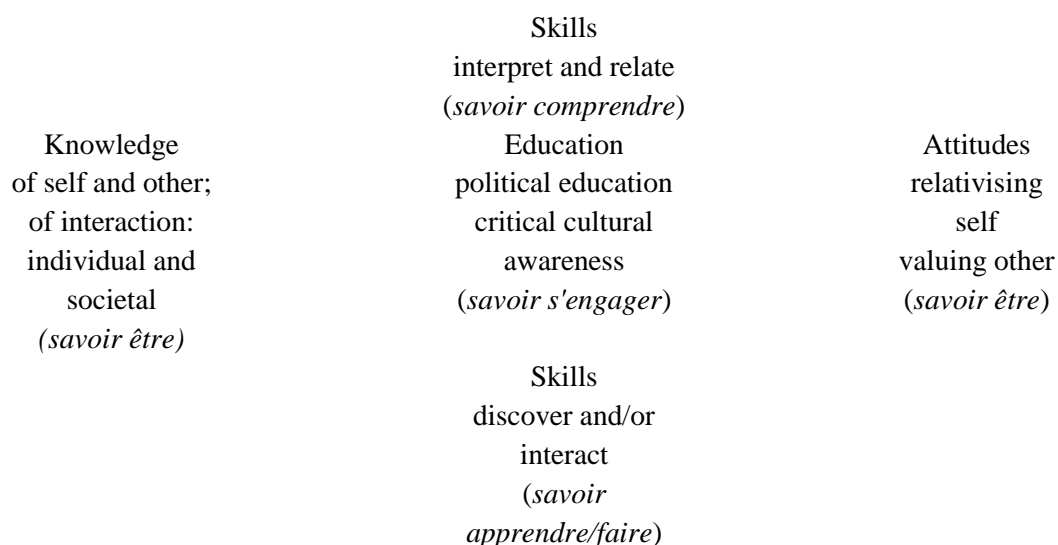
Figure 1.2. Factors in Intercultural Communication (Byram 1997, p. 34)

As displayed in **Figure 1.2**, the first four components of the model (skills of interpreting/relating; skills of discovery/interaction; knowledge, and attitudes) supply a fifth component at the center that connects the entire model: critical cultural awareness (the ability to adopt multiple vantage points allowing for critical interpretation of self/other) (Meadow, 2016).

The concept of intercultural communicative competence has transformed culture pedagogy in EFL by altering the goal of language education with culture integrated into language study. Within the "intercultural dimension" or "language for intercultural citizenship" (Bram, 2006), EFL learners have to gain insight into both their own and the foreign culture. Following this model, raising cultural awareness about both learners' own culture and others is a key element in this new approach in language teaching whose aim is to generate:

> [L]earners as intercultural speakers or mediators who are able to engage with complexity and multiple identities and to avoid the stereotyping which accompanies perceiving someone through a single identity. It is based on perceiving the interlocutor as an individual whose qualities are to be discovered, rather than as a representative of an externally ascribed identity. Intercultural communication is communication on the basis of respect for individuals and equality of human rights as the democratic basis for social interaction (Byram, Gribkova and Starkey, 2002, p. 9).

1.4.4. Current Culture Pedagogy

As demonstrated in an earlier section, the last two decades in FLT have been characterized by a clear shift from communicative language teaching CLT, which aims to develop learners' communicative competence (CC) that is the ability to use language, convey messages, and negotiate meaning with other speakers in social contexts of real life, to Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) wherein learners must develop intercultural awareness to fit into a globalized world in which people from different cultural backgrounds establish international relations and become intercultural speakers (Byram, 1997). Subsequently, reviewing some major modern language-culture related literature (Byram 1997, 2006, 2009, Risager, 2008, 2012, Kramsch, 2010, 2013, 2016; Scarino and Liddicoat, 2009, 2013) reveals that the contentious arguments over the integration of culture in language learning (reported with some attention by Merrouche (2010) do not seem to be a main

concern any more. However, most of these researchers agree on the latter's (Merrouche, 2010) motives for integrating culture among the FLT components, namely:

a. Interdependence of Culture and Language: cultural awareness contributes to language awareness and proficiency.

b. Interdependence of Culture and Communication: Lack of cultural knowledge results in inappropriate language use, misunderstanding, and breakdowns in communication

c. Culture and Learning Motivation: positive perceptions of the target language people and culture are among the most important variables influencing learners' motivation

d. Intercultural Understanding: Culture study does not only enlarge the learners' horizons and general knowledge, it also promotes cross-cultural understanding, tolerance of diversity, and perhaps even a liking for others and others' cultural ways

Risager (2012) maintains that the history of culture pedagogy can be understood as a struggle between modernism and postmodernism. Prominent until the 1980s, the modernist spirit stresses the content dimension and the knowledge-related result of the target language culture teaching. In other words, the objective overview or the realistic and all-round picture of culture and society was given high priority. On the other hand, the postmodernist tendency came gradually to dominate culture pedagogy, highlighting learning processes and the raising of cultural awareness. Though it does not totally reject the old one, the post modernist view focuses on "diversity in the individual students' qualifications and life experiences, their attitudes and emotions, their ability to understand and deal with 'the other', their ability to mediate between various languages and various cultural contexts" (Risager, 2012, p. 6).

Currently, teaching culture has been approached in various ways. Basically, the different approaches to culture teaching fall into two patterns: mono-cultural approaches, which emphasize mostly the target language culture and comparative approaches, which compare learners' own culture and the other culture.

1.4.4.1. The mono-cultural approach or the foreign-culture approach

The mono-cultural approach, also referred to by Risager (nd) as the foreign cultural approach, is based on the principle of teaching a single culture, mostly the target language

one. It does not deal with the learners' own culture nor does it engage in any form of comparison between the two. The main objective underlying this approach is to develop the so-called native speaker communicative and cultural competence. The approach was typical for the courses like Landeskunde, area studies, and British life and institutions (Atamna, 2008; Risager, 2012) and was dominant until the 1980s. However, it has been criticized on the basis that it does not take into account the relationship between the two cultures and does not consider learners' understanding of their own culture

1.4.5.1.   The Comparative approach

The beginning of the comparative approach can be traced back to the publication of Lado's (1957) book *Linguistics across Cultures* where he argues for the importance of comparative study for language education and explains how to undertake such a study. To this effect, he writes "The most important new thing in the preparation of teaching materials is the **comparison of native and foreign language and culture in order to find the hurdles** that really have to be surmounted in the teaching" (Lado, 1957, p3). In the concluding chapter of his book: "How to compare two cultures", Lado suggests a model for comparing two cultures on systematic grounds. According to this model, the comparison is sound only if it is based on an adequate definition of culture and an appropriate understanding of the cultures to be compared. Thus, Lado defines culture as "a structured system of patterned behavior (p. 52)", and suggests comparing units of patterned behavior. An example of a patterned behavior would be 'breakfast' to be compared across two cultures by accounting for its 'form', 'meaning' and distribution'. Lado's model represents a very practically-oriented approach based on the small 'c' conception of culture.

The essential role that comparative methods play in language and culture teaching is clearly stressed in modern culture-FL related literature (Byram and Morgan, 1994; Byram et al, 2002; Risager, 2012). Comparison skills are crucial for the development of the intercultural communicative competence and constitute in fact a key element of the ICC model developed by Byram (1994). Explaining the rational for the comparative stance, Byram and Morgan (1994), for instance, state:

> Learners cannot simply shake off their own culture and step into another. It is not a
> question of putting down their 'cultural luggage', for their culture is a part of
> themselves, has formed them and created them as social beings. Learners are

'committed' to their culture, and to deny any part of it is to deny something within their own being. (p. 43)

Thus, an important attribute of this approach is that it draws on the learner's own knowledge, beliefs, and values which form a basis for successful communication with members of the other culture. In this way, learners learn through comparing their own cultural context with the unfamiliar contexts to which language learning introduces them with the familiar, their own cultural one (Byram et al, 2002). Two prominent approaches, the intercultural and multicultural, embrace the comparative standpoint.

1.4.5.1.1. The intercultural approach

This approach is modeled on the idea that any culture is effectively learnt through comparison between the target culture and learners' own one and developing their understanding of both, but of course, the fundamental concern remains the target culture. It seeks to raise students' intercultural and communicative competences and develop

> learners as intercultural speakers or mediators who are able to engage with complexity and multiple identities and to avoid the stereotyping which accompanies perceiving someone through a single identity. It is based on perceiving the interlocutor as an individual whose qualities are to be discovered, rather than as a representative of an externally ascribed identity. (Byram, Grybkova and Starkey, 2002, p. 9)

The approach promotes not only linguistic competence needed to communicate in speaking or writing, that is, to formulate what they want to say/write in correct and appropriate ways but also their intercultural competence, that is, their ability to ensure a shared understanding by people of different social identities, and their ability to interact with people as complex human beings with multiple identities and their own individuality. This view in culture pedagogy has become more prominent with Byram's model of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) discussed earlier in this chapter. It is important in this context not to confuse intercultural competence with the cultural one. While the latter (cultural competence) encompasses knowledge, skills and attitudes concerning a specific culture related to one of the target language countries, intercultural competence entails knowledge, skills and attitudes at the boundary between several cultural areas including the students' own country and a target language country. The development of intercultural competence is thus considered by Risager (2005) as a process comprising the students'

experiences and competencies from their own cultural perspective or"a process that allows them to reflect on their own cultural assumptions as an integral part of the further development of their skills and knowledge of the world" (Risager, 2005, p. viii). Thus, applying the ICC model in teaching practice implies that the focus is on presenting new knowledge to learners and materials that encourage them to discover and interpret other cultures and relate them to their own. The overall goal of this model is to help learners become intercultural, rather than native, speakers of English (Eisenmann et al, 2013).

Sercu (2005) maintains that in order to operate interculturally, a person needs to possess a number of intercultural competencies and characteristics including:

> the willingness to engage with the foreign culture, self-awareness and the ability to look upon oneself from the outside, the ability to see the world through the others' eyes, the ability to cope with uncertainty, the ability to act as a cultural mediator, the ability to evaluate others' points of view, the ability to consciously use culture learning skills and to read the cultural context, and the understanding that individuals cannot be reduced to their collective identities. (p. 2)

1.4.5.1.2.   The multicultural approach

This approach is based on the idea that a single culture may consist of a mixture of different cultures. It rejects the idea of viewing culture as homogenous entities, focusing on 'big/ large cultures' by considering only the national parameter and thus excluding the potential of considering 'small culture'. So when dealing with a target language, Risager (2012) cautions to be careful about which language is to be taught and asks, among other questions,

> Do we focus only on the national majority, the part of the population that speaks the target language as a first language, or do we see the target country as a multilingual and multicultural (multiethnic, multi-religious, etc.) society, in which the target language is used both as a first, second and foreign language, and exists in a diverse and changing linguistic and cultural landscape? (p. 10)

It involves a specific emphasis on the ethnic and linguistic variety of the target country or countries and relations between the target countries and the learners' own and other countries (Atamna, 2008). Hence, just as in the intercultural approach, comparison is crucial in the multicultural approach, and it aims at raising reflective attitude. However, for such an

approach the target language is introduced to some learners as a first language and as second language for others. Still, its aim is to develop students' intercultural and communicative competence (Byram, 2006). This competence enables learners to use the target language as a lingua franca with the people who belong to the society where the language being learnt is spoken.

1.4.5.2.   The trans-cultural approach

In recent years, trans-cultural learning is receiving growing interest in academic discussions. Such an attention paid to trans-cultural learning came as a reaction to the intercultural approach which was criticized for separating cultures into categories of self and other and viewing culture as a static construct (Eisenmann et 2013). To this effect, Risager (2012, p. 10) writes:

> Taking the transnational flow of languages into account, culture pedagogy does not need to limit itself to an exclusive focus on the national culture and society of target language countries. It can be more flexible and open to the needs and interests of learners and teachers […] The aim might be to try to further an awareness of multilingual and multicultural (or trans-cultural) societies, and to try to develop a sense of world citizenship

As a result the concept of trans-culturality, which focuses on cultural complexity and hybridity, is proposed. This approach is grounded in the belief that cultures today are interconnected due to factors like world-wide communication, globalization, tourism, and migration, and other forms of mobility and views a foreign language as an international language. English, for instance, is a language of worldwide communication and operates in most cases as lingua franca (Risager, 2008). The approach thus seeks to teach learners to use the target language for international communication and to promote a 'trans-cultural identity' which is depicted as " an identity that does not reflect one particular culture, but a hybrid mix of different cultures that cannot be attributed to one culture alone" (Eisenmann et al, 2013, p. 26). This trans-cultural identity' results from a foreign language pedagogy which divulges the codes under which speakers in cross-cultural encounters operate and constructs something different and hybrid from these cross-cultural encounters. This situation has urged scholars to import the 'third space' metaphor to the FL culture pedagogy.

'Third space' was introduced first by Bhabha (1994) to present his concept of hybridity in which he describes the construction of culture and identity within conditions of colonial animosity. Bhabha uses hybridity to refer to the process by which the colonial governing power begins to translate the identity of the colonized within a singular universal framework, but ends up creating a new hybrid identity, he names as 'third space'. The latter is the outcome of blending elements of the colonizer and colonized identities or cultures. This space is conceived as a sort of in-between space, where the cutting edge of translation and negotiation occurs. In this way, the third space embodies new forms of cultural meaning that weaken the existing cultural boundaries and question established categorizations of culture and identity.

Kramsch (1996, 2013) later on uses the term 'third space' to describe a metaphorical space for dialogue between individuals from different cultural backgrounds and denotes a dialogical approach to the learning of FLs and cultures. Similarly, Eisenmann et al (2013) conceive third space as an alternative to the dual model of intercultural communication, and depict the FL classroom as a third space in which learners on both sides of two cultures develop their ability to negotiate the differences. Kramsch develops this aim of the concept further:

> Rather than seek to bridge differences and aim for the universal, it seeks to create a dialogic context in which the vital necessity to continue the dialogue ensures a mutual base to explore the sometimes irreducible differences between people's values and attitudes (1996, p. 7).

Not far from the third space metaphor, Third Culture (TC) has also received a growing attention in the intercultural dialogic pedagogy. The TC model entails, according to Holmes (2005) that a learner from culture A and another from culture B notice differences and uncertainty in the two cultures and both begin to construct culture C, third culture (TC), based on their discovered similarities. Thus, TC, Holmes proceeds, is constructed by both or all participants who are involved in the process of cross-cultural communication to explore mutual goals and common concerns and who are urged to put off judgment and bias while they engage in TC.

Conclusion

The interest in culture as an imperative element in FL teaching arises from the long debates bond between language and culture. It has been revealed in this chapter that because culture has become the object of inquiry for a growing number of disciplines, there is little consensus about its accurate connotations as each discipline yields a definition of the concept from its own perspectives. As such, attempting to provide a definition of culture suitable for the FL teaching context is actually a thorny task a researcher may engage in. Still, it is necessary to highlight a number of issues central to the conceptualization of culture as these oversee decisions concerning its inclusion into FL teaching. In an increasingly globalized world, intercultural competence has become a pre-requisite to language learning. An EFL learning situation, especially one that encompasses a cultural model entirely distinct from the English speakers cultural one (such as the Arab culture) would represent a genuine context to test intercultural theory. For that to happen, a more intercultural approach to curriculum is required whereby the inclusion of both the FL culture (English speaking) and the students' native one (Arabic) one is necessary and would constitute an awareness raising strategy. Such an inclusion has to move beyond static conceptualizations of culture to more dynamic ones and has to reflect not only the 'culture with big C' attitude but also the 'culture with small c' one.

Chapter Two

Teaching Writing in English as Foreign Language

Introduction

It is widely accepted that writing is one of the most difficult skills to learn and to teach whether in one's mother tongue or in any second/ foreign language learning context. The ability to write is not as naturally, unconsciously acquired as part of one's socialization process as the speaking skill is. Rather, it is the result of a conscious, learning process. The difficulty increases further when the target language belongs to a culture that is distant from one's native one. The coming lines encompass a review of the literature related to the writing skill with the aim to define it, understand its complexity and review the general principles of its teaching with a particular focus on the EFL context.

2.1. The Act of Writing

Writing is an everyday communicative act which pervades people's personal and professional lives at varying degrees. It plays a significant role in personal and professional life. Thus, acquiring or learning any given language necessitates learning its written system. Primarily, the nature of the skill itself supplies considerable issues. Writing, is a too recent invention, as the "oldest records reach back a bit more than ten thousand years at best, while language must have evolved hundreds of thousands of years ago" (Coulmas, 2003, p.10). Then, writing was for a long time considered as a desirable skill for a quite limited minority. Moreover, the ability to write is not as naturally, unconsciously acquired as part of one's socialization process as the speaking one. Rather, it is the result of a conscious, learning process. Yet, the use of writing transcends the everyday communicative action to express several personal, social and professional functions other than plain communication. For instance, it is employed to 'keep in touch' (e.g. by letter), to record facts, thoughts or feelings (e.g. as a memory aid such as a shopping list or reminders; as an emotional release such as a diary or a personal journal), to take notes in meetings or lectures, to expose ideas such as academic essays or articles, etc., (Chandler, 1995).While most of everyday life personal writing necessitates little composing; academic writing, involves a great deal of composing and therefore has been a major area of scrutiny of a huge bulk of empirical studies, particularly in the domain of language leaning.

2.1.1. The Cognitive, Socio-cultural Nature of Writing

Basically, the scientific concern with academic writing has led to an evolution in the understanding of the writing skill and to more recognition of its complexity. Traditionally,

writing was not considered the main object of linguistic research. For De Saussure (1959, p.23; cited in Coulmas, 2003, p.10), "language and writing are two distinct systems of signs; the second exists for the sole purpose of representing the first. The linguistic object is not both the written and the spoken forms of words; the spoken forms alone constitute the object". However, modern researchers of writing are no more satisfied with the traditional simplistic conceptions of writing as recording spoken language into written symbols or using graphic codes to represent words and sentence as a means of communication. Coulmas (2003) as well refuses reducing it to speech and rejects Saussure's view of writing as "an imperfect, distorted image of speech" which "obscures our view of language and its structure." (p.16)

Currently, writing is rather seen as a thinking process in its own right which requires both intellectual effort and time to be bettered (White and Arndt, 1993). Coulmas notes that because of the different roles it has in our life and because of its long history, six meanings of 'writing' can be identified as:

(1) a system of recording language by means of visible or tactile marks; (2) the activity of putting such a system to use; (3) the result of such activity, a text; (4) the particular form of such a result, a script style such as block letter writing; (5) artistic composition; (6) a professional occupation". (2003, p.1)

For Flower and Hayes (1981), the act of composing is a cognitive, highly goal-oriented, non-linear recursive process during which writers manipulate various distinctive, hierarchical thinking stages such as generating or planning, translating, and reviewing; each of these processes can be embedded within any other stage. Further, the writing process cannot be isolated from its context.

In view of this interactive conception of writing, cognition and context are integrated, according to three principles. First, "cultural and social context can provide direct cues to cognition; second is that context is always *mediated by* the cognition of the individual writer; and third is that the bounded purposes that emerge from this process are highly constrained but the same time meaningful, creative constructs" (Flower, 1989,p.3). In the same vein, Zamel (1983) points to non-linear, recursive and complex nature of writing. She concludes that writing is an act of discovering and making meaning, in which " ideas are explored, clarified, and reformulated, and as this process continues, new ideas suggest themselves and become assimilated into the developing pattern of thought" (p.166). Urqhart and McLever (2005) also demonstrate how writing has become seen as an intellectual activity and a method

of learning and instruction, so when teaching/learning it "students should learn strategies for invention and discovery, and teachers should help students generate content and discover purpose" (p.5).

2.1.2. Writing in Foreign Language Learning Contexts

Writing is often identified by EFL learners as their major trouble. As a matter of fact, a FL student may have a good command of the grammatical system and an excellent control of the sentence structure, but s/he may not be able to compose good texts (Kaplan, 1988). This is particularly true because writing is an arduous skill which requires the manipulation of many variables and the demonstration of many skills at the same time not only at the sentence level, such as the mastery of sentence structure, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling and letter formation, but also beyond the sentence level such as the ability "to structure and integrate information into cohesive and coherent paragraphs and texts" (Nunan, 1989, p.36)). In other words, composing texts calls for several other skills such as generating ideas about a given topic which requires knowledge of the world, organizing these ideas along their appropriate rhetorical patterns and rhetorical conventions of written texts which implies genre knowledge and communicating the ideas appropriately so as to avoid misunderstanding or miscommunication which requires cross-cultural knowledge (Bourouba, 2012). Therefore, differences in language structures, writing conventions as well as cultural variables would contribute to make the FL writer's task even more complicated than his L1 writing task.

Writing has always been part of a language syllabus. It has an importance position in EFL Teaching /learning for the variety of ways and purposes it can be used to teach the language. In addition, it expresses social relationships through discourse. To this effect, Hyland states "writing is one of the main ways that we create a coherent social reality through engaging with others" (2003, p. 69). Two major purposes for (teaching) writing in EFL can be retained: writing-for-learning and writing-for-writing.

2.1.2.1. Writing-for-learning

Writing-for-learning is the kind of writing teachers do to help students learn language or to test them on that language. Harmer (1998) mentions that this type of writing is done for three main purposes:

(1)   Reinforcement: The visual expression of language helps learners' understand and memorize the construction the new language form. For example, teachers find it

useful to ask students to write sentences usinga new language form with the aim not to train students to write, but rather to help them remember the language form.

(2)   Language development: The actual process of writing (in fact just like the one speaking) helps us to learn as we go. The mental activity we have to go through to construct proper written texts is all part of the ongoing learning experience. Krashen (2004) too believes that writing can be a means to improving our cognitive structures

(3)   Learning style: writing can provide different learning styles especially for learners who find it difficult to learn through the oral skill. Writing is can be a means to retention for such students as they feel more secure in writing rather than be obligated to deal with immediate face-to-face communication.

3.1.2.2. Writing-for-writing

The most important reason for teaching writing, however, is to teach it as a basic skill just like the other language skills. The ultimate objective is to help students become better writers and to learn how to write in various genres using different registers. When teachers ask students to design a good magazine advertisement, however, they are doing this so that they may become good at writing advertisements. Harmer (2004) argues that although it is important to teach matters like punctuation and orthography, teaching writing is more complex, and it should focus on how to make the writer communicate real messages in an appropriate manner

2.2. Approaches to Teaching Writing

Teaching writing in EFL classes is a discipline that has long been influenced by insights gained from L1 writing research. The latter has in turn witnessed the impact of several factors upon teaching including mainly philosophical stances on the relation between language and mind, the role of individuals in society, the goals of writing, and the nature of education. (Williams, 2003) In this context, several typologies of approaches to teach writing have emerged and received thorough debates in the literature. Raimes, (1983) talked about the controlled-to-free approach, the free-writing approach, the paragraph-pattern approach, the grammar-syntax organization approach, the communicative approach, and finally the process approach. Silva (2000), on the other hand, considers that the four most influential approaches in ESL writing instruction are the controlled approach, the current-traditional rhetoric, the

process approach and the social approach. The following discussion reviews the most commonly referred to approaches in the EFL writing literature.

2.2.1. The Product-Orientated Approach

Product based approaches are mainly concerned with the end product more than the process of writing. That is, the focus is on "the end result of the learning process – what it is that the learner is expected to be able to do as a fluent and competent user of the language" (Nunan, 1991, p. 86). They stress knowledge about the structure of language, and regard writing development as mainly the result of the imitation of texts provided by the teacher (Badger and White, 2000). Such a focus is justified by Nunan who writes:

> the belief is that before students can be expected to write coherent paragraphs, they should have mastered language at the level of the sentences. Writing classes should therefore be devoted in the first instance to sentence formation and grammar exercises (1991, p. 87).

Learning to write according to a product based approach is perceived as identifying and internalizing organizational pattern. Compositions were, according to Brown (2001, p. 335) to "(a) meet certain standards of prescribed English rhetorical style, (b) reflect accurate grammar, and (3) be organized in conformity with what the audience would consider to be conventional".

In this approach, learning to write has four stages (Badger and White, 2000) whereby students engage in activities in which they would imitate, copy and transform model passages 1) The familiarization stage intends to make learners aware of the main features of a particular text. So, in an EFL writing classroom, students read the model text and identify its distinctive features including the organization of ideas, the use of language and mechanics of writing. 2) During the controlled writing, learners carry out controlled activities to practice the features identified in the model text.3) In the guided writing stage, learners try to imitate the model text by organizing a collection of pre-set thoughts to suit the model; 4) finally in the free writing stage, students use the writing skills, sentence structures and various level of vocabulary in order to compose a text as part of a genuine activity such as a letter, story or essay writing.

The product approach has been popular among many EFL teachers for the undeniable advantages it affords. For instance, students start learning how to use particular pattern-

product methods in writing systematically, especially in writing narrative descriptive and persuasive essays. Consequently, the adoption of model-based approach would be significant in teaching students such conventions. In addition, students learn to correct vocabulary and various sentence patterns for these text types and improve students' grammatical awareness. However, Raimes (1983), among other scholars, criticized imitation of models for inhibiting writers rather than liberating them and offering them few opportunities to add thoughts or ideas of their own. Similarly, Nunan (1991) finds that the bottom-up approach to language processing and production, which is the main trait of the product approach, "doesn't marry so happily with the more contemporary view of language and learning which concentrated more on language at the discourse level" (Nunan, 1991, p.87).

2.2.2. The Process Approach

The Process-Oriented Teaching is mainly influenced by the process approach that emerged with Emig's (1971). In order to respond to purely formal views of writing, proponents borrowed the techniques and theories of cognitive psychology and first Language composition to refine the ways we understand and teach writing. Emig (1971; cited in Williams, 2003) looked at what professional writers and students did when they wrote. It was found that good writers concentrated on ideas rather than on correctness. Emig's (1983) description of composing as 'recursive', rather than as a continuous, left-to-right Pre-writing---Writing---Post-writing activity, evokes the view of writing as basically individual problem-solving (cited in Hyland, 2003). Consequently, it intends to construct cognitive models of what writers do when they write.

Flower (1989) too admits that process writing developed as a reaction to the product approach to meet the need to match the writing processes inherent in writing in one's mother tongue, and consequently allow learners to express themselves better as individuals. Nunan (1991) notices that "competent writers do not produce final texts at their first attempt, but that writing is a long and often painful process, in which the final texts emerges through successive drafts" (p. 87)

A typical process model incorporates four stages: prewriting; composing/drafting; revising; and editing. But the process has a rather recursive nature wherein writers do not necessarily engage in these activities in that order; they may go back to pre-writing activities, for instance, after doing some editing or revising (Trimmer, 1995). Williams (2003) proposes a phase model, to highlight better this recurring nature. Water, Williams illustrates, has three

dominant states—liquid, vapor, and solid—but it is always in a state of flux between states. Thus, water in a liquid state is turning into vapor through evaporation; water in a solid state is turning into both vapor and liquid. Similar to water, Williams explains:

> The composing process also may be thought of as having dominant states— planning, drafting, revising, and so on—but these states can be understood to be in a state of recurrent flux. On this account, students revise as they draft; they plan as they edit; and so forth. A phase model has the advantage of describing the simultaneous and recurrent nature of the composing process; planning, drafting, and editing may occur more or less simultaneously and in a recurrent manner (2003, p.120).

So, instead viewing writing as a reproduction of previously learned syntactic or discourse structures, the process-based approach regards writing as a process of developing organization as well as meaning. Invention strategies, multiple drafts, and formative feedback- both from the teacher from peers- have become important components of writing instruction in FL classrooms (Matsuda, 2003b). Consequently, writing in process approaches focuses more on linguistic skills, such as planning and drafting, less on linguistic knowledge, such as knowledge about grammar and text structure. Novice writers, for instance, are encouraged to put their ideas on paper in any form without getting too much concerned about formal correctness (Nunan, 1991). At the same time, this approach views writing a thinking process (Trimmer, 1995; Brown, 2001). That is why teachers are advised to give learners time to write. To this effect, Brown claims that "the process approach is an attempt to take advantage of the nature of the written code (unlike conversation, it can be planned and given number of revisions before its release) to give students a chance to think as they write" (Brown, 2001, p. 336). The teacher in process approaches is mainly a facilitator of learners' writing. And whereas providing input or models is not very important, collaborative group work between learners is significantly encouraged as a way to boost motivation and promote positive attitudes towards writing (Nunan, 1991). Another important trait of the process approach is that feedback is provided, by both the teacher and peers, on the various drafts throughout the composing process, not just on the final product. In addition, it advocates conferencing between teacher and students as an essential teaching and feedback activity during the writing process. In sum, the approach advocates the use of various classroom activities such as pre-writing activities, entails multiple drafts, calls for extensive feedback, promotes peer review, and defers formal correction.

Still, although process approaches have become popular and been extremely influential in the evolution of FL writing by raising awareness about the complexity of the writing process, they did not actually escape criticism. Hyland (2003) notes that there is no enough evidence that they actually bring about major improvements of writing in FL contexts. Badger and White (2000) also argue that process approaches:

> often regard all writing as being produced by the same set of processes; that they give insufficient importance to the kind of texts writers produce and why such texts are produced; and that they offer learners insufficient input, particularly in terms of linguistic knowledge, to write successfully (p. 157).

In addition, they have proved to be time consuming too much focusing on the process and neglecting structures and grammar.

2.2.3. The Genre Approach

Genre theory has been distinct through its strong pedagogic significance. Hyland (2003) defines genre theory as "a socially informed theory of language offering an authoritative pedagogy grounded in research on texts and contexts, strongly committed to empowering students to participate effectively in target situations" (p.27). He adds that learning is based on explicit awareness of language, rather than through experiment, and exploration is at the heart of genre pedagogy and further defines genre as:

> Abstract, socially recognized ways of using language. It is based on the assumptions that the features of a similar group of texts depend on the social context of their creation and use, and that those features can be described in a way that relates a text to others like it and to the choices and constraints acting on text producers. Language is seen as embedded in (and constitutive of) social realities, since it is through recurrent use of conventionalized forms that individuals develop relationships, establish communities, and get things done (Hyland, 2003, p. 21).

From the above definition, genres are recurring and decipherable chunks of communication with specific communicative purposes and particular features to achieve those purposes. As a matter of fact, each genre comprises a set of organizational structure according to those communicative purposes as well as sets of linguistic features.

Though relatively newcomers to ELT, genre approaches bear major similarities with product approaches and can even be considered as an extension of product approaches (Badger and White, 2000). Accordingly, genre approaches see writing as essentially concerned with knowledge of the language in the same way as product approaches do; however, contrarily to the latter, they highlight the fact that writing varies with the social context in which it is produced. An essential feature in genre analysis is purpose; different types of writing or genres, such as letters or reports are used to carry out different purposes.

A genre approach seeks to expose how writers achieve their social purposes by using various structural forms, constructing different focuses and manipulating topics and readers by using various linguistic devices (Wang, 2006). This is usually done through three stages, which resemble too much those in product approaches: 1) a model of a particular genre is first introduced and analyzed; 2) learners perform some practices to manipulate relevant language forms; and at last 3) they produce a short text (Dudley-Evans, 1997; cited in Badger and White, 2000). In this context, six main text types are commonly identified though texts in each genre may be purely of one type or a blend of more than one type: narratives which tell a story, recounts which describe events, instructions which tell the reader what to do, explanations which explain how or why something happens, and expository texts which present or argue viewpoints. The genre approach embraces explicit instruction of those types of texts in various contexts and seeks to allow students at a first step identify linguistic features of texts and then use this knowledge to build their whole own texts (Hyland, 2003). The use of model texts and the idea of analysis suggest that the approach views learning as both a question of imitation and a matter of understanding and consciously applying rules (Badger and White, 2000). In addition, within the frame work of this approach, learners are provided with effective means to both access and critique cultural and linguistic input. It affords rhetorical understanding of texts and metalanguage to analyze them and allow students to see texts as artifacts that can be explicitly questioned, compared and deconstructed which would contribute to the promotion of their critical thinking as well (Hyland, 2002).

Although genre approaches are praised, for they acknowledge that writing takes place in a social situation, and is a reflection of a particular purpose, and they understand that learning can happen consciously through imitation and analysis, they have been accused of underestimating the skills needed to produce a text and seeing learners as largely passive (Badger and White, 2000).

2.2.4. Post Process Approaches

The post process approach to teaching writing has come into being not as a rejection of the process movement, but as its extension. Ryu (2003, p. 130) notes that "as the name indicates it any firm successor of process approach has not emerged yet". Moreover, the post-process trend does not represent a unified theoretical front, but it is defined by Matsuda, (2003b) as "the rejection of the dominance of process at the expense of other aspects of writing and writing instruction" (p. 78-9). To make it clearer, Matsuda (2003b) for example, refuses the supremacy of the process approach at the expense of other aspects of writing and recognizes the multiplicity of L2 writing theories and pedagogies.

2.2.4.1. Process genre-based approach

An example of the post process approach is represented in the process-genre approach to teaching writing. Badger and White (2000) devised an approach to teaching writing informed by a synthesis of three approaches: product, process, and genre. They argue that each of the three approaches complements the other. Their approach views writing as a series of stages derived from a certain situation to produce a text. Consequently, process genre-based approach is a combination of all the three above; it focuses on the process of writing, taking into account knowledge of the social context and purposes of text in genre writing and observes features of texts as in product-based approach. When learners lack knowledge, the teacher, other learners, and examples of the target genre can be used as potential sources. The teacher's role in this approach provides the required knowledge and skills to his/her students to facilitate their progress.

2.2.4.2. Process product approach

As a matter of fact, an approach can be more useful than another in some circumstances, yet it may have some disadvantages that can only be compensated by the advantages of others. Focusing on the end product alone will marginalize the process of writing. That is why, many writing researchers and practitioners are growingly advocating the view that both process and product approaches are significant in teaching writing and suggest the blending of a process and product approaches to teach writing. Palpanadan et al (2014) point to the significance of getting students involved in the composing process (the process approach) and at the same time providing them with models (the product approach) for analysis and discussion as a guide to how the schematic structure of the written discourse. Employing this

approach helps to develop students writing skills by mastering product approach prior to process approach. The product approach is necessary for a student to be able to realize the competence level required according to the task, age and maturity to master writing mechanics and get familiar with sample texts or model essays. Then, the process approach is essential to students, for it enables them produce ideas in an inclusive manner and helps them organize their thoughts in a systematic way, leading them subsequently to write fluently in a language which other than their first one. Rouissi (2015) adds that achieving a balance between the process and the product is not only necessary to investigate the various aspects of students' writing, but also necessary in EFL instruction since it enables EFL learners to transfer the skills they have gained.

2.3. Evaluation and Assessment of Writing

Assessing students' writing ability has received much attention from researchers, teachers and educators at all levels. There has been a growing interest in the methods used to measure, evaluate, and predict writing skills. Like the teaching writing methods and approaches, what criteria to use and how to rate students' writing do not seem to be a matter of agreement.

2.3.1. Assessment Vs. Evaluation

In everyday exchanges, many teachers often use the terms assessment and evaluation interchangeably. This is also true in a large bulk of the writing related literature; however, distinctions are made in the technical literature. Williams (2003) notes that:

> As*sessment* designates four related processes: deciding what to measure, selecting or constructing appropriate measurement instruments, administering the instruments, and collecting information. *Evaluation,* on the other hand, designates the judgments we make about students and their progress towards achieving learning outcomes on the basis of assessment information. (p. 297)

According to Urqhart and Mclever (2005), measurement is composed of two separate and different components: assessment and evaluation. Accordingly, assessment is gathering information to meet the particular needs of a student, and evaluation is judging the information that results. Having children retell a story they read is an example of assessment because it is an informal way to gather information about a student's needs. Brown (2001) observes that assessment occupies wider domain in teaching; whenever a learner answers a

question, presents a comment or tries a new word or structure, the teacher makes an assessment of the student's performance.

However, standardized tests are classified as evaluation because the resulting test scores represent a formal judgment. Urqhart and Mclever (2005) add a further distinction among the terms *assessment, evaluation,* and *grading.* Assessment, they claim is comprehensive, avoids judgments, and describes what is happening rather than what has happened; evaluation adds judgment and criteria to the process, and grading reduces assessment and evaluation into a symbol. As both contribute the students' final measures of their overall performance in a course (grades), to simplify the distinction of the role of each, Urqhart and Mclever (2005) proposes to think of "evaluation as 'writing-to-demonstrate what was learned' and assessment as 'writing-to-learn'" (p. 27). So, assessment is used as a part of evaluations of programs. Since it is an ongoing process which aims at improving students learning while evaluation is a final result, the tendency in this chapter is to employ assessment, but rather synonymously with evaluation.

2.3.2. Types of Assessment

Tang (2012) reports six functions of assessment which are to capture student time and attention: 1) to capture students time and attention, 2) to generate appropriate student learning activity, 3) to provide timely and constructive feedback, 4) to help students internalize disciplinary standards and notions of quality, 5) to generate grades which distinguish between students and/or which enable pass/fail decisions, and 6) to provide evidence of standards to external bodies. These assessments may be conducted for many purposes, but the ultimate goal is always to improve instruction for each student. Overall, assessment has to be consistent with the general approach adhered to while teaching writing. In this regard, two forms of an assessment are recurrent in the writing class.

2.3.2.1. Product assessment

The traditional approach to writing regarded learning to write as internalizing organizational patterns after identifying them. Students, therefore, are encouraged to imitate model texts provided by the teacher. Imitation of the text comes, of course, after presenting and analyzing it. Thus, in this approach accuracy is given priority and conventions of writing are taken from the model. Proponents of this approach view organization of ideas more

important than ideas themselves and features of the genre/ text are highlighted usually in isolation.

Thus, product assessment is often related to the final draft ignoring the process through which learners go to produce this end product. So, a grade is awarded on the paper that very often takes into account learners' mastery of the mechanics of writing. According to Isaacson (1996), any product is regarded as good writing if it shows five product variables: fluency, content, conventions, syntax and vocabulary. Henceforth, analytic scoring could be of considerable relevance to the product model which is being broken up to pieces and scoring rubrics may be set up to cater for what will be evaluated on the students' papers. Isaacson notes that teachers generally pay more attention to surface features of a student's composition related to the mechanical aspects of writing, or conventions whereas a more balanced assessment should look at all five aspects of a student's writing

2.3.2.2. Process assessment

The evaluation of writing in a process-oriented classroom is a thorny issue. Brown (2001) raises an important question the teacher is a guide and a facilitator of students' performance during the process of writing, how can he/she also be the judge? And what is he/she going to judge? In contrast to assessment in the product approach which considers only students' final compositions, in process assessment much focus is on the stages students go through when they write. Fluency, within the framework of this approach is stressed rather than accuracy. Isaacson (1996) argues that the process of writing can be assessed by checking the strategies that students employ at different stages of writing, and he suggests the POWER model which is a 5-step writing process that stands for plan, organize, write, edit and revise. Accordingly, the sub-stages of each of these five stages are the strategies used for writing.

2.3.2.4. Responding to students' writing and providing feedback

Most teachers often complain that correcting students' writing is a time-consuming task. As a result, many of them dislike correcting students' writing. Some scholars have used various techniques to make the correcting task less arduous. Al Buainain, (2006) discusses two methods for editing/correcting students writing commonly used by FL writing teachers: (1) to write corrections on the paper, using a red pen to make them clearly visible; (2) and a "more effective method" (p. 9) which is to write lengthy comments explaining grammar

points, rising questions concerning meaning and logical development, suggesting alternative wording, and reorganizing text.

In their quest to best respond and support L2 writers, writing teachers and researchers are no more satisfied with traditional models of writing teaching to address L2 writers' linguistic, social, and cognitive needs (Silva, 1987). Currently, FL writing research is showing more concern with the kinds of written feedback students receive and the latter's reactions to the comments given. More importantly, much research is undertaken to explore more effective methods of written feedback to maximize learners' benefit for L2 writing development. In this context, the most common method for responding to student writing is commenting on their written papers. Alamis, (2010) argues that this method indicates to the students what needs to be revised or changed in their writing. She also considers that "the absence of comments sends the message to students that they do not need to revise their text because their meaning has been communicated effectively to the audience" (p. 41). Consequently, the type of feedback a teacher gives will influence their students' approach to the process of writing. In this context teachers' responses to students' writing can be categorized into two types: those concerned with language correctness and those related with ideas expression and organization.

2.3.2.4.1. Correcting language

Teachers need to be cautious about the amount of comments provided. Seeing a piece of written work back covered in red ink, underlining and crossing outs could be very disappointing for students may find it, for this would simply tell them their writing is terrible. To avoid the 'over correction' problem and to make the correcting task efficient and productive, Harmer (2004) suggests a list of effective techniques for writing teachers to choose from:

a)   Selective correction: the teacher may not need to correct everything but select for each writing task particular aspects to correct such as punctuation, grammar, spelling, etc.,

b)   Using making scales: teachers my give marks for each aspect of writing so that if students may fall down on some aspects (for example, grammar) they can still do well in other aspects (for example, paragraph organization)

c)   Using correction symbols: teachers may employ lists of written symbols to signal mistakes on student papers,

d)   Reformulation: Sometimes, reformulation is the best way to show students how they could write something more correctly

e)   Referring students to a dictionary or a grammar book to deal with a mistake in their writing.

f)   Ask me: Sometimes teachers need to talk with students about their mistakes

Finally, the above techniques would be worthless if students are not urged to redraft their written works correctly (Harmer, 1998). In addition, remedial teaching is necessary in case a mistake or a writing problem is repeatedly observed among many students (Harmer, 2004).

2.3.2.4.2. Responding to ideas

Responding to students writing has to do with responding to their ideas and how they put them across. Providing feedback in this case can be done either by the teacher or by other peers in the writing class. Harmer (2004) suggests a set of techniques that can be used by teachers and that are deemed to be useful for providing feedback on students writing and responding to their ideas.

a) Responding to work-in-progress: teachers need to be involved with work-in-progress to talk with students about their work while they are actually writing and provide comments for them if necessary.

b) Responding by written comments: Written comments on submitted drafts need to contain positive feedback. That is to say, comments that are encouraging and helpful rather than judgmental. They may combine positive comments such as "I enjoyed your draft composition very much. I liked the description of your … In some way they are the most interesting part of the story" while 'negative' responses may take the form of pieces of advice such as " I have one or two suggestions to make. How about starting the composition with that description of …" (Harmer, 2004, p. 113)

c) Post task statements are comments on the final product. These can be useful for students in the future assignments

d) Taped comments, as an alternative for face-to-face feedback, offer the teacher the opportunity to be more expansive than in written response and provide the learner with more personal feedback.

e) Electronic comments are increasingly employed by teachers with the rise of the technological devices of internet and development of social media. As far as the latter technique is concerned, the recent world-wide health crisis has brought up the need for such type of feedback, either via emails or text editing programs, and proved that such a technique can provide efficient outcomes.

In addition to all these teacher-centered techniques, peer review can be an additional useful technique. With the appropriate teacher's guidance, peer feedback may bring a valuable experience to writing class, for it is less authoritarian than teacher review, it encourages collaborative work and reduces self-reliance in the editing stage.

2.4. Factors Affecting English as a Foreign Language Writing Development

Learning to write in a language is repeatedly reported to be an arduous task in the foreign language contexts. These difficulties are apparent throughout the whole process of writing starting from the generation and organization of ideas to the conversion of these ideas into legible passages, using adequate lexical selections, grammatical structures, mechanical forms and discourse patterns. Though the frequency and the number of those problems vary among learners with regard to their level of proficiency and might decrease with appropriate writing instruction, some writing major skills and sub-skills, such as mastery of certain discourse and organizational patterns, continue to present challenges to FL learners until advanced stages of the FL learning process (Ahmed, 2011) .

Reviewing the literature, three main sets of factors have been identified and ascribed as affecting the development of EFL students' writing (Ahmed, 2011; Khenchali, 2017). The first category of factors comprises learning-related factors such as some psychological factors, students' English proficiency level, and students' prior knowledge. The second group of factors includes instructional-related factors which deals with teaching large classes, different strategies to teaching writing, feedback and assessment practices. The last category of factors refers to the socio-cultural factors affecting students' writing development like L1 cultural and linguistic interference in English writing. While teachers often spend enormous time focusing on the first category, they usually tend to superficially, if ever, tackle the second category and most often fail to sense the existence or the significance of the third one.

2.4.1. Learning-related Factors

The leaning-related factors include two types of factors: psychological and proficiency level.

2.4.1.1. Psychological factors

Psychological factors affecting ES/FL learning in general and ES/FL writing in particular have been subject of a wide range of research. Findings of this kind of research have identified a number of psychological factors which may have an significant impact on student's ES/FL writing development. These include mainly students' motivation, self-confidence, writing anxiety as well as a number of factors responsible for students' negative writing apprehension.

Motivation is one of the complicated issues in FL/SL teaching/learning processes. Interest in the psychological conceptualization of motivation and attempts to define and apply the construct in the classroom date back to the 1970s. Basically, motivation refers to the internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something. Khenchali (2017) reports that there are two questions that language teachers frequently pose to the writing skill: 1) why are students so often not motivated to write?, and 2) how can their motivation to write be increased? Bacha (2002) highlights that low motivation levels can be very difficult and unrewarding for both learners and teachers. Bacha (2002) claims that EFL writers are known to face problems in developing their writing skills at the university level. These problems are even more stressed with L1 Arabic non-native speakers of English in required English composition courses. That is why, Harmer (2003) states that one of the chief roles of teachers in writing tasks is to motivate learners, create the right conditions for the generation of ideas persuade them of the usefulness of the activity and encourage them to make as much efforts as possible.

Another psychological factor that affects students' writing development is **self-confidence**. Albertson (2006; cited in Ahmed, 2011) claims that students who had confidence in their abilities to learn or try new methods, appeared to adjust more quickly than those who had little confidence in their literacy practices. Ahmed (2011) reports that writing multiple drafts, accent placed on the publication of students' work, and teacher's comments that stressed more content and organization than grammatical error helped learners produce better pieces of writing and develop more self-confidence in writing. Harmer (2003) claims that students may be unconfident and unenthusiastic to write because of lack of practice even in

the mother tongue or lack of background or topic knowledge and information (having nothing to say). That is why, he suggests to develop self-confidence in their students through building the "writing habit" (p. 239).

In addition to motivation and self confidence, **writing anxiety** may affect negatively both the learners' motivation and academic achievement and teachers' attitudes towards writing. It has been shown that high apprehensive writers, in comparison with other low apprehensive writers, tend to stop more while composing and are less concerned with planning the overall structure of their essays than the low apprehensive ones (Ahmed, 2011). Hassan (2001) conducted a study on 132 Egyptian EFL students to determine if both "writing apprehension" of EFL university students are related to the quality and quantity of their writing. He concluded that students with low apprehension wrote better quality pieces of writing than those with high apprehension.

2.4.1.2. EFL and MT proficiency level

Proficient learners of English are usually said to produce good quality pieces of writing. Reviewing composing processes literature, Cumming (2001) demonstrates that skilled SL learners performed better at the micro-level, searching for appropriate words and paying attention to language forms. Similarly, at the macro level, more proficient FL learners tend to do more effective and extensive planning, either prior or while composing, revising and editing of their texts than do their less skilled counterparts.

Other researchers have addressed the extent to which students' mother tongue proficiency affects their English writing. They claim that students who are proficient in L1 writing perform better in L2 writing. Dweik and Abu-Al-Hommos (2007) who investigated the influence of Arabic proficiency on the English writing of bilingual-Jordanian students showed that there was a significant relationship between the two languages highlighting that proficient students in Arabic writing performed well in English writing. However, it is important to note that not all studies approve this assumption, and some studies have concluded that students' writing ability is not related to their proficiency of the language or content. Bart and Evans (2003; cited in Ahmed, 2011), for instance reveal that students' possession of content knowledge did not significantly correlate with their writing proficiency. Similarly, Raimes (2006; cited in Ahmed, 2011) showed that there was little correspondence between language proficiency, writing ability, and the students' composing strategies.

2.4.1.3. Role of reading

Reading is a useful tool to improve students writing for it is the study of what is written. Krashen (2004) asserts that reading plays a significant role in developing the writing competence. Reading is important to enhance students' prior knowledge. The two skills go hand-in-hand, and one cannot function without manipulating the second; people often read to get, both consciously and/ or unconsciously, the information they need to include in their writing. This means that, when the students read, they engage actively with the new language and culture. Therefore, prior knowledge plays an essential role in activating students' minds in both reading and writing. Students' schema is much affected by what they read, why they read it, and what genre they are mainly interested in. Adequate schemata can be facilitating to learning. Ahmed (2011) reviewed research findings showing that comprehension and composition are hindered if a reader or writer lacks adequate background knowledge about text structure, topics, and ideas. Reading provides writers with knowledge of the language of writing, the grammar, vocabulary, and discourse style writers use (Krashen, 2004). So, gaining well-developed background knowledge results in making learners write interesting essays about interesting topics. In addition, reading affects learners' leaning and confidence as far as producing written texts is concerned (Ahmed, 2011). That is why an integrated instruction of reading and writing, involving actually the simultaneous teaching of both skills is highly recommended to facilitate the acquisition of both skills in a TL.

2.4.2. Educational Factors

Educational policies can have an effect on the learner's writing problems (El-Sadig Ezza, 2010). In the main, educational factors regarding the L2 writing instruction such as the method, evaluation, correction as well as feedback do play a paramount role in shaping the EFL writing development.

2.4.2.1. Instruction models

Actually, what should be regarded as 'appropriate' method in writing instruction has not always been a matter of agreement. The current debate between researchers and teachers on either focusing on the written product that students produce or focusing on the creative processes of writing seems everlasting. Yet, an increasing consensus is being reached on the idea that "good writing instruction is student-centered and process-oriented without losing sight of quality writing products" (De Jong and Harper, 2005, p.108). That is why, the modern

tendency in SL/FL writing practice, mostly L1 methodology mimicry, is towards process-oriented instruction. Zamel (1983) argues in favour of process-oriented L2 instruction and provides evidence on how L2 writers engage in a process of discovering ideas and thoughts as they compose as well as the best forms to express them, and continue to rework their writings over time.

Currently, the process-oriented approach is increasingly advocated in FL writing classes. The approach is appealing to many L2 writing teachers and researchers because of its student-centeredness and major innovative premises such as "asking students to write often, in meaningful contexts, (b) providing frequent feedback on work in progress, and (c) requiring numerous revisions based on that feedback" (Williams, 2003: 101), as well as including teacher-student conferences and peer response in the writing process (Zamel, 1983).

Although the process approach has become more popular than the product approach among L2 writing instructors, it is not always easy to choose the appropriate one for L2 writing instruction. Some researchers have compared the advantages and disadvantages of these two approaches (Matsuda, 2003a; Palpanadan, et al. 2014; Rouissi, 2015) to find out which was the better one. Their results showed that the product approach was suitable for learners of the lower proficiency and the process approach was suitable for those of the higher proficiency. Chen (2006) then suggested we should take proficiency of our students into consideration when selecting an instruction approach.

2.4.2.2.Teachers' methodological attitudes

The writing teacher has many crucial tasks to perform during the FL writing teaching/learning process. The most important tasks that a teacher needs to perform before, during and after students writing are discussed by Harmer (2004):

- **Demonstrating**: teachers have to be able to draw their students' attention to the writing conventions and genre constraints in specific types of writing such lay out issues, language issues, etc.

- **Motivating and provoking**: Teachers have to come to the writing class prepared to provide assistance, help students have ideas, persuading them of the value and fun of the task.

- **Supporting**: Teachers need to be extremely supportive, helpful and always available once students get going, both in ideas and with the means to carry them out.

- **Responding**: involves the teacher reacting to students writing for the purpose of helping them improve their writing. This is done, as mentioned earlier, by providing the necessary supportive feedback, usually in the form of suggestions and advice, about the content, the construction of the piece and the language. The teacher here need not be judgmental nor delivering grades.

- **Evaluating**: Teachers need to evaluate students writing in order to tell both them how well they have done and subsequently award grades. Evaluating students' writing for test purposes, for instance, can be also a learning opportunity, through highlighting students' errors and undertaking remedial tasks.

2.4.2.3. The role of feedback

The role of feedback is crucial for the development of L2 writing not only as learning experience but also as a source for student motivation (Hyland and Hyland, 2006). When students are involved in the reflective process of recognizing their good writing points, understanding their deficiencies, and attempting to find possible remedies, their motivation to engage in subsequent writing tasks may be enhanced. Moreover, they are likely to employ more effective writing actions when they are encouraged and corrected on the spot (Williams, 2003).

Actually, there is a wide range of feedback practices (discussed in an earlier section) at the disposal of teachers like teacher written feedback, peer feedback, oral-conferences, computer-delivered feedback, audio-taped feedback, etc. However, in order to adopt a given feedback mode and make an optimal use of this practice, teachers need to be aware of the focus of their feedback (content and ideas or language and form), the person delivering feedback (teacher or peers) and the form of feedback (written, or oral).

2.4.3. Socio-cultural Factors

Socio-cultural factors denote the context in which both society and culture interact. The development of ESL/EFL writing is influenced by some socio-cultural factors including general attitudes toward the writing skill in addition to the influence of L1 writing habits and patterns and the understanding of the target language socio-cultural background.

2.4.3.1. Influence of L1 writing practices

In studies on the role of L1 in the L2 writing process, researchers have found evidence of the transfer of L1 writing skills and strategies to L2 writing. In this respect, it has been argued that L2 writing is culturally influenced by the rhetorical standards of the writers' L1. The newly approach builds on cognitive principles as regards second language acquisition, that is, the effects of thought patterns across cultures on the organization of written discourse (Kaplan, 1966) which will be discussed with some deatails in the coming chapter. In terms of the factors affecting the writing patterns and the writer identity, Uysal (2008) examines the writing patterns of eighteen Turkish participants' texts. The results revealed that some rhetorical preferences are transferred bidirectionally from L1. However, educational context, L2 level, topic, and audience were reported to account for these patterns and their transfer.

2.4.3.2. Perceptions of the L2 socio-cultural aspects

It has been shown in chapter one how an understanding the socio-cultural aspects of the target language plays a great role in language development. Brown (2001) finds that the FL classroom adds a further dimension which is that of the interaction between culture learning and language learning and cautions teachers that "once students become aware that some of their discouragement may stem from cultural sources they can more squarely address their state of mind and emotion and do something about it" (p. 65). Ahmed (2011) argues in his study that the incomplete understanding of the sociocultural background of the target language might result in certain peculiarities, often seen as errors, which are the result of the contradiction between the Arabic and the English learning cultures. On the whole, Connor (2002) emphasizes that various possible factors influence L2 writing. This will be thoroughly discussed in the subsequent Chapter.

Conclusion

In view of what has been discussed so far, FL writing instruction represents a realm of its own: it has unique characteristics and requirements. Many different psychological, educational and cultural factors interact and play a crucial role in the development of FL writing proficiency and the shaping of final written texts. With the huge spread and development of technological devices such as internet, there is a plethora of English writing instruction resources (textbooks, materials, activities) at the disposal of teachers. However, these would be efficient only if teachers are aware of the special needs of

their specific FL writers so as to adapt their writing instruction to cater for the differences in writing development

Chapter Three

Contrastive / Intercultural Rhetoric and the Study
of Writing in English and Arabic

Introduction

The Finnish researcher in second language writing and intercultural communication Ulla Connor (1996) narrates that as a native of Finland, she could identify herself with some of the stages of ESL learners' development and recalled the 'painful' task of writing term papers in her English graduate studies in Finland. She acknowledges that it was only twenty years later, after earning a Ph.D. and gaining several years of teaching and research experience in Applied Linguistics in the United States that she could think of herself close to the final stage of second language development. However, she admits she still has some 'non-nativeness' in her writing. Coming from such a landmark in the field of ESL as Connor, this declaration adds nothing but more emphasis on the complexity of the ESL learner's writing task.

For the last three decades, research on second language writing has increased and focused on different aspects regarding first language (L1) and second language (L2) writing (Wang and Wen, 2002). Several studies compared L1 and L2 processes, whereas others looked at the use of L1 in L2 writing. L2 writing is different from L1 writing because L2 writers have two languages that they can use "for cognitive operations" (Wang & Wen, 2002, p. 225). This difference attracted many researchers, who then looked at L2 writers' use of L1 in writing, the frequency of using L1, and the effects of using L1 on the overall quality of L2 written texts. Such an interest paved the way to the emergence of a new discipline known as contrastive rhetoric (CR)

3.1. History and Development of Contrastive Rhetoric

Contrastive rhetoric (CR) is an interesting field of investigation for applied linguistics in general and for teachers in particular. In the following lines, a brief history of CR is outlined with the major aim of highlighting the ways in which it might have informed pedagogical practice

3.1.1. Definition of Contrastive Rhetoric

Contrastive Rhetoric (CR) is the comparative study of writing styles across different languages for the sake of identifying and explaining difficulties, and eventually facilitating writing in SL. Connor (1996) defines CR 'as an area of research in second language acquisition that identifies problems in composition encountered by second language writers

and, by referring to the rhetorical strategies of the first language, attempts to explain them (p.5). Accordingly, it is an area of research that maintains (1) that language and writing are cultural phenomena, (2) that each language has its own rhetorical conventions and (3) that the rhetorical conventions of the first language interfere when writing in the second language.

3.1.2. Emergence of Contrastive Rhetoric: Deterministic Version

CR is a relatively recent discipline in comparative linguistics. Attention to the basic differences between L1 and L2 writing processes and the possible role learners' culture and L1 may have on their L2 writing was brought to prominence by Kaplan (1966) which provoked a massive debate on the nature ofL2 writing, the relationship between culture and writing and the role of L1 writing systems. The debate opened new perspectives to the contribution to an L2 writing theory and established CR as new discipline in comparative linguistics.

According to Kaplan (1966), written texts exhibit culture-specific discourse arrangements which in fact reflect differences in thought patterns across cultures, for he argues logic (in the popular, rather than the logician's sense of the word) upon which rhetoric is grounded, is not universal but culturally bound. His assumptions "transferred the traditional Sapir-Whorf hypothesis from the broader area of second-language learning into the specific application of literacy development" (Gonzales, Chen and Sanchez, 2001, p. 419). Kaplan's work came as a reaction to early contrastive studies which were limited to the sentence level (grammar, vocabulary, sentence structure) and launched a new concern with discourse structuring and logical organization of information in a variety of rhetorical traditions (Hinkel, 2003). His objective was to explain why, despite their mastery of vocabulary and syntactical structures, second-language writers have problems organizing their writing in order to meet the English native readers' expectations. So, using the method of text analysis, Kaplan analyzed essays written by students from various linguistic groups and discovered that the English paragraphs composed by these students reflected "thought patterns" typical of their respective native cultures. He consequently concluded that "[e]ach language and each culture has a paragraph order unique to itself" (Kaplan, 1966). Kaplan eventually identified five different paragraph development depicting five different cultural thought patterns: English, Romance, Russian, Oriental, and Semitic and created a graphic representation of each- more known as the 'doodle diagram displayed in **figure 3.1**.
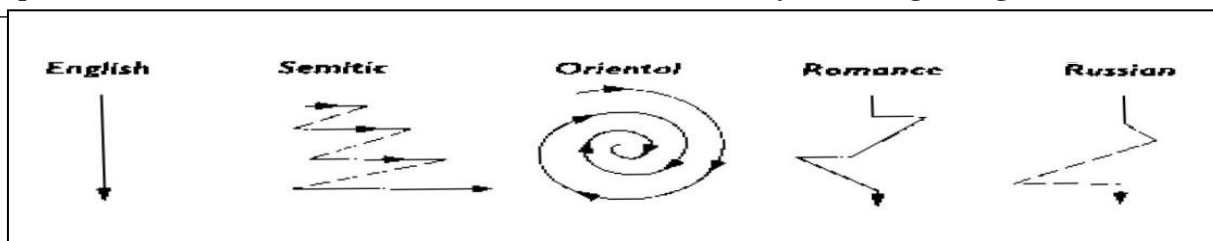
Figure 3.1.Discourse Patterns Diagrams (Kaplan, 1966, p. 21)

For Kaplan,

> The English language and its related thought patterns have evolved out of the Anglo-European cultural pattern. The expected sequence of thought in English is essentially a Platonic-Aristotelian sequence, descended from philosophers of Greece and shaped subsequently by roman, Medieval European, and later Western thinkers. It is not a better nor a worse system than any other, but it is different. (1966, p.12)

He argues that the English paragraph has a linear, ordered and direct pattern of development. It starts with a topic sentence followed by sub-divisions of that topic statement which provide gradually and deductively (or inductively) support using examples and illustrations to the main topic. Latin or Romance writing (French, Spanish, Italian, Greek, and Portuguese) allows quasi-linear digressions from the main topic and value embellished symbolic and metaphoric structures. The Romance logic pattern is also characterized by the use of long sentences and overall length. Next, Asian or oriental writing follows an indirect approach characterized by 'inconclusive' spiral progression of ideas whereby the writer turns around the subject from diverse perspectives but actually never looks at it directly. The topic is revealed by what it is not, not by what it is. Discourse progresses by placing the topic in a larger context through relating it to other ideas. Slightly similar to the Latin rhetoric, Russian writing allows digression or extraneous material; it also favors partial parallelism and subordination. Finally, Arabic (and Semitic languages) proceeds through "a complex series of parallel constructions, both positive and negative" (Kaplan, 1966, p.15) as well as comparison/ contrast to demonstrate ideas. That is, it tends to be based on a series of parallel arrangement of coordinate, rather than subordinate clauses. The Arabic rhetoric exhibits a preference for long sentences made of several almost equal clauses and a frequent use of conjunctions, especially *'wa'* (and). Kaplan (1988) maintained the primary focus of writing in Arabic rests on the language of the text, not on its propositional structure.

3.1.3. Criticism and Modification of Contrastive Rhetoric Theory: Weak Version

Kaplan's work (1966) provoked massive reactions. He was criticized for several issues. First, his study consisted of the analysis of the writing of second-language students that was

still developing their writing skills. Thus, they were not likely to represent the cultural group they belonged to in an accurate way (Connor,1996) since their lack of proficiency in the second language could be intervening. Second, Kaplan (1966) was criticized for linking rhetorical choices and thought patterns in such a straightforward manner as to neglect the fact that rhetorical logic is "socially constructed" (Leki 1997; cited in Colombo, 2012, p.1). Third, he was also questioned for "improperly grouping languages that belong to distinct linguistic families" (Connor, 1997, p. 201), such as Thai and Korean. In addition, Kaplan's CR hypothesis presupposes that the speakers of a language are, in Whorfian terms, "at its mercy" of their native language and are unable to conform to the rhetorical norms of a foreign language (Labidi, 1992). Finally, Kaplan's CR hypothesis was judged for presenting an ethnocentric view which sees and judges other languages through the English language which is just in contradiction with one of its basic assumptions that languages are rhetorically different (Labidi, 1992). Consequently, the English paragraph-patterning was characterized as the most "logical" out of all the others and "by inescapable implication (at least to those who value this version of logic), superior" (Leki 1992, p. 89).

However, despite the criticism that Kaplan's article received, his work is widely recognized for initiating CR studies (Leki, 1992; Connor, 1996; Colombo, 2012) and for opening up the possibilities for a discourse-based analysis of second-language writing (Connor, 1996). Indeed, Kaplan's undeniable legacy was at least to shift the paradigm of SL writing research beyond the sentence-level (lexical and syntactic mattersà to the discourse level and to launch CR as a new discipline with an immense academic and pedagogical potential. The abundant subsequent empirical enterprises aiming at either confirming or rejecting his work did nothing but help to broaden the field. Criticism to his earlier version led Kaplan (1988) to revise his deterministic hypothesis of culture's effect on language into a weaker version, proposing that all the diverse rhetorical ways of thinking may be possible in any written language, but that one cultural thought pattern is preferred due to social, cultural, and linguistic constraints (Gonzales, Chen and Sanders, 2001). Consequently, current CR has shifted from the original assumption that L2 writing reflected L1 thought patterns to the one purporting that L2 displayed "preferential tendencies" of L1 language and culture (Allaei and Connor, 1990). Indeed, various rhetorical modes are possible in any language, but languages usually have certain preferences. In other words, all forms are possible, but they do not have an equal frequency of occurrence. Native speakers have at their disposal a wide range of morpho-syntactic strategies to convey meaning. However, these strategies are mostly socio-

linguistically constrained. When writing in English, L2 writers on the one hand do not possess a complete inventory of all possible target language options, and on the other hand are not aware of constraints on a particular option. As a result, they unconsciously resort to their L1which decides for the rhetorical choices (Abu Radwan, 2012).

3.1.4. From Contrastive Rhetoric to Intercultural Rhetoric

The CR studies were then taken onward by fervent advocates of CR (Connor (2002; 2004; 2008; 2011; 2014), Hinds (1987), Matsuda (1997, 2001), Kotuba, 2004). In recent years, there has been a shift from a CR theory to the Intercultural Rhetoric (from now on IR) theory. The latter refers to "the study of written discourse between and among individuals with different cultural backgrounds" (Connor, 2011 p.2). The new theory presupposes three major principles:

> (1) the study of writing is not limited to texts but needs to consider the surrounding social contexts and practices; (2) national cultures interact with disciplinary and other cultures in complex ways; and (3) intercultural discourse encounters—spoken and written—entail interaction among interlocutors and require negotiation and accommodation (…) IR is "an umbrella term that includes cross-cultural studies (comparison of the same concept in culture one and two) and studies of interactions in which writers with a variety of linguistic, cultural, and social backgrounds negotiate through speaking and writing (Connor, 2011, p.2).

IR inspects the influence of not only first language and culture but also education on writing "with the aim of advancing cross-cultural communication research as well as informing writers, editors, translators, and language and composition teachers and learners, among other users and producers of text." (EL Adani and Bedri, 2017, p.3464). So, the new term "intercultural rhetoric" is employed to describe the current scope of cultural influences in writing and to detonate the direction the field needs to go. To this effect, Davies (2004) writes:

> The investigation of written discourse across cultures has moved beyond a purely linguistic framework concerned with the structural analysis of text to encompass cognitive and sociocultural variables of writing, including the cultural and educational contexts in which text is produced. (p.77)

In addition, intercultural studies ought to be sensitive to processes; context and social situations and consider influences due to both inter-person and inter-culture influences (Connor, 2004). The shift towards intercultural rhetoric is meant to cater for the various possible factors that influence L2 writing, for variation in writing stems in Connor's (2002) words "from multiple sources, including L1, national culture, L1 educational background, disciplinary culture, genre characteristics, and mismatched expectations between readers and writers" (p. 504). Therefore, when studying and teaching writing in a S/FL context, a range of rather overlapping socio-cultural institutions and practices are to be considered in a classroom. This more recent approach applies best to the present research (Although the term CR is used throughout the thesis) which transcends the quantitative corpus-based analysis of text to the consideration of contextual influences of education, socio-cultural attitudes, etc.

3.1.5. Further Developments in Contrastive/ Intercultural Rhetoric

Accompanying its expanding research focus and enriched range of methods, CR/IR is also progressing in its accounting for L1/L2 differences and/or similarities and influential factors in research findings. In fact there is a growing conviction for the need to move away from a purely prescriptive-determinist perception of the L1/L2 relationship implicit in cross-cultural and linguistic explanations and to "avoid explaining all variations by cross-cultural differences", (Xinghua, 2011, p. 63) for there are many other factors at work beneath textual differences. Thus, recent contrastive rhetoric is considering more and more the role of ESL writers' educational background (Xinghua, 2011).

For example, some prominent contributions were brought to the discipline by Hinds (1987), studying more particularly original, non-learner texts in their own language. Focusing on the four-part conventionalized discourse structure in Japanese called ki-sho-ten-ketsu (Hinds, 1987; cited in Connor, 2008, p.7) refers to English as a:

> writer responsible language since the person primarily responsible for effective communication is the writer. However, [Oriental language such as Japanese and Chinese] have a different way of interpreting the communication process: It is the reader's responsibility to understand what the author intends to address.

Gonzales, Chen and Sanders (2001) dismissed the over-emphasis on L1 interference and transfer explanations of students' L2 writing problems. They considered problems with grammar, syntax, and vocabulary as a developmental process. They also considered that

discourse organization develops late and can be influenced by appropriate composition practices in the native language, as well as by educational experience and academic knowledge gained. Finally, they explained negative transfer as a result of the interference of the culture-specific rhetorical organization of the writer's native language. In addition, they suggested other possible explanations for errors in ESL/EFL learners' writing products besides the negative transfer ones. These include

> (a)inadequate knowledge and English skills for expressing or articulating complex and abstract ideas; (b) unfamiliarity with the cultural components of a topic; (c) heavier focus on grammar and syntax level than on the communication of meaning or ideas; and (d) unfamiliarity with the cultural conventions of expository writing in the target or native language (Gonzales et al, 2001, p. 419).

Xinghua, (2011), on the other hand, demonstrates the importance of considering the process of literacy development besides examining ESL students' final output because, he argues, L1 literacy education can indirectly influence foreign language education and ESL learning. Hence, a better knowledge of ESL students' L1 literacy background would help to build effective strategies for the ESL writing classroom.

Overall, recent inclinations in CR research denote textual analysis should no more be the sole focal point, for this might be 'misleading' as the final product (text) alone cannot tell about how it was produced or how the writer went through the task. Inevitably, a new contrastive rhetoric is needed, which:

> considers not only contrast in how people organize texts in different languages, but also other contrasts such as their approach to audience, their perception of the purposes of writing, the types of writing tasks with which they feel comfortable, the composing processes they have been encouraged to develop, and the role writing plays in their education. (Lieberman, 1992, p.142; cited in Xinghua, 2011, p.63)

3.2. Theoretical Foundations of Comparative Rhetoric Theory

As is the case of any newly emerged discipline, CR has been influenced by different existing theories. Connor (1996) summarizes the influence of various theories as applied linguistics, linguistic relativity, rhetoric, text linguistics, discourse analysis, literacy and translation on CR in **Figure 3.2**, adding that altghough the figure may show one-directional influences, there is bidrectionality.

Theory of applied linguistics	→	First language patterns transfer to second language
Theory of linguistic relativity	→	Patterns of language and writing are culture specific
Theory of rhetoric	→	Writing as communication and persuasion is affected by audience
Theory of text linguistics	→	Texts and writing have systematic, analyzable variation
Theory of discourse types and genres	→	Writing is task and situation based and results in discourse types
Theory of literacy	→	Activity of writing is embedded in culture
Theory of translation	→	Texts are translatable across cultures but may take different manifestations

Theory of newly defined contrastive rhetoric

Figure 3.2. Theoretical Influences on CR (Connor, 1996, p. 9)

3.2.1. Theory of Applied Linguistics

Initially, contrastive rhetoric was heavily based on applied linguistic and linguistic text analysis which was mainly oriented towards the exploration of text coherence, cohesion and discourse patterns (Connor, 2002). In fact, contrastive rhetoric finds its defining 'transfer' feature in the theory of applied linguistics which provides it with a theory of language transfer from first language to second language. Equally important, thanks to influence of the linguistic theory, CR research is kept oriented to the applied problems of FL learners. Yet, probably more importantly, the Applied Linguistics theory affords CR with a wide range of linguistic knowledge necessary for its implementation which includes "definitions of levels of language proficiency, relationships among different language skills, measurement of language skills, and variables related to the acquisition and learning of languages" (Connor, 1996, p.10)

More practically, CR transfer inspirations are to be found in the main theories of applied linguistics, namely contrastive analysis, error analysis and interlanguage. Studies on L1 interference in second language acquisition have flourished within the traditional approach of Contrastive Analysis to the contemporary approaches of Error Analysis and Interlanguage Analysis) and the more recent one of Contrastive Rhetoric (Bennui, 2008) as demonstrated in **Figure 3.3**. below.
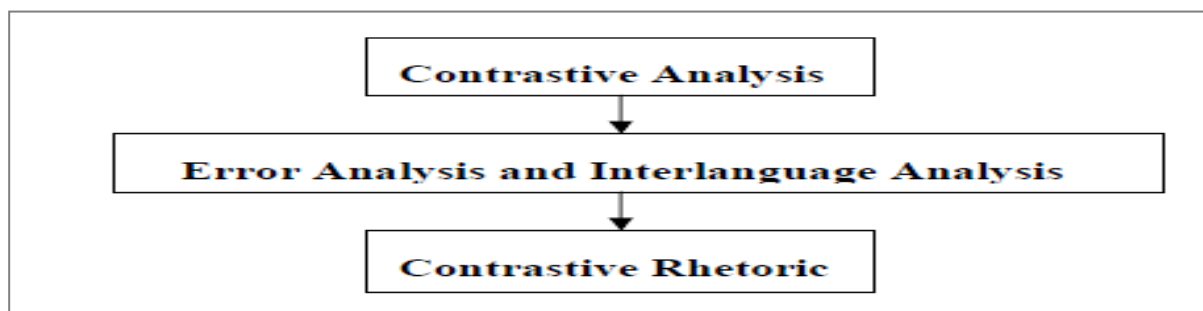
Figure 3.3. The Relationship among the Approaches Used in Studies on

L1 Interference (Bennui, 2008, p.75)

3.2.1.1. Contrastive analysis

Contrastive analysis (CA) is the primary approach used to study L1 transfer and interference. Developed and practiced in the 1950s and 1960s, an era predominated by structural linguistics approaches to language teaching, CA's focal task is the comparison of the linguistic-mainly the phonological and grammatical- systems of the two languages to contribute to the promotion of applied disciplines through, for example, finding solutions to second language instruction problems and translation. It is based on the following assumptions: (i) the main difficulties in learning a new language are caused by interference from the first language or 'language transfer', (ii) such difficulties can be identified by contrastive analysis and (iii) teaching materials can make use of contrastive analysis to eliminate the interference effects (Richards and Schmidt, 2002).

The main premise in this approach is the ability to predict language learning errors thanks to a CA of two languages. Such predictability is related to the degree of similarity between the two languages: when the two languages are similar, positive transfer would happen; when they are different, negative transfer, or interference, would take place. Kaplan (1966) adopted a similar hypothesis in contrastive rhetoric: "If English rhetorical style is different from the rhetorical style of the learner's native language, then there would be a potential learning problem" (Connor, 2008, p. p.5). Thus, Kaplan broadened the concept of

'contrastive' in early CA through applying error analysis procedures to rhetorical forms or structures in the L2 learners' text. Additionally, CR involved a shift from the almost exclusive focus on oral production in traditional contrastive analysis, to the almost exclusive focus in early contrastive rhetoric on the production of written text (Saville-Troike and Johnson, 1994).

3.2.1.2. Error analysis

In the 1960s, Error Analysis (EA), developed as a reaction to Contrastive Analysis failure as a predictive technique. It is a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on the errors learners make. Unlike contrastive analysis where comparison is made with the native language, in error analysis the comparison is made between the errors a learner makes in producing the target language and the target language form itself (Gass and Selinker, 2008, p.102). EA's main claim is that SL learners' errors are caused by many complex factors affecting the learning process that cannot be overlooked by considering only the influence of the native language. These include the target language itself, the communicative strategies used as well as the type and quality of second language instruction (Bennui, 200).Thus, CR was put forward to expand research in second language acquisition using 'contrastive analysis' and 'error analysis' to investigate the L1 influence on SL writing. But rather than focusing on 'grammatical structure' as in CA and EA, CR contrasts discourse structures across cultures and genres such as paragraph organization of ESL essays and examines the influence of students' L1 rhetorical patterns on them.

3.2.1.3. Inter-language theory

Interlanguage (IL) is the type of language produced by S/Fl learners who are in the process of learning a target language. Those learners create a language system (IL) composed of numerous elements, from the NL, the TL and elements that originate in neither the NL nor the TL. This concept validates learners' performances, "not as a deficit system, that is, a language filled with random errors, but as a system of its own with its own structure" (Gass and Selinker, 2008, p.14). Therefore, Interlanguage Analysis implies a continuum analysis of language learners' linguistic development with reference to L1 and L2 linguistic systems and the transitional competence of second language learners (Hammadouche, 2015). Dealing with the interlanguage system, the researcher needs to be aware that during the TL learning process, the learner is influenced by different processes such as i) borrowing patterns from the

native language, ii) extending patterns from the target language, e.g. analogy, and iii) expressing meanings using the words and grammar which are already known (Bennui, 2008).

3.2.2. Theory of Linguistic Relativity

Another important source of "inspiration" for Kaplan's original idea of contrastive rhetoric was the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. As discussed in Chapter One with some details, Sapir (1921), held to the doctrine of *cultural relativism* and later his pupil Whorf (1956) had hypothesized that language was determinative of the world view, that is, the structure of a language shaped how its speakers perceived the world. The theory presupposes that each cultural group had its own unique world view, "based partly on a long-term connection to the physical environment, but mostly on the long-term connections of group members to each other. Thus, each culture was unique in itself" (Connor, 2008, p.6) Although, the strong version of the hypothesis, that claims that language determines thought and perception, has been rejected and it is only the weak version, that language influences thought, which is more accepted today, the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis of linguistic relativity is regarded to be fundamental to CR because it suggests that different languages affect perception and thought in different ways (Connor, 1996).

3.2.3. Theory of Rhetoric

The term *rhetoric* in intercultural rhetoric is more closely related to Aristotle's concept of rhetoric. So, rhetoric may be defined as the faculty of observing in any given case the available means of persuasion (Aristotle, trans. Roberts, p.8). Basically, it refers to three aspects that every literary text of whatever type has: invention, style, and arrangement. The first has to do with content, that is, with the author's ability to convince the receiver by alternately addressing his mind through logic and proofs and his heart by arousing in him feelings. The second aspect concerns style, that is, a writer's ability to manipulate words and create novel linguistic modes through the use of metaphors, similes and other devices. The third aspect deals with form, that is, the text's structure, its forms and icons (Younes, 2015). The description of the rhetorical structure of any text must also cater for its three different types of rhetorical proof/ appeals: logos (the use of reasoning), ethos (the credibility of the speaker/ writer), and pathos (the use of emotional appeals). Modern definitions of the concept include Connor's (2008) who speaks of a "definition of rhetoric as communication, shaped by a situation, the impact of which can be studied on its consumer" (p.13). Similarly, Sullivan

and Porter (1997) see rhetoric as an act of communication, not in its classical definition of style, argument, and persuasion, but as utterances made for a purpose (cited in Connor, 2008). In this definition, rhetoric is defined in terms of its emphasis of 'situation' and by its interests in how rhetorical situation guides production. A theory of rhetoric is essential to CR: It is interested in assessing the direct or indirect effect of communication on the hearer or reader. (Connor, 1996). For example, of the five elements of rhetoric introduced by Aristotle, Kaplan's (1966) seminal paper focused on the one of arrangement or organization. Matsuda (2001) asserts that Kaplan's CR was inspired by Christensen's articles (1965) in compositions studies; Christensen is best remembered for his attempt to extend the analysis of the sentence structure analogically to the level of the paragraph.

3.2.4. Theory of Text Analysis

This is probably the most influential theory on CR/IR within which the discipline emerged and flourished. Kaplan (1988) put it clearly "contrastive rhetoric belongs to the basic tradition of text analysis" (p. 278). It is also fundamental to CR because it provides it with the basic unit of CR analysis, namely text, rather than the sentence or word level analysis in doing so. Text linguistics provides a descriptive apparatus that supplies the new discipline with the most convenient tools for textual descriptions (Connor, 1996). As a result of this relevance, descriptions of English writing conventions and the comparisons of L1 and L2 texts drew heavily on the analytical techniques used in text linguistics, especially at the levels of cohesion, coherence and the discourse superstructure of texts (Connor, 2002).

3.2.5. Theory of Discourse Types and Genres

A theory of text types and genres is also relevant to CR because the latter deals with different kinds of texts. In this context, Connor (1996) suggests to use three definitions:

> (1) discourse types, selected according to the aim of the discourse, such as argumentative prose, (2) text type, selected according to the mode of discourse, such as narrative passage in an argumentative text, and (3) genre, which refers to texts formed according to cultural and traditional expectations as required by specific purposes and tasks such as a research report in biology. (p. 11)
>
> (2)

3.2.6. Theory of Literacy

Literacy is usually connected with two skills, reading and writing; however, it also concerns some complex questions that transcend the two language skills per se like reader-writer relationship, the influence of cultural backgrounds on people's written products and the contribution of literacies to language learning (Hamadouche, 2015). Thus a theory of literacy matters in CR which is also concerned with the development of literacies, not merely written products. This relevance is particularly significant if we remember that recent theories of literacy are imperative for showing why certain writing styles are valued in certain cultures as well as in giving information about the teaching and learning of literacy cross-culturally (Connor, 1996).

3.2.7. Theory of Translation

CR and translation studies do have many points in common. Both are applied rather than theoretical, that is to say, linguistics is used in each field for equally practical purposes: CR backs language teaching experts and translation theory assists translators. Both CR and translation studies deal with first language and second language processing and benefit from the same literature on language acquisition. Both have witnessed changes in methodology in lately as their individual theories were supported with relevant hypotheses and methods of literary study, education, and cognitive science (Connor, 1996). But probably the most crucial point translation studies and CR have in common is culture. Contrastive rhetoric deals with language and writing as cultural phenomena, and translators seek to translate cultures rather than languages. Since both stem from linguistics and both have expanded their scopes beyond structural analyses and literal translations (Connor, 1996), theories of translation may bring insightful contributions to CR.

3.2.8. Pedagogy

Perhaps there is no more obvious relationship between two disciplines than the one of CR pedagogy. The pedagogical orientation of CR has been clearly shown in Kaplan's (1966) seminal work where he made concerns with the teaching of writing (and possibly reading) obvious: "The teaching of reading and composition to foreign students does differ from the teaching of reading and composition to American students, and cultural differences in the nature of rhetoric supply the key to the differences in the teaching approach" (1966, p.1). Although the discipline has seen considerable changes since then, the different CR-related

research continued to supplement evidence to its pedagogical relevance. Indeed, there is a large amount of research on writing, and much of that research is pertinent to the bilingual and basic literacy classroom, as well as to the ESL/EFL classroom" (Kaplan, 1990, p. 9).

3.3. Approaches to Contrastive Rhetoric

Since Kaplan's (1966) seminal article there has been a burst in CR research studies conducted in various contexts. All these contributed to yield noteworthy alterations regarding the kind of writing to be studied and the way to study it (Connor and Moreno, 2005, p.154). Since it is a relatively 'young' discipline, CR and CR methodology were until lately

said to be still in their formative stages, and CR has often been criticized for its lack of a single methodology. (Connor, 1996)

Initially, CR was deeply rooted in applied linguistic and linguistic text analysis whereby the latter was an instrument to depict the writing conventions in English and to afford analytical techniques necessary to compare writing in students' L1 and L2 (Connor, 2002). However, the shifts in meaning of written discourse analysis from text-based to context based together with the one of culture from static to dynamic have led to a similar shift in focus of the discipline (Connor, 2004). In this regard, three major methodological approaches are basically identified.

3.3.1. Text Analysis

Text analysis has been the chief research approach in contrastive rhetoric in its early years through yielding thorough textual analysis of cohesion and coherence patterns. It is also worth mentioning that text analysis has shifted from the simple analysis of paragraph organization to more complex analyses of texts written for a variety of purposes. In this context, it is important to point out that the methods of contrastive written discourse analysis moved first from sentence-based to discourse-based analyses, and later from discourse-based analyses to studying social context and ideology, an evolution that is consistent with applied and general linguistics changes (Connor, 2004).

3.3.2. Genre Analysis

As a result of criticism to early CR research reliance on purely text-based analyses for drawing conclusions that extend beyond the textual features level (Connor, 2002), genre

analysis has brought methods of analysis that complement the discourse analysis methods used in previous contrastive rhetoric research and has been valuable for intercultural rhetoric research as it has compelled researchers to compare actually what is comparable and has widened intercultural rhetoric to other academic and professional genres.(Connor, 2004)In a genre analysis approach, writing is regarded as socially situated, which calls for special reflection on audience, purpose, and level of expertise of each situation. Hence, the writing practices of discourse communities are actually shaped by the expectations and norms of these communities (Connor and Moreno, 2005). An illustration of a genre study is Connor (2000) where the author examines differences and similarities in grant proposals written by humanists and scientists through a combination of both textual genre analysis and context-sensitive interview method (cited in Connor, 2004).

3.3.3. Corpus Analysis

Corpus analysis has been beneficial for intercultural studies especially for the rigor it brought into design, data collection, and analysis. In this context, Connor (2004) writes:

> Comparable corpora enable true cross-linguistic comparisons; translation corpora enable development of a translator's standard; and learner corpora enable investigation of learning problems in the second language and testing of hypotheses concerning contrastive analysis and rhetoric. (p.298)

A principal concept, 'tertium comparationis' has emerged and has become very important in CR/ IR. The concept is a design feature in textual analysis that advocates a corpus approach to help compare items that are comparable. It is defined as "a common platform of comparison or shared similarity", also referred to in translation theory as "equivalence".(Connor, 2004, p. 292). It is particularly "important at all levels of research: in identifying texts for corpora, selecting textual concepts to be studied in the corpora, and identifying linguistic features that are used to realize these concepts" (Connor and Moreno, 2005, p. 3). The two researchers then propose a quantitative descriptive research model for a standard CR of both L1 and L2 corpora and which comprises six phases:

> an independent description of two parallel comparable corpora of expert L1 texts, (2) identification of comparable textual concepts (e.g., coherence relations, premise-conclusion), (3) operationalization of the textual concepts into linguistic features appropriate in each language, (4) quantitative text analyses, (5) juxtaposition of the

analyzed corpora, and (6) explanation of the similarities and differences using contextual information about the languages and cultures in question (Connor and Moreno, 2005, p. 3).

CR text-based analysis tools have also been used in conjunction with other non-textual methods in an either quantitative or qualitative approach, enlarging thus its methodological scope (Basthomi, 2007). In this context, Connor (1996) proposes six further approaches to CR research:

- Reflective inquiry -Identify problems through observation/literature review.

- Quantitative descriptive research -Isolate important variables and quantify them.

- Prediction and classification studies -Determine the strength of relationships between variables.

- Sampling surveys -Describing a large group in terms of a sample.

- Case studies and ethnographies -Qualitative descriptive research looking at subjects in context.

- Experiments -Mostly quasi-experiments, very rare.(Connor, 1996; cited in Basthomi, 2007).

By adopting such a wide range of analytic tools and methods, CR has broadened its scope. The amount of research which has utilized analytic tools in the area of text, genre, and discourse analysis has been too beneficial for the CR methodology. Molino (2011) states highlighting these benefits:

> Thanks to studies in text and genre analysis, which provided sounder bases to identify equivalent texts, and the contribution of corpus linguistics, which allowed researchers to collect corpora for quantitative descriptive analyses, CR moved significantly beyond anecdotal evidence or speculative conclusions on culturally determined writing features. (p.298)

3.4. The Value of Contrastive Rhetoric: Pedagogical and Research Benefits

The insights into the rhetoric of other cultures that CR study affords can be beneficial for both teachers and students. CR was initially introduced by Kaplan (1966, 2005) as a

means to facilitate pedagogy through helping ESL teachers understand L2 students' writing organizational problems. It provides teachers with input into students' cross-cultural texts, and helps them identify, understand and clarify rhetorical structures.

Currently, a firm conviction has been established among researchers about the application of contrastive rhetoric in writing pedagogy (Leki, 1992; Connor, 2002; Nishi,2006), for it can be of a useful assistance for teachers and students alike. Davies, (2004) also asserts that contrastive rhetoric is basically pragmatic and pedagogical "in providing teachers and students with knowledge of the links between culture and writing, and how discourse structures and stylistic choices are reflected in written products" (p.78).

Because students are most likely unconscious of the rhetorical constraints influencing their writing, some conscious knowledge of CR may be of some support to them (Leki, 1992). Accordingly cultural differences need to be overtly taught to EFL writers so as to acculturate them to the target discourse community. Similarly, familiarity with contrastive rhetoric studies can help teacher understand the difficulties L2 students may have with writing and perhaps the origin of these difficulties. Such an understanding can help instructors "teach the expectations of the English audience to L2 writers and thereby (…) help them increase their perceived quality of their texts' (Barone, Saad and Popova, nd, p.3)

CR will be more beneficial for an EFL writing teacher who deals with group of EFL students from a single native language and educational background more especially "if the students have consciously learned contrasting text forms in their native languages" (Leki, 1991; cited in Nishi, 2006, p. 72).

In addition to its initial pedagogical concern, CR has contributed to the expansion of discourse analysis discipline and of the transfer theory by moving attention to the structure of discourse beyond the level of sentence in given languages as well as the differences in the structure of discourse across languages (Kaplan, 2005). Today, as Enkvist (1997) puts it, Kaplan's CR beneficial impact is indisputable as it obliged students and teachers of rhetoric to consider discourse macro-patterns in the light of underlying cultural traditions and not only in terms of syntactic features on the linguistic surface. Moreover, CR has contributed to the field of literacy study by questioning such "spurious dichotomous designation of literate/illiterate" (Kaplan, 2005, p.387) and has also added to the research process in translation.

For researchers, CR seems to have opened the door to a new, vast, and potentially productive area of study based on Kaplan's assumption that rhetorical structures are culturally different. Liebman, (1988), for instance asserts that in terms of research, the student ethnography project had allowed her to expand her view of contrastive rhetoric and consider some of its methodological problems and issues. She adds:

> The project suggests ideas for more narrowly focused or quantitative research studies that might avoid some methodological problems. More controlled research for example, might include studies comparing the rough drafts of NES and ESL writing students, or exploring the cultural differences in attitudes toward readers and writers (Liebman, 1988, p. 16).

In spite of all this, CR pedagogical usefulness has not always been sufficiently obvious, Matsuda (1997) puts it, "the insights gained by research have not been effectively translated into the practice of teaching organizational structures" (p.45). That is why most of recent CR studies have been conducted driven by the main preoccupation of yielding practical pedagogical answers and applications. Accordingly, CR researchers who advocate the inclusion of CR in L2 writing pedagogy have suggested a wide range of various teaching techniques and exercises to help students raise their awareness of English rhetorical conventions and develop their L2 writing skills.

Walker (2011), for example, reviewing some research projects contrasting East-Asian and English languages rhetorical features, suggests a set of efficiently proved techniques, that are in fact "already widely used in first and second language writing classrooms" (p.?), to be incorporated into a contrastive rhetoric-oriented writing instruction in either EFL or ESL classrooms. These techniques include (1) students as ethnographers, (2) e-learning, (3) use of students' L1, and (4) teacher conferencing and peer response. Liebman (1988), on the other hand, explains in a student ethnography project e-learning writing course that one advantage of using CR was that it led to an awareness of the rhetorical choices available in English or any language. Raising students' awareness of rhetorical organization of the languages would allow them to dispose their ideas into patterns that are, not only grammatically correct, but also acceptable in the target language.

Reviewing such type of researches, Kubota and Lehner (2004) list examples of these exercises which include

- Rearranging scrambled paragraphs and filling out an outline following given topic sentences;

- imitating models, doing controlled exercises, filling in missing sentences, and composing by following an outline;

- making students aware of the following factors in writing: cultural difference in composing conventions, culturally specific assumptions about audience, ''world knowledge'' (culturally constrained subject knowledge),''technical knowledge'' (knowledge acquired through other academic activities),and the idea that writing is a social phenomenon that requires more than control of syntactic and lexical items (Kubota and Lehner (2004)

3.5. Intercultural Rhetorical Analysis of English and Arabic

Arabic-English studies have a quite long history. In fact, they can be traced to the late 1950s where the primary concern was to predict learning difficulties through contrasting the different phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical levels of languages (Hamadouche, 2013; Eladani and Bedre, 2017). Relying essentially on structural linguistics, those studies reflected in their methods and focus the linguistic theories and approaches then à la mode. With the growing importance of the communicative aspect of language, the focus of those contrastive studies gradually shifted to the discourse level, that is, towards the inspection of the communicative competence, texts and communication strategies by the end of the 1980s. As a result, research scope has broadened to include cultural influences on Arabic written discourse, and more recently, an increased interest is being allotted to the influence of religion, ancient Arab civilization and Standard Arabic on Arabs' thought patterns, their rhetorical choices and the process of learning an additional language (Abu Rass, 2011; Eladani and Bedre, 2017).

3.5.1. Contrastive/Intercultural Rhetoric Studies of Arabic

Reviewing most contrastive rhetoric studies of EFL including those of Arabic, one may easily identify two kinds of studies: (1) studies conducted by nonnative applied linguists of a target language, and (2) studies accomplished by native speakers of that language. There has been a considerable discussion and some debate about the differences between the two kinds of research and the worth of each. Kubota (1992, 1997; cited in Al-Qahtani, 2006), for

instance, found that Hinds (1987) who was an American applied linguist, was incapable of interpreting the features found in Japanese writings as they were intended by their authors. Al-Qahtani (2006) cites also Connor (1996) and Shaikhulislami and Makhlouf (2000) who assert that nonnative speakers of a language may not be able to interpret the observations found in their research about different cultures and languages claiming that enormous backgrounds are needed.

3.5.1.1. **Contrastive/ intercultural rhetoric studies of Arabic by non-Arab applied Linguists**

Arabic was among the first languages studied in the field of contrastive rhetoric in Kaplan's (1966) seminal study. As mentioned in previous chapters, Kaplan (1966) analyzed nearly 700 foreign students' compositions representing 3 basic language groups in order to compare the English writing patterns with writing in other linguistic systems. Kaplan initiated his analysis assuming that the "thought patterns which speakers and readers of English appear to expect as integral part of their communication is a sequence that is dominantly linear in its development" (p.14). He adds that an example of the two expository paragraph development patterns in English stand for the "common *inductive* and *deductive* reasoning which the English reader expects to be an integral part of any formal communication" (1966, p.14). An inductive expository paragraph usually begins with a topic statement followed

> by a series of subdivisions of that topic statement, each supported by example and illustrations, proceeds to develop that central idea and relate that idea to all the other ideas in the whole essay, and to employ that idea in its proper relationship with the other ideas, to prove something, or perhaps to argue something" (Kaplan, 1966, pp. 13-4).

A deductive English paragraph, on the other hand, would "state a whole series of examples and then relate those examples into a single statement at the end of the paragraph" (Kaplan 1966, p.14). In the Arabic, language, however, Kaplan continues, "the paragraph development is based on a complex series of parallel constructions, both positive and negative" (p. 15). He identified four types of parallelisms: synonymous, synthetic, antithetic, and climatic and claimed that the four types were found in his corpus and that they were practically responsible for the apparent awkwardness of Arab ESL writings. This degree of parallelism and coordination was considered to be responsible for the zigzag movement of the

Arab ESL paragraphs. Kaplan (1966) claimed, with others, that English readers consider mature writing to be subordinated rather than coordinated.

In a commonly quoted study on Arabic rhetoric, Johnstone (1991) studied Arabic rhetorical patterns of persuasion and eventually contrasted them with English ones. She discerns and names two sorts of argumentation styles: (1) "presentation" which happens when truth is already there, established and available. The arguer's task is then to simply repeat the same thing many times and (2) "proof" which is needed when there is doubt about the truth. Here, the arguer has to establish or prove the truth. Johnstone (1991) claims that while proof is characteristic of the English argumentative style, Arabic argumentation is achieved by presentation; text relies heavily on repetition and parallelism to push its argument forward. She writes in this respect: "An arguer presents truths by making them present in discourse: by repeating them, paraphrasing them, doubling them, and calling attention to them with external particles" (p.117). As a cultural justification for this claim, Johnstone (1991) declares that presentation is "the dominant mode of argumentation in hierarchical societies, where truths are not matters for individual decision" (p. 117). Thus, presentation persuasion is most often employed in cultures where religion is fundamental such as in the Arabic societies. In these cultures, truth is not created out of human rationality, but rather brought to light, by simply saying and repeating it like a missionary does. Johnstone (1991) goes further arguing that the two argumentation modes of presentation and proof are so "incompatible" that communication between an arguer who is *presenting* the truth and a hearer who needs *proof* is impossible. She recalls as an example of a communicative breakdown caused by such an incompatibility a famous interview between Ayatollah Khomeini (the prominent religious and political Iranian leader) and the Italian Journalist Oriana Fallaci (1979) which she analyzed in an earlier work in 1986. In the interview, Fallaci used a 'logical argument supportable by verifiable facts' while Khomeni answered in the way he was educated based on the words of the Quran and 'his Prophet', words that were, of course, not 'convincing' to the Italian journalist.

Ostler (1987) expanded the work of Kaplan (1966) but holding a quite similar attitude about Arabic coordination and parallelism. Comparing and contrasting the rhetoric of Arabic as opposed to the English one, she found out that L2 writing of Arabic speakers included a significantly higher rate of parallel and coordinate constructions as well as greater numbers of discourse moves and rhetorical support elements than were found in the writing of native speakers (NSs). On her part, Ostler (1987) observed that Arabic essays reflected the forms

found in classical Arabic and claimed that English developed naturally from coordination and parallelism (as markers of orate (underdeveloped) societies to deletion and subordination (as markers of civilized, literate societies). Similarly, the English society was once oral exhibiting oral traits of repetition, parallelism and the rest of the oral society's linguistic features. However, with the widespread use of print, the society became literate, and these oral characteristics disappeared leaving room to the use of deletion and subordination in English by the beginning of the twentieth century. Arabic, in contrast, did not develop like English and, employing parallelism and coordination, it still shows the trait of oral society traditions. Ostler (1987) also asserts that through the use of parallelism and *saj* (a stylistic strategy used to make rhyming endings of strings of utterances), Arabic accomplishes its strive for balance. In addition, Arabic essays were found to have more coordination and thus more sentences as opposed to more subordinations and longer sentences in English. The socio-cultural justification given by Ostler (1987) for those results was that Arabs are very bond to classical Arabic, the language of the holy Quran which is a divine oral text transcribed in written system, so they did not want to develop literate characteristics in their L1 writings and consequently in their L2 production.

Soter (1988), on the other hand, examined textual elements of narration of a group of Arabic, Vietnamese and native English speakers in Australia and has demonstrated 'some degree' of influence of students' prior knowledge of literacy and literacy experiences on their L2 experience and writing performance.

3.5.1.2. Contrastive/ intercultural rhetoric studies in Arabic by Arab applied linguists

The second type of contrastive rhetoric studies of English and Arabic includes those studies conducted by Arab applied linguists. Connor (1996) finds that the research conducted by native Arabic speakers produced great contributions to CR theory through the publication of numerous empirical studies of Arabic-English dissimilarities. Many of these were undertaken in reaction to non-native westerner researchers' 'ethnocentric' conclusions about Arabic purporting its 'inferior' nature with a chief argument that western linguists failed to account for the real reasons for using such apparent oral structures in written Arabic. Al Qahtani (2006) states that "the westerners thought Arabs did not know how to evolve to the literate mode and thus were backward, and the Arabs were saying that westerners did not know what they were talking about" (p.17). The present study joins Connor's views; the fundamental stance is to bring a humble contribution to CR studies on Arabic taking

advantage of the researcher's acquaintance with the EFL learners L1 as well as her experience with some intricacies of writing in an exclusively EFL context which is the Algerian one.

Reviewing research conducted by a number of nonnative Arabic linguists such as Kaplan (1966), Williams (1981), Thompson-Panos and Thomas-Ruzic (1983), and Johnstone (1983), Labidi (1992), was very critical of their hasty generalizations, "unfair and ethnocentric approach", and "chauvinistic" judgments made about the 'immature' nature of Arabic writing for its tendency to favor repetition, coordination and parallelism patterns. What these researchers implied in their conclusions, he concluded, is that for Arab text rhetoric to be organized, logical and coherent, it should follow the English text style. Sa'adeddin (1989; cited in Hinkel, 2005) maintains that because colloquial Arabic discourse relies on parallelism, repetition, broad generalizations, and elaborate vocabulary in argumentation and rhetorical persuasion, Arabic speakers may transfer from L1 the usage of coordinate and parallel constructions when writing in English.

Similarly, Hottel-Burkhart (2000, cited in Connor, 2002) believes that what is considered an argument in a culture is shaped by the rhetoric of that culture and writes to this effect: "rhetoric is an intellectual tradition of practices and values associated with public, interpersonal, and verbal communication ─spoken or written─ and it is peculiar to the broad linguistic culture in which one encounters it" (p. 94).

Halimeh (2001) conducted a study where he analyzed writing samples of 100 native Arabic speakers' writing on Writing for Science and Technology (WST) topics in English and Arabic. He concluded that, though students have studied EFL writing for eight years, and were considered to be fairly good at the mechanics (i.e. capitalization, punctuation, spelling and handwriting), lexis and grammar, they continued to exhibit considerable troubles manipulating the rhetorically-oriented elements of writing such as the use of paragraphing, unity of paragraph, development of ideas and content quality of writing when writing in WST. Halimeh (2001) argued that because of rhetorical duality, students transferred rhetorical irregularities of the Arabic discourse over into their writing.

3.5.2. Rhetorical Differences between Arabic and English

Even though the discipline of CR has propagated a plethora of research on Arabic and English writing styles, any summarizing of the differences and/ or similarities between the

writing systems would be incomplete because research is still an on-going process. Thus, to stick to the focal aim of this research, the following are an illustration of the most empirically confirmed differences between the two languages at the macro-rhetorical and discourse level.

3.5.2.1. Thesis and topic statement use

Both the thesis statement and topic sentences are important rhetorical strategies which help achieving successful writing; their effective use is an indicator of academic literacy development (Miller and Pessoa, 2016, p.851) and a reflection of the single-ordered topic development. Accordingly, every essay has to display a thesis, and a topic sentence must appear in each body paragraph. Arabic speakers have difficulty grasping the role of the thesis as the organizing principle in English prose because as Derrick-Mescua and Gmuca (1985) put it, the purpose of Arabic prose is to elaborate on an accepted viewpoint. They observed that Arabic students often lack thesis sentences, and in many other cases, the thesis was implicit. This is so because the writer and reader agree on the point being made; there is no need to state it explicitly. The authors noticed also that in some papers, the title or a word or phrase served to present the topic of the paper, resulting in a kind of organization called by Markels (1981) as "unity by term dominance" (Derrick-Mescua and Gmuca, 1985, p.7)

3.5.2.2. Linearity and circularity

Kaplan's (1966) work suggests that Anglo-European expository essays follow a linear development, whereas paragraph development in Semitic languages is based on a series of parallel coordinate clauses. This emphasis on linearity in English and 'lack' of it in other languages has received some criticism; nonetheless, Arabic rhetoric research findings has growingly confirmed this claim. Linearity in English is a fundamental rhetorical feature. Ostler (1987) asserts that English expository prose has basically linear rhetorical patterns which consist of a clearly defined topic-introduction-body, sequenced from one to the next ending with a conclusion which informs the reader about what has been discussed. Arabic writers, however, tend to write indirectly to catch the readers' attention and let them understand the main point at the end. Kaplan (1966) has demonstrated how Arabic texts were not-linear but circular and based on "a complex series of parallel construction" (p. 14).

3.5.2.3. Topic/ paragraph unity

The overall linear style results in topic, essay and paragraph unity. In English, a basic requirement to write an effective paragraph is unity or singleness of subject matter. This

implies a definite purpose, and forbids digressions and irrelevant matter (Markels, 1981). In short, one single main theme is sustained in an essay and also one main idea is expressed in each paragraph. In Arabic, however, research has shown how writing is characterized by frequent digression from the topic to new topics (Kaplan, 1966).

3.5.2.4. Repetition

Repetition is one of the most extensively researched rhetorical features when contrasting Arabic and English writing systems. So, the present study does not pretend to add any more data to the scholarship concerning this aspect. It is however cited in this study as it can be an essential feature to measure linearity. Moradian, Naserpour and Haghighi (2020) note that linear languages such as English are characterized by avoidance of repetition; they rarely employ repetition unless it is necessary to strengthen the tone of the writing so as to enhance persuasiveness. Non-linear languages, such as Arabic, on the other hand are specified by repetition. Research into the writing of Arab-speaking students of English has provided a number of empirical evidence of the use of repletion in this writing (Kaplan 1966; Johnstone, 1990; Abu Rass, 2011, 2015; Al Adwan, 2012)

3.5.2.5. Inductive and deductive patterns

Generally, two reasoning styles are expected when writing in English, the inductive or deductive styles though the former one is a more preferred. Hinds (1990; cited in Cho, 1999, p.20)) claims that writes in the respect:

> Inductive writing is characterized as having the thesis statement in the final position (along with having supporting details before the thesis statement) whereas deductive writing has the thesis statement in the initial position (and supporting details after the thesis statement)..... English, for example, allows either type of development, although the model that expository writers apparently aim for and that students are consciously taught tends to be deductive rather than inductive.

So, Hinds (1990) showed that some paragraphs in Oriental languages are developed in a third way in which the main idea is delayed to the middle of the paragraph. He called this specific style of writing *the quasi-inductive writing style*. While the deductive pattern is more common in English, Arabic prefers the inductive style (Almehmedi, 2012) though the deductive styles is also very common. Accordingly, background information is presented first to lead the reader gradually to the main point.

3.5.2.6. Writer's responsibility/Audience awareness

This dichotomy reader-responsible vs writer-responsible was brought in by Hinds (1987) and has since been used "to refer to the different ways in which different cultures attach varying degrees of responsibility to the writer and reader in the communication act" (Mohamed and Omer, 2000, p. 50). Accordingly, some cultures such as English are called writer-responsible because they put greater responsibility to the writer; the writer is supposed to know the characteristics of their audience before they begins to write, and it is the writer's responsibility to guide their audience to an understanding of the written texts. Other cultures like the Japanese one are known as reader-responsible because they give greater responsibility on the reader. These are likely to depend heavily on context and presuppose that a lot of background information is shared by the discourse participants (Mohamed and Omer, 2000) So, difference between the two types of styles us seen through the degree of implicitness or explicitness of the message conveyed by the writer (Almehmedi, 2012) .

Arabic is generally considered as a reader-responsible language. Recent research findings have contributed to confirm this claim about the Arabic language. (Mohamed and Omer, 2000). Similarly, Almehmedi (2012) noticed that Arabic texts analyzed as part of a CR text analysis contain parts that make it clear that the responsibility to understand the text lies with the reader. She concludes that the difference in the degree of responsibility assigned to the text writer or reader can be attributed to a difference in cultural typology between English and Arabic. However, although Arabic is a reader responsible type of writing, it is not always the case. Fakhri (2004) showed how there are always some exceptions to this when he studied some Arabic research articles and noticed that some articles displayed a high degree of directness.

3.5.3. Writing Problems Encountered by Arab Speaking EFL Learners

Many studies have been carried out to explore difficulties encountered by Arabic-speaking learners when writing in English. Some of these are concerned with error analysis (dealing with syntactic features of the text, semantic aspects of the text). Another type of research includes contrastive rhetoric analyses which have been conducted on different aspects of EFL Arab students' writing strategies. Many of these investigations ended up with fairly similar accounts of Arab EFL students' most common writing errors and problems. The latter are very often attributed to first language interference (Al-Buainain, 2007; Abu Rass, 2011; Al-Shormani, 2012; Ridha, 2012). Reviewing a wide bulk of research, Arab EFL

students' most common writing problems can be roughly grouped under two major categories: Linguistic level or micro-rhetorical problems and discourse level or macro-rhetorical problems.

3.5.3.1. Linguistic/micro-linguistic problems

The most common types of linguistic errors made by Arab EFL students in their English written texts include grammatical and syntactic errors which concern mainly verbs and verbals, articles, pronouns, nouns, adjectives and prepositions, tenses and tense sequence, copula and auxiliary verbs, relative clauses, fragments and punctuation. Diab (1996) collected 73 English essays written by Lebanese sophomore students studying at the American University of Beirut. The author concluded that the transfer of Arabic linguistic structures influenced the English writings of Lebanese students on the grammatical (mainly in the areas of prepositions, articles, agreement, and singular vs. plural words), lexical (consisting mainly in translating words from Arabic to express a certain idea in English, unaware of the English collocations), semantic (when students use literal translation to convey in English flowery (exuberant) Arabic expressions, idioms or proverbs) and syntactic (word order, coordination and omission of the copula) levels.

In the same vein, Hashim (1996) reviewed literature that investigated Arab-speaking learners' most common errors and concluded that the source of error is the influence of the native language, and that in processing English syntactic structures, Arabic speakers adopt certain strategies similar to those of first-language learners including simplification and over-generalization.

Halimeh (2001) cites a number of research investigations (namely, Dudley-Evans and Swales, 1980; Salama, 1981; Beeston, 1982; EL-Shimy, 1982; El-Hassan, 1984; Kharma, 1985a; and Doushaq and Sawaf, 1988) which maintain that the writing difficulties of Arab learners are mainly due to morphological and syntactic differences between English and Arabic in such areas as punctuation, proper use of tenses, relativization, word order, phrasal verbs, etc.

On her part, Al-Buainain (2006), after examining 40 exam scripts of first year university students majoring in English in the University of Qatar concluded that students' performance errors are systematic and classifiable and summarized the commonest or most frequent Arabic (Qatari) errors in English in verbs, articles and fragments. Many of these errors are, she acknowledges, common to all non-native users of English.

For Ridha (2012), she inspected English writing samples of 80 third-stage Iraqi EFL college students and then classified the errors and found out that most of the learners "rely on their mother tongue in expressing their ideas. Although the rating processes showed that the participants' essays included different types of errors, the grammatical errors and the mechanical errors were the most serious and frequent ones" (p.41).

Similarly, Al-Hassan (2013) examined a sample of 100 essays on a given topic and the results of a placement test consisting of 50 multiple choice items of Jordanian junior EFL students at the department of English. He identified four categories to be explored: *1)* Grammatical (prepositions, articles, reported speech, singular/plural, adjectives, relative clauses, irregular verbs, tenses, and possessive case); *2) S*yntactic (coordination, sentence structure, nouns and pronouns, and word order); *3)* lexical(word choice); *4)* semantic, & substance (mechanics: punctuation and capitalization, and spelling). He found out that at the grammatical level, Jordanian students made errors mainly in the use of prepositions, articles and adjectives; while at the syntactic level the errors were mainly the over use of coordination and the Omission of the Copula. At last, lexical and semantic errors involve direct or literal translation from Arabic.

By the same token, Ababneh (2016) carried out a research in order to shed light on the difficulties faced by Saudi students when writing in the English language by examining specific writing errors made by fifty female university students in a one page writing quiz. The writing errors were classified into four main categories: Grammatical, syntactic, substance, and lexical types. The findings once again showed that the most frequent types of errors made by the students were in the categories of grammar (tenses, singular/plural, articles), syntax (subject-verb agreement), and substance (spelling).

3.5.3.2. Discourse/macro linguistic problems

Other researchers (Halimah, 2001; Aljamhoor 2001) however, assert that the difficulties faced by Arab EFL writers are much more complex and often lay beyond sentential boundaries. Almost always attributing those troubles to the rhetorical differences between Arabic and English- that is Arabic and English languages organize prose in different manners, Kaplan' work continues to inspire current investigations of L2 writing.

In an action research conducted in order to improve the English writing of low proficiency Saudi university students, studying in a foreign language context where product-

based teaching methods dominate, Al-Hazmi and Scholfield (2007) used a method of compulsory draft revision, using a checklist with two groups over three writing tasks completed partly in class and partly at home. One group was trained in peer revision; the other revised solely alone. The researcher noticed clear draft improvements in mechanics, but only modest amounts of meaning-changing and multi-sentential revisions and concluded that these students were not ready to abandon the traditional surface error focus of their classroom.

Ahmed (2010) also conducted a qualitative investigation through a questionnaire administered to a sample of one hundred and sixty-five student teachers of English, of whom fourteen were selected to be interviewed. In addition, seven essay writing teachers filled in the questionnaire and were interviewed. The results revealed that both teachers and students agreed on difficulties in writing the introduction, the thesis statement, the topic sentence, writing concluding sentences and writing the conclusion, transition of ideas, and sequence of ideas.

Abu Radwan (2012), in turn, analyzed written text collected from 16 graduate students, divided into three groups: six (6) Native-English speakers, five (5) Native-Arabic speakers advanced ESL learners and five (5) Native-Arabic speakers intermediate ESL learners. The focus of the research was on four main rhetorical features assumed to be typical characteristics of the Arabic writing system: (i) Loose packaging of information reflected in the frequent use of coordination and lack of subordination; (ii)) Overuse of the definite article "the"; (iii) Circularity of organization reflected in repetition of the same ideas and frequency of paraphrasing; and (iv) High frequency of personal-involvement pronouns and statements (Abu Radwan, 2012). Statistical analyses have revealed significant differences between the intermediate Arabic group, on the one hand, and both the advanced Arabic speaker and on the hand the English native speaker groups in frequency of most features. The authors concluded that transfer from the native language into the target language during the writing process decreases as the writers' L2 proficiency develops, which casts some doubt on certain assumptions of the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis.

Abu Rass (2015) reports how samples data of 205 students, accumulated for the last fourteen years include showed similar repeated types of mistakes and errors made by the participants of the first year writing course. The accumulated data show that students face many problems in writing good topic as well as concluding sentences, supporting details by adding examples and reasons and using discourse markers appropriately. To help these

learners write good samples of paragraphs in English, a variety of approaches such as contrastive analysis, error analysis, and the process approach have been employed. The findings indicated that by the end of their first school year, most of them succeed in writing topic and concluding sentences. However, (1) providing supporting details including examples and reasons was not fully mastered; (2) the style of English is not completely acquired: Some students continue transferring the style of Arabic writing; and (3) developing a cohesive paragraph using the right coordinators and transition words still needs a lot of practice.

In another contrastive rhetoric study conducted with the aim to investigate Sudanese EFL students writing problems from linguistic and cultural backgrounds perspectives, Eladani and Bedri (2017) employed a descriptive analytic method whereby data was collected through a questionnaire administered to one hundred teachers of English language and expository essays composed in English by ninety ESL/EFL. Their findings confirm Arabic interference as 99% of the respondents of the questionnaire agreed that Sudanese EFL students of English writing difficulties resulted from the differences in writing techniques between English and Arabic. The findings also indicate that (85%) of the target students exhibited unnecessary repetition while writing an English text in addition to capitalization, (78.2%) unawareness of the differences between Arabic and English prepositions, (71%) impressionistic tone, (59%) exaggeration, (57%) embellishment, (45.4%) simile and (31%) metonymy. It was also found that many target students failed to state clearly the topic sentence in their English introductory paragraph. The result of the teachers' questionnaire showed that approximately 76% of the respondents believe that introductory paragraphs of most Sudanese students lack the controlling idea of the whole text.

Again, to attempt to explore the placement of the thesis statement in the Arabic and English argumentative essays of Moroccan EFL master students, Chibi (2018) conducted a study using a qualitative research method with triangulation of data sources: Questionnaires on the practices of argumentation in the writing classes and the previous writing instruction of the students, the writing tests, and stimulated recall interviews after the writing tests. He found out a slight dominance of induction (thesis in final position) in Arabic essays and predominance of deduction (thesis in initial position) in English essays despite the traces of transfer in both directions.

Conclusion

This chapter included a general overview of the C/IR discipline through providing a general account of its emergence, development, theoretical inspirations, approaches and methodologies and pedagogical and research attributes. Then, the chapter reviewed previous contrastive studies on Arabic and English writings and outlined some of the most commonly researched writing difficulties by Arab EFL/ESL. Although it is not an educational cure-all (Kaplan, 1988), C/IR continues to be a major area of interest because it has encouraged researchers and teachers alike to reflect on and critique the intricate relationship between cultural context and language use. Researchers arguing for CR pedagogical benefit advocate teaching rhetorical differences overtly, raising students' awareness of such differences, such as the ones between English and Arabic, and acculturating students through language exercises with concrete models that meet audience expectations (Kutoba and Lehner, 2004). However, it is not only students who can benefit from the awareness-raising role of CR. English teachers too would be more acquainted with the rhetorical preferences of their students and could emphasize more accurately the transfer-related troubles.

Chapter Four

A Contrastive Rhetoric of Training Report Introductions Written by English Language and Arabic Language Students in the Teachers' Training School of Constantine Context

Introduction

Contrastive rhetoric builds on two major premises: (1) a writer's stylistic preferences are culturally embedded; that is, two groups of people whos belong to two disparate languages and cultures think differently and so, write in different rhetorical manners (2) second/foreign language learners may transfer these L1 preferred rhetorical patterns into their second/foreign language expository writing (Ostler, 1987). At the same time, there is a general consensus among ESL/EFL writing researchers and teachers about the existence of rhetorical differences between writing in the Arabic culture(s) and writing in the English speaking one(s). The chapter consists of a comparison of the products of EFL students and Arabic language (L1) students on a similar task written in, respectively, English and Arabic in order to explore Arabic learners' FL writing with the aim of testing CR theory as well as uncovering and grasping more such differences.

4.1. The Contrastive Rhetoric Study

As a first step, it appears quite logical to outline the basic background necessary to understand the contrastive rhetoric analysis whose results are reported in this chapter.

4.1.1. Objectives of the Contrastive Rhetoric Analysis

The overall aim is to check whether L1 culturally-rooted rhetorical patterns can be found in essays written by Algerian advanced students of English. In other words, building on previous CR studies of Arabic, the study seeks to explore to what extent features of Arabic rhetoric are reflected in essays written by advanced EFL Algerian students at the university level.

This CR task may afford EFL and writing instructors with a better understanding of their students. Gaining more awareness of Arabic rhetoric and understanding how Arabic-speaking students compose will undoubtedly assist EFL teachers in their pedagogical practices. Moreover, by either confirming or disapproving similar prior research in the field, the study's results might constitute an additional contribution to CR research.

The study used a combination of quantitative and qualitative framework and seeks to answer the research questions formulated at the onset of this work and verify the hypotheses put forward, namely

1. TTSC (Teachers' Training School of Constantine) Advanced EFL learners would not realize the macro-rhetorical elements of thesis statement, topic sentence, topic and paragraph unity and topic and paragraph according to the English conventions of academic writing.

2. TTSC Advanced EFL learners' culture based writing problems (thesis statement, topic sentence, topic unity and topic and paragraph development) would be caused by L1 particular rhetorical patterns influence.

4.1.2. Participants

A total of 70 students took part in the present investigation: 35 students enrolled in an EFL class and 35 students enrolled in an Arabic language class constitute subjects of writing samples needed for the analysis. The participants, aged from 21 to 23, are advanced learners in the graduating year (both B+4 and B+5). The samples represent 58.33% of English final year students and 50 % of Arabic final year students.

4.1.3. Context of the Contrastive Rhetoric Task

In the next lines, the context of the CR task is thoroughly sketched to provide the necessary background for understanding the framework from which the writing assignment that served as a corpus for the CR task has been taken.

4.1.3.1. The Training Report

At the end of their academic training, students at the TTSC undertake a professional internship experience called the 'Practical Training'. Organized in collaboration with the Direction de L'éducation Nationale (Board of National Education of the Wilaya of Constantine) the course aims at providing the necessary and appropriate conditions for the student-trainees to facilitate the active integration of knowledge and skills acquired during the graduate training at the school in a real professional context: disciplinary (subject matter), pedagogical, psychological, classroom management, linguistic, reflective analysis and professional ethics. For a period of about 8-10 weeks, student-trainees are assigned, usually in groups of 4, to training schools (primary, middle or secondary ones). During this training, they are accompanied by two tutors: a supervisor from the TTSC and training teacher from the host school where they undergo the three phases of the training. During the first phase, the observation phase, trainees go once a week, for 2 to 3 weeks to the training school in order to

get acquainted with the group and environment into which they are to be integrated during the training period, and more particularly, to focus on particular aspects of the teaching-learning process, such as classroom interactions, different teaching techniques used by the training teacher, learning strategies, different evaluation procedures, etc. In the second phase, the alternate one, students go once a week to the training institution for about three to four weeks and begin gradually to participate in various teaching tasks such as preparing teaching cards/lesson plans, presenting either the beginning or end of a lesson and then two or three lessons during this phase, correcting some copies of assignments and tests, etc. In the last phase, the full-time training, the trainees go every day for three weeks to the training institution to take in charge with a full responsibility the different lessons and activities and their evaluation according to the timetable of the training teacher. At the end of this training experience, students are expected to produce a training report.

The training report is a summary and retrospective presentation of the practical training wherein the trainee makes an account of their teaching experience and its evolution along with the targeted skills. They would critically analyze their performance, assess the way they planned their teaching, note down objectively its strengths and weaknesses and outline how they intend to improve this practice. The TTSC tutor guides and assists the trainee during the training report drafting process, and a training guide is supplied to them providing instructions for the requirement of each part of the report.

4.1.3.2. The Present Assignment: The Report Introduction

The first part of this report is the introduction. Although named 'introduction', the requirement for the structure of the training report introduction is essay form. Aimed to be first of all an exercise in writing, it is written as an expository essay whose purpose is to provide a presentation of the training course (objectives, phases, and the physical and social setting within which it would take place) from the student-trainee's standpoint (Practical Training Guide, ENSC).

The introduction section is chosen as the basic unit of analysis for the present investigation, for it represents a sample of advanced learners writing. It actually acts as a sort of test of their accumulated writing skills and competence produced at the graduation eve. The introductions are usually written by student-trainees and then revised and corrected by their supervisors before they are integrated in the final training report version.

The researcher asked permission of the students to use their introductions for research purposes and then got in touch with the students supervisors in order to collect the first drafts of introductions before any revisions by the supervisors. Students are usually encouraged to submit a handwritten report, but many teachers gave the freedom to students to provide a typed one if they wish.

To meet the requirements of the present assignment, students have to write a coherent expository essay where they are expected to demonstrate mastery of the English essay writing conventions. A thesis statement is expected to be introduced preferably at the end of the introductory paragraph, and it ought to clearly comprise the writer's main line of discussion and focus of the essay. The thesis statement acts like a road map guiding the reader's attention towards the coming discussion.

The body paragraphs aim at developing the general idea expressed in the thesis statement. Each of these paragraphs (preferably, though not necessarily) begins with a topic sentence which includes a sub-topic and a controlling idea that is directly derived from the thesis statement and which will be supported by relevant details and supports in the following sentences of the paragraph. The function of topic sentence is to establish the subject, only one, of the paragraph and relates it to the other sections (thesis statement, preceding paragraphs).During the data analysis, subjects who demonstrate an adequate manipulation of the above framework may be said to have grasped the basic conventions of English writing and to have understood the role of the thesis statement, topic sentence and paragraph structure in creating coherent paragraphs, sustaining topic unity, and effectively developing their topic. Observable diverging from the framework described above will be contrasted with the L1 Arabic subjects' patterns to identify possible similarities and/ or differences in order to establish potential L1 influence on EFL writing.

4.2. Methodology

After having explained the context to which the CR written assignment belongs, the steps and procedures of the CR analysis are detailed below.

4.2.1. Data Recording Procedures

To prepare the samples for analysis, a coding and scoring framework has been adopted. For example, Arabic Students' Essays are identified as ASE. Sometimes, the expression 'L1 essays' is used during the description, discussion or interpretation processes to stand for Arabic/ first language essays. English Students' Essays, on the other hand are identified as ESE during the coding and recording. The term 'EFL essays' is also used during the description, discussion or interpretation processes. Similarly, the Arabic Students Sample is encoded ASS, and the English Students Sample is

encoded ESS. Then, the 70 Arabic written and English written essays are analyzed, and codes are allocated according to the rhetorical organization and development.

4.2.2. Units of Analysis

This study is centered on a fundamental ingredient in academic writing, namely the essay's/ paragraph's rhetorical organization and development through scrutinizing its major constituent: the thesis statement, topic sentence, topic and paragraph unity, and topic and paragraph development. To achieve this, it is essential to describe accurately the units of analysis the study will focus on.

4.2.2.1. Thesis Statement

Oshima and Hogue (2006) assert that the thesis statement is the most important sentence in an introduction. It states the specific topic which would be developed and discussed throughout the different paragraphs of the essay. According to their definition, a thesis statement ought to comprise the following features:

1. It is identified as the most general idea in the essay,

2. It ought not be "a simple announcement" of a topic.

3. It must be a complete grammatical sentence (simple, compound or complex)

4. It should demonstrate a clear position (idea, opinion or attitude of the writer) (Oshima and Hogue, 2006, p.67)

For Cho (1999), a "thesis statement is defined as the most general idea in the essay, but it should show the clear position of the writer "(p.189)

In English essays, the thesis statement (Th.S) is usually placed by the end of the first (introductory) paragraph, and this position may be an indication of an inductive rhetorical approach. However, it is also common to find it in the last (concluding) one which may suggest a rather inductive style. However, research has demonstrated that the thesis statement is not always present in Arabic language students writing (Derrick-Mescua, 1985)

It is then necessary for the purpose of this study to construct a definition of thesis statement that would apply for both the Arabic and English students' essays so as to avoid the risk of utilizing double standards to the two different data. As such, a thesis statement would be a statement of the main idea

that directs the essay. Borrowing, Petric's (2005) pattern, for example, a thesis statement in the present study could take one of the following forms:

➢   a statement about the student/ trainee's idea, opinion or attitudes towards the practical training experience

➢   a statement about the student/ trainee's personal idea or purpose behind writing the training report such as what he/she intents to prove, show or expose in the report.

In addition, Petric's (2005) categories for the treatment of the thesis statement are applied, namely its occurrence, position and linguistic and rhetorical realization. Accordingly, the following codes have been adopted and recorded in a recapitulative table: 'C' present and correct, 'abs.' for absent, 'inc.' for present but incorrect.

4.2.2.2. Paragraph

As English language students (ES) received an instruction in paragraph writing during their 1st year and reinforced it in the 2nd and 3rd years through essay instruction, the other rhetorical pattern to be considered is the paragraph, identified mainly by indentation, topic and topic sentence (Oshima and Hogue, 2006). However, since the present study also seeks to explore how Arabic language students (AS) perceive rhetorical patterns, the study will also employ Kaplan's (1972) method of defining a *discourse bloc* which he used to denote the central idea of a text, and which "may or may not coincide with units marked by initial indentation/ capitalization and terminal punctuation" (p.27; cited in Connor, 2002, p. 32). For Kaplan, indentation is not the main sign of a new paragraph or discourse bloc, but rather topic change. So, whenever a new topic is noticed, a new discourse bloc is identified. Therefore, in this study, as a discourse bloc, a paragraph is first distinguished by the indentation. Once an indentation appears, it is considered a paragraph change; then, the paragraph is further analyzed to verify if it truly constitutes only one topic-discourse bloc by inspection of any possible topic changes inside it. In this way, it is possible to scrutinize Algerian students' perception of the concept of the paragraph and their ways of writing and formatting it. Subsequently, the number of those paragraphs and the overall discourse blocs (identified by topic change) will be calculated per group. Eventually, the two samples are compared.

4.2.2.3. Topic sentence

An essential rule for the English logical organization is the topic sentence rule (Shen, 1989; cited in Xing, Wan and Spencer, 2008). Generally mentioned at the beginning of a paragraph, although it may have any other position within it, the topic sentence states the main idea, (habitually identified as the controlling idea of the paragraph) by limiting the topic to just one precise idea to be discussed. According to Oshima and Hogue (2006) "Every good paragraph has a topic sentence, which clearly states the topic and the controlling idea of the paragraph". Underlining its important role in a paragraph, they add:

> A topic sentence is the most important sentence in a paragraph. It briefly indicates what the paragraph is going to discuss. For this reason, the topic sentence is a helpful guide to both the writer and the reader. The writer can see what information to include (and what information to exclude). The reader can see what the paragraph is going to be about and is therefore better prepared to understand it. (p.20)

The English paragraph, as highlighted by Kaplan (1966, 1988, 1990) and many of his followers, observes a direct, linear pattern that sticks to the topic and avoids unnecessary digression. So, linearity in the present data will be demonstrated, to quote Xing, et al (2008), "by a low frequency of topic changes or a low average number of topic sentences in a paragraph" (p.74). Similar to the thesis statement treatment, data concerning the topic sentence use are recorded and encoded in a recapitulative table as: 'C' for present and correct, 'Abs.' for absent.

4.2.3. Computation Methods

First, descriptive analyses have been applied to the two samples to cater for the frequency of occurrence of the linguistic and rhetorical points under study using the total of occurrence (T), mean (M), the percentage (%) and the standard deviations (SD). The Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) of each sample in the present study were calculated on the basis of Miller's (2005) computation methods.

- **Mean**: To calculate the mean, the observed values (x) in each sample are added, and then the sum is divided by the number of them (n).

$$\bar{x} = \frac{(\Sigma x)}{n}$$

- **Standard Deviation**: The formula for the sample standard deviation is:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}}$$

where x_i is each value is the data set, x-bar is the mean, and n is the number of values in the data set. To calculate S, do the following steps:

1. Calculate the average of the numbers,

$$\bar{x}.$$

2. Subtract the mean from each number (x)

$$(x_i - \bar{x}).$$

3. Square each of the differences,

$$(x_i - \bar{x})^2.$$

4. Add up all of the results from Step 3 to get the sum of squares,

$$\sum(x_i - \bar{x})^2.$$

5. Divide the sum of squares (found in Step 4) by the number of numbers minus one; that is, $(n-1)$.

$$\frac{\sum(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}.$$

6. Take the square root to get the result

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}},$$

which is the sample standard deviation, s (in the present study referred to as SD)

In a next step, independent-samples t-test and chi-square tests were used to see whether or not any language-based statistically significant differences existed between the two samples. The t-test has been used for the comparisons of paragraphs which are interval data in order to detect any possible difference between the two populations at the level of $p \leq 0.05$ or a similarity at the level of $p > 0.05$[3]. On the other hand, Crosstab analysis using Chi-square statistic has also been adopted for the comparisons of the thesis statement, topic sentence and topic change occurrence in the two samples because these are categorical data to determine if

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

the ESS and ASS report introductions are different or similar in terms of the rhetorical features of directness, linearity, topicality and multi-topicality.

- **T test**

For Miller (2005), the *t*-test computation for related samples should go through the following

general procedures:

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

2. Calculate the mean difference using:

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

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

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

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

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

5. Find the critical value of *t* for the desired level of significance using the *t* table. This value will depend on (1) the number of degrees of freedom (N−1 in this test) and (2) whether the direction of the difference between the two conditions was predicted before the experiment.

6. If the observed value of *t* is equal to or greater than the critical value, reject the null hypothesis in favour of the alternate hypothesis i.e., conclude that the independent variable has had an effect on behavior (Miller, 2005: 80).

4.3. Findings: Descriptive Statistics on the Rhetorical Aspects of Arabic and English as a Foreign Language Samples

In this section, findings are displayed on the basis of statistics generated from the 70 coded essays of the corpus. Corresponding tables present total (T) and mean numbers (M) and standard deviation (SD) of the investigated rhetorical features to demonstrate how students in each group arrange their essays. The data analysis comprises the comparison of means and percentages of each feature so as to determine the differences and similarities across the two samples.

4.3.1. Essay Structure and Number of Paragraphs

The aim of identifying the number of paragraphs, inferred in this stage of the study by the presence of an indentation, is to help understand the specific rhetorical style of an essay.

	ESS	ASS
T	185	176
M	5.29	5.03
SD	1.20	1.88
N	35	35
The t-value is 0.63342. The p-value is .264291. The result is *not* significant at $p < .05$.		

Table 4.1. Total Number of Paragraphs per Sample

Figures pertaining to the total number of paragraphs and mean displayed in **Table 4.1** reveal that there is no significant difference in the number of paragraphs that the EFL sample and the Arabic L1 group allocate to their report introduction section. The two groups exhibit a tendency to use the 5-paragraph essay structure.

		<5	5	>5
ASS	**N**	15	9	10
	%	42.85	27.71	27.71
ESS	**N**	11	14	10
	%	31.42	40	17.14
$x^2 = 1.6882$. p-value is .429943. The result is *not* significant at $p < .05$.				
U = 524.5. z-score = 1.02778. p-value is .30302. The result is *not* significant at $p < .05$.				

Table 4.2. Median Paragraph Use per Sample

Similarly, the distribution of each group's use of the number of paragraphs in writing an essay turned out statistically not different from the other and reveals that the two samples do

not significantly vary concerning the frequency of use of essay below the 5-paragraphs-pattern. They even show an identical percentage of use of paragraphs above 5.

		Introduction	Body	Conclusion
ESS	T	36	125	24
	M	1,02	3,57	0,68
	SD	0.16	1.37	0.46
ASS	T	47	122	6
	M	1,34	3,34	0,17
	SD	0.67	1.10	0.37
		$t=2.64062$. $p=.005128$. significant at $p < .05$	$t=0.23426$. $p=.407743$. *not* significant at $p < .05$.	$T=.01505$. $p=<.00001$. significant at p .05.
		The chi-square statistic is 12.0258. The *p*-value is .002447. The result is significant at $p < .05$		
		ESS: *Students of English*; ASS: *Students of Arabic*; T: Total; M: *mean*; SD: *Standard deviation*		

Table 4.3: Essay Structure per Sample

At the paragraph level, the tables show an almost exact correspondence between the number of body paragraphs used in the two samples, exhibiting once again a similar tendency among both samples to adopt a 3 paragraph pattern for the development of the essay body which is a characteristic of short academic essays (both means ESS=3.57 and ASS=3.34).

However, **Table 4.3** shows that the internal structure of essays of the two samples differs noticeably. While both populations do not seem to vary considerably in the number of paragraphs they use to develop the body of their essays, statistics point a significant difference in the use of both introductions and conclusions between the two samples. The Arabic language subjects allot more than one paragraph to the essay introduction (with a mean of 1.34) than the EFL ones (with a mean of 1.02). In addition, while not all essays in both employed concluding paragraph (M=0.17) than the ESS (M=0.68). The ASS displayed far less. The difference is significantly indicated in terms of percentages: while 65.68% of the EFL subjects used a concluding paragraph, only 17.14% of the Arabic L1 students did so.

4.3.2. Thesis Statement

In this step, statistics regarding the thesis statement presence and correctness are examined across the two samples. This is followed by an analysis of the linguistic and rhetorical realization of the unit among the sets of population

4.3.2.1. Thesis statement presence

		Occurrence of thesis statement	Absence of thesis statement
ESS	N	25	10
	%	71.42	28.57
ASS	N	19	16
	%	54.28	45.71
x^2= 2.2028. p-value = .137761. *Not* significant at $p < .05$.				
ESS: *Students of English*; ASS: *Students of Arabic*				

Table 4.4. Thesis Statement Presence and Absence

Table 4.4 shows that more than half the number of essays in each group contained a thesis statement; still, the ESS has 71.42% of use, and ASS 54.28%. And so, 28.57% of the ESS did not include a thesis statement, against 45.71% of the ASS who did not do it. What is worth mentioning is that for these latter essays, the main idea was neither explicitly expressed in one sentence, nor implicitly implied where it would be possible for the reader to extract a thesis (the writer's attitude, opinion, specific idea) from the whole context. Nonetheless, it is important to mention that although there is a difference between the percentages of the occurrence of the thesis statement and its absence in both samples, that difference is not statistically significant.

What is worth mentioning is that many of the ASE which have not written a clear and well-focused thesis statements ended their introductory paragraphs with a series of questions. Then, the essay proceeded by providing an answer to each question in an independent paragraph. Sometimes sections are introduced by titles, most of the time with little linkage between these paragraphs. Examples of such questions are

➢ إذا ما هو التدريب الميداني؟ ما هي مراحله؟ ما أهدافه؟ ما هي الفائدة المرجوة منه؟ (ASE16)

Idhen m<u>a</u> huwa atadr<u>i</u>bu almeid<u>a</u>ni? m<u>a</u> hiya 'ahd<u>a</u>fuhu? wa ma hiya mar<u>a</u>hiluhu? wama alf<u>a</u>Idatu almarjuatu minhu?

So what is field training? What are its stages? What are its goals? What is its benefit?

➤ فما هو التدريب الميداني؟ و ما هي ابرز أهدافه؟ و ما هي مراحله؟ (ASE19)"

fama huwa atadrib almaydani? wa ma hiya abrazu ahdafhi? w ma hiya mar<u>a</u>hiluhu?

So what is field training? And what are its most prominent goals? And what are its stages?

➤ ما هو التدريب الميداني؟ ما هي أهدافه؟ و ما هي مراحله؟".

ma huwa altadrib almaydani? ma hiya 'ahdafuhu? wa ma hiya mar<u>a</u>hiluhu?

What is field training? What are its most goals? And what are its stages?

➤ "ما هو التدريب الميداني؟ ما هي أهدافه؟ و ما هي مراحله؟ وما الفائدة المرجوة منه؟"(AS32)

ma huwa altadrib almaydani? ma hiya 'ahdafuha? wa ma hiya mar<u>a</u>hiluha? wama alfayIdat almarjuatu minhu?" (AS32)

What is field training? What are its most prominent goals? And what are its stages? And What is its benefit?

4.3.2.2. Thesis statement correct use

		Correct	**Incorrect**	**Total**
ESS	N	17	08	25
	$\%_1$	68	32	
	$\%_2$	48.57	22.85	35
ASS	N	15	04	19
	$\%_1$	78.94	21.05	
	$\%_2$	42.85	11.42	35
x^2=0.6523. p-value= .419298. Not significant at p<.05			
$\%_1$ percentage of the students who use T.S (T=25)			
$\%_2$ of T_2 (35) total of population under study			

Table 4.5. Thesis Statement Correct Use

Cross tabulation analysis of the correct use of a thesis statement has revealed no significant difference between the two groups at $p < .05$ with $x^2 = 06523$ and $p=.41929$. **Table 4.5** shows that there is a fairly similar frequency of thesis statement correct use: 68% of the ESS: and 78.94 % of the ASS who mentioned a thesis statement in their writing in both samples wrote correct ones. That is, their essays discussed to a large extent the topic announced in the thesis statement.

4.3.2.3. Linguistic and rhetorical realization of the thesis statement

The following examples from the two groups exhibit the linguistic and rhetorical realization of the thesis across the two samples. It is first worth mentioning that although all the essays were dealing with the general theme 'practical training provided by the TTSC students' approaches to this topic yielded a variety of macro topics. Students' essays discussed, as the table below exhibits, one of at least three different topics:

➢ A general overview of the practical training course (PT): definition, goals, phases, etc.

➢ The training phases/ stages (T.Ph)

➢ The training school,

4.3.2.3.1. Announcing topic

Concerning the linguistic and rhetorical realization of the thesis statement, **Table 4.6** shows that 64.70% in ESS and 60% in ASS who used thesis statements wrote statement which announce the topic; none of them was written with a clear controlling idea or focus as the extracts from the two samples would show.

		Announcing topic	Purpose	Focus (CI)	Total	Essay developing CI
ESS	T	11	00	06	17	3 (out of 6)
	$\%_1$	64.70	00	35.29		
	$\%_2$	31.42	00	17.14	35	
ASS	T	09	02	04	15	1 (out of 4)
	$\%_1$	60	13.33	26.66		
	$\%_2$	25.71	5.71	11.42	35	
ESS: *Students of English*; ASS: *Students of Arabic;* $\%_1$ of T_2 (17, 15); $\%_2$ of T_2 (35)						

Table 4.6. Linguistic and Rhetorical Realization of the Thesis Statement

Examples from the ESS

➢   Myself, I experienced the training in Frantz Fanon school (ESE8)

➢   The future teachers of the TTSC carry out a practical training during their final year (ESE13)

➢   The first step we trainees have to undergo is the general observation (ESE16)

➢   To receive our training, three of my classmates and I were oriented to Abdelhamid Ibn Badis secondary school (next to the mosque of Emir Abdelkader and Ibn Taymiya secondary school (ESE27)

Examples from the AS

➢   "و التي تضمن تكوينا أكاديميا يتوج في السنة النهائية بتجربة مهنية تتمثل في التدريب الميدان"(AS15)

wallati taDmanu takwinan 'akadimiyan yutawwaju fisanati nnihaIyati bitajribatin mihanitatin tatamathalu fi atadrib almaydani

Which includes an academic training that will culminate in the final year with a professional experience represented in field training"

➢   "يتمثل في التدريب الميداني الذي يتم بالمؤسسات التطبيقية لولاية قسنطينة"(AS17)

ytamaththelu fi ttadrib lmaydani alladhi yattimu bilmu'assasat attaTbiqiyati liwilayati qasantina.

 It is the field training that takes place in the applied institutions of the wilaya of Constantine.

➢   يتوج في السنة النهائية بتكوين تطبيقيا يتمثل في التدريب الميداني (AS20)

yutawwaju fi ssanati nnihaIyati bitakwinin taTbiqiyan yatamathalu fi ttadrib almaydani

It will culminate in the final year with an applied training represented in field training.

➢   تنظم المدرسة العليا للأساتذة بقسنطينة لطلابها في نهاية مرحلة تكوينهم الأكاديمي بالمؤسسة تربصا ميدانيا (AS27)

tunaThimu almadrasatu al-ulya lilAsatidha biqasntina litullabiha fi nihayat marhalat takwinihim al'akadimi bilmu'asasa tarabuSan maydaniyan

The Graduate School of Constantine organizes for its students at the end of their academic formation at the institution a field training.

➢ "تنظم المدرسة العليا للأساتذة بقسنطينة لطلابها في نهاية مرحلة تكوينهم الأكاديمي بالمؤسسة تربصا ميداني"(AS28)

tunadhimu almadrasatu al-ulya lil'asatidha biqasntina litullabiha fi nihayat marhalat takwinihim al'akadimi bilmu'asasa tarabuSan maydani

The Graduate School of Constantine organizes for its students at the end of their academic training in the institution a field training.

➢ "لهذا الغرض تنظم المدرسة العليا للأساتذة بقسنطينة لطلابها في نهاية مرحلة تكوينهم الأكاديمي بالمؤسسة تربصا ميدانيا"(AS29)

lihadha lgharaD tunaTHimu lmadrasatu al-ulya lil'asatidha biqasntina litullabiha fi nihayat marhalat takwinihim al'akadimi bilmu'assasa tarabuSan maydaniyan

For this purpose, the Graduate School of Constantine organizes for its students at the end of their academic training at the institution a field training.

4.3.2.3.2. Expressing a focus (CI)

Table 4.6 shows that minority of 6 essays in the ESS representing 35.29% and 4 essays in the ASS, representing 26.66% contained more focused thesis statements with a noticeable controlling idea about the topic. Regardless of their potential weakness and possible language inaccuracies, the following examples articulate a visible stance:

- During this inspirational training experience, aspirant teachers have to encounter face to face pedagogical situations and genuine environment known as the practical training. (ESE1)

- To do so, the school provides students with opportunities to go on a practical training. (ESE2)

- In case there is any secret quality, a good training might be an appropriate answer for this question. (ESE6)

- In this context, the TTS of Constantine provided last year students with a worth-considering opportunity, the so-called practical training. (ESE7)

- The observational phase, the alternate and the full-time training are the major parts that constitute the training, all together play a major role in achieving the primary goal of the TTSC: The preparation of well-qualified teachers (ESE10)

- The initial step, however, that proceeds all those phases is a general observation of the host school" (ESE11)

Examples from the AS

➢ و هذه المواصفات المؤسساتية لها دور كبير في تشكيل شخصية التلميذ وجدانيا و معرفيا و مهاريا(ASE6)

wahadhihi lmuaSafat almu'assasatiya laha dawrun kabirun fi tashkil shakhSiat attilmidh wijdaniyan wa ma-rifiyan wa maharyan.

These institutional specifications have a major role in shaping the student's personality, emotional, cognitive and skillful.

➢ فالمدارس العليا تركز على نوعين من التكوين نوع نظري و أخر تطبيقي(ASE11)

falmadarisu l-ulya turakkizu -ala naw-ayni mina ttakwin: naw-un naThari wa 'akhar taTbiqi

The higher colleges focus on two types of training, the type of training and the last applied

➢ واعتنت المدرسة في تكوينها بالجانب التطبيقي الذي يتجلى في خروج الطلبة للميدان(ASE12)

wa -tanati lmadrasatu fi takwiniha bialjanibi attatbiqi 'alladhi yatajala fi khuruj aTalaba lilmaydan (ASE12)

The school took care of the practical aspect in its formation, which is reflected in the students' exit to the field.

➢ لذلك نقول أن فترة التدريب الميداني فترة ثمينة يجدر بنا استغلالها قدر الإمكان (ASE13)

lidh<u>a</u>lika naq<u>u</u>lu 'anna fatrata attadr<u>i</u>b almaydani fatratun tham<u>i</u>natun yajduru bin<u>a</u> 'istighl<u>a</u>luha qadra 'al'imk<u>a</u>ni (ASE13)

That is why we say that the field training period is a valuable period that we should exploit as much as possible.

Yet, among the essays whose thesis statements express clear, well focused controlling ideas, only 3 in the ESS (ES7, ES10, ES11) and just 1(AS11) in the AS would actually effectively develop the controlling idea expressed in the thesis statements.

4.3.2.3.3. Indicating a purpose

Two (02) thesis statements in the ASS (13.33%) were an expression of the writers' purpose behind writing the essays but in rather general terms while none of the ES wrote similar type of statements.

➢ نظرا لأهمية التدريب الميداني و فوائده فإننا سنحاول في هذا التقرير التعريف به من خلال الإجابة على الأسئلة الآتية ما هو التدريب الميداني؟ ما هي أهدافه؟ و ما هي مراحله؟ (ASE14)

naTHaran li'ahammiyati ttadr<u>i</u>bi lmayd<u>a</u>ni wa faw<u>a</u>'iduhu fa'innana sanu<u>ha</u>wilu fi h<u>a</u>dh<u>a</u> ttaqr<u>i</u>r atta-r<u>i</u>f bihi min khil<u>a</u>l al'ij<u>a</u>bati -ala al'as'ilati l'<u>a</u>tia: m<u>a</u>huwa attadr<u>i</u>bu lmayd<u>a</u>ni? ma hiya 'ahd<u>a</u>fuhu? wa m<u>a</u> hiya mar<u>a</u>hiluhu?(ASE14)

Given the importance of field training and its benefits, we will try in this report to define it by answering the following questions: What is field training?

➢ في هذه الفسحة نلقي الضوء على الجانب التطبيقي من التكوين وهو التدريب الميداني(ASE26)

wa fi h<u>a</u>dhihi alfush<u>a</u>ti nulq<u>i</u> DDaw'a -ala lj<u>a</u>nibi ttatb<u>i</u>qi mina ttakw<u>i</u>n wahuwa attadr<u>i</u>bu lmayd<u>a</u>niyu (ASE26)

In this space, we shed light on the practical side of training, which is field training.

4.3.2.4. Incorrect thesis statements

An incorrect thesis statement is defined in this study as one which does not match the content of the essay. In other words, while the statement, in the introduction for example, suggests a given topic or main idea, the rest of the essay discusses a totally different topic or idea. In this context, 32% of the ESS and 21.05% of the ASS who employed a thesis

statement wrote statements that did not match at all the rest of the essay. The following are illustrations of incorrect thesis statement use:

Eg₁: Shortly, the observation phase consists of two elementary parts that can be identified as general and specific (ESE3).

A reader would expect the essay to discuss the two types of observation announced in this sentence; however, the rest of the essay is devoted to a general description of the training school with no link to at least one of the types of observation mentioned in the thesis statement.

Eg₂: One of the marvelous experiments that the Teachers' Training School of Constantine offers for us as fifth year students, is the Practical Training after years of theoretical studies. (ESE15).

This statement might function as a thesis statement if the writer supported in any part of the essay the idea '*marvelous experiments*' which suggests that the writer would discuss (1) their personal experience and (2) their attitude and feelings to that personal experience. Instead, the essay supplies a thorough 'theoretical' description of the training school; no hints are made to what makes it a *marvelous experience.*

Eg₃: The latter has the major focus of putting trainees in a direct touch with their professional career. (ESE9)

In this example, the student wrote a statement which clearly specified a well narrowed idea-*putting trainees in a direct touch with their professional career*; yet, the essay includes a rather general account of the practical training course by defining it, stating its objective and describing its phases.

Similarly, AL₁ students wrote some thesis statements like:

➢ فالمدارس العليا تركز على نوعين من التكوين أكاديمي و ميداني(ASE23) .

falmadarisu l-ulya turakkizu -ala naw-ayni mina ttakwini 'akadimi wa maydani.

Higher colleges focus on two types of academic and field training.

➢ معتمدة في ذلك شقين من التكوين: شق نظري يهتم بتزويد الأستاذ بمختلف المعارف النظرية و النفسية والبيداغوجية توافقا مع الطور الذي تخصص فيه و شق تطبيقي هو التدريب الميداني(ASE25).

mu-tamidatan fi dhalika shaqqayni mina ttakwin: shaqun naThariyun yahtammu bitazwid al'ustadh bimukhtalifi alma-arifi anaThariat wa nnafsiat wa lbidaghujiya tawafuqaan ma-a ttawr aldhy takhaSSaSa fihi wa shaqun taTbiqiyun huwa attadribu almaydani.

On the basis of a two-parts training: a theoretical part concerned with providing the teacher with varied theoretical, psychological and pedagogical knowledge in accordance with the teaching level he is specialised in and the applied part which is field training.

The two statements indicate clearly that the writers would discuss two kinds of training (theoretical and practical); however, both essays elaborate on the practical aspect, and no reference is made again to the theoretical one.To sum up, almost half the population in both samples either did not use a thesis statement at all (28.57% for the ESS, 45.71% for the ASS), or wrote an incorrect one that does not match the content of the essays in any way (22.85% for the ESS, 11.42% for the ASS).

The other half which seemingly employed a correct thesis statement (a statement with a general topic) in their writing (48.57% for the ESS, 42.85% for the ASS) did not do it effectively. Most of them were merely announcing the topic without indicating any position, attitude, or at least a clear focus of this topic. The thesis statements which contained a clear focus failed to control the whole essay since the latter turned to provide more general and factual accounts of the topic than the thesis statement expressed. Only 1 thesis statement in the AS and 3 in the ES were actually effectively controlling the content of the essays.

4.3.3. Topic Sentence Use and Topic Shift

In the coming section, the ways of organizing ideas inside the paragraph by the two groups were statistically and qualitatively analyzed and discussed. To begin, the frequency of use of topic and topic sentence in a paragraph is investigated with the aim to explore the preferred rhetorical style for each population. Following Cho (1999), the topic sentence and the topic shift measurement were used to elucidate information about the indirectness or linearity of the writing style. Linearity, a preferred rhetorical feature of English (Kaplan, 1966), implies that there is only one idea that is being developed in a paragraph; this idea is defined first by one topic sentence (and only one) in that paragraph. As such, a rhetorically

well-structured paragraph in English is one which takes a linear pattern, containing only one topic sentence mentioned either (preferably) explicitly at the beginning of the paragraph or implicitly and includes no topic changes.

Thus, linearity will be explored through and demonstrated by

1. A low frequency of topic changes,

2. The presence of just one topic sentence in a paragraph, and

3. A low frequency of absence of topic sentences in paragraphs.

A higher number of topic changes in a paragraph, however, implies indirectness (Cho, 1999). The latter may be detected through

1. A high frequency of topic change,

2. A high number topic sentences in one paragraph, and

3. A high frequency of absence of topic sentences in paragraphs.

4.3.3.1. Topic sentence presence

		Absence of topic sentence	**One Topic sentence**	**Two Topic sentences**	**Total body paragraphs**
ESS	N	39	85	1	125
	%	31.20	68.00	0.80	
	M		0.68		
ASS	N	44	73	5	122
	%	36.06	59.83	4.09	
	M		0.59		
The chi-square statistic is 3.8434. The *p*-value is .146358. The result is *not* significant at *p* < .05					
ESS: *Students of English*; ASS: *Students of Arabic*					

Table 4.7. Topic Sentence Presence in Body Paragraphs

Having just one topic sentence per paragraph is a sign that an essay is written in the topic-support pattern which is the preferred pattern of English rhetoric. The Chi-Square test results shown in Table 4.7 display no significant difference in the frequency of topic sentence presence between the two samples (x^2=3.8434, p=.146358). Figures in the table also reveal no correspondence between the number of body paragraphs and the number of topic sentences in

the two samples. In both the ESS and the ASS one, there is respectively an average of 0.68 and 0.59 topic sentences per paragraph, i.e., less than one topic sentence per paragraph. This is an indication of a less likelihood of topic support in essays and rather a sign of indirectness of style in both samples. In addition, a small percentage of paragraphs in both samples (0.80% for ESE and 4.09% for the ASS) include 2 topic sentences. The figures evenly suggest an AS's leaning towards the latter rhetorical pattern. Such a rhetorical aspect (multi-topicality and digression) might be further detected through the exploration of topic shift in paragraph. In brief, the ESS and ASS probably do not have a different preference for topic sentence use. Excerpts 1 and 2 are examples of paragraphs from the ESS with no topic sentences

Excerpt 1

> The practical training allows students to train their language and check the acquisition and integration of the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing and put them in practice in a real teaching environment. Moreover, it is a chance for pre-graduate students to be in a constant contact with a diversity of learners from different social and cultural background in an authentic teaching context. Therefore, trainees have to demonstrate their ability to transmit knowledge effectively and manage classroom adequately to ensure a healthy teaching/ learning environment. Practical training gives trainees hands on experience that cannot be taught in school. Trainees also learn to work with professionals, face challenges that are real, make new friends and colleagues as well. (ESE9, 1)

In excerpt 1, there is a topic that is implied 'the role or benefits of the practical training for the trainee-teacher'; however, the paragraph suggests no clear stand point form the writer vis-à-vis this topic. For example, on which basis has the writer chosen these 'benefits'? Are they the only ones? Are they the most important ones? Are they objectives planned by the institution, are they the trainee's ones?

Excerpt 2

> The total number of pupils is around eight hundred pupil instructed by a staff of sixty-three teacher, among them five teachers of English. The absences rate of pupils is medium due mainly to late arrival. For the administrative staff, it consists of the headmaster, a general supervisor, a deputy head and twelve pedagogical assistants. (ESE17, 2)

Excerpt 2 includes some descriptive details about the training school. However, there are at least three different ideas (pupils' statistics, pupils' absence rate and administrative staff constitution) that make it difficult for the reader to deduce the controlling idea underlying the paragraph. In a similar vein, excerpts 3 and 4 are examples of paragraphs from the ASS which do not contain a topic sentences

Excerpt 3

تقدر مساحة المؤسسة ب 21000م2 منها 19218م^2 مساحات خضراء ذلك أن المؤسسة تحتل المرتبة الأولى بين الثانويات على مستوى الولاية من حيث الجمال الطبيعي يوجد بها مدخلان الأول مخصص للتلاميذ والثاني للأساتذة و لموظفي المؤسسة وتحتوي على مطعم طاقة استيعابه300 تلميذ بالإضافة إلى قاعة للرياضة فناء واحد مخصص عادة للرياضة و مدرج طاقة استيعابه 100 تلميذا. (ASE1, 4)

tuqaddaru misa̲h̲atu lmu'assasa bi 21000 m^2 minh̲a 19218m^2 misa̲h̲at khada̲ra' dhalika 'ana almu'asasa ta̲h̲tallu almartabata al'u̲la bayna ththanawia̲t -ala mustawa alwila̲ya min h̲aythu ljamal ttab̲i-i y̲ujadu bih̲a madkhal̲an al'awal mukhassas littalam̲idh wa thth̲ani lil'as̲atidha wa li muwaTHTHafi̲ almu'assasat wata̲h̲tawi -ala maT-am T̲aqatu 'isti-abihi 300 tilm̲idh bi'alaD̲afati 'ila q̲a'a lirriyaDa fin̲a' w̲ahid mukhassas 'adatan lirriy̲ada wa mudrraj taq̲atu 'isti'abihi 100 tilm̲idh

The area of the institution is estimated at 21,000m^2, 19,218m^2 of which are green spaces, as the institution ranks first among secondary schools at the wilaya level in terms of natural beauty. There are two entrances, the first is dedicated to students and the second is for teachers and employees, and it contains a restaurant of 300 students' capacity in addition to a sports hall, a yard that is usually for sports and an amphitheater with a capacity of 100 students.

In excerpt 3, the writer provides a description of the training school by providing some facts and statistics. But the absence of a topic sentence does not allow the reader to deduce what this collection of factual data does exactly transmit about the school.

Excerpt 4

يستهل الطالب المتربص التدريب الميداني بحضور حصص للملاحظة لمدة شهر كامل بمعدل حصة كل

أسبوع .بعد فترة الملاحظة، يدخل الطالب مغامرة التدريس أو ما يسمى بالتدريب المدمج؛ و كمرحلة

أخيرة يأتي التربص المغلق الذي يقوم فيه الطالب مقام الأستاذ المطبق.(ASE10, 2)

yastahillu ttalib almutarabis attadrib almaydani bihuduri hisas lilmulahaTHa limuddati shahr kamil bimu'addal hiSSa kul 'usbu- ba-da. fatrat lmulahaTHa yadkhuul ttalib mughamarat attadris 'aw ma yusamma bittadrib almudmaj wa kamarhala 'akhira ya'ti attarabus almughlaq alladhi yaqumu fihi attalib maqama al'ustadh almutabiq.

The trainee-student begins field training by attending observation classes for a full month, with a rate of one session every week. After the observation period, the student enters the adventure of teaching, or the so-called alternate training, and as a final stage, comes the full-time training during which the student takes the place of the training professor.

While the student in excerpt 4 discusses the topic 'training phases', the reader can deduce no clear position towards this topic, especially if we note that the writer introduces briefly one of the phases but just mentions the names of the two others.

On the other hand, paragraphs containing a topic sentence are illustrated below through excerpts 5 and 6 from the ESS and 7 an 8 from the ASS:

Excerpt 5

The second important phase that helps the trainees integrate practically in the teaching-learning process is the alternate phase. The students go once a week to the training institution for about 9 to 10 weeks. This phase pave the way to the final part of the full-time training. It gives the trainees the opportunity to move gradually in the presentation of lessons until they reach the final part where they present lessons daily for about 15 days. In the alternate phase, trainees prepare in advance all courses scheduled by the training teacher. they organize their work in a professional way just like professional teachers, e.g: trainees make research about the lessons, prepare the teaching cards, etc.

During this phase, students required to present either the beginning or the end of the course. Then they are given the opportunity to present two or three courses. (ESE10, 3)

Sentence 1 is the most general sentence. It announces the topic of the paragraph 'the alternate phase' and expresses the writer's intended idea about it, i.e., what they want to show exactly about the alternate phase: that it is an 'important phase' that helps the trainees integrate practically in the teaching-learning process'. The rest of the passage provide support and detail to this latter idea.

Excerpt 6

Coming to the institution's structure, the school is very vast. It occupies four hectares. it contains one main pedagogical building made up of two floors: The ground floor contains the administration, which includes the headmaster's office, the offices of other administrators, the teachers' room, a library, room in which conferences takes place and classrooms for the first year level. The first floor devoted to second year level (an exception is observed for a third year class because it is constituted by few member of pupils) while the second floor is for the third year level. In addition to this block, the school contains an annex in which we find laboratories and workshops. The school has twenty classrooms seven laboratories, three play grounds, a refectory, a sports hall, a computing room and a library which contains approximately a sum of six thousand books. (ESE15, 6)

Excerpt 7

التدريب الميداني يمر بثلاث مراحل يتبعها المتربص لتحقيق مهمته بنجاح وهي:

مرحلة الملاحظة وهي التي تمكن الطالب من التعرف على مهنته وتفحص جميع مظاهرها، وكذا التعرف على الوسط التعليمي المكون من الأسرة التربوية الفاعلة المحققة للتعليم مرحلة التدريب المدمج وهي ثاني المراحل، هدفها تكوين الطالب المتربص وإعداده تدريجيا وهذا من خلال تكليفه ببعض مهام الأستاذ المطبق. مرحلة التدريب المغلق وهي أخر المراحل تدوم ثلاثة أسابيع متواصلة يتم فيها التدريس بصفة رسمية من طرف المتربصين فتمكنهم من التفاعل مع المتعلمين(ASE17, 3)

atadribu lmaydani yamurru bithalathi marahil yattabi'uha lmutarabbis litahqiq muhimmatihi binajah wa hiya: marhalat lmulahaTHa wa hiya llati tumakkinu ttalib min tta'aruf 'ala mihnatihi wa tafhhuS jami' maTHahiriha, wa kadha atta'aruf 'ala lwaSat atta'limi almukawwan min l'usra ttarbawiya lfa'ila almuhaqiqa litta'lim. marhalat attadrib almudamaj wa hiya thani almarahil, hadafuha takwin attalib almutarabiS wa 'i-dadih tadrijiyan wa hadha min khilal taklifihi biba-D maham al'ustadh almuTabbiq. marhalat attadrib almughlaq wa hiya akhir almarahil tadumu thalathat 'asabi' mutawaSila yatiumu fiha attadris biSifa rasmiya min Taraf almutarabbiSin fatumakkinuhum min ttafa'ul ma'a lmuta'alimin.

Field training goes through three phases that the trainee will follow to successfully achieve his mission, which are: The observation stage, which enables the student to get acquainted with his profession and examine all its aspects, as well as to identify the teaching-learning setting, which is made up of an active educational family that achieves education. The alternate training stage, which is the second stage, aims to form the student-teacher and prepare him gradually through assigning him some of the tasks of the training professor. The full-time training phase, which is the last stage, lasts for two continuous weeks, in which the teaching is fully undertaken by the trainees in an official capacity, thus enabling them to interact with the learners.

Excerpt 7 begins with a sentence that sums up the rest of the paragraph. It names a topic 'three phases' and a precise idea about it 'the trainee will follow to successfully achieve his mission'. This topic sentence generates in the reader some expectations to explore how this topic (phases) contributes to the key expression 'successfully achieve his mission'

Excerpt 8

كل هذه الهياكل بطبيعة الحال يسهر على تسييرها فريق من المسيرين من اجل تعليم الأجيال الناشئة.

فيقدر إجمالي الأساتذة ب29 أستاذ منهم 21 أستاذة و يبلغ عدد أساتذة المادة ثلاثة (3) كلهم نساء

بالإضافة إلى طاقم إداري و مساعدين تربويين يشرفون جميعا على السير الحسن للمؤسسة. يقدر عدد

التلاميذ ب436 تلميذ يتوزعون على 15 فوج للسنوات الأولى و الثانية و الثالثة و الرابعة، و عدد

التلاميذ في القسم الواحد يختلف من قسم لآخر(6, ASE35)

kullu ḥadhihi alhayakil bitabi'ati alḥal yasharu 'ala tasyiriha fariqun mini almusayyirin min ajli ta'lim al'ajyal nnashi'a. fayuqaddaru 'ijmaliyu al'asatidha bi 29 'ustadh minhum 21 'ustadhatan wa yablugh 'adadu 'asatidhati almada thalatha (3) kulluhom nisa' bl'iDafa 'ila Taqam 'idari wa musa'idin tarbawiyyin yushrifuna jami-an 'ala ssayri alhasan lilmu'assasa. yuqaddaru 'adad ttalamidh bi 436 tilmidh yatawaza'una 'ala 15 fawj lissanawat l'ula wa ththania wa ththalitha wa rrabi'a, wa 'adad ttalamidh fi lqismi lwahid yakhtalif min qismin li'akhar

All these structures, of course, are supervised by a team of managers in order to educate the younger generations. The total number of professors is 29 professors, of whom 21 are female, and the number of professors in the subject is three (3), all of whom are women, in addition to an administrative staff and educational assistants who all supervise the good functioning of the institution. The number of students is estimated to be 436 students distributed into 15 cohorts for the first, second, third and fourth years, and the number of students in one department varies from department to another.

In excerpt 8, sentence 1 serves as a topic sentence for it is the most general one in the paragraph and it contains the two defining features of a topic sentence: Announcing the topic (team of managers) and a focus (supervise the school structures in order to educate the younger generations)

4.3.3.2. Topic shift/ change

	ESE		ASE	
	N	M	N	M
Topic sentence (TS)	87	0.69	83	0.68
Topic shift (Ts)	93	0.68	86	0.70
Topics (TS +Ts)	180	1.44	169	1.38
Body paragraphs	125	3.57	122	3.48
Topics per students (Topics divided by n(35)		5.14		4.82
t value for topic shift	t-value is -0.44668. p-value is .328264. The result is *not* significant at $p <$ .05.			
ESS: *Students of English*; ASS: *Students of Arabic;* N: Number of occurrences; M: Mean				

Table 4.8. Topic Shifts

Indirectness may also be apparent in the mean number of topic shifts across the two samples: a low number of topic changes would signify that there is a more tighten cohesion between ideas and more tendency towards directness. **Table 5.8** reveals that the number of topic changes used by the ESS and ASS per body paragraphs point to no significant difference in paragraph organization between the two groups. The ESS which had a nearly equal number of body paragraphs (125) as the ASS (122), made a close number of topic shifts (93) in their paragraphs to the ASS writers (86). So, while the ESS and ASS employed respectively an average number of 3.57 and 3.45 body paragraphs per essay, which implies approximately 3 topics discussed per essay, nearly 5 topics were actually being discussed by students in each essay. That is 5.14 and 4.82 topics were discussed per essay by respectively the ESS and ASS (that is 1.44 topic per paragraph for the ESS and 1.38 for the ASS). This is an indication of the multi-topical progression and indirect style of writing in both groups.

4.3.3.3. Linguistic and rhetorical realization of topic sentence

		Announcing topic	General	Fact	Focus (CI)	Total
ESS	N	30	1	3	53	87
	$\%_1$	34.48%	1.14%	3.44%	60.91%	
	$\%_2$	24.00%	0.80%	2.40%	42.40%	T § (125)
ASS	N	45	1	6	31	83
	$\%_1$	54.21%	1.20%	7.22%	37.34%	
	$\%_2$	36.88%	0.81%	4.91%	25.40%	T § (122)
The chi-square statistic is 9.6731. The p-value is .021559. The result is significant at p < .05						
ESS: Students of English; ASS: Students of Arabic						

Table 4.9. Linguistic and Rhetorical Realization of Topic Sentence

Figures in **Table 4.9** display the findings concerning the linguistic and rhetorical realization of topic sentence. The x^2 statistic suggests a significant difference at $p < .05$ in topic sentence writing between the two samples (x^2=9.6731. p=.021559). Although, on the whole, all subjects in both samples displayed similar linguistic and rhetorical patterns, the ESS largely outnumbers the ASS in writing 'effective topic sentences', that clearly state a topic and the controlling idea of the paragraphs and make it easy for the readers to foresee the subsequent discussion. Figures in **Table 4.9** clearly show that 60.91% of the topic sentences in ESS body paragraphs were actually topic sentences exhibiting an apparent focus while 42.40% of the ASS' topic sentences did so. On the other hand, there was a heavier tendency

among the Arabic language students (54.21% of the topic sentences) towards providing statements that were merely announcing the topic that the paragraph would be discussing without showing any specific idea, attitude or opinion towards it than the ESS (34.48% of the topic sentences). A percentage of 1.14% and 1.20% for respectively the ESS and the ASS of topic sentences were containing too general topics or providing mere facts (3.44% and 7.22% for respectively the ESS and the ASS). In sum, nearly 40% of the ESS and 60% of the ASS wrote topic sentences with no clear focus (merely announcing the topic, a fact or a general statement).

Examples from the ESS of topic sentences with a clear focus

➢ Moving to the cultural and sports activities, the school conducts two workshops including science and physics. (ESE3, 7)

➢ In order to enable trainees to integrate smoothly and gradually their future work place, they need to go through three main phases: The observation, the alternate and the dull-time phase (ESE7,2)

➢ The knowledge acquired in the TTS about the field of teaching plays an integral role in helping trainees to improve their performance during the practical training (ESE9, 2)

➢ After observational and alternate phases, trainees reach the final and most important stage in the whole training which is the full-time training (ESE10, 3)

➢ The practical training is divided into three basic phases through which the students plan and carry out tasks with critical approach (ESE13, 2)

➢ The thing which attracted and impressed me, is the school achievements in cultural and physical education ESE22(4)

➢ The school was named after one of the great persons in Algeria (ESE31,1)

➢ Concerning its infrastructure, it is well organized school (ESE32, 4)

Examples from the ESS of topic sentences with a clear focus

<div dir="rtl">– حيث يقوم على مبدأ التدرج(ASE2, 2)</div>

haythu yaqum 'ala mabda' ttadaruj

It is based on the principle of gradation

– التدريب هو تكوين ميداني يخضع له الطالب(ASE16, 1)

attadri̱b huwa takwi̱n mayda̱ni yakhDa'u lahu tta̱lib

The training is a field training that the student undergoes

– و بهذا التدريب الميداني هوعبارة عن تكوين تطبيقي يقوم به الطالب في السنة النهائية(ASE21, 1)

wa biha̱dha attadri̱b almayda̱ni huwa 'iba̱ra 'an takwi̱n tatbi̱qi yaqu̱mu bihi tta̱lib fi ssanati nniha̱'iya

This field training is a practical training the student carries out in the final year

– تنقسم ثانوية احمد باي بحسب هيكلتها و تنظيمها إلى قسمين (مادي، و بشري)(ASE2, 1)

tanqasim tha̱nawiyyat 'ahmad be̱y bihasab haykalatiha̱ wa tanTHi̱miha̱ 'ila qismayn (ma̱di, wa bashari)

Ahmed Bey High School is divided according to its structure and organisation into two parts (physical and human)

➢ و هو يتضمن جانبين أساسيين(ASE2, 2)

-wa huwa yataDammanu ja̱nibayni 'asa̱siyyayni

-It includes two main aspects

➢ التدريب الميداني هو الممارسة الفعلية للفعل البيداغوجي داخل القسم(ASE12, 1)

attadri̱bu almayda̱niyu huwa lmuma̱rasatu lfi'liyatu lilfi'li lbida̱ghuji da̱khila lqism

Field training is the actual practice of the teaching act inside the classroom.

➢ و ينقسم التدريب الميداني إلى ثلاث مراحل أساسية(ASE23, 1)

-wa yanqasima ttadri̱bu lmayda̱niyu 'ila thala̱thi mara̱hila 'asa̱sia

-Field training is divided into three basic phases .

➤ للتدريب الميداني أهداف عدة أبرزها(ASE23, 2)

littadrịbi lmaydạniyi 'ahdạfun 'iddatun 'abrazuhạ

Field training has several goals, the most important of which

The following statements are examples from the ESS of topic sentences which express no well-focused idea but which just announce a topic or a fact:

➢ Mostafa Benboulaid is a coeducational secondary school. (ESE 2, 5)

➢ Being fourth year students, my partners and I have been sent to Saladin Ayoubi middle school for our training. (ESE 11, 1)

➢ Concerning the human resources, the school includes nine hundred and fifty nine pupils

➢ The deputy head supplied us with the following information according to the interview grid. (ESE 29, 3)

➢ In our first visit, we met the personnel. (ESE 31, 3)

Similarly, the following Examples from the ASS of topic sentences show no well-focused idea but just announce a topic or a fact:

➢ استنادا إلى ما سبق فان التدريب الميداني يهدف الى(ASE16, 3)

'istinạdhan 'ila ma sabaqa fa'ina ttadrịba lmaydạniya yahdifu 'ila.

Based on what has been said earlier, field training aims to

➢ يهدف التدريب الميداني إلى(ASE18, 2)

yahdifu ttadrịbu lmaydạniyu 'ila.

Field training aims to

➢ و استنادا إلى ما سبق فإن التدريب الميداني يهدف إلى(ASE 22, 6)

wastinạdhan 'ila ma sabaqa fa'ina ttadrịba lmaydạniya yahdifu 'ila.

Based on what has been said earlier, field training aims to

≻ أرسل فوجنا إلى متوسطة "احمد سعدة خلخال" الكائنة بمدينة علي منجلي, ASE 23)

'ursila fawajuna 'ila mutawasit "ahmad sa'da khalkhal" alka'ina bimadinat 'ali manjli

Our group was sent to "Ahmed Saada Khalkhal" school, located in Ali Menjeli

≻ بعدها اخذنا نتعرف على المؤسسة و مختلف هياكلها(2, ASE 25)

ba'daha 'akhadhna nata-arraf 'ala lmu'assasa wa mukhtalaf hayakiliha

Then we got to know the institution and its various structures

≻ إذ تلقينا تدريبا مدته شهرين في المؤسسة، متوسطة عمار بلكرفة(3, ASE 25)

'idh talaqqayna tadriban muddatuhu shahrayni fi almu'assasa, mutawaSiTat ammar belkarfa

We received two-month training at the middle school Amar Belkarfa.

4.3.3.4. Topic sentence and paragraph development

An exploration of each paragraph which contains a topic sentence with a clearly stated topic and controlling idea was carried out to determine whether the latter is being actually and effectively developed in those paragraphs. The findings displayed in **Table 4.10** show that many subjects in both samples did not produce fully developed paragraphs. Indeed, only half of the 'effective topic sentences' (53.83%) written by the ESS and less than half of those of the ASS (41.93%) were to a certain extent effectively developed in paragraphs. The rest of the paragraphs in both populations were underdeveloped by students either by not supplying a sufficient amount of specific supporting information or evidence (definitions, details, statistics examples, etc.) to explain their idea (20.75% of the ESS and 38.70%) or by presenting none of this information and/or just mentioning the controlling idea and/or restating it (26.41% of the ESS and 19.35% of the ASS).

		Development	Insufficient development	No Development	Total
ESS	N	28	11	14	53
	$\%_1$	53.83	20.75	26.41	(53)
	$\%_2$	32.18	13	16.09	(87)
	$\%_3$	22.40	9	11.20	(125)
ASS	N	13	12	6	31
	$\%_1$	41.93	38.70	19.35	(31)
	$\%_2$	15.66	14.45	6.89	(83)
	$\%_3$	10.65	9.83	4.91	(122)
ESS: *Students of English*; ASS: *Students of Arabic*					

Table 4.10. Topic Sentence and Paragraph Development

Excerpts 9 and 10 represent examples of paragraphs where the topic and the controlling idea are effectively supported by the writer.

Excerpt 9

The knowledge acquired in the Teachers' Training School about the field of teaching plays an integral role in helping trainees to improve their performance during the practical training. This knowledge is the first key trainees rely on to guide them handling their classroom and conveying their message according to a pre-set plan of objectives that are based on needs and interests. To do so, the Teachers' Training School of Constantine in general and the department of English in particular offers its students the possibility to study different modules that relate to the teaching domain. Materials Design and Development (MDD), for instance, is a module that teaches students how to successfully design a teaching/learning material and choose the adequate content that goes hand in hand with the textbook objectives. Psycho-pedagogical Educational Development (PPED) is another module that highlights the process of how people learn and discuss how teachers use educational psychology in their practice relying on the choices of some important figures in the field of psychology. The latter is important in the sense that it teaches students to be flexible while transmitting knowledge and dealing with learners. As a result, the conjunction of MDD and PPED results in the conclusion that teaching is both science and art. (ES9, 2)

Excerpt 10

تحمل المؤسسة اسم الشهيد "رابح بو باكور" و هو من مواليد 1931 بزيغود يوسف. كفله عمه بعد وفاة والديه.
عاش بمنطقة "قشقاش" ضواحي الحرية وسط عائلة فقيرة حالها حال الشعب الجزائري آنذاك حيث تزوج وأنجب بنتا
تولدت فيه روح وطنية عالية و كره شديد للمستعمر لممارساته الوحشية و خاصة بعد أن ألقي القبض على عمه.
فالتحق بإخوانه في أعالي الجبال سنة 1957 وخاض معهم معركة "شعبة الكرد" التي تكبد فيها المستعمر خسائر
مادية و بشرية فادحة. في 20 ماي كان الشهيد بوباكور رفقة فرقة تضم 11 جنديا كلفوا بحرق إحدى مزارع
المعمرين إلا أن الوشاية الغادرة لعبت دورها الكبير فحوصروا و قاوموا و سقط منهم 10 شهداء منهم الشهيد
"رابح بوباكوى". و قد تم تسمية المؤسسة باسمه تخليدا لذكراه و بسالته و شجاعته.(ASE35, 4)

tahmilu almu'assasa 'isma shshahid "rabah bu bakur" wa huwa min mawalid 1931 bi
zighud yusef. kafalahu 'amahu ba'da wafati walidihi. 'asha bimanTiqat "qashqash"
Dawahi lhariat wasaTa 'aiila faqira haluha halu shsha'bi ljaza'iri anadhak haythu
tazawja wa 'anajiba bintan. tawalladat fihi ruhun waTaniyatun 'aliat wa kurhun
shadidun lilmusta'mir limumarasatihi lwahshiat wa khasatan ba'da 'an 'ulqiya lqabdu
'ala 'ammih. faltahaqa bi'ikhwanihi fi 'a-ali ljibal sanata 1957 wa khaDa ma'ahum ma-
rakat "sheibat alkrd" allati takdbada fiha lmusta'mir khasa'ira madiyatan wa
bashariatan fadiha. fi 20 may kana shshahid bubakur rafqata firqatin taDumu 11
jundiyan kullifu biharqi 'ihdha mazari-i lmusta'mirin. 'illa 'ana lwishayata lghadira
la'ibat dawraha lkabir fahusiru wa qawamu wa saqaTa minhum 10 shuhada' minhum
shshahid "rabah bubakur". wa qad tama tasmiatu lmu'assasati bismihi takhlidan
lidhikrahu wa basalatihi wa shaja'atihi.

The institution holds the name of the martyr "Rabeh Boubakour", who was born in
1931 in Zighoud Youssef. His uncle raised him after the death of his parents. He lived
in the "Qashqash" area, near of El-Hareya in a poor family like the Algerian people at
that time, where he married and had a daughter. He developed a high patriotic spirit
and a strong hatred for the colonizer for their brutal practices, especially after his uncle
was arrested. So he joined his brothers in the mountain in 1957 and fought with them
the battle of the "Shaabet el Kurd", in which the colonizer suffered heavy material and
human losses. On May 20, the martyr Boubakour was accompanied by a group of 11
soldiers who were assigned to burn one of the coloniser's farms. However, deceitful
snitching played a great role. They were besieged; they resisted, but 10 of them fell,

including the martyr "Rabeh Boubakour". The institution was named after him in honor of his memory, bravery and courage.

However, in the coming examples, although the two paragraphs contain clear and well-focused ideas, the latter are not effectively and sufficiently supported. The paragraphs are characterized rather by indirectness and digression.

Excerpt 11

The sport activity is very active. The school was awarded with so many cups on different occasions. {The discipline of the pupils can be described as unsatisfactory, since they smoke cigarettes in the corridor. However, if we take teachers they are well-disciplined and respectful}. (ESE17, 3)

This paragraph includes a topic sentence (the 1st one) with a well-focused idea (very active) about the topic (the sport activity). However, it also shows two main issues. First, the controlling idea is not sufficiently supported through the rest of the paragraph; there is only one sentence supporting it (2nd senetenc). Then, the third and fourth sentences of the paragraph are not logically related to the main idea mentioned in the topic sentence. They introduce a new topic 'discipline' in the school.

Excerpt 12

و تخصص المدرسة العليا للأساتذة تكوينا أكاديميا يتوج بتجربة مهنية تتمثل في "التدريب الميداني" (1) وذلك لتحضير الطلبة و تهيئتهم للحياة المهنية مستقبلا،{و يتم هذا التدريب بإشراف مزدوج بين الأستاذ المطبق و الأستاذ المشرف حيث يتلقى منهما الطالب مجموعة من النصائح و الإرشادات التي تساعده في مستقبله المهني و ذلك لخلق أستاذ كفء يواجه المحيط المهني بكل ثقة و جرأة}(2)و "هنا يتم استثمار مكتسبات سنوات الدراسة النظرية بتجسيدها إلى مهارات عملية مهنية من خلال عملية التعليم بكل مراحلها و أبعادها {و لتحقيق هذا يتلقى الطالب عدة مقاييس مثل: علم النفس، التربية التعليمية المنهجية كمواد أساسية مؤهلة ترافقه طيلة مدة التكوين" فالتدريب يهدف إلى الممارسة الفعلية لمختلف المعارف النظرية}(3) و {هو يمر بثلاث مراحل : مرحلة الملاحظة ، مرحلة التدريب المدمج، مرحلة التدريب المغلق}(ASE 9, 1)

wa tukhaSSisu lmadrasatu l'ulya lil'asatidha takwinan 'akadimiyan yutawaju bitajribatin mahniatin tatamathalu fi "ttadrib lmidani" wa dhalika litahdiri ttalaba wa tahyi'atihim

lilhayati lmihniati mustaqbalan , wa yatimu hadha ttadribu bi'ishrafin mazdawajin bayna l'ustadhi lmutbbiq wa l'ustadh lmushrif haythu yatalaqa minhuma ttaalibu majmu'atan min nnaSa'ihi wa l'irshadati llati tusa-iduhu fi mustaqbalihi almihani wa dhalika likhalqi 'ustadhan kuf'an yuwajihu lmuhiTa lmihaniya bikulli thiqatin wa jur'atin wa "huna yatimmu 'istithmara muktasabat sanawati ddirasati nnaTHariati bitajsidiha 'ila maharatin -amaliatin mihaniyatin min khilali -amaliati tta-limi bikulli marahiliha wa 'ab-adiha. wa litahqiqi hadha yatalaqa ttalibu -iddata maqayisa mithla: -ilma nnafs, ttarbiata tta-limiata lmanhajia kamawada 'asasiatan mu'ahilatan turafiquhu tilata mudata ttakwin" fattadribu yahdifu 'ila almumarasata lfi-liata limukhtalifi lma-arifa nnaTHaria wa huwa yamuru bithalathi marahil: marhalata lmulahaTHa, marhalat ltadrib almudamaj , marhalat ttadrib lmughlaq.

> The Ecole Normale Supérieure provides an academic training that culminates in a professional experience- "field training- in order to prepare students fortheir future professional life. This training is carried out under double supervision of the training teacher and the supervising one. The student receives from them a set of pieces of advice and instructions that help them in their future professional career in order to create a competent teacher who would face the professional environment with confidence and daring. Here, the gains of the theoretical years of studies are invested by translating them into professional practical skills through the teaching process with all its stages and dimensions. And to achieve this, the student receives several modules such as: Psychology, systematic educational methodology as basic qualifying subjects accompanying them throughout the training period. The "training aims at actual the practice of various theoretical knowledge. And it goes through three stages: the observation stage, the blended training stage, and the closed training stage.

Excerpt 12 is a good example of digression as it contains at least 4 topics. It begins with a topic sentence that suggests that the paragraph will be defining topic (1) 'practical training course'. However, the writer shifts the discussion by introducing a new topic (2) 'teachers supervisor' and their role in accompanying trainees. Then, they come again to the discussion of the topic (1) before introducing again topic (3) 'theoretical training' and shifting to topic (4) 'training phases'. However, and as a result of this continuous shift the paragraph provides none of the four topics with a sufficient development.

4.3.4. Use of Titles and Lists

		Subjects	**N**	**M**	**M of total sample**
ESS	Titles	02	04	02	0.11
	Lists	00	00	00	00
ASS	Titles	21	106	5.04	1.66
	Lists	15	25	3.02	0.71
		Subjects	N	M	M of total sample
ESS: *Students of English*; ASS: *Students of Arabic;* M:					

Table 4.11. Use of Titles and Lists

Another significant outcome of the analysis concerns the ASS frequent use of two rhetorical features, namely titles and listing. This rhetorical characteristic seems to be a common trait of Arabic language speaking writing whereby the title or a word or phrase serve to present the topic of the essay in a kind of organization known as "unity by term dominance" (Markels, 1984; cited in Derrick-Mescua, 1985).

4.4. Discussions of the Findings

The results of the CR analysis do reveal some interesting facts about the realization of the macro-rhetorical aspects under study among the L1 sample and EFL one.

4.4.1. Essay Structure and Organization

This study has shown that the EFL group and the AL one arrange their essays slightly differently although both of them used almost the same number of paragraphs to develop a body of their essays. Investigation of the EFL and AL essays signaled two major differences. First, the Arabic language subjects wrote longer introductions than the EFL ones; they allotted more than one paragraph to the essay introduction (with a mean of 1.34) than the EFL ones (with a mean of 1.02). In addition, their essays are lacking in the conclusion section; only 17.14% of them included a concluding paragraph. What can be noticed here is that the EFL essays are more likely structured according to the typical essay development model in English which follows the 1-pararaph introduction, body and conclusion order.

The results suggest that there is a tendency in L1 writing for not using a conclusion in comparison to L2 writing. Possibly, the quite significant percentage of the EFL subjects

(31.43 %) who did not employ this strategy might have conserved some of their L1 writing habits which might still influence them in their EFL writing.

4.4.2. Thesis Statement

Although the EFL group slightly outnumbered the AS one in the frequency of thesis statement and topic sentence use, both significantly converge in the 'correct' use and linguistic and rhetorical realization of these features. Analysis of data of both samples indicates the following:

- 71.42% of the ESS, but a smaller one of 54.28% of the ASS provided some sort of thesis statements for their essays.

- 28.57% of the ESS and 45.71% of the ASS did not provide any thesis statements for their essays

However,

- Some of the students who mentioned a thesis statement (32% of the ESS and 21.05% of the ASS) wrote 'incorrect' ones, that is statement of topics or ideas that happened to be unrelated to the rest of the essay and thus failed to orient the readers.

- Most of the students who mentioned a thesis statement did not succeed in expressing a well-focused idea to map the subsequent essay discussion; they wrote instead broad and unfocused statements that function as announcement of the topic of the essay.

The thesis statement is an important characteristic of the English writing conventions; it is a "culturally based textual element of writing" (Petric, 2006, p.213), that is a "textual feature that are found by CR research to be characteristic of the writing pattern of a language and/or are reinforced through educational practices" (p. 215). Oshima and Hogue (2006) alert that a thesis statement should be neither too general, nor an obvious fact, or a simple announcement. Wyrick (2002) agrees stressing that a thesis should not be merely an announcement of your subject matter or a description of your intentions. State an attitude toward the subject" (p.237), and warns writers that "the single most serious error is the "so-what" thesis" (p.229). So, the thesis statement is a sentence which not only announces the topic of an essay but also asserts the main point or controlling idea of an essay and answers, to use Wyrrick's (2002, p. 31) words "these questions: 'What is the subject of this essay?'

'What is the writer's opinion on this subject?' 'What is the writer's purpose in this essay?' (to explain something? to argue a position? to move people to action? to entertain?)".Thus, a good thesis, always according to Wyrick "states the writer's clearly defined opinion on some subject. You must tell your reader what you think. Don't dodge the issue; present your opinion specifically and precisely' (2002, p.33).

Most of the sentences used in the EFL and AS data as thesis statements seem to answer just the first question posed by Wyrick (2002) and embody most of the problems warned against by Wyrick (2002)and Oshima and Hogue (2006). On the whole, results of the data analysis suggest a failure to include effective thesis statements; implying thus, that the EFL essays are far from the English model as far as stating a thesis is concerned and are more representational of L1 writing. Derrick-Mescua and Gmuca (1985, p.7) argue that one characteristic of Arabic prose is "the use of implicit thesis statements and the broad coverage of topics". They note that "Arabic students' papers often lack thesis sentences. In many cases, the thesis is implicit; since the writer and reader agree on the point being made, there is no need to state it explicitly" (p.7). This culturally-based element does not seem to be a pre-requisite as Arabic language speakers may use it or not . to this effect, Bacha, (2010, p.230) declares that: the "claim in L1 Arabic argumentative texts are usually towards the end of the text, if at all given"

Failure to include effective thesis statements by such advanced EFL learners shows that they still have trouble in assimilating the role of the thesis statement in English writing in organizing the thoughts, mapping the essay's points and guiding the readers. This problem cannot be simply considered as an interlanguage (IL) feature or a developmental problem at such an advanced level. rather, it may be understood as an L1 culturally-rooted deeply rhetorical pattern that learners are not readily getting rid of and which is conflicting with the L2 pattern.

4.4.3. Topic Sentence Use and Paragraph Development

The EFL students and the AL ones demonstrate closer to similar figures of

- Topic sentences presence: Both the ESS corpus and the ASS one display an average of respectively of 0.68 and 0.60 topic sentence in a paragraph (that is less than one topic sentence in a paragraph)

- Topic shifts: Both the ESS corpus and the ASS one display an average of respectively 1.44 and 1.38 topic changes in a paragraph,

- Absence of topic sentences in a paragraph: Both the ESS corpus and the ASS one display an average of respectively 31.20% and 36.06% of absence of topic sentences.

This demonstrates that students' paragraphs are mostly characterized by digression and circularity. Linearity is the most common style of English writing. It is realized through expressing one idea in a paragraph, expressed clearly in a topic sentence and then sticking to that idea through the entire paragraph. So, the topic sentence is the most important sentence in the paragraph, for it they mention the main idea of the paragraph. Like the thesis statement, it not only announces the topic of the paragraph, but it also limits it to only one specific area (usually referred to as the controlling idea) that can be fully discussed within a single paragraph. Wyrick (2000) compares the topic sentence in its structure and role to the thesis statement and advises writing learners to:

> Think of a body paragraph (or a single paragraph) as a kind of mini-essay in itself. The topic sentence is, in a sense, a smaller thesis. It too asserts one main idea on a limited subject that the writer can explain or argue in the rest of the paragraph. Like the thesis, the topic sentence should be stated in as specific language as possible (2002, p.51) so that they can write effective topic sentences

However, linearity is not actually a preferred style in Arabic rhetoric as shown in most of the CR literature (Kaplan, 1966; Connor, 1996) and further confirmed in the present study. The latter demonstrated also that even the EFL students did not structure their essays according to the rule of linearity and showed to large extent a tendency towards circularity and digression similar to that of Arabic language students. In other words, while writing whether in English or in Arabic, topics in the paragraphs were changed without necessarily being signaled or introduced by a new topic sentence. This rhetorical feature of Arabic discourse which is the digression of ideas that are often not fully developed and/or supported has been also highlighted in some CR findings such as Bacha's (2010).

Once again, the findings point out visibly that the ESS essays in the present study are relatively more closely structured according to ASS patterns and much less to the English preferred style of linearity. In other words, those advanced EFL learners do still exhibit troubles writing unified paragraphs which can be a mirrored effect since there is a similar tendency within the ASS to topic shift within a paragraph. Thus, students who have not completely assimilated the particular English rhetorical aspect of linearity, resort to L1 regression and circularity styles. As a result, they encounter troubles structuring their paragraphs and/or sustaining topic unity.

On the other hand, essays in the samples demonstrate fairly different figures concerning the linguistic and rhetorical realization of the topic sentence:

- The ESS surpass the AS one in writing effective topic sentences which clearly state the topic and the controlling idea of the paragraphs: 60.91% of the topic sentences used by the ES in their body paragraphs exhibiting an apparent focus while only 42.40% of the AS one did so.

- The ASS surpassed the ES one in providing statements that were merely announcing the topic that the paragraph would be discussing without showing any specific idea, attitude or opinion towards it with a percentage of 54.21% for 34.48% of the ESS.

4.4.4. Poor Paragraph Development

As explained earlier, a good paragraph in English is a set of sentences that expand one main idea that is commonly known as the controlling idea and is generally articulated in the topic sentence. This main idea is then developed through supporting sentences. The latter support the topic sentences by explaining, exemplifying, defining or supplying any other sort of details to fully develop it. That is why, writers must provide enough supporting information or evidence in each paragraph and make that information clear and specific enough to enable the reader grasp this controlling idea (Wyrick, 2002). A good paragraph has unity, that is, every sentence in a body paragraph has to be straightly linked to the main idea expressed by the topic sentence. It "must stick to its announced subject; it must not drift away into another discussion" (Wyrick, 2002, p.64).

4.4.5. Topic Unity

The aim of the discussion is to explore the role of the topic sentence in ensuring the global coherence of the text, and the way the meaning is constructed to maintain the overall unity of the topic. So, paragraph unity and topic development depend largely on the presence of an effective topic sentence. A topic sentence that is well focused and stated precisely will not only assist the reader to understand the point of the paragraph but will also help the writer select, organize, and develop their supporting details. On the other hand, a vague or unfocused topic sentence would result in a paragraph that covers the topic superficially. If it is totally absent, however, the paragraph runs easily the risk of losing the thread of thought strolling away from the subject.

Students' paragraphs on the whole exhibited a poor development, loose layout and sometimes incoherent structure. This finding seems to be a logical effect of the formerly identified rhetorical problems encountered by subjects in the present study, namely topic sentence absence, topic shifts and absence of precisely stated (controlling ideas) in those paragraphs containing topic sentences.

Though they have received an extensive instruction of the fundamental English rhetorical patterns over a 3-year writing course, with a minimum of 4 hours and a half per the present sample of Algerian advanced EFL students on the whole failed to address culturally based rhetorical element of thesis statement, topic sentence and topic and paragraph unity and continued to rely on L1 macro-rhetorical features to shape their writing.

Conclusion

L2 writing literature encompasses a plethora of research projects which have been undertaken to investigate culture influence on ESL/ EFL writing in a variety of contexts. As a matter of fact, many studies, whether EA, CR, ethnographic, (Hamzaoui-Alhachachi, 2015; Hamadouche, 2015; Drid, 2015) were conducted to explore the rhetorical patterns of Algerian EFL learners. Most of them ended up confirming the CR hypothesis that EFL learners' writing exhibits to varying degrees many of the L1's rhetorical features. Yet, more research needs to be undertaken to trace how this possible influence is altered as learners' L2 proficiency advance. Though a wide range of researches of L2 writing have demonstrated that L2 writers rely on their L1 rhetorical knowledge, it has not been established with certainty whether those who received extensive L2 training and have achieved a rather high L2 proficiency can operate successfully along L1 and L2 writing norms (Hinkel, 1994).

This chapter attempted to explore this statement by investigating the writing of advanced EFL learners in the Algerian context via a CR task comparing data derived from EFL and AL written texts that have responded to a similar assignment. The aim was to determine whether rhetorical features accepted in the English speaking academic tradition and which have been the subject of instruction for not less than 3 years are clearly assimilated and successfully employed by Algerian advanced EFL learners. Results show traces of EFL students L1 cultural and rhetorical traces in their EFL writing of many of them at the macro-rhetorical levels of thesis statement, topic sentence, topic and paragraph unity. As a result, their English writing showed indirectness, multi-topicality and clear digressions.

Chapter Five

Teachers' Perceptions of Culture Influence on Algerian English as a Foreign Language Students' Writing

Introduction

Edlund (2003, p. 371) suggests a set of questions a composition teacher should ask himself and ESL students. Some of these are "(1) What's the student's native language? (2) What other languages does the student speak? (3) Is the student able to read and write in his or her native language? (4) How much does the student read in English? (5) How much does the student read in his or her native languages? (6) Is English the student's most comfortable language of literacy? (12) What is the student's major? What are the student's career goals?" In a true EFL context such as the case of English language teaching at TTSC, a high education training teacher institution- the situation seems at first glance a painless one. The writing course is provided by an Algerian teacher for a group of Algerian English students in an Algerian context. The writing instructor in such a context appears to be in a better situation than his colleague ESL writing instructor in ESL contexts. He/she teaches an L1-homogenous class with which they quite often share a common linguistic and cultural background. He/she is then more likely to know answers to most of the above questions. And then, he/she has no trouble being aware of the differences existing between writing in English and writing in students' L1. Additionally, s/he would easily make these differences overtly apparent to his/her students (Kaplan, 1966), for he/ she is supposedly more cognizant of the two cultural and writing systems. Nonetheless, if the teachers fail to perceive this complex picture, they will tend to highlight only one facet of the intricate EFL learning context, the one pertaining to the English language itself or to the learner, and disregard the other side which is L1 influence. Thus, it seems quite indispensible to get enough contrastive knowledge of the Arabic and English writing systems. This can help teachers make adequate decisions about the method of instruction, feedback and evaluation procedures to detect, predict and take in charge cultural and L1 influence problems in students' writing. Unfortunately, teachers can do this only if they are sufficiently aware of the role of culture in an EFL writing class and the relationship between EFL writing and culture and L1 writing and culture. By the same token, learners' awareness towards cultural and L1 influence would be raised. In this regard, the present chapter attempts to uncover the TTSC writing teachers' perceptions of the place of culture in the EFL writing by means of an interview.

5.1. Objectives of the Interview

While there are different types of interviews used in qualitative methods that range from unstructured to semi-structured (using a topic-guide) to highly structured, the tool employed in

the present study is a semi-structured interview. The main objective of the interview is to explore teachers' experiences, and views with regard to the teaching of writing in an EFL context, their perceptions and attitudes toward the role of culture in the foreign language writing class, awareness of the difference between writing conventions of both English and their native language, and the reflection of such an awareness/ its absence in their actual teaching writing practices.

5.2. Population and Implementation

The interview was conducted with three female teachers of WE in the department of English in the TTSC during the first two weeks of June 2015. The three teachers, one from each level, were selected on the basis of their teaching writing experience (8-14 years); they have also carried out the task of coordination between the teachers of their respective WE team. The subjects were informed beforehand about the object and content of the interview, and they reserved time for the interview appointment.

The recording of the interview data took place by means of note-taking and audio recording (using a mobile devise application). The average interview took 30 minutes (with a range from 30 to 38 minutes). Although some interruptions and breaks did occur while conducting them, all interviews were completed in full. Then, each interview was fully transcribed for analysis and interpretation.

5.3. Description of the Interview Guide

The interview is based on a loose structure or topic guide made up of 4 topics sections, each made mostly of open-ended questions (cf. Appendix 3). The sections and questions identify some major themes related the object of research: culture and the teaching writing practices; other themes have been identified in the course of discussions with teachers. The interview guide includes themes related to teachers':

- Identification and account of learners' writing problems, interpretation and categorization of the difficulties and perception of the possible causes or sources of these problems

- Approaches and attitudes towards teaching, and evaluating writing in the FL class.

- Perceptions of the place of culture- both the L2 and L1- in their actual practices: teaching, evaluation, feedback provision

- Knowledge and extent of use of the intercultural/ contrastive rhetoric in their teaching,

5.4. Method of Coding, Analysis and Interpretations

The present study adopts a content analysis procedure. Content analysis is "a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context." (Krippendorff, 1989, p. 403). As far as qualitative data (more commonly interview) analysis, is concerned, there is disparity in the number and description of steps outlined for the same process by different researchers. However, those accounts can all approximately fit into 3 main steps (Patton, 2002), through which the analysis of the present interview data was done.

5.4.1. Step 1: Coding Schemes

In the present work, this first step was the hardest and more time consuming. All the transcripts (cf. Appendix 4) were first read to get a general idea of the body of the collected data. Then, a three-step coding process was applied to organize classify the data into meaningful patterns.

(1) **Open coding** consisted in cutting the data into topics using computer assisted word processing facilities 'search', 'copy', 'paste'… During this phase, the analyst looked for the recurring units in the verbatim data which were used to extract categories for a first classification by means of writing comments in the margin of the recorded data passages and using colored highlighted segments in text. Each category was named in accordance with the relevance of the data and theoretical framework. This open coding step yielded a preliminary list of descriptive indicators for some segments of meaning in relation to each of the interview' topics. In short, these identified patterns of meaning were consistent with the questions that were asked during the interviews.

(2) **Axial coding**: All the preliminary named units of meaning were then analyzed and cross classified for coherence, accuracy, meaningfulness, potential categorization and placement of data into categories by proceeding back and forth between data. In this step, a new typology emerged, using either participant-generated constructions or analyst-generated constructions, including some units that were not apparent in the first step.

(3) **Selective coding**: Finally, the classification systems were further verified to establish priorities among the emerging systems to conclude which are more important. The

tables below outline and illustrate the final compiled list of components of the interview data analysis.

5.4.2. Step 2: Description and Interpretation of Data

After the data had been coded and organized, the researcher proceeded to their description. During this second stage of data analysis, the researcher explained the various related aspects of the phenomenon under study by presenting clear, concrete descriptive accounts of each topic in such a way, very often using quotes from interviewees' responses, to allow readers understand and draw their own interpretations.

5.4.3. Step 3: Interpretation

The third and final phase of the analysis process involves the explanation of the findings through answering, depending the phenomenon examined, the why, how, what …questions. Interpretation data should not be confused with descriptive data. The interpretation phase was undertaken according to the researcher's theoretical background and attitudes towards the topic that were build out of a review of pertinent literature.

5.5. Interview Results and Analysis

The coding and analysis of teachers' responses has produced the following results displayed in the tables below. The results include responses to the interview questions and identify topics related the object of research: culture and the teaching writing practices in addition to themes not initially planned in the interview but were identified in the course of discussions with teachers.

5.5.1. Students' Writing Problems

Before tackling students typical and most common difficulties encountered when writing in English, the three teachers agreed that while teaching writing, students grasp the organization and structure of the written type being taught, be it the paragraph in the 1st year or the essay in the 2nd and 3rd years. The 1st year teacher added that punctuation, which is part of the 1st year writing syllabus, is usually mastered by students except for the comma. 'Probably, they find more problems with comma because we use the comma more than the others', she said.

Level	1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Most common problems	1)Grammatical errors 2)Spelling mistakes 3)Limited vocabulary 4)Vocabulary transfer from Arabic 5) No outline use	1)Wordiness 2) Lack of content information 3) Topical paragraph problems 4) No outline use	1) Thinking in Arabic and writing in English 2) Focus on structure 3) Wordiness, lack of ideas & insufficient elaboration: 4) No outline use

Table 5.1. Teachers' Perceptions of Students' Writing Problems

The 1st year teacher

According to the 1st year teacher, the most common writing problems are *grammatical* errors (eg: tenses) which persist until the end of the teaching period in spite of teacher's feedback in addition vocabulary problems: The "vocab register is very limited; this may lead to produce spelling mistakes probably. Word choice, I haven't talked about it but this error is repeated by the learners; they wrongly choose the word." As a result, "They sometimes substitute, they sometimes translate from mother tongue to English because they lack the English, and sometimes they wrongly choose the word, they choose a word instead of another because they lack-vocab and grammar". The last problem concerns the *outline* which is used by students only when imposed by the teacher.

The 2nd year teacher

The 2nd year teacher asserted that students' writings in second year exhibit mostly:

1) ***Wordiness*** 'Wordiness is the major problem I'm facing with my students each year, and I'm trying to help them overcome this problem. Well, for sure they are of course progressing but it remains'

2) ***Lack of content information*** due to lack of reading: 'On the other hand, of course the lack of reading is one of the major problems. It is one that influences the ideas'. This problem is especially encountered when dealing with informational pattern essays where students 'need to read. The result of this lack, well, is apparent in their quality of writing', the teacher declared.

3) *Topical paragraph problems*: absence of a topic sentence, the presence of many controlling ideas, and lack of unity. 'The problem of my students is the paragraph writing: yes, the topical paragraph; they still suffer from writing a well-developed topical paragraph.' A possible source of this types of problems for the2nd year teacher would be insufficient paragraph writing instruction in 1st year 'I think that this problem is due to the weaknesses of 1st year, and I will- because I've tried almost many times to discuss the problem with my colleagues, and that may be there is an over focus on speech parts and sentence structure. The time left for paragraph writing is too short: only the 2nd semester, not a full semester for the paragraph. It is not enough to develop the skill of writing a paragraph.' She added that the problem is not with the students' theoretical knowledge for 'theoretically they know what are the types of sentence they need to include: topic sentence, supporting details, but here in practice most, almost all students write without a topic sentence. The sentences, well you find that there is no- the sentences are supporting… they do not support each other because there are many controlling ideas within one paragraph'.

4) *No outline use* 'I did not mention another problem which is also major in essay writing: well, the students are even though they are writing within a process, but they write without an outline'

The 3rd year teacher

What the 3rd year teacher has noticed over her 8 years of experience in teaching writing is that students' writings are most often characterized by:

1) Thinking in Arabic and writing in English regardless of the appropriateness of meaning

2) Focus on structure: "what matters for them is it is well structured"

3) Wordiness, lack of ideas and insufficient elaboration: 'the essay discusses one idea from the beginning to the end and they just keep on repeating it'.

4) Outline used only when imposed by teacher

5.5.2. Teaching Writing at the TTSC

The interviews helped to uncover some specificities of the teaching of writing to EFL students at the ENSC. These are summarized in two tables: one depicts teachers' approaches and methods of teaching writing and the second groups their evaluation and feedback practices.

5.5.2.1. Teaching methodology

	1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Method	**Product-oriented** Culture-free	**Process-oriented** Culture-free	**Process- product** Culture-free
Lesson Description	Inductive theoretical input Model paragraph class analysis Practice: topic writing; in class or at home; in groups, or individually	Deductive theoretical input A 3 phases writing assignment 1) Planning: (Teacher's supervision, outline writing) 2) Drafting 3) Revising in class activity (self-review, peer review, teacher review) - 2nd draft writing not emphasized, not further revised	Deductive theoretical reminding A 3 phases classroom writing assignment 1) Planning a) Individual task b) A collective outline 2) Drafting a) A collective draft b) Individual drafting -Teacher collects final products.

Table 5.2: Teaching Writing Methodology

The 1st year teacher

The 1st year teacher stated that she follows a combination of both the process approach and the product one: "it is the process approach, may be both of them: we start with the process approach and then we move to the product approach." However, her overall responses reveal that it is much more a p*roduct-oriented* methodology since her description of her lesson's procedure does not involve an account of any of the phases usually followed in the process approach. When she said 'we start with the process approach', the teacher was referring to the analysis of some aspects of the rhetorical situation (subject, audience, purpose) prior to paragraph writing and the use of the outline. Yet, even when she sometimes (not always) does so, the overall focus is by and large on the product more than the process as she explains: "I remember I *once* gave them a topic, the same topic- let's say pollution, and since we study subject, purpose, and audience before writing any paragraph, I asked them to

narrow the topic by their own, to think of a particular audience and to state a specific purpose; and at the end of their productions, they worked collectively in groups, and the work was in the classroom. They started in the classroom and finished at home. And we read all the **productions**, we found that these elements cannot be isolated or separated from paragraph production". For outline writing too, the teacher 'invites', not compels, learners to use it as part of any pre-writing or planning step, but she notes that 'not all learners use it'. When given freedom: 'half class uses it; half won't'. At last, revising is not an integral stage of the teacher's lesson or the 'writing process' as she neither has procedures to guide students revising nor to check it 'I tell them to revise, but I do not check whether they do or not'

A typical writing lesson in 1st year then starts with some theory about the writing point/ pattern followed by a 'sample'/ model , paragraph class analysis to extract the writing characteristics of the text type. Then, as practice, students write about a topic sometimes in class, at other times at home; sometimes in groups, sometimes individually. These are clear steps of a product-oriented methodology.

2nd year teacher

The 2nd year teacher affirmed that she uses the process approach. But she proceeds first by 'raising her learners' awareness implicitly' through model essay analysis. Accordingly, the theoretical input, that is "the major points of the essay, mainly the thesis statement", is usually deduced after a model essay analysis which are then compared with the characteristics of previous patterns of development to determine 'what makes this thesis statement different from the previous one? What are the linking words, the transitions, the signal words?'

The next step is the writing assignment where students are provided with a general topic and are required to go through the 3 phases: to plan, write an outline and write a first draft.

 (1) Planning, the first stage is undertaken under the teacher's supervision of most activities, and it absorbs much of the class time (sometimes two sessions, i.e., 3 hours). Using different strategies for generating ideas such as reading for the topic (for certain topics and information essay types), and brainstorming and jotting down ideas, the stage ends with outline writing.

(2) When drafting, students start first with introduction writing that is checked by the teacher as a class activity. Then, they finish the essay at home but only after the teacher has checked every introduction, made comments, and asked the student to proceed with the rest of the essay.

(3) In the revising stage, the 1stdraft is subject to a self-review, followed by a peer review using a checklist in both steps and then further a teacher review, keeping peer comments. A second draft writing is required by the teacher, but it is further checked neither by peers nor by the teacher.

By the end, the teacher mentioned some constraints of the process approach. First, class size makes it time consuming: the teacher cannot correct all essays, all drafts each time. That's why, she explains, 'not all teachers apply it'; those who follow it are selective and correct only a few papers at once. In addition, there is students' subjectivity with peer review; some students just erase their peers' comments and do not take them into consideration.

To overcome those constraints, the teacher suggested to employ peer review to "make students help us"; use "peer writing instead of individual writing", that is, making students in small groups of 4 or 5 students to write just one essay to decrease the number of essays to be corrected; and of course whenever possible have smaller classes.

3rd year teacher

The 3rd year teacher asserted that she follows both the process and product approaches and described a lesson wherein she goes through the 3 phases in the classroom "I start with the process approach. I'm trying to help them plan their ideas, draft and then revise and edit without neglecting the product, the final product. So, I think that I'm trying to use both."

But similar to the 2nd year teacher, the 3rd year teacher has her own, 'special' utilization of the process approach. Her combination of the process and product approaches has led to a methodology in which some emphasis is placed on the planning phase with two successive activities: (a) Individual task: learners plan individually, using the planning 'way' that fits them; (b) A class task: they select "one way of the planning ways, and jot down the ideas on the board". Eventually, an outline is drawn collectively.

The 3rd year teacher's methodology is also characterized by a two-steps drafting phase which consists of: (a) A class activity: one collective draft is produced on the board out of an outline previously developed collectively. The whole planning stage and collective drafting take usually not less than two sessions (3 hours). (b) An individual activity: in the next 1h30 session, students are required to design their own outline and produce their individual drafts. The teacher then collects those 'final products' for evaluation and feedback. For the revising

stage, students provided with checklists, are required to revise (a) form: essay structure / organization, then (b) content and ideas. Since the teacher advocates the communicative approach, she places much focus on the latter type of revision: "So, as long as I'm getting your idea no matter what you are doing in terms of language." However, since the final products are due on the same session, it is quite evident that neither the teacher insists on second drafts writing nor are students able to do so.

As a constraint to the PA, the 3rd year teacher pointed out that students do resist the planning stage. Whenever given the opportunity, most of students never go through planning nor have an outline unless they are obliged by the teacher to do so. In this case, they do it "just for the sake of the teacher". For students, "planning is a waste of time; they prefer to engage in writing directly". Another 'constraint' mentioned by the teacher is the students' approach to revising. They always focus on form: essay structure, grammar, mechanics, and they neglect content and "never revise ideas".

5.5.2.2. Evaluation and feedback modes

	1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Feedback practices	Culture-free practices	Culture-free practices	Culture-free practices
	Altering practices: 1) Selective teacher indirect written feedback (using codes)	1) Teacher's supervision of planning activities	1) Selective teacher indirect written feedback (no codes)
	2) Class correction of a student' paragraph 3) Sometimes use of peer feedback 4) Sometimes: oral feedback on a student' paragraph read orally:	2) Peer feedback -Use of checklists in revision -1st draft revised further by teacher, keeping peer comments -2nd draft (when written) not further revised	2) Class conferencing for a selected number of papers - Next essay type: feedback provided to other students
Essay/ paragraph evaluation	Holistic evaluation, With Emphasis on grammatical mistakes	-A detailed scale for exams - Holistic evaluation for 'writing reviews' focusing on content and organization	-Holistic: Emphasis on content more than language and structures

Table 5.3: Evaluation and Feedback Procedures

5.5.2.2.1. Feedback practices

The first year teacher

The first year teacher uses a variety of feedback types:

1) Most often, the teacher delivers written feedback. She corrects each time a selected number of papers, underlines error, mentions its type, but does not correct it. Then, a class correction of a student's paragraph on the board is performed for the sake of showing students how to deal with the types of written comments.

2) Sometimes use of peer feedback: teacher's feedback is provided for a selected number of papers while the rest of the class revise each other's' paragraphs

3) Sometimes oral feedback is presented on some students' paragraphs read orally with two readings: one for ideas and content, one for language forms and structures.The examples of feedback comments on students' writings mentioned by the teacher exhibit focus on language forms and structures.

The 2nd year teacher

The 2nd year teacher, too, uses both teacher's and peer feedback. Her feedback provision is apparent in all the stags of the process. First, the teacher offers necessary feedback during her supervision of the planning activities. After that, she provides students with checklists for their drafts self-review, followed by peer review. Students' 1st drafts are then further revised by teacher, keeping peer comments.

The 3rd year teacher

In 3rd year, the teacher, does focus on teacher feedback. She essentially

1) Uses indirect method with no codes: "just underline without specifying either the nature, or what should be written instead. I leave this to the learner"

2) Arranges a kind of class conferencing: "During this evaluation session or correction, they need to diagnose by saying for example--, and I ask them to bring their essays and to specify the kind of mistake" for the discussion of errors. Depending on essay type, discussion may involve up to 8 essays while for the argumentative essay not more than 3 essays may be discussed per session

3) Is selective both in feedback provision when she 'Corrects generally half of the group' and in discussion of feedback comments. In the following lesson/ essay type: feedback is provided to other students

5.5.2.2.2. Students' Writing Evaluation

The three teachers adopt holistic evaluation. The **First year teacher** adopts a holistic evaluation with an emphasis on grammatical mistakes. Her scoring depends on "the number of mistakes", with lists of unforgiveable mistakes". However, both **2nd year** and **3rd teachers** provide an "overall impression for writing *reviews*" focusing on content and organization during class writings. The 2nd year teacher added that only in exams she provides a detailed scale for content, form and language mechanics.

5.5.3. The Writing Course

	1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Course objectives	• Appropriate	• Appropriate	• Appropriate
Writing syllabus	• Detailed syllabus with 2 unbalanced chapter	• Appropriate	• 'The content needs some revisions'
Course Time	• Insufficient time for the paragraph writing chapter	• Time: enough, but not for the PA	• Insufficient time for practice

Table 5.4. Teachers' Views of the Writing Course

One of the themes that were identified during the interviews concerns teachers' views of the about the writing course. The three of them seem to agree on two things: the appropriateness of course objectives and the need for more time for writing practice. However, they have dissimilar views regarding the writing syllabus content of the course. While the 2nd year teacher finds it just appropriate, the 3rd year one thinks some revision is necessary. Yet, this latter concerns only the re-ordering of some of the content's elements. On the other hand, the 1st year syllabus is a subject of complaint for not only the 1st year teacher but the 2nd year one as well.

5.5.4. Culture in the Writing Class

Investigating the role of culture in the EFL writing class involves asking questions about the place of both the FL culture as well as the MT one and possibly the influence of each one on the EFL writing development.

5.5.4.1.   Teachers' perceptions of and attitudes towards the role of FL culture in the FL writing class

	1st year	2nd year	3rd year
	A culture-free instruction	A culture-free instruction	A culture-free instruction
FL Culture	Awareness of the importance of FL culture knowledge (Big 'C' attitude)	- Awareness of the importance of FL culture knowledge (Big 'C' attitude) -Cultural knowledge to be developed through reading	Unawareness of the importance of the FL culture knowledge
	'sometimes' dealt with through writing samples **analysis**	'maybe' considered during the model essays **selection**	'maybe' unconsciously considered during model essays **analysis**

Table 5.5. Teachers' Perception of the FL Culture in the Writing Class

The 1st year teacher

Although the teacher is convinced that knowledge of the target language culture is a facilitating factor in the language class "The more they know about the target language culture, the easier will be the task', she has actually no pre-identified objective concerning culture in her teaching writing methodology. "No, I do not focus at all on culture". The target language culture is mentioned only 'sometimes' through the samples of writing provided in class which may exhibit some target language culture aspects: 'For example, the samples I provide my learners with are, sometimes -not always, concern the target language culture.' in this case, it is a big 'C' culture type.

The 2nd year teacher

In the same way, while she proclaims her awareness of the importance of the knowledge of the FL culture and asserts that such knowledge has to be developed through reading, the 2nd year teacher does not take account of culture in her course design and declared in a hesitating mode "No, maybe- … Maybe I regard it in choosing the model essays" before concluding discussion that she integrates culture while teaching writing "By the choice of the topic, by raising their awareness to read". Once again, the teachers refers to the big 'C' culture aspects that could be depicted in model-texts.

For the 3rd year teacher

In an clear confession of her unconsciousness of the place of culture in the writing class, the 3rd year teacher acknowledged that she had never thought about the role or place of culture in the writing class saying "Frankly speaking, I've never thought about this before"

When reminded about transfer mistakes, she just confirmed her unawareness: "May be it's just this, but we are not conscious about the issue". And when asked if she made reference to the foreign language culture, she replied again, "No, I'm not … maybe I'm doing them unconsciously". Trying to guide her answer more, the teacher recognized that she might consider the foreign culture at the level of the sample essays analysis 'Ah, yes, yes, I'm doing it, and we are embedding if you want the culture of the language within the sample I have selected.' but not as a pre-identified objective 'No, I'm doing it unconsciously to be frank'.

5.7.4.2. Teachers' perceptions of the role of the L1 culture in the foreign language writing class

	1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Perception of the role of L1 culture on writing	Negative influence		Negative influence
Culture-specific problems Identification	In the evaluation stage	In essay revising/ and evaluation stage	In the evaluation stage
Type of cultural influence problems	1) Word choice more than structures 2) Influence on ideas, logic and analysis. 'Students use L1 world view'. 3) Wordiness	1) Arabic structures 2) Exemplifying 3) Wordiness	1) Students "think in Arabic & write in English" 2)Words integral translation 3) Arabic structures and ideas 4) Long introductions 5) Wordiness and essay poor development
Feedback on L1 (Arabic) transfer errors		-Sometimes highlighting transfer errors, the revising stage - No cross-cultural debates on the errors	- Asking students to read in English

Table 5.6. Teachers' Perception of the Mother Tongue Culture's

Influence in the Writing Class

For 1ˢᵗ year teacher

The teacher perceives the role of the mother tongue (L1) culture to be 'hindering' in writing in FL. However, she could mention an example of the writing problems caused by such interference only after a long pause and until the interviewer reformulated the question. This involves L1 culture world view echoed in the EFL writing that is influence on ideas, logic and analysis- a problem which is identified in the evaluation stage. This is clear in the teacher's assertion: "the way they analyze things", "they view it from an Algerian angle". But when asked about linguistic and rhetorical instances of this negative transfer- this 'Algerian way of analyzing things', there was a long pause, as if no answers were available. Though the teacher is apparently aware of the negative influence, she was in fact unable to mention concrete linguistic or rhetorical examples of this influence and simply said: "I don't know".

Actually, the examples the teacher mentioned were merely a confirmation of the interviewer's suggestions to guide her answers. These include wordiness and L1 influences word choice more than structures

The 2ⁿᵈ year teacher

The 2ⁿᵈ year teacher identifies and attracts learners' attention to cultural differences in writing in the revising stage by highlighting transfer errors. The latter include mainly:

1) Arabic (syntactic) structures: such as misplacing adverb of time (usually sentence initial in Arabic). 'But here at writing the first word in the introduction, when I read the 1ˢᵗ word in the introduction, I'm reading in Arabic not English. For example, 'in the recent times' (wa mina el 3osur el hadithawa l3asr lhadith: و من العصور الحديثة و العصر الحديث

2) Exemplifying: adapting L1 culture examples to FL context

Dealing with this type of problem, the teacher declared "sometimes, I just underline it and highlight it, but getting in a debate with my students- … I can't, it's impossible."

The 3ʳᵈ year teacher

As far as the 3ʳᵈ year teacher is concerned, the identification of transfer errors is usually done the in evaluation stage. In this context, the teacher insists on the influence of L1 on learners' ideas. Though she mentioned also some L1 influence at the micro-level (lexical and structural aspects), the teacher noticed that what students' essays usually exhibit is thinking in

Arabic and translating into English. As a result, when reading their essays, one feels that it is Arabic not English. The teacher, again, could not mention concrete rhetorical or textual examples of such L1 influence. This might probably be due to her unawareness of the problem which she openly admitted earlier in the discussion. The only example mentioned is one of long introductions with lot of details in an introduction leading to wordiness and essay insufficient development "Sometimes you feel that the introduction is nearly the same as the body". The only feedback the teacher provides for such type of problems is asking students to read in English.

5.5.4.2.   Teachers' use of inter-cultural/contrastive rhetoric

	1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Contrastive /Inter-cultural (CR /IR) rhetoric	No use of CR/IR	No use of CR/IR	No use of CR/IR

Table 5.7: Teachers' Use of CR/IR in the Writing Class

1st year teacher

The 1st year teacher's replies indicate that she makes no reference to Arabic writing system nor does she make use of CR/IR or cultural comparisons neither as a support to her teaching methodology nor as guide to her feedback practices, especially in cases of obvious types of problems due to transfer. The teacher says "For example for wordiness, I just say that they have to explain exactly the idea." When the interviewer asked, "But you do not say this is Arabic. We do this in Arabic and not—?", the teacher replied "No."

2nd year teacher

The teacher declared that she attracts her learners' attention to the fact that writing in the EFL culture differs from writing in L1 culture as "one of the solutions in order to overcome mother tongue interference". She even sometimes gives examples during her lesson (but usually only) when "reviewing students' essays, I highlight this problem by some extracts." When asked to mention an instance of such type of highlighted extracts, the teacher gave an error at the micro level (the adverb transfer error already cited above). Moreover, the teacher's speculating statement about the possible cause of such a phenomenon, "I don't know why, maybe because of the lack of reading", reveals the absence of an actual thoughtful consideration and meticulous interest in the issue.

3ʳᵈ year teacher

In a very overt way, the 3ʳᵈ year teacher asserted that she follows a 'culture-free approach' to teaching writing in English with reference to neither L1 nor L2 culture, except perhaps when she sometimes might unconsciously discuss the cultural content embedded in some essay samples, reflecting big 'C' culture . And even in such a situation, she never opens comparisons with L1 culture, proclaiming to this effect, "I'm just limiting myself to the target language, to the culture of the foreign language. I'm never comparing or contrasting the two cultures." And eventually, she makes no use or reference to contrastive rhetoric. When the interviewer asked "neither contrasting the two cultures nor contrasting the two writing styles in the two cultures?", she replied: "No, I'm not" and added that she does not really possess knowledge about the rhetorical characteristics of writing in Arabic.

5.6. Findings and Discussions

Teachers' responses to the interview helped sketch a general framework of the teaching of writing to EFL students.

5.6.1. Students' Writing Problems

Interviews with teachers revealed that there are some typical areas of trouble specific to each level of instruction; still, some other problems are observed in the 1ˢᵗ year and persist all through the next two years. All in all, the most frequent writing problems articulated by teachers can be classified under two categories: (1) Problems related to the quality of the written product/ text, and (2) Problems related to the process of writing or the teaching writing approach.

5.6.1.1. Problems related to the quality of the written product

As far as this first type of problems is concerned, it is worth mentioning that some problems are quite unique to each level while others are common to the three levels.

5.6.1.1.1. Writing problems specific to each level

According to the **1st year teacher**, the most common apparent and persistent types of writing problems students make in 1ˢᵗ year appear at the micro linguistic level, mainly the grammatical ones (eg. Errors in tenses) which persist until the end of the teaching period in spite of teacher's feedback and lexical (limited vocabulary, and vocabulary transfer from

Arabic) levels and mechanics (spelling mistakes). The teacher said "The vocab register is very limited; this may lead to produce spelling mistakes probably. Word choice, I haven't talked about it but this error is repeated by the learners; they mis-choose the word." As a result, "They sometimes substitute, they sometimes translate from mother tongue to English because they lack the English, and sometimes they mis-choose the word, they choose a word instead of another because they lack-vocab and grammar"

The writing problems pertaining to both 2nd and 3rd year levels are displayed at the macro linguistic level, the rhetorical organization and ideas development. Students in 2nd year lack content information due to (according to the teacher) lack of reading and exhibit problems when writing topical paragraph such as the frequent absence of a topic sentence, the presence of many controlling ideas, and the lack of unity which the teacher attributes to insufficient paragraph instruction in 1st year. Such a particular problem may provide evidence of the 1st year's writing syllabus' structure inadequacy and sentence-centeredness which do not allow for sufficient paragraph writing practice. Students' writing in the 3rd year, on the other hand, undergoes more specifically lack of support and insufficient ideas development. "The essay discusses one idea from the beginning to the end and they just keep on repeating it" (3rd year teacher).

5.6.1.1.2. Writing problems common to two or three levels

Teachers' responses yielded some other problems that are common to two and sometimes three levels. The most common of these is wordiness which usually appears in students' writings at the three levels. In addition, students in both 2nd and 3rd years show lack of ideas. Besides, transfer and L1 culture influence is a recurrent problem for both 1st and 3rd years' students but was not mentioned by 2nd year teacher. However, in 1st year transfer problems are perceived, once again, at the micro level ("Vocabulary transfer from Arabic"); in the 3rd year they are at the macro or discourse level ("students 'think in Arabic and write in English' regardless of the appropriateness of meaning"). Nevertheless, the teacher could not present concrete linguistic/ rhetorical illustrations of this type of problems. Hence, it seems that, together with wordiness, lack of information, insufficient elaboration and culture-specific problems (the problems of 'thinking in Arabic and writing in English) do persist until a quite advanced level. So, advanced level students continue to experience some rhetorical problems at the macro-linguistic (inter-sentential, text or discourse) level.

5.6.1.2.Problems related to the writing process

The second type of problems identified by teachers uncovers students' perceptions of the process of writing itself mainly through their attitudes toward the stages of writing development.

5.6.1.2.1. Students' resistance to the planning stage

First, students show a real resistance to the planning stage. They are, in the three levels, reluctant to engage in any pre-writing or planning activities. Actually, most of them would engage in drafting without a pre-designed outline. Even in exams, they tend not to use them unless the teacher obliges them to do so. Apparently, this is a culturally-based issue; writing in Arabic is not characterized by the use of phases. Yet, the outline may be a very useful strategy for an ESL writer. Richard (1992; cited in Alodwan and Ibnian, 2014) pointed out that the more time students spend on pre-writing activities, the more successful their writing will be. Al Abed (1992) asserted that "the pre-writing stage encourages effective writing because it prompts originality, creativity, and personal awareness" (cited in Alodwan and Ibnian, 2014, p.147). In the case students whose L1 is Arabic where writing operates according to rhetorical patterns different from English, planning, and in particular outline use, could prevent many of the students' writing problems like wordiness (1st, 2nd and 3rd year teachers) and lack of ideas and insufficient development (2nd and 3rd year teacher) as it "help[s them] identify gaps in the development of ideas, arguments, and sources of evidence" (Curry and Hewings, 2003, p. 37)

5.6.1.2.2. Students' attitudes towards revising

When revising, students astonishingly continue to exhibit a surface error focus attitude until an advanced level (3rd year). They always focus on form (essay structure, grammar, spelling, and mechanics) and neglect content and never revise ideas though teachers in both though teachers in both2nd and 3rd years do not stress language correctness. Using the process approach terminologies, this looks more like editing than revising. So, technically speaking, students do not go through the revising stage- that is "looking at organization, main points, support for main ideas, examples, and connections between ideas" (Alodwan and Ibnian, 2014: 148). It seems that students' perception of FL learning as primarily the mastery of the formal features of the FL continues to persist until a quite advanced level.

Students' resistance to the prewriting steps together with their form-based revising attitudes may contribute to the explanation of the persistence of some of their students' rhetorical problems with ideas development and support at an advanced level. Indeed, revising is a crucial step during which the essay is gradually fully shaped as Smith (2003) points down "the writing process has only just begun when you write your last word of the first draft. It is in the process of revising and editing that the draft takes shape" (p.13). It is for some scholars even the most important stage or the "the heart of the writing process" (cited in Alodwan and Ibnian, 2014, p. 147) during which "ideas emerge and evolve and meanings are clarified." Moreover, the revising is "a thinking process that helps students refine ideas, discover new connections and explore them more deeply in an attempt to best communicate their ideas with an audience" (Manzo and Manzo, 1995; cited in Alodwan and Ibnian, 2014, p. 147)

Despite the fact that the teaching writing methodology in advanced levels in the ENSC is a process-driven one, students do not seem to be ready to abandon their (L1) writing habits and styles most probably inherited from their over 6 years prior-university 'traditional' product and form-focused writing instruction. The latter is just reinforced in their freshmen classrooms too though teachers may attempt to involve some process-driven activities in their methodology such as outlining.

So, adopting an exclusively form-focused methodology would prevent teachers from perceiving students' specific needs beyond the sentence level (the case of 1st year teacher). However, when teachers adopt a more content-oriented teaching attitude, they are better positioned to identify students' specific needs at the inter-sentential, text or discourse level (the 2nd and 3rd year teachers). However, although they acknowledged the existence of L1 and culture-specific problems, teachers could not illustrate this enough with linguistic and rhetorical evidence from students' writings. Similarly, teachers did not place students' attitudes towards stages of the process of writing (planning and revising) in any possible cultural context.

5.6.2. Teaching Writing

Teachers' attitudes to writing and its teaching are reflected through their method of instruction, evaluation and feedback provision procedures on students writing.

5.6.2.1. Teaching methodology

- **1st year year**

The teaching writing methodology is (1) product-oriented and form-focused in 1st year. The procedure is linear, much concerned with system items progression and coverage. A body of theory is presented; and then, model texts are provided for students to imitate. (2) Instruction is culture-free based on written texts structures and rules rather than focusing on writing skills pertaining to students' special needs as EFL ones with an L1 linguistic background different from English (For instance, talking about the class size, the 1st year teacher declares: "The number is appropriate (…) But if your objective is to work with all the learners, the number is too—you can't"). (3) The teaching methodology does not allow for much individual writing practice since students write sometimes individually and sometimes in groups. The teacher's focus is on the texts which students produce and (4) language forms and accuracy are of primary concern. Similarly, (5) altering feedback procedures (teacher indirect feedback and peer feedback) and adopting selective ones (teacher indirect feedback and oral feedback on some papers read orally) does not permit sufficient regular individual feedback nor does it sufficiently highlight culture and L1 linguistic potential influence. And to end, such feedback may not be of immediate assistance for students since the latter are (6) not systematically urged and guided to revise, nor are they encouraged to rewrite. So the method would be more described a culture-free, product-oriented, form-focused meant as teaching-for-testing

- **2nd and 3rd years**

Teachers in both 2nd and 3rd years advocate a more process-inspired methodology integrating text analysis. Such a methodology is characterized by (1) a special emphasis on the planning phase through spending much of the class time in planning and prewriting activities and (2) systematic procedures for the revising one although teachers have not exhibited techniques to orient learners towards a global/ content revision as a first step before local/ form revision. The teaching procedures are (3) more interactive and learner-centered where students frequently engage in different individual writing tasks but have the chance to interact with the teacher and classmates on those tasks all along the process (planning, peer-editing, class conferencing). Adopting a more 'communicative approach' to errors correction, teachers place (4) a special accent on content and ideas revising procedure using checklists with (5) no real focus on language correctness. (6) Yet, the methodology gives less weight to

rewriting or multi-drafting. Finally, none of the teachers showed a culture sensitive instruction, neither at the level of lesson design nor procedure, evaluation or feedback. Hence, the cultural impact may be visible on teachers' methodology since in "Arab countries, it is not common for teachers to require more than one draft, or work on revision techniques" (Al Hamzi and Scholfield, 2002, p.238). Obviously, students who get used to a product, form/structure based methodology in 1st year must find it difficult to shift their learning habits towards a more process, content and rhetorical based writing instruction in advanced levels (2nd and 3rd years).

5.6.2.2. The writing syllabus

For more than 10 years, teachers of the writing module in the English department of the TTS have been using a modified version of the original syllabus (officially adopted in 2002). The current version of the syllabus conatians the same points metioned in the original one one with a new distribution and modified focus. As a result, the 1st year writing syllabus is characterized by an over focus on sentence structures and allots relatively insufficient instruction for paragraph writing. The 1st chapter of the syllabus is largely devoted to teaching types of constructions (types of phrases, types of clauses, types of sentences, sentence problems, …) which spread throughout almost two terms. These are also part of the grammar syllabus. So, teaching them again in the writing course not only creates redundancies but also reduces the amount of time that ought to be assigned to the teaching of constructions beyond the sentence level, namely the paragraph which is left with the shortest last term. The result of such a shortcoming is immediately perceived in 2nd year's students' writings. In this year, though they first go through a brief paragraph writing review, students engage directly in essay writing. While they show little problems with the essay organization and structure, they continue to have troubles writing good topical paragraphs, ending often with paragraphs without topic sentences, with many controlling ideas and with no unity.

5.6.3. Culture in the Writing Class

As exposed in earlier chapters, many scholars have highlighted differences between L1 and L2 learning not only in text aspects (grammar, lexis, organization, rhetorical strategies, etc.) but also in writing processes. When they are not aware of the influence of the L1, teachers may interpret these differences as lacks in L2 writing or even in learners' thinking ability rather than typical L2 developmental features or cultural aspects. It is then important

that teachers recognize these linguistic and cultural contexts of writing development (De Jong and Harper, 2005).

5.6.3.1. Teachers' perceptions of and attitudes towards the role of the FL culture in the FL writing class

As far as the place of FL culture in the writing class is concerned, teachers' responses reveal three significant results:

1) Teachers' attitudes vary from little awareness (the case of the two 1st and 2nd years' teachers) to a total unawareness and an entire unconsciousness of the matter (the case of the two 3rd year' teacher)

2) This little amount of awareness is reflected through a kind of 'theoretical' knowledge of the importance of the target language culture knowledge in the EFL class in general, and the EFL writing class in particular.

3) The teachers have a Big 'C' perception of culture. That is culture is viewed as "a set of facts and statistics relating to the arts, history, geography, business, education, festivals and customs of a target speech society." (Lee, 2009: 78). It is the tangible, observable and easily perceived aspect of culture. Their responses demonstrate a limited knowledge of the Small 'c' culture which is more abstract and less observable, but more influential on people's behaviors and linguistic communication in speaking and writing (Chlopek, 2008) and which is an important requirement of the development of the communicative competence (Kramsh, 2013) as well as successful cross-cultural communication (Chlopek, 2008).

4) The teaching writing methodology reflects a culture-free approach to writing. Culture is never considered at any of the writing lessons' stages such as objectives specification. It is mentioned only sometimes at the level of model text analysis when an obvious cultural aspect is featured. In this case, teachers perceive just the big 'C' culture.

5.6.3.2. Teachers' perceptions of the role of the mother tongue culture in the FL writing class

Regarding L1 culture influence on EFL writing,

1) There is a consensus among writing teacher that L1 culture plays a more negative role and is much more a source of interference.

2) Teachers are, however, unable to perceive the cultural dimension of writing problems beyond the lexical and syntactical level. Though students' writing continue to comprise culture related problems and exhibit difficulties with ideas organization, development and rhetorical patterns until an advanced level, teachers could not state any tangible linguistic and rhetorical example of those problems whose existence they themselves acknowledged.

3) There are no systematic procedures to deal with culture influence and L1 interference writing problems. L1 culture influence problems and transfer errors are only sometimes identified at the revising and/ or evaluation stages. They are cited orally, almost superficially but are never taken into consideration in subsequent lessons. There are no remedial activities to minimize L1 writing problems nor are there any planned pedagogical actions to raise learners' awareness towards the differences in writing patterns across cultures and their potential influence.

5.6.3.3. Teachers' use of inter-cultural/contrastive rhetoric

Teachers of writing at the TTSC do not make use of intercultural/ contrastive rhetoric in the writing class at any of their lesson's phases: design and plan, teaching methodology, feedback and/ or evaluation. Owing to their unawareness and/or lack of motivation, teachers

are content with their 'traditional' way of teaching and do not strive explore further culture and L1 transfer problems that are repeatedly exhibited in their writing classes over years.

Conclusion

EFL students' writing in general exhibits to varying levels some culture-specific patterns; and Algerian students' writing is no exception. The sample of teachers of EFL writing at the TTSC under study declared that their students' writing suffered from such influence, too. However, their accounts of their respective instructional procedures have showed that teachers reserve no special attention to this type of problem. Thus, those teachers do not seem to exhibit a real awareness of the interwoven connection between writing and culture nor are they sufficiently conscious of the place of the latter in the writing class. They embrace a culture-free approach reflected through their different teaching practices

(methodology, feedback, evaluation, error attitudes) and do not make use of intercultural/ contrastive rhetoric practice in the writing class at any of their lesson's phases. Their perceptions of culture reflect the Big 'C' culture, the tangible, observable and easily perceived aspects of culture. They lack an adequate awareness of the small 'c' culture which is in fact the dimension of culture that bears the communicative and rhetorical aspects of a language. So, writing in English is taught with no concrete pedagogical considerations of the cultural dimension of the writing process in the two languages. By overlooking the influence of the L1, teachers may interpret students writing problems related to cultural and rhetorical differences between L1 and L2 as deficits in L2 writing or even in thinking abilities. Thus, teachers need to understand these linguistic and cultural contexts of writing development. Still, in addition to the place of culture in the actual teaching of writing to EFL students in the TTSC, some further educational aspects have to be re-visited.

Chapter Six

An Investigation of Cultural and Educational Factors Influencing Attitudes towards the Writing Skill

Introduction

Research related to EFL writing of Arab students has been mostly concerned with their failure to respond to a range of assignments using English writing conventions and thus producing written products that would approach the native-like performances and meet native English rhetorical expectations. In this respect, endeavors to explain writing problems or difficulties are heavily related to learners' linguistic limited competence, insufficient command of the rhetorical structure of the English text and Arabic discourse transfer (Ezza and Al-Mudibry, 2014). However, teaching attitudes and educational practices are barely considered.

The shift towards intercultural rhetoric (IR) is meant to cater for the various possible factors that influence L2 writing, for variation in writing stems in Connor's (2002) words "from multiple sources, including L1, national culture, L1 educational background, disciplinary culture, genre characteristics, and mismatched expectations between readers and writers" (p. 504). Therefore, when studying and teaching writing in a S/FL context, a range of rather overlapping socio-cultural institutions and practices are to be considered in a classroom.

This chapter adheres to an IR perspective and involves an attempt to widen the scope of interpretation of learners' writing problems through an exploration of some cultural, educational and teaching factors that might have a hand in these problems. To achieve this, the chapter combines a qualitative and quantitative methodological framework.

6.1. Written Assignments in Content Subjects: The Interview

It has been hypothesized at the onset of the present research that the primary culture-related writing problems/ difficulties with thesis statement, topic sentence, topic unity and development that persist in students' writing until an advanced level (4th and 5thyears) may also be perpetuated by some other cultural and educational factors than L1 particular cultural and rhetorical patterns influence. One such a factor includes students writing experience during their training cycles in the TTSC. Such an experience may be reflected through the amount of regular writing assignments throughout the different courses, especially in comparison to oral assignments. To verify the hypothesis formulated above, a semi-structured interview was conducted with a group of teachers in the department of English. The interview aims to explore the place of writing in the actual training of teachers in the TTSC

throughout the students' years of instruction. It seeks to identify the frequency of using writing assignments in the different language, culture and pedagogical courses. It also intends to uncover teachers' evaluation attitudes towards those written assignments.

6.1.1. Methodology

To identify the frequency of using writing assignments in the different language, culture and pedagogical courses, an interview with a sample of content-subjects' teachers at the TTC will be employed.

6.1.1.1. Description of the interview

The interview is an unstructured one that took place in the form of discussions with teachers. The interview implemented turns around the following questions:

(1) Is there a required written assignment in your course?

(2) How is it evaluated?

During the first two interviews, further questions emerged and new themes appeared through teachers' responses.

6.1.1.2. Interview coding

A first coding phase was conducted after two interviews with teachers. The latter's responses helped to yield entries that were subsequently used to collect data with the rest of the teachers and to guide the data classification and patterning. The themes that were identified during the first two interviews are displayed below:

- TD assignments
- Optional assignments
    - Score: Added to the term exam mark
- Topics:
    ✓ Sections extracted from the syllabus
    ✓ Imposed by teacher
- Number per year/ Term
- Individual
- Presented orally
- Evaluation:

- Extra-assignment (added by teachers)
- Compulsory
- Score: Full, independent mark
- Topics:
    ✓ Additional, related to but not part of the syllabus
    ✓ Chosen/ suggested by students
- Pair/ group work
- Submitted manuscript only
- Evaluation

✓   Written form corrected   ✓ Written form not corrected

- Scoring rubrics: %

    ✓   For content subject information

    ✓   Oral performance

    ✓   Written form

- Feedback

    ✓   Provided   -   Feedback

  ✓ Oral   ✓ Just mark delivered

  ✓ Teacher   ✓ Written, or both

                                          ✓ Class/ peer, or both

6.1.1.3. Population and Implementation

The population targeted is made of 20 teachers of different subjects in the ENSC: language subjects like reading techniques, cultural subjects such as civilization and literature and finally pedagogical (professional) subjects such as psycho-pedagogy and syllabus design. The teachers in question are in charge of the 'pedagogical teams' of their respective subject; some of them are in charge of two teams at the same times. A 'pedagogical team' consists of the group of teachers of the same subject to the different groups of the same year. These latter were interviewed by the end of the second term of the academic year 2015- 2016.

1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	5th year
CL: Introduction to western civilization and literature **LG**: linguistics **RT**: reading techniques	**CL**: Introduction to western civilization and literature **LG**: linguistics **RT**: reading techniques	**Civ.**: Civilization **IP**: Introduction to Psychology **LG**: linguistics **Lit**: Literature **PTES**: Pedagogical Trends and Educational Systems **TEFL:** Teaching English as a Foreign Language	**Afr**:African civilization and literature **Civ.**: Civilization **Lit**: Literature **LG**: linguistics **P.Ped**: Psycho Pedagogy **TEFL**:Teaching English as a Foreign Language **TESD**: textbook Evaluation and Syllabus Design -**WSRE**: Writing a Scientific Report in Education **MDD**: Materials Design and Development	**Afr.**:African civilization and literature **Civ**: Civilization **IC**: Issues in Culture **Lit**: Literature **LG**: linguistics **PT**:Contemporary Pedagogical Trends **SD**: Syllabus Design

Table 6.1: Modules Covered During the Content-Subject Teachers' Interview

The interviews took from 5 to 10 minutes each and were recorded by means of note-taking. The data were transcribed, organized in entries and themes for analysis and interpretation (cf. Appendix 6). The attitude in the interview was letting participants speak for themselves so as to produce a great variety of responses and then to organize these latter in such a way to fit the overall aim. The subjects covered by the interview are presented in **Table 6.1.**

The number of modules covered by the study is 28 modules out a total of 38 English subjects taught at the English language department in the TTSC. The modules that were disregarded by the present study are (1) Writing: since writing is the main concern of the present research, it has been the subject of scrutiny in an independent section (chapter six), (2) language modules such grammar and phonetics and oral expression. In the grammar, phonetics modules the assignments are provided to students to practice the different teaching points mostly in the form classroom drills. No written assignments are usually scheduled. The oral expression module, on the other hand, includes assignments to be prepared and performed orally; no writing is required from students.

6.1.2. Content Subject Teachers' Interview Findings

The obtained results are reported in the form of tables it their figures and percentages

6.1.2.1. Frequency of written assignments

Results of the treatment of teachers' responses regarding written assignment requirements are exhibited **Table 6.2**.

Year	Number	Modules	Written Assignment	No Written Assignment
1	1	CL		√
	2	LG		√
	3	RT	√	
2	4	CL		√
	5	LG		√
	06	RT	√	
3	07	Civ		√
	08	IP		√
	09	LG	√	
	10	Lit		√
	11	PTES		√
	12	TEFL		√
4	13	Afr		√
	14	Civ	√	
	15	LG		√
	16	Lit		√
	17	MDD	√	
	18	P.Ped.		√
	19	TEFL		√
	20	TESD	√	
	21	WSRE	√	
5	22	Afr		√
	23	Civ		√
	24	IC	√	
	25	LG	√	
	26	Lit		√
	27	P.T	√	
	28	SD	√	
Total	**28**		**11**	**17**
%	**100**		**39.28**	**60.71**

Table 6.2. Written Assignments' Frequency

The frequency of assigning writing and research work to students is very low in 1st, 2nd, and 3rd years as indicated in the table below. It grows up, however, gradually with the two final years. In the 4th year we find 3 among 8 modules including 'written' assignments; in the

5th year the rate is considerably important with 4 among 7 modules requiring regularly assignments to be presented either orally and/ or in written manuscripts.

	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	Total	%
WA	1	1	1	4	4	11	39,28
No WA	2	2	5	5	3	17	60,71
Total	3	3	6	9	7	28	

Table 6.3: Written Assignments' Frequency/ Absence per Year

6.1.2.2.   Written assignment evaluation

Year	N°	Modules	Content subject information	Oral performance	Written manuscript
1rst	1	RT	50%	50%	0
2nd	2	RT	50%	50%	0
3rd	3	LG	50%	50%	0
4th	4	Civ	40%	40%	20%
	5	MDD	70%	10%	20%
	6	TESD	70%	30%	0
	7	WSRE	90%	0	10%
5th	8	IC	50%	50%	0
	9	LG	50%	50%	0
	10	P.T	60%	40%	0
	11	SD	70%	30%	0

Table 6.4. Written Assignment Evaluation

valuation score percentage		Content subject	Oral performance	0Written manuscript
60-90	N°	5	0	2
	%	**9.09**	**0**	**18.18**
50	N°	5	5	0
	%	**45.45**	**45.45**	**0**
10-40	N°	1	4	3
	%	**9.09**		**27.27**
00	N°	0	1	8
	%	**0**	**0**	**72.72**

Table 6.5. Written Assignment Evaluation Distribution

As shown in **Table 6.5**, 45.45% of teachers who require a written assignment in their courses, focus in their evaluation almost equally on both the content subject information and the oral performance of students. Those who put an over emphasis on subject content, allocating it from 60 to 90% of scoring represent also 45.45% . This is especially the case of

some pedagogical modules such as MDD, TESD and WSRE. However, 72.72% of those teachers said that they pay no attention to the written form of the assignment and never correct it or allocate a score to it. Two of them, said, in fact, that the written form of the assignment was not always submitted. Three teachers (27,27% of the teachers who give assignments) said that they evaluate and correct the written manuscript submitted usually at the end of the presentation. However, the scores they allocate to the written version of the assignments occupy a small percentage of the whole evaluation, not exceeding 20% of the whole grade.

6.1.2.3.   Writing evaluation focus

Year	Number	Modules	Writing evaluation attitudes		Feedback returned	
			Form, language correctness	Rhetorical organization (§ and essay patterns)	Yes	No
4th	1	Civ	√	-		√
	2	MDD	√	-		√
	3	WSRE	√	-	√	

Table 6.6. Teachers' Writing Evaluation Focus

The three teachers who said they would correct the written form of the assignment, allotting it a 10 to 20% of the whole scoring, declared that their main focus is on language forms and correctness. None of them mentioned considering rhetorical organization or/and paragraph and essay patterns. Another interesting result inferred from teachers' responses is that while most of them require students to submit a written version of their assignment, almost none of them, whether the three who do correct it or the majority that do not, would ever return the written manuscript of any assignment back to students except for the WSRE teacher who said she would sometimes do so.

6.2. Writing in Exams: Content Analysis of Exam Questions

Language training programs aim at bringing learners up to a level of proficiency where they can use the language effectively to communicate both orally and in writing. In due course, they will have to develop adequate assessment measures to gather, interpret and use information about students' responses to the provided training. One way to achieve this, and

probably the most common one, is testing. Tests can be designed to elicit performance from which inferences about learners' potential to acquire new skills, expand their thinking abilities

and promote problem solving strategies would be made. To achieve this, there are some essential considerations when constructing a test. According to Bachman (1991) the following are the features of communicative language testing:

(1) An "information gap", requiring test takers to process complementary information through the use of multiple sources of input. Test takers, for example, might be required to perform a writing task that is based on input from both a short recorded lecture and a reading passage on the same topic;

(2) Task dependency, with tasks in one section of the test building upon the content of earlier sections, including the test taker's answers to those sections;

(3) Integration of test tasks and content within a given domain of discourse and

(4) Finally, communicative tests attempt to measure a much broader range of language abilities- including knowledge of cohesion, functions, and sociolinguistic appropriateness-than did earlier tests, which tended to focus on the formal aspects of language-grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

The latter criterion in the quote emphasizes not only the importance of assessing language in any content area-related subject but also the level of that kind of testing. That is to say, all communicative language tests ought to move beyond the formal-based evaluation to be more concerned with students' abilities to manipulate more complex language skills. This general attitude may, however, not be shared in all educational settings. That is why, the present section seeks to explore TTSC teachers' general attitudes towards writing as reflected in their testing behaviors and evaluation approaches. More particularly, the section investigates the amount of writing and rhetorical levels required during exams (writing at the word and sentence level versus writing beyond the sentence level frequency).

6.2.1. Methodology

In order to investigate the amount of writing and rhetorical levels required during exams, a content analysis with be applied onto a sample of exam questions selected at the TTc.

6.2.1. 1. Aim of the content analysis task

The content analysis activity has been designed to identify teachers' strategies for asking questions in their paper-and-pencil term exam questions using a combination of quantitative and qualitative data. The primary aims is to examine levels of writing and amounts of composing that EFL teachers require in their questions and the frequency of use of each pattern of writing per exams. By the same token, the study attempts to uncover teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards the use and quality of writing through inspection of their questioning practices and behaviors.

6.2.1.2. Choice of the subjects (modules)

For the sake of the present research work, the selection of certain subjects to be included in the analysis was dictated by a number of conditions. First of all, the present analysis does not cover the first year subjects. As demonstrated in **Chapter 5**, the first year teaching program includes a writing course known as Written Expression (WE) which initiates students to writing in English. The 1st year writing syllabus is divided into two major sections: one for sentence writing and the second for paragraph writing. However, the 1st chapter of the WE syllabus which is largely devoted to teaching types of constructions (phrases, clauses, types of sentences) is too much detailed and spreads throughout the first term (the longest one in fact, and sometimes exceeding to the second term). This fact seems to reduce the amount of time that ought to be assigned to the teaching of constructions beyond the sentence level, namely the paragraph which is left with the shortest last terms (very often a term and a half only) where students are introduced to the theoretical background of paragraph writing in English in general (definition, structure, unity, coherence). Then, they are introduced to some types of paragraphs such as the descriptive, narrative, expository, the coverage of which is determined by the amount of time left. As a result, students are rarely able to study more than three or four paragraph patterns (spatial, chronological, and expository developed by examples and by comparison and contrast) nor do they have sufficient time for practicing those patterns. Consequently, students' *mastery* of paragraph skills would be tested by the end of the year in the same way as the knowledge in other subjects is done. Consequently, it would be unfair to expect them to correctly apply those writing skills when answering exam questions in other subjects. That is why exams of 1st year subjects have been excluded from the present analysis.

The 2nd year writing module deals with skills of essay writing. After a brief review of the paragraph writing skills, it starts at the very onset with a general introduction to the essay writing (structure, thesis statement, introductory paragraph, body, concluding paragraph). Then, the core of the course is made up of the different rhetorical patterns of essay writing: descriptive, narrative, analysis, expository and argumentative. By the end of the first term, students are usually taught to write at least four types of essays: descriptive, narrative, examples, comparison and contrast.

For this, it was more convenient not to analyze 1st year subjects and begin the analysis only from second year to make sure that students have come across the different rhetorical levels. It would not be then surprising to expect students use those patterns as part of their answers in other subjects' exams.

Second, subjects of writing have not been covered in the present investigation as they could bias its objective, namely the exploration of the writing experience provided throughout the different courses in the ENSC training program. It is true that the three writing courses (in 1st, 2nd, and 3rd years) provide the theoretical background and some space for the practice of the target rhetorical skills. Indeed, students in a writing subject are conscious that they are being tested in specific writing patterns (usually explicitly stated in exams questions) and know they are exclusively evaluated for their different writing skills.

Moreover, subjects were selected for analysis on the basis of the existence of a certain amount of composing that would display students writing abilities. As such, certain subjects which do not fulfill such a condition at all (namely Listening and Speaking in 2ndyear and Speaking and Phonetics in 3rd year) were disregarded. The same is true for those subjects which primarily target other skills and competences than the writing one. These include phonetics and grammar (2nd year), and Materials Design and Development (MDD) and Writing a Scientific Report in Education (WSRE) in 4th year. In these subjects, students are expected to make transcriptions, apply transformations, build activities, apply rules, perform charts or diagrams, where very often little amount of composing is required or 'good' writing is stressed.

6.2.1.3. Description of the content analysis procedure

Since it took the form of a mixed methodology, the inquiry has been carried out through two major qualitative and quantitative stages. In the first qualitative stage, a content analysis

was applied to the data. The latter involves drawing conclusions from the current context of data, namely the exam questions. In this sense, codes and themes were formed by deriving inferences from teachers' formulations and instructions of questions they asked in exams.

6.2.1.3.1. Step 1

A first analysis of the exam questions led to sort out different categories of data. First of all, at the level of the exam questions instructions (henceforth QI), at least two pairs of categories had been identified. On the one hand, there are exams mentioning or specifying the writing type or composing level and exams not mentioning writing type or composing level required. On the other hand, there are exams mentioning answers' scores versus exams not mentioning answers' scores. Such information would mostly appear at the question instruction (QI) level and sometimes as an end-of-exam note. The second result concerns the types of written answers targeted by the different QI. Consequently, five different possible patterns were identified and guided the coding step of the rest of the exam questions. At first, there are answers which require almost no writing or composing at all. These have been encoded as 'zero composing questions' and consist of MCQ, ticking, filling in blanks from already provided lists, matching, drawing diagrams, word division and analysis, and true/ false exercises. Then, there are 'short descriptive questions' which require answers in the form of a word, phrase, or sentence. These two first categories were encoded together as 'writing below paragraph level'. Next, there are paragraph writing questions, short essay questions and the essay questions (encoded as 5-paragraph-essay). On the basis of the results gathered through this first content analysis step, two further investigation steps had been carried out.

6.2.1.3.2. Step 2

Informal interviews were conducted with 06 teachers. These are responsible for pedagogical teams of the RT, CIV., LIT, IP, LING., and TEFL courses but were also teaching at least two other modules for each which means their responses concerned at least 18 modules. The aim was to inquire about the questions instructions which did not mention any

expected writing type or composing level. Teachers explained that the level of writing required had to be detected from the question's score. A score up to 03/04 points would imply

sentence (and even sometimes clause/ phrase) level answers. If the score is from 04/05 to 08, the evaluator would stress a paragraph-form answer; from 08 to 14/15 it is a short essay while

from 15 to 20 it is the 05-paragraph-essay pattern. Teachers added that when the expected writing pattern is not specified at the QI that means that their assessment would not focus much on the writing requirement unless in the form of grammar and mechanics and that it is the factual information that is of primary concern for assessment.

6.2.1.3.3. Step 3

Since data for the present analysis consist of questions of examinations that date back from 1 year to 4 years before the research, it could not be possible for the researcher to check with all teachers about the scoring system of those exams which did not mention any scores or grades for the exam questions. Consequently, two further checking actions had been carried out. The first one consisted of the inspection of the 'key-to-answers' file, a compulsory document usually delivered to the administration the day of the examination. Unfortunately, even this document did not contain the required scores for some exams such as CL (1TC), IP (3TC), PT (5B5). In such a this situation, the researchers resorted to another archival work which consisted of the scrutiny of a sample of students' exam copies to extract the corresponding scoring scale for those exams.

As a result of these steps, a final list of patterns of required writing/ composing expected for each question had been designed.

6.2.1.4. Quantitative study

The second stage in the present investigation consists of a quantitative analysis of the data which involves statistics regarding the exams, questions instructions, and writing patterns covered by the study. In this context, the numbers, percentages and frequency calculations were made and analyzed on excel device.

6.2.2. Content Analysis of Exam Questions Results

Results of the content analysis are summarized in statistical figures below.

6.2.2.1. General statistics

Years	Subjects Investigated	N°	Subjects Not investigated	N°
2	CL, LING, RT	3	OE, WE, PHON, GRAM	4
3	CIV, IP, LING, LIT, PTES, TEFL	6	SP & PHON, WR & GRAM	2
4	AFR. CL, CIV, LING, LIT, PPED,TEFL, TESD,	7	MDD, WSRE	2
5	AFR. CL, CIV, IC, LING, LIT, PT, SD	7	-	0

Table 6.7. Subjects Investigated in the Content Analysis

Years	Subjects	%	Exams	%	Questions	%
2	03	13.04	08	16.66	31	21.67
3	06	26.08	12	25	40	27.97
4	07	30.43	14	29.16	48	33.65
5	07	30.43	14	29.16	24	16.78
T	**23**		**48**		**143**	

Table 6.8. Total Subjects, Exams and Questions Investigated

Tables **6.7** and **6.8** show that the investigation covers 23 out of the 31 subjects that encompass 4 training cycles ranging from 2nd year to 5th year. This represents 74.19 % of the total subjects that make up the 4 training years. The study has inspected 48 term examinations, including 1st and 2nd terms and has isolated 143 question instructions for analysis. One can already remark that the number of questions is inversely proportional to the progression of years of graduation as one proceeds from the 4th pre-final year to the final 5th one. At the onset of the present analysis, it can be easily assumed that the more questions an exam would contain the less likely paragraph or essay writing it would include and the more answers at the sentence level it would require.

6.2.2.2. Statistics per year

In the following section, the results are treated per year.

6.2.2.2.1. Question instructions mentioning/not mentioning writing requirements

Results concerning the writing pattern specification at the level of the question instructions are summarized in the tables below.

2 TC/ QI			
M	N	12	70
	%	38.70	43.75
NM	N	19	90
	%	61.29	56.25

Table 6.9. Question instructions mentioning writing requirements in2[nd] year

3 TC/ QI		
M	N	**27**	**174**
	%	67.50	72.50
NM	N	**13**	**66**
	%	32.50	27.50

Table 6.10. Question Instructions Mentioning Writing Requirements in 3rd Year

4B4/B5			
M	N	**15**	**113**
	%	31.25	40.35
NM	N	**33**	**167**
	%	38.75	59.64

Table 6.11. Question Instructions Mentioning Writing Requirements in 4th Year

5B5/ QI		
M	N	**08**	**145**
	%	33.33	51.78
NM	N	**16**	**135**
	%	66.66	48.21

Table 6.12. Question Instructions Mentioning Writing Requirements in 5[th]Yea

Second year data include 8 term examinations of 3 subjects (CL, LING, and RT). In fact, there are 2 exams of RT since there were two different teachers who couldn't have a   common one. Table 6.9 shows that 61,29% of the exam questions in 2nd years' subjects under investigation did not include an explicit reference to the writing pattern required by the answer in the question instructions. The score percentages of these questions represents 56,25% of the total scores.

Table 6.10. indicates that 67.50% of 3rd year exam questions that mention explicitly in their instructions the rhetorical pattern expected for the answer while only 13 questions, representing 32.50% did not mention any expected rhetorical pattern for the answer. The percentages get more significant at the answer's score level with 72.50% for the questions mentioning the expected rhetorical level to 27.50% for the ones not mentioning any.

Table 6.11 indicates that in 4th year 33 out of 40 exam questions, that is 68.75% of the questions, did not explicitly mention in their instructions the rhetorical pattern expected for the answer while only 15 questions, representing 32.50% mentioned the expected rhetorical pattern for the answer. The percentages are also quite significant at the answer's score level with 59.64% for the questions not mentioning the expected rhetorical level to 40.35% for the ones mentioning it.

In the 5th year, 16 out of 24 exam questions, 66.66%, did not mention explicitly in their instructions the rhetorical pattern expected for the answer while only 8 questions, representing 33.33% mentioned the expected rhetorical pattern for the answer. However, the percentages are almost even at the answer's score level with respectively 51.78% and 48.21%.
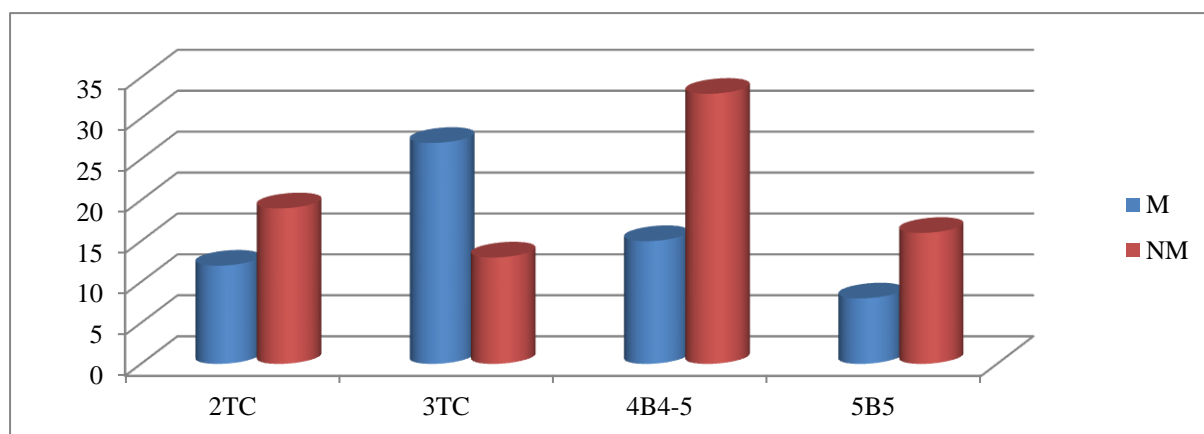
Figure 6.1. Q.I. Specifying/ Not Specifying Level of Writing Required

in the 4 Years Under Study

In an assessment situation, it is important for students to have a clear depiction of the testers' expectations both in terms of content information and writing level required for each question which enables them to organize their thoughts, set priorities among answers raise their awareness of the rhetorical skills and strategies and thus retrieve and apply the adequate information using the adequate rhetorical form. However, Figure 6.1 shows that, with the exception of the 3rd year case, there is a tendency towards not specifying any level of writing required for answers in the TTSC teachers' questioning practices.

6.2.2.2.2. Rhetorical level/ pattern frequency

2TC/ Level of writing		Exam questions	Answer scores
Below paragraph level	N	18	73
	%	58.06	45.62
Paragraph level	N	13	87
	%	41.63	54.37
Short essay	N	00	00
	%	00	00
5 paragraph essay	N	00	00
	%	00	00

Table 6.13. Rhetorical Pattern Frequency in 2nd Year

3TC/ Level of writing		Exam questions	Answer scores
Below paragraph level	N	21	98
	%	52.50	40.83
Paragraph level	N	13	63
	%	32.50	26.25
Short essay	N	05	59
	%	12.50	24.58
5 paragraph essay	N	02	20
	%	02.50	08.33

Table 6.14. Rhetorical Pattern Frequency in 3rd Year

4B4/B5/ Level of writing		Exam questions	Answer scores
Below paragraph level	N	23	81
	%	47.91	28.92
Paragraph level	N	16	79
	%	33.33	28.21
Short essay	N	06	60
	%	12.50	21.42
5 paragraph essay	N	03	60
	%	06.25	21.42

Table 6.15. Rhetorical Pattern Frequency in 4th Year

5B5/ Level of writing		Exam questions	Answer scores
Below paragraph level	N	04	19
	%	16.66	06.78
Paragraph level	N	06	30
	%	25.00	10.71
Short essay	N	04	40
	%	16.66	14.28
5 paragraph essay	N	10	191
	%	41.66	68.21

Table 6.16. Rhetorical Pattern Frequency in the 5thYear

As it is indicated in **Table 6.13**, 58.06% of the total number of the 2nd year exam question instructions analyzed expect answers that require rhetorical structures below the paragraph level ranging from zero composing questions (MCQ, ticking, Filling the blanks from already provided lists, matching, drawing diagrams, word division and analysis, true/ false exercises), word, phrase, to sentence structures and 41.93% of the questions require a paragraph pattern. In terms of answers scores however, the percentages are not significantly different. They are in fact almost even, with 45.62% for the former option and 54.37% for the latter one. No single question instruction targeted an essay writing, whether short or 5-paragraph one.

In the 3rd year (**Table 6.14**), 21 questions, representing 52.50% of the total number of exam questions under analysis, target answer that require rhetorical structures under the paragraph level; 13 others, i.e., 32.50% expect paragraph writing; 5 questions, i.e., 12.50% expect short essay writing and only 1 question, i.e., 2.50 % require a 5-paragraph essay. In terms of answers score, the highest figure is for answers below the paragraph level with 40% of the scores while paragraph and shot essay writing receive close figures (26.25% and 24.58% respectively). Answers expecting a long essay receive only 08.33%.

In the 4th year (**Table 6.15**), 23 questions, representing 47.91% of the total number of exam questions under analysis, target answer that require rhetorical structures under the paragraph level; 16 others, i.e., 33.33% expect paragraph writing; 6 questions, i.e., 12.50% expect short essay writing and only 3 questions, i.e., 6.25% require a 5-paragraph essay. In terms of answers score, the expected answers below and at the paragraph level receive equal percentage of the scores (28.92% and 28.21% respectively). Similarly, answers at the essay level receive an equal percentage of 21.42% for both the short and long essay.

Table 6.16 shows that in the 5th year, only 4 questions, representing 16.66% of the total number of exam questions under analysis, target answer that require rhetorical structures under the paragraph level and 6 others, i.e., 25,00% expect paragraph writing. And 58.33% expect essay writing. These include 4 questions for short essay and 10 questions for the long essay, with the 16.66% and 41.66% respectively. The answers score percentages exhibit of course higher figures for essay writing (82.5%) which is made up of the highest one of 68.21 for the 5-paragraph essay and 14.28% for the short one. Expected answers below and at the paragraph level, however, received smaller percentages of the scores (06.78% and 10.28% respectively).

6.2.2.2.3. Rhetorical level frequency per year

As a recapitulation, tables 6.17, 6.18, 6.19, 6.20 as well as Figures 2, 3, 4 demonstrate that although essay writing is taught as early as the first term in the 2nd year and most essay patterns are covered within the same year and further consolidated in the 3rd one, teachers continue to rely mainly on sentence and paragraph level answers until the 4th year. It is only in the 5th year where they use almost exclusively essay examination questions.

Paragraph level		2	3	4	5	Total
	N	18	21	23	04	66
	%	27.27%	31.81%	34.84%	07.57%	100%

Table 6. 17. Below Paragraph Level

Paragraph writing		2	3	4	5	Total
	N	13	13	16	06	48
	%	27.08%	31.81%	33.33%	12.50%	100%

Table6.18. Paragraph Writing

Short essay		2	3	4	5	Total
	N	00	05	06	04	15
	%	00%	33.33%	40.00%	26.66%	100%

Table 6.19. Short Essay

05 paragraph essay		2	3	4	5	Total
	N	00	01	03	10	14
	%	00%	07.14%	21.42%	71.42%	100%

Table 6.20.The 05-paragraph Essay
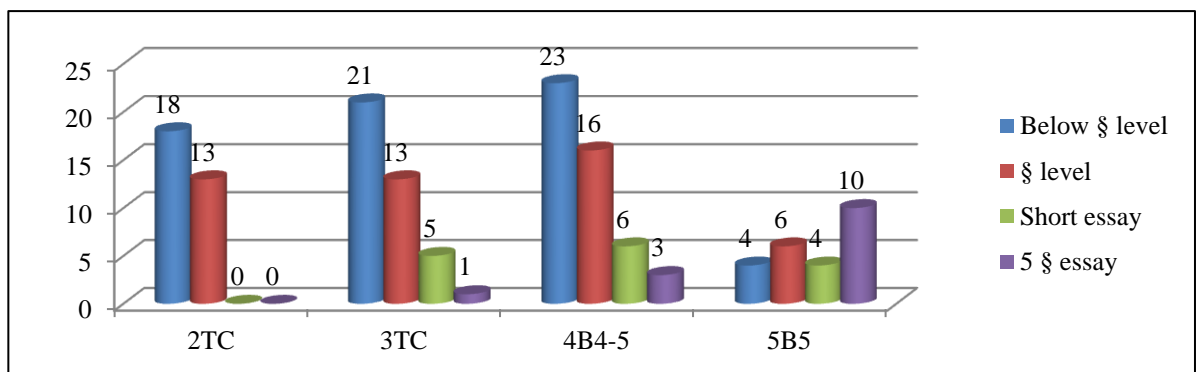
Figure 6.2. Rhetorical patterns frequency
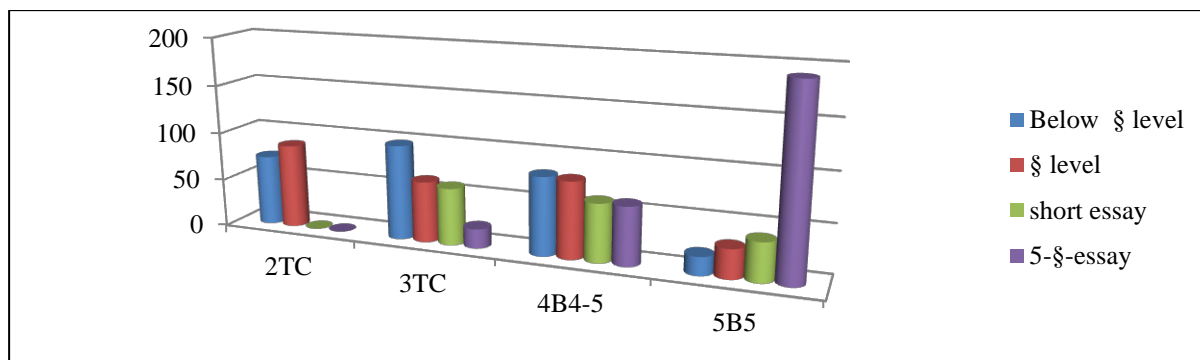
Figure 6.3. Rhetorical patterns scores (per year)

6.2.2.3. Total Statistics of the 4 Years

Question Instructions number /year		2	3	4	5	Total
N	N	12	27	15	08	62
	%	08.39%	18.88%	10.48%	05.59%	43.35%
NM	N	19	13	33	16	81
	%	13.28%	09.09%	23.07%	11.18%	56.64%

Table 6.21. Number of Question Instructions Mentioning/not Mentioning

Writing Requirements/ Specifications per Year

Question Instruction number/ Year		2	3	4	5	Total
N	N	70	174	113	145	502
	%	07.29%	18.12%	11.77%	15.10%	52.29%
NM	N	90	66	167	135	14.06
	%	09.37	06.87	17.39%	14.06%	47.70%
Total score			**960**			

Table 6.22. Scores of Question Instructions Mentioning/not Mentioning

Writing Requirements/ Specifications per Year

The total statistics of the exam questions of the 4 years under investigation demonstrate that that there is a tendency towards no specification or mentioning of any writing requirement at the level of the question instructions with the exception of the 3rd year questions which include an overt tendency towards mentioning those writing patterns required as part of the correct answer. This tendency is somewhat reversely expressed at the level of scores where 52.29% of them is reserved to the questions that do specify the writing pattern

expected in the answer and 47.70% does not. Still, in both cases, the figures (as shown in **tables 21** and **22**) are too close to conclude that the difference is not significant enough to make strong claims in this regard.

However, **Table 6.23** includes significant differences regarding the rhetorical level frequency expressed through the total 143 exam questions analyzed. Indeed, 46.15% of the total number of the analyzed questions requires written answer below the paragraph level, 33.56% require paragraph writing while only 10.48% require a short essay and 09.79% require a 5-paragraph- essay pattern. It is true, however, that the figures of the scores do not display the same significant difference with quite close percentages: 28.22% for both writing below paragraph level and long essay, 26.97% for paragraph writing but only 16.56% for short essay writing. Those statistical results are outlined in the Figures 5 and 6 below.

Rhetorical Level in 4 years			
		Exam questions	**Answer scores**
Below paragraph level	N	**66**	**271**
	%	46.15%	28.22%
Paragraph level	N	**48**	**259**
	%	33.56%	26.97%
Short essay	N	**15**	**159**
	%	10.48%	16.56%
5 paragraph essay	N	**14**	**271**
	%	09.79%	28.22
Total		**143**	**960**

Table 6.23. Rhetorical Level Frequency in 4 Years
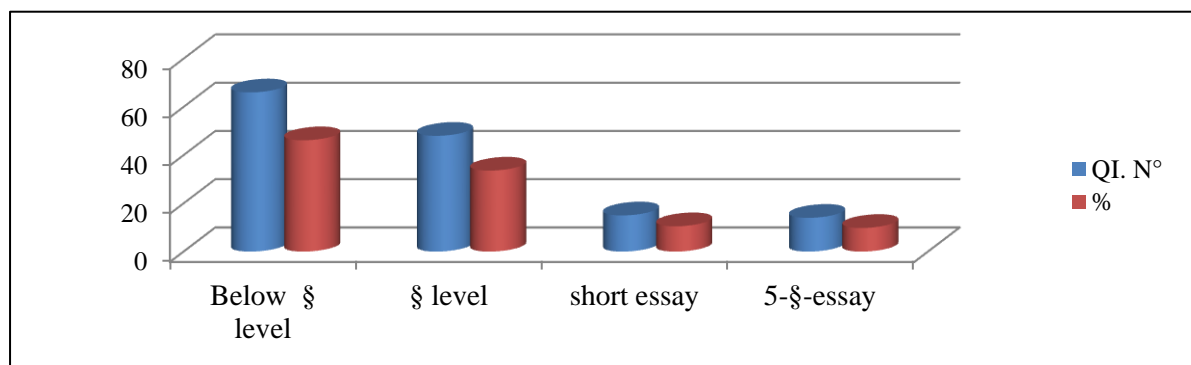
Figure 6.4. Rhetorical Patterns Frequency in 4 Years

184
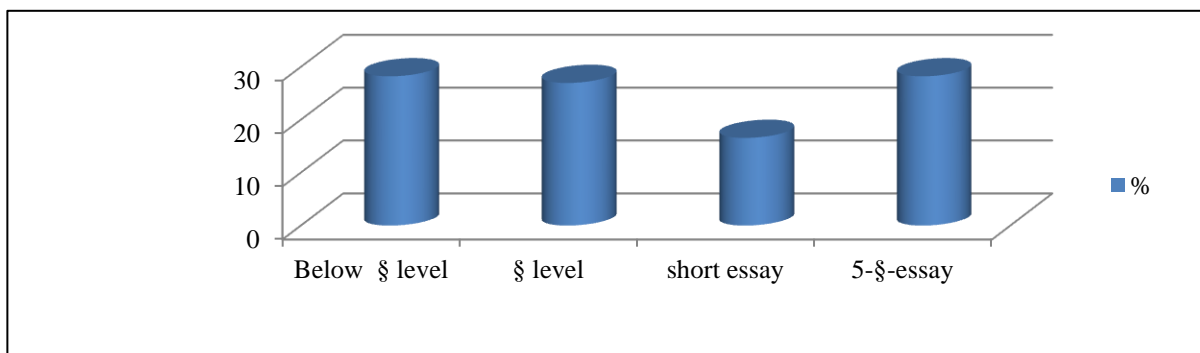
Figure 6.5. Rhetorical Patterns Scores in 4 Years

6.2.2.4. Contrastive rhetoric English language population statistics

Research population	Training Years	Subjects	Exams	Questions
4B4	2nd, 3rd	09	20	71
5B5	2nd, 3rd, 4th	16	34	119

Table 6.24. General Statistics of the Contrastive Rhetoric English Students' Population

The following section will include an analysis of the exams writing patterns of the population that constitute the CR English population. (Cf. Chapter 5)

6.2.2.4.1. Middle school student-teachers' (4B4) population

Statistics describing the EFL writing experience during examinations of the 4B4 trainee population under study before they engage in the training experience and the task of report writing include statistics related to the two years (2nd and 3rd) prior to their training course in the graduate year. This is so because students usually engage in the practical training course and report writing experience as early as the end of November and beginning of December, before the first term examinations (usually conducted by the end of January) and finish it by the end of April, that is before the second term examinations (usually due by the end of May).

According to **Table 6.25**, 54.92% of the exam questions of this population target answers that require writing below paragraph level, and 36.61% require answers in the form of paragraph and only 7.04% do require a short essay while only 1.40% require a long essay. In other words, throughout 2 year before they engage in their training course, students sat for 20 exams in 9 subjects but did write only 01 long essay (5-paragraph-essay), with a score representing only 05.00% of the total score, and 05 short essays with a score representing 14.75% of the total score. Thus, 4B4 trainees writing experience during term examinations may be said to be a poor one in terms of complex essay rhetorical skills.

		Exam questions	Answer scores
Below paragraph level	N	39	171
	%	54.92%	42.75%
Paragraph level	N	26	150
	%	36.61%	37.50%
Short essay	N	05	59
	%	07.04%	14.75%
5 paragraph essay	N	01	20
	%	01.40%	05.00%
Total (of 02 years)		71	400

Table 6.25. Rhetorical Level Frequency of the 4B4 Comparative Rhetoric

English Students' Population

6.2.2.4.2. Secondary school student-teachers' (5B5) population

Statistics describing the writing experience during examinations of the 5B5 trainee population under study before they engage in the training experience and the task of report writing, undertaken in the same time as their 4B4 mates, include statistics related to the three years (2nd , 3rd and 4th) prior to their training course in the graduate year. Similar to 4B4 trainee population, **Table 6.26** shows 52.10% of the exam questions require writing below paragraph level, 35.29% require paragraph writing in their answers and only 9.24% do require a short essay while only 3.36% require a long essay. So, before they engage in their training course, students sat for 34 exams in 16 subjects in 3 years but did write only 04 long essays (5-paragraph-essay), with a score representing only 11.76% of the total score, and 11 short essays with a score representing 17.50% of the total score. To conclude, 5B5 trainees too, as Figure 8 shows, do have a poor writing experience during term examinations in terms of macro-rhetorical skills.

	Exam questions	Answer scores
Below paragraph level	**62**	**252**
	52.10%	37.05%
Paragraph level	**42**	**229**
	35.29%	33.67%
Short essay	**11**	**119**
	09.24%	17.50%
5 paragraph essay	**04**	**80**
	03.36%	11.76%
Total (03 years)	**119**	**680**

Figure 6.26: Rhetorical Patterns Frequency for the 5B5 Contrastive Rhetoric Subjects
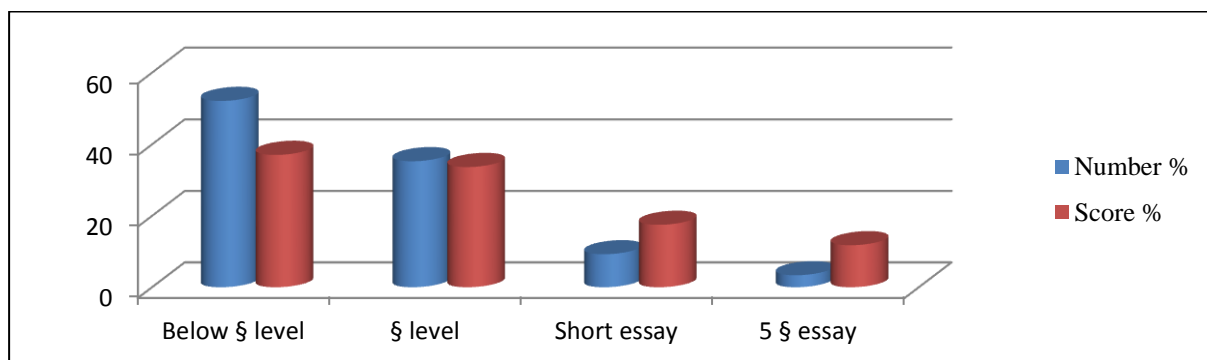
Figure 6.6: Rhetorical Patterns Frequency for the 5B5 Contrastive Rhetoric Subjects

6.3. Discussion of the Interview and Content Analysis Results: The Educational Culture in the Teacher Training School of Constantine

Throughout their learning curriculum, TTSC students are trained in writing with little practice of writing outside the writing course. They seem to be learning writing mainly for the sake of examination: to be tested in the writing examination and examinations of other subjects. Although the writing course (from the 1st to the 3rd year) provides instruction in the essential writing skills of academic writing, the training in the ENSC in general does not present a coherent framework that focuses on long term objectives through developing such skills like analysis, development, exemplification, etc. expected to be exhibited by students throughout their training and to be counted and evaluated in other subjects or in research writing and conducting (training report, dissertation).

As shown through the interview with content subject teachers, the teachers' training in the department of English is characterized by the scarcity of written assignments. In most subjects, no research or production work is expected from students in any written form (summary, report, paragraph, essay, etc.)

In the few subjects which involve a written assignment (which represent only 39.28% of the 28 subjects covered by the research), teachers' primary objectives are in the first place the practice of the content subject information. That is, they target students' assimilation of theoretical knowledge for language science and culture subjects as linguistics and civilisation. In the pedagogical courses, as MDD, TESD, SD, PT, the overall concern is with the practice of the pedagogical concepts and the enhancement of the future teachers' professional skills such as those of lesson preparation, material design, class management, etc. In addition, teachers are targeting students' presentation skills, oral fluency and effective communication. Practicing and evaluating writing seems to be of little, if no, importance at all for most teachers who assign a 'written' homework. This is seen through their reluctance to correct the written form of the work, provide written feedback or even return back the manuscripts. The few teachers who correct those written forms (only 03 teachers) have form-oriented attitude and focus only on language correctness and accuracy. No attention is paid to rhetorical patterns beyond the sentence levels.

In addition to the scarcity of written assignments throughout the training process, exams in the content subject do not seem on the whole to target the higher composing skills among students. This is seen through the insufficient exam tasks requiring writing beyond the level of the sentence during the evaluation of content subjects in the TTSC training. The study has examined some questioning behaviors in 23 out of the 31 subjects that encompass 4 training cycles in the English department, TTSC ranging from the 2nd year to the 5th one. It has been discovered that the required type or pattern of writing is not always explicitly pointed out at the level of the question instructions and that teachers often left it to be inferred from the question instruction itself and the score reserved to the correct answer. In addition, the general questioning behaviors of teachers are in favor of answers that require writing that does not exceed paragraph level in the first three training years (2nd, 3rd, and 4th). It is only in the 5th year where most exam questions seem to target higher macro-rhetorical skills, namely essay writing.

Considering teachers' tendency to postpone the use of essay questions until the 5th year, which is the final one for secondary school student-teachers and in fact a year after middle school students-teachers had left, one can make two observations:

1) This questioning attitude seems to minimize students' writing experience, their opportunities to put into practice, check and enhance their macro-rhetorical skills and reduce their chances to have their essay evaluated and to get feedback on them. When considering the major advantages of essay questions, it becomes valid to wrap up that before graduating from the TTSC student-teachers (both middle and secondary school ones) engage in a training course with several writing tasks, the most important of which being a training report writing, with a very limited essay writing experience.

2) The general tendency towards targeting answers requiring mostly writing at the sentence and paragraph levels would probably increase students' expectations of such kinds of response. As a matter of fact, previous learning experiences affect learners' behaviors. Students' learning expectations can be strongly influenced by the learning culture they are operating in, in which norms of thinking and behavior, about for example how students should behave in lessons, what they should think of teachers, how they should learn, etc are embedded without anyone even questioning them (Harmer, 2003). Because of these expectations, students would tend to rehearse, whether consciously or unconsciously, those particular rhetorical patterns as they prepare for examinations at the expense of essay or more complex macro-rhetorical ones. This may eventually cultivate among students undervaluing attitudes towards those latter skills. This tells about vital role assessment can play to promote a particular teaching culture in a language class. When we design and administer tests, we do in fact more than just assess learning. "What we assess, how we assess, and how we communicate the results send a clear message to students about what is worth learning, how it should be learned, and how well we expect them to perform." (Educational Testing Service, 2003, p. 1)

Conclusion

Our attitudes to the language and its skills, and to the way it is taught, echo cultural traits and beliefs about the communication process and styles and the educational methods as well. The weight allotted to the writing skill varies from one educational context to another. In some contexts, it has equal roles with the other skills; in other teaching situations, it is only

used in its' writing-for-learning' role where students write mainly to enhance their learning of the grammar and vocabulary of the language (Harmer, 2003).

The present chapter has uncovered some interesting facts about attitudes towards writing in EFL within the context of the TTSC and the overall educational culture there. The system of education in Algeria depends on the examination rather than writing papers, and the case of the English teacher training in the TTSC seems no exception. Results in section one have demonstrated that writing papers is not a common practice evaluation in the TTSC. Added to that, the teachers questioning practices in term evaluation and testing do not afford enough space for students to practice macro-rhetorical skills nor to check their essay writing abilities. The overall attitude towards writing reflects a teaching culture where writing has a rather marginal role all along the training process, and the writing skill in the TTSC curriculum seems to have a 'writing-for-learning' role.

Chapter Seven

Pedagogical Implications

Introduction

This study attempts to build upon research in CR/IR, using a mixed methods design, to transcend the purely text analysis to cater for the multifaceted nature of rhetoric and it teaching by exploring other cultural and educational factors than L1 transfer. The present research, for example, has shown how the macro-rhetorical failures of the EFL learners writing persist until a quite advanced level of proficiency. Certain educational and cultural factors contribute to perpetuate those problems such as L1 culture influence, writing teachers' limited knowledge of culture and their insufficient awareness of the role that the latter could play in a writing class. In addition, the educational culture itself does not afford the appropriate conditions for the acquisition and development of such macro-rhetorical skills and does not help to reduce L1 writing patterns transfer. The absence of any writing assignments through the curriculum together with teachers' questioning practices focusing on micro-rhetorical skills narrow students' possibilities to fully practice and improve their writing skills to gradually get rid of L1 cultural patterns reliance. They also contribute to promote an educational culture with its own norms and attitudes such as the marginal role it allots to writing within the overall training framework. As a result, students' written productions in advanced stages, such as the report introductions in this study, look immature and sound 'nonnative'.

7.1. Conceptualization of Culture within the Teacher Training School

The perpetuated influence of L1 culture until an advanced level of EFL writing translates an inadequate approach, if any, to deal with the complexity of the concept of culture in the English teacher training context at the TTSC. But considering the issue just from the L1 culture transfer perspectives would do nothing but contribute to the above mentioned narrow, incomplete conception of culture and inadequate handling of its complexity. In order to define the role of culture within the FL pedagogy and more particularly the writing pedagogy, a more comprehensive useful conceptualization of the notion needs to be drawn so as to provide a helpful instrument to grasp FL writing processes. The present research results have just shown a need to deal with other paradigms to contribute to a better conceptualization of culture within an IR discipline.

Modern research (Holliday, 1999; Atkinson, 2004, Wilson, 2015; Holliday, 2018) suggests that a 'better' conceptualization of culture entails more exploration of small and

large culture paradigms as an integrated means of understanding culture. Wilson (2015, p. 306) argues "Small culture provides a situated and non-essentializing understanding of how people work in contrast to large culture which only provides a reified version of interactions which leads to over generalization leading to ethnic and nationalistic stereotyping" In an intercultural communication venture, the FL culture together with the L1 culture paradigms constitute key elements in the development of a successful curriculum, but they are not sufficient as they reflect the 'large culture' paradigm which is by its nature susceptible to a culturist reduction of FL and students cultures and their educational contexts (Holliday, 1999). Small cultures are interested in interpreting and understanding emergent behavior within groups while large culture departs from the idea of the group and then looks for supporting evidence, and so it can be seen as accommodating and maintaining normative values of dominant beliefs (Wilson, 2015). Thus, the small cultures' paradigm attaches 'culture' to small social groupings or activities and avoids cultural ethnic, national or international reductions and stereotyping.

In order to successfully handle the culture variable in the FL context in general, and in the writing class in particular, some recommendations have been presented to promote the writing skill and improve its teaching within the framework of the TTSC. The recommendations are meant for a revision not only of the writing curriculum but also the overall teachers training framework wherein the concept of culture is to be approached from three different perspectives: FL perspective, L1 culture perspective and the educational/ teaching culture perspective

7.2. Foreign Language Culture-Based Writing Pedagogy

As it is an EFL teaching context, the first recommendation concerns the place of the FL culture in the writing class.

7.2.1. Teachers' Cultural Training and Self-education

Before attempting to raise learners' awareness of the cultural differences in writing and their influence on writing in an EFL/ESL language, writing teachers need to be themselves sufficiently and adequately aware of such an issue. In this work it has been demonstrated that writing teachers are not sufficiently aware of the possible role of culture in a writing class. A possible reason for this is their narrow perception of the concept of culture, limiting it to the big C sense.

However, these teachers seem unaware of the Small 'c' sense that is the less observable but far more influential portion of culture on people's behaviors and linguistic communication in speaking and writing and a type that would contribute to the development of a communicative competence, the acquisition of conversational skills in EFL (Kramsch, 2013) as well as successful cross-cultural communication (Chlopek, 2008). Small 'c' culture consists of a wide range of none observable features such as attitudes, assumptions, beliefs, perceptions, norms and values. It is this conception of culture that is of direct relevance to the writing class, for it is determinant of people's way of thinking, communication styles, linguistic/non-linguistic behavior and expectations and interpretations of other people's linguistic/non-linguistic behavior and discourse organization.

Consequently, an appropriate amount of cultural training appears to be indispensable for teachers of writing. Speaking about the role of teachers' self-education is an important point. Colombo (2012) puts it simply "if we take our profession seriously we should stay current with the research (…) to avoid 'uncritically' applying principles" (p.4). There seems to be no other ways to cater for the present issue, with regard to the results of the research pertaining to the lack of teachers' cultural knowledge. Cultural training events (whether in the form of conferences, seminars, study days, or other), which preferably target writing teachers, have to be planned and held with the aim to enhance teachers' knowledge about the cultural dimension of the writing instruction and raise their awareness of the intricate role of culture in the EFL writing class.

In this respect, a training framework in culture-and-language has to be designed with a set of major objectives to achieve to prepare teachers to incorporate the culture variable into their actual teaching writing practices. Based on Byram's approach (1994), through both its academic and pedagogic dimensions, the writing teachers training design needs to:

- Afford opportunities for both cognitive and experiential learning.

- Allow teachers to experience a foreign culture as well as analyze it.

- Enable teachers to reflect upon their experience as well as carry out comparative analysis of their own and the foreign culture.

- And raise teachers' awareness of the both cognitive and affective implications of cultural learning for their practices in the classroom.

7.2.2. Explicit Foreign Language Culture Instruction

Teachers of writing should not overlook the special cultural context of their instruction and should not lose sight of the cultural dimension in their lesson design and plans. Instructors need to frame the cultural context of written assignments and also to explicitly teach general English rhetorical strategies (Strauss, 2010). There are several feasible ways teachers can assist their learners with the FL rhetorical and cultural issues (Strauss, 2010; Abu Rass, 2015), and many of these are actually adopted by many EFL writing teachers including Algerian ones, such as:

- Providing comprehensible input through exposing learners to authentic use of English rhetorical skills.

- Explaining the cultural context of readings, prompts, and assignments: Teachers should not just pass out writing prompts without making explaining the context of the prompts to the students; they have to outline the cultural and historical background to texts and discussions for ESL students before the latter are expected to respond.

- Explicitly instructing students on the rhetorical devices expected of them for the specific genre of the written assignment.

7.4.   First Language Culture Influence: Adopting a Comparative Rhetoric Teaching Methodology

The CR analysis of the training report introductions of two samples of EFL and Arabic language final year students has revealed that although many students demonstrated an ability to write well focused thesis statements that map the entire essay, and effective topic sentences that control the paragraph development and sustain topic and paragraph unity, the writing of many others was still far from the conventional writing in English and was more representational of many rhetorical features of L1 writing. First, not all students were able to advocate a thesis of their own. If ever mentioned, students' essays were characterized by heavy dependence on giving fuzzy, unfocused thesis statements that were merely announcing the topic without expressing a clear focus to control the essay and guide the readers through the coming discussion. Similarly, topic sentences, when mentioned, were general statements of topic instead of specified statements of an idea, attitude or position. Due to the topic sentence absence or vagueness, the following paragraphs showed a poor development and

suffered from lack of unity as they included many digressions. Most of these rhetorical characteristics reflect an L1 (Arabic language) writing style rather than an English one which is a probable evidence for the of L1 culture role. But then the question that seems unavoidable is what is/ are the causes(s) of such perpetuated influence until a quite advanced level?

This study has demonstrated that though teaching EFL in Algeria takes place in an L1 native language context and is performed by L1 native speaking teachers, the latter do seem to exhibit little awareness of the L1 rhetorical strategies, fail to perceive the influence of these on their EFL students writing, are unconscious of the potential use of CR and unacquainted with the adoption of an intercultural approach to draw students' attention to their own cultural problems and thus facilitate students' writing.

In this respect, the adoption of a writing pedagogy which would bring in the cultural differences to the writing class can be suggested. When writing in English, writers often explicitly state the topics (either in the form of a thesis statement or topic sentences), which are then backed up by support as facts, details, explanations, etc. English discourse is said to follow a linear pattern of thought and depends "on logical reasoning and clearly organized ideas" (Kaplan, 1966). Arabic discourse, on the other hand, is usually considered indirect and inductive. Using series and coordinate patterns, writers in Arabic rarely state explicitly the main ideas (thesis statement or topic sentences). They rather develop them or defend them gradually. While this is just standard writing in Arabic, it may sound quite unusual in English. It is very necessary for students to know that discourse organization patterns are mostly culture-bound and that writing in the first language entails the manipulation of different rhetorical patterns which may not be always appropriate while writing in EFL but which can still be transferred to that writing.

To increase the students' perception of English thinking and rhetorical patterns, teachers may introduce, compare and contrast thinking and rhetorical patterns of Arabic with the English ones. In this context, contrastive rhetoric (CR)/ intercultural rhetoric (IR) could be a very beneficial awareness-raising and motivational tool, not only for learners as particularly demonstrated in the Algerian EFL context by Hamadouche (2015), but also for EFL writing teachers as the latter need appeared obvious in the present research.

A teaching methodology that repeatedly brings in explicitly the cultural dimension of language hand in hand with its formal and structural usage is likely to assist students build a cultural awareness and acquisition of the target language. In doing so, students' contrastive

competence is reinforced to highlight, understand and handle the differences, divergences and inconsistencies between L1 and L2 writing and ultimately minimize negative L1 influence. This methodology seems quite feasible since most teachers of writing in the EFL Algerian context share the same language of students. In this context, writing teachers can exploit a plethora of useful techniques. For instance, students may be requested to talk either verbally or in writing about their knowledge and habits of writing in their native language. The differences could be then sorted out and highlighted by the teacher. As such, potential for a transfer problem is shown explicitly as the teacher carries on with the differences between the paragraph/ essay structure, organization and topic development, in English and Arabic writing. In sum, awareness of differences in the two languages' thinking and rhetorical patterns may assist the students' correct use of English rhetorical skills. Therefore, raising this kind of awareness ought to appear as one of the objectives of the EFL writing course.

7.5.   Educational Culture Awareness

Holliday (1999) uses small cultures to refer to the wide range of multifaceted and overlapping social institutions that any truly appropriate EFL methodology would cater for. In educational settings, the concept ''small cultures'', he argues, provides a more accurate descriptive power. It is particularly pertinent to an intercultural educational context, for it builds on what people (teachers, students, etc.) bring with them to the language teaching setting and how that experience and identity can develop as they interact with others, rather than emphasize solely the particularities of the FL and L1 cultures (Holliday, 2018).

This may sound like the exact place to recall and speak about the third space concept commonly perceived as an educational space where people from one large culture can be reflective about another large culture. Still, it would be too simplistic to assume so, for the small cultures paradigm transcends the picture beyond that intercultural duality. Participants in such an educational culture would be operating at the interface of an array of complex, interacting and overlapping cultures, of different sizes and levels varying from the culture of individual classrooms, to national culture.

An educational culture in this respect may be defined in terms of at least two further overlapping small cultures in addition to L1 and EFL cultures: the learning culture and the teachers' and professional culture. The culture of teachers deals with beliefs about and attitudes towards teaching incorporated into teachers' work. It also includes teachers' knowledge about appropriate ways to do their job and patterns of teachers' views and

behavior. Learning culture on the other hand, is a broader phenomenon as it caters for not only teachers' but also learners' expectations, attitudes, values and beliefs about learning and teaching (Dolganova, 2012). A learning culture is not a culture explicitly built for learning, or a culture that is necessarily good for learning; any place where learning of some type takes place has a learning culture (Hodkinson, Biesta and James, 2007). The learning culture concept deals with practices through which teachers teach and students learn in a particular site. The expectations to learning situations brought by both teachers and learners affect and limit what is possible for the participants working within the situation and which govern ideas about good teaching and good learning. However, a learning culture does not simply refer to the context or environment within which learning takes place, but to the social practices through which people learn (Hodkinson, Biesta and James, 2007). Thus, a key task for a cultural approach to learning is to understand how particular practices impact upon the learning of the participants.

The 'small culture' paradigm offers, for instance, an opportunity to dig into some of intricacies inside the educational culture within the English teachers training curriculum in the TTSC. The latter, like any educational culture in other contexts, bears characteristics, norms and attitudes of its own; these are the outcome of the interface between different cultural systems brought to this context (the Algerian national culture, EFL culture, teachers' professional culture, students' regional cultures as well as their youth culture, …) . If we take the teaching of writing to EFL students, it may be seen just as a situation where different educational cultures come into contact. The fact is that most of the approaches and teaching methods discussed so far in relation to the teaching of writing build on a very western idea of what constitutes good' learning (Harmer, 2003). Yet, the particular native language cultural background, learners' expectations, teachers' beliefs, attitudes and methodological preferences, etc. help to constitute an educational culture with its specificities.

The suggestions provided in this section are attempt to maximize the writing pedagogy in the light of CR/IR findings, namely getting insights from L1 rhetorical knowledge with the subsequent intent of minimizing L1 culture influence.

7.4.3. The Writing Course Revision

The CR analysis of the EFL and L1 students' training report introductions has uncovered the continuous reliance on L1 writing patterns, at least the macro-rhetorical ones of thesis statement, topic sentence, topic unity and paragraph unity and development, until a

quite advanced stage. These results imply that The L1 (Arabic language) culture traditional inclination towards orality (Johnstone, 1991; Khatib and Moradian, 2011) might have its effects on the educational culture in the TTSC. For this reason, it seems reasonable to call for a well thought revision, of the writing course at the teacher training school of Constantine.

7.4.3.1. The writing syllabus revision

Also revealed through the results of this research, the writing syllabus in the current training of English teachers in the TTSC exhibits calls for revision. More specifically, the 1st year syllabus requires a real and pressing revision. The syllabus components must be modified in a way to afford more space for paragraph instruction, and more importantly paragraph writing and practice. This revision should aim to make the syllabus have a more text or discourse level focus rather than sentential focus. This can be achieved first through a more coordinating work between teachers of grammar and those of WE in the 1st year in order eliminate redundancies across the two courses and detach the 'writing syllabus' aspects that can be covered in the grammar course only. Such endeavor will help to reduce the content of the first chapter, overloaded with grammatical points, to allow for more time and space for the second chapter- paragraph writing. At the same time, a more contextualized teaching of grammar will be possible in the writing course: teaching language structures (sentence structures, vocabulary and grammar) indirectly, as a secondary objective while practicing the rhetorical patterns of paragraph (paragraph structure, organization and development). Finally, most writing programs in most universities in the world use a textbook. The writing course in the TTSC does not have one. Though the syllabus includes clear specification of the writing points to be covered during the period of instruction, teachers do not use similar sources for their lessons. Even the same teachers may pick up materials for his lessons each time from different sources for the different writing points. While this is not a wrong practice per se, it may not always be suitable as those sources do not necessarily follow similar approaches and attitudes towards teaching writing. Some of them are even addressed to teaching writing not to EFL students but to native ones. Thus, an agreed on textbook could be useful to guide teachers through instruction, unify their methodology and assist novice teachers.

7.4.3.2. Multiplying writing homework assignments

A good writing pedagogy would involve learners more in self-dependent learning and outside class practice. As such, homework assignments ought to be frequent so as to provide learners with more opportunities to widen their writing experience.

7.4.3.3. Integrating reading and writing

Another efficient pedagogical technique, as much related to the above mentioned one, is the integration reading and writing. Assignments in writing based on reading ones or research making strategies could provide tangible contexts to practice, process and improve the writing skills met during instruction. Otherwise, those would remain purely theoretical in the students' minds, a fact actually highlighted during the writing teachers' interviews.

7.4.3.4. Definition of the role of the written expression team

The department of English at the TTSC includes teaching teams for most of the courses, but it is readily observable that those teams are not effectively working, and the WE team is a case in point. The role of this team needs to be well defined, and its work has to be goal-oriented and planned. The present role of the WE team is limited to checking syllabus items coverage and designing unified exam questions. However, this seems neither sufficient nor appropriate. The team needs to engage in regular consultation and reflective sessions, per level and across levels to initiate discussions, as necessary, about the content of the syllabus itself and the teaching methodology to embrace a more culture-based instruction, implement more learner-centered procedures, increase individual writing practice, provide more individualized feedback and adopt a more balanced form-content teaching, feedback and evaluation approaches. To do so, teams need to enjoy a certain stability by assigning kind of 'permanent' writing teachers, and not changing teachers every one or two years. Also, it just sounds more logical to allocate writing to teachers who really like it, want to teach it and are ready to invest time and effort as this course is repeatedly reported to be an exhausting one.

7.4.4. Redefinition of the Place of Writing in the English Teachers' Training Framework at the Teachers Training School of Constantine

The study has revealed that writing occupies a marginal role within the educational culture of the English language teachers' training. EFL writing pedagogy seems to fulfill the 'writing-for-writing' role; outside the WE course, little composing is required from students

in content subjects, except for the few exams requirements (mainly during the 5th year of training) where some writing at the essay level is required. This may be just another instance of the L1 influence (or to use 'small culture' terminologies) overlapping with the current educational culture. in this context, Harmer (2003, p. 77) asserts "Our attitudes to the language, and to the way it is taught, reflect cultural biases and beliefs about how we should communicate and how we should educate each other".

Cultures, including educational ones, have history and endurance. Artifacts and institutions embody and shape cultural practices and play an important role in the continuation of cultures. However, altering the learning culture, Dolganova (2019) argues, including its social and institutional dimensions could be very beneficial if it intends to promote effective learning, It is then essential to rethink the place of writing in the current training of English teachers in the ENSC, especially in comparison to the oral skill. This can be done through the integration of written assignments in content subjects. This reform will serve two purposes: expand students' writing experience and adopt a more systematic approach to assess the writing requirement in exams. Achieving these two purposes would hopefully contribute to lessen the marginal attitude towards writing in the overall teaching and educational culture and alter students' expectations as well.

7.4.4.1. Expanding students' writing experience

The results of the study indicated a lack of written productions by students in content subjects. In other words, apart from writing a paragraph or an essay every one or two weeks in the WE courses, students are not required to produce any piece of writing until their graduation year where every one of them has to handle in a training report, and a research paper for 5B5 ones. In the TTSC, only a few content subject teachers do give regular research assignments; however, those assignments do mostly stress the content area information and give little, if any, attention to essay or paragraph requirement. Most of them, take the form of an oral "exposé" presented usually by students and are graded on the basis of these latter's oral performance. A written form of the 'exposé' is rarely demanded by teachers. If they do, teachers, reported, that they seldom correct it, and if they did, their correction is limited to the formal and mechanical features of language (grammar, spelling, and punctuation) for the sake of determining a grade. Feedback on these productions is never returned to students. It is suggested that a revision of the curriculum has to be undertaken in this sense. All content- courses like linguistics, psychology, civilization and literature would

require a piece of writing, in the form of a paper, a project or a review or any other suitable form. Since the only way to learn and improve writing skills is to write (Trimmer, 1995), this step will afford students with more opportunities to put into practice their 'theoretical' knowledge about writing in EFL, discover the differences in rhetorical patterns, explore their weaknesses and strength and develop a more self-revision and correction attitudes

7.4.4.2. Adopting more systematic procedures to assess the writing requirement in exams

Based on the results of the analysis of exam questions as well as the content subject teachers' interview, it has been discovered that there are assessment issues that need to be addressed in the course of evaluation of the English teacher training cycle within the ENSC framework. Term assessments in the TTSC tend to be an "assessment of learning" whose primary role is to assess knowledge and learning outcomes at the verbal level. Indeed, methods of testing target more the micro-rhetorical patterns of writing (from word to sentence up to paragraph level) than the macro-rhetorical ones (essay) which are delayed until the 5th year. Teachers' major preoccupation then seems to be assessing essentially factual information. However, sentence level tests may not be well adapted to measuring some problem solving skills or to measuring the ability to organize and present ideas that may best be measured by the use of essay questions. Indeed, essay questions afford more opportunities to assess students' ability to formulate problems; organize, integrate, evaluate ideas, information and apply knowledge and skills, both factual and rhetorical. More importantly (for the purpose of the present work), essay questions permit a direct evaluation of a lot of writing skills such as L2 specific rhetorical features. Teachers' tendency to postpone the use of essay questions until the 5th year, the final one for secondary school trainee-teachers and in fact a year after middle school students-teachers had left, seem to minimize students' writing experience, their opportunities to practice and enhance their macro-rhetorical skills and their chances to have their essay evaluated and to get feedback on them. It is precisely those particular macro-rhetorical skills which are more influenced by L1 culture and thus necessitate special treatment to minimize those cultural issues. Thus, students who would have written at most 4-essay examinations are suddenly put in a situation, namely the 5th year, where most of their exams are essay ones. As for middle school student-teachers (4B4), they would have graduated from the TTSC with only that 4 essay examination experience in their whole training cycle. This calls for a revision of teachers' questioning practices, for there

appears to be a lack of knowledge about questioning taxonomies and sequencing knowledge (Lee, 2015). In this context, content subject teachers may work in collaboration with teachers of writing to design exam questions requiring macro-rhetorical levels and prepare writing rubrics / evaluation sheets specific to content subject examinations.

Conclusion

Acquiring writing skills in FL classes is one of the most difficult undertakings because of a set of widely investigated factors. The difficulty is further aggravated when the learners' L1 belongs to a culture totally distant from the FL culture. In this respect, it is evident that the Algerian EFL teaching context is unique. Using a mixed methods methodology to go beyond the purely text analysis to cater for the multifaceted nature of rhetoric and its teaching by exploring cultural and educational factors other than L1 transfer, the present research has revealed a clear failure of the EFL learners to realize macro-rhetorical patterns according to the English conventions and their persistence to realize many of them according to their L1 cultural patterns until a quite advanced level of proficiency. It has also uncovered some educational and cultural factors that could contribute to perpetuate those culture-bound problems. In order to overcome the observed deficiencies and maximize learners' compositions in the problematic areas, some suggestions have been proposed. The recommendations which address the revision of the overall teachers training framework, including the writing curriculum, suggest approaching the concept of culture from three different perspectives: FL perspective, L1 culture perspective and the educational (teaching/ learning) culture perspective. Further research in these areas is highly recommended to shed more light on the EFL writing intricacies in the Algerian context

General Conclusion

General Conclusion

Learning academic writing is an overwhelming task; EFL students need to exhibit a sufficient command of the proper rhetorical skills to arrange and present ideas together with mastery of the other aspects of language (grammar, mechanics of writing, etc.). This is an even thornier task when the writing is to be performed in an EFL/ESL language. It is repeatedly reported that acquiring writing skills in foreign language learning is one of the most difficult tasks because of a number of factors such as differences in language structures, writing conventions as well as cultural variables. Possessing a good command of the grammatical system and the sentence structure is often not sufficient to make a SL/FL student able to compose good texts (Kaplan, 1988).

Indeed, writing is an arduous skill which requires the demonstration of many skills at the same time not only at the sentence level, such as the mastery of sentence structure, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling and letter formation, but also beyond the sentence level such as the ability to structure and integrate information into cohesive and coherent paragraphs and texts. Therefore, composing texts calls for a number of other skills (Bourouba, 2012) such as the production of ideas about a given topic requiring knowledge of the world, the organisation of these ideas along their suitable rhetorical patterns respecting the rhetorical conventions of written texts. This entails communicating the ideas accurately in order to avoid misunderstanding or miscommunication which requires cross-cultural knowledge. In addition, L2 writing is more different than L1 writing because L2 writers have two languages that they can use "for cognitive operations" (Wang and Wen, 2002, p. 225). This difference attracted many researchers, who then looked at culture, learners' cross-cultural knowledge, their use of L1 in writing and the effects of using L1 on the quality of L2 written text.

In this respect, recent developments in research on ESL writing instruction emphasize the great importance of culture and intercultural studies. CR/ IR emerged as a new promising research field that embraced the mission of exploring cultural influences in ESL/EFL writing. The pedagogical orientation of CR is visibly perceived through its chief aims it seeks to achieve and which are identifying writing problems faced by ESL/EFL students and trying to interpret them by referring to the rhetorical patterns of their L1 (Connor, 1996).

Arabic has always been one of the most investigated languages in CR studies. As early as 1966, Kaplan showed that writing in Arabic differs from English essentially in its reliance

on repetition, parallelism and coordination. The CR studies of Arabic were then taken onward by other scholars (Soter, 1988; Johnstone, 1991; Connor, 1996, 2002; Bacha, 2002, 2010; Abu Rass, 2011; Al-Zubaidi, 2012) and many others who incorporated a large body of research into the field of contrastive rhetoric of Arabic and contributed to uncover further cultural and rhetorical differences between Arabic and English.

Still, for a long time, the Sapir-Whorf (1957) hypothesis has constituted a strong basis for many contrastive rhetoric projects, whether those involving Arabic or other languages. Such type of research has been mostly text-oriented focusing primarily on linguistic analysis. In doing so, most traditional CR researches have barely looked into the reasons and the sources of rhetorical differences in EFL and L1 writing by looking at philosophical, social, and educational aspects of the respective cultures (Cho, 1999). A call for a redefinition of CR aims and methods has then resulted in the alteration of CR into intercultural rhetoric (IR). The latter new theory presupposes three major principles: (1) the study of writing should not be limited to texts but has to consider the surrounding social contexts and practices; (2) national cultures interact with disciplinary and other cultures in multifaceted manners; and (3) intercultural discourse encounters, both spoken and written, involve interaction among interlocutors and require negotiation and accommodation (Connor 2011) With this newly emerged variation, examining written discourse across cultures is no more adopting a purely linguistic framework focused on the structural analysis of text but deals also with cognitive and socio-cultural variables of writing, including the cultural and educational contexts in which text is produced (Davies, 2004).

The present research adheres to this recent approach which transcends the quantitative corpus-based analysis of text to the consideration of contextual influences of education, socio-cultural attitudes, etc. It was conducted with the aim of investigating Algerian advanced EFL learners writing problems and exploring the possible cultural and educational factors influencing those difficulties in the context of a teacher training institution, the TTSC, using a mixed method framework.

Although empirical research in CR has proved that the L1 influence diminishes when the FL proficiency increases, the findings of a comparison between EFL and Arabic language students writing in this research demonstrated that writing problems/ difficulties with the culturally-based textual elements of thesis statement, topic sentence, topic/ paragraph unity and development persist in EFL students' writing until an advanced level (4th and 5[th]years).

EFL students continue to exhibit problems mastering macro-rhetorical skills and handling ideas organization and development at the paragraph and essay level. Consequently, their writing displays many L1 macro-rhetorical skills and patterns of organizing and developing topic at the paragraph and essay level. These are an explicit reflection of students' unawareness of the differences between the rhetorical patterns of English and those of Arabic and their possible ignorance of L1 culture and rhetorical interference. But this unawareness is a mirror effect of the writing instruction failure to address the issue of culture role in the L2 writing.

Teachers were similarly shown to possess little knowledge about the place of culture in an EFL writing class. They have a rather incomplete perception of the concept of culture limiting it to its aesthetic sense (or Big C culture) which is in fact the easiest aspect to learn about culture. Usually embodying a body of facts and statistics relating to the arts, history, geography, business, education, festivals and customs of a target speech society (Lee, 2009), such type of culture has often constituted the content of literature, history, cultural, etc. courses in most FL/SL language curricula all over the world. However, it describes only the peak of the iceberg and provides an incomplete picture of the concept. What teachers of writing seem to ignore, but need to possess, is knowledge of the Small 'c' culture which represents the deeper sense of culture that is not easily observable (Lee, 2009; Kramsch, 2013), for it encompasses a wide range of non-tangible, inter-connected features. Small 'c' culture comprises features like "attitudes, assumptions, beliefs, perceptions, norms and values, social relationships, customs, celebrations, rituals, politeness conventions, patterns of interaction and discourse organization, the use of time in communication, and the use of physical space and body language" (Chlopek, 2008, p. 11). It is this 'type' of culture which is more influential and determinant of people's way of thinking, linguistic/non-linguistic behavior and expectations and interpretations of other people's linguistic/non-linguistic behavior (Kramsch, 1996, 2013; Chlopek, 2008). Consequently, the small 'c' conception of culture is more relevant in the FL writing instruction.

The findings have also allowed to draw attention to some cultural and educational factors other than L1 particular rhetorical patterns influence. Such factors are related to the educational (teaching / learning) culture of the English language teacher training in the TTSC, and include general attitudes towards writing. It appears obvious that the writing skill occupies a rather marginal place in the current training of English teachers in the TTSC. Although all students must write a training report upon their graduation year together with a

research paper for 5B5 (future secondary school teachers) ones, neither the curriculum nor teachers' methodologies emphasize any sort of writing. Apart from WE course in 1st, 2nd and 3rd years, students do not practice much writing as part of special assignments in any of the other subjects, especially the content ones. In addition, teachers' general tendency to design examination questions that require a certain amount of writing not exceeding the sentence and paragraph level, especially in the 2nd, 3rd, and 4th year of instruction, adds to the scarcity of writing in the training and tells us at least two important things. First, it reflects the kind of marginal attitude teachers have towards the writing skill; the ultimate focus seems to be first of all content information correctness and less on the rhetorical organization of such content. Second, in so doing, such practices contribute not only to reduce students potential practice of the English writing skills, but it may also generate special unproductive attitudes towards certain writing types such as the essay. Indeed, teachers' tendency towards targeting answers requiring mostly writing at the sentence and paragraph levels (though often well-argued) leads to two unwelcomed outcomes. (1) It increases students' expectations of such kinds of response and would certainly drive them to rehearse, whether consciously or unconsciously, those particular rhetorical patterns as they prepare for examinations at the expense of essay or more complex macro-rhetorical ones. (2) This may eventually cultivate among students undervaluing and even negative attitudes towards the latter skills.

Finally, the general attitude towards the writing skill with the general English teachers training framework (translated by the scarcity of regular writing assignments throughout the different courses, especially in comparison to oral assignments, and exams questioning focusing mainly on sentence writing and to a less extent on paragraph level) results in students insufficient writing experience which does not afford students with the chance to work out all their writing problems with macro-rhetorical skills and solve their culturally-based ones. More importantly, considering the major advantages of essay questions commonly quoted in literature, such as their ability to measure complex learning outcomes and the accent they put on the integration and application of thinking and problem solving skills (Ghaicha, 2016), it is rather fair to conclude that the English teachers training culture at the TTSC does not seem to encourage the development of the higher order thinking and problem solving skills, at least in written form. The latter are fundamental skills for student-teachers (both middle and secondary school ones) for the completion in two vital writing tasks- a training report and a research paper before they graduate.

Last but not least, the researcher has attempted to bring the attention of scholars and teachers alike to one of the multifarious aspects of contrastive rhetoric by suggesting an approach that combines not only text analysis but also an exploration of other cultural and educational variables accompanying writing in EFL. The recommendations made by the end of this study are meant to improve EFL writing in a teacher training context by providing a better understanding of the difficulties faced by EFL student in writing in English to guide educators in the processes of planning, designing and assessing a syllabus through highlighting the potential role of culture in these deficiencies. The present research work ends suggesting a revision of the overall teachers training framework, including the writing curriculum; a key point to this revision is to address the concept of culture from three different perspectives: FL culture perspective, L1 culture perspective and the educational (teaching/ leaning culture) perspective By the same token, the study is hopefully an awareness-raising device for course designers, teachers and students alike of the multifaceted nature of the learning process of EFL writing students.

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Appendices

Appendices

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Appendix I

Report Introductions Rhetorical Organization

1. Essay structure: Number of paragraphs

ESS	§ n°	Intr	Body	Con
1	6	1	4	1
2	4	1	3	0
3	8	1	7	0
4	5	1	3	1
5	5	1	3	1
6	4	1	3	0
7	4	1	2	1
8	4	1	3	0
9	4	1	3	0
10	5	1	3	1
11	6	1	4	1
12	8	1	6	1
13	5	1	3	1
14	4	1	3	0
15	9	2	7	0
16	5	1	3	1
17	4	1	3	0
18	3	1	1	1
19	5	1	3	1
20	5	1	3	1
21	5	1	3	1
22	6	1	5	0
23	5	1	4	0
24	4	1	3	0
25	7	1	5	1
26	4	1	2	1
27	8	1	6	1
28	4	1	2	1
29	5	1	3	1
30	5	1	3	1
31	5	1	3	1
32	8	1	6	1
33	5	1	3	1
34	6	1	4	1
35	5	1	3	1
T	185,00	36,00	125,00	24,00
M	5,29	1,03	3,57	0,69
%				68,57

Table: ESS essay structure- number of paragraphs

ASS	§ n°	Intr	Body	Con
1	6	1	5	0
2	3	1	2	0
3	5	1	4	0
4	3	1	2	0
5	5	1	4	0

6	3	1	1	1
7	4	1	3	0
8	3	1	2	0
9	3	1	2	0
10	4	1	2	1
11	4	1	3	0
12	5	1	3	0
13	4	2	2	0
14	4	1	3	0
15	7	1	5	1
16	5	3	2	0
17	6	2	3	1
18	6	3	3	0
19	4	1	3	0
20	5	1	4	0
21	5	1	3	1
22	8	1	7	0
23	4	1	3	0
24	2	1	1	0

1

25	5	2	3	0
26	9	2	7	0
27	5	1	4	0
28	4	1	3	0
29	3	1	2	0
30	4	1	3	0
31	8	1	7	0
32	10	3	7	0
33	6	1	5	0
34	5	1	4	0
35	9	3	5	1
T	176	47	122	6
M	5,03	1,34	3,49	0,17
%				17,14
ASS Essay structure: Number of paragraphs				

2. Thesis statement use

AS N°	§ N°	C	Inc	Abs
1	X			√
2	2		√	
3	X			√
4	X			√
5	X			√
6	6(conc)	√		
7	X			√
8	X			√
9	X			√
10	2		√	
11	1	√		

12	1	√		
13	2	√		
14	1	√		
15	1	√		
16	X			√
17	2	√		
18	1	√		
19	X			√
20	1	√		
21	1	√		
22	X			√
23	1		√	

N°	code	C	Inc	Abs		N°	code	C	Inc	Abs
24	X			√		11	1	√		
25	3			√		12	Conc	√		
26	2-5		√			13	1	√		
27	X	√				14	1		√	
28	2	√				15	1		√	
29	1	√				16	1	√		
30	X			√		17	1			√
31	X			√		18	X			√
32	X			√		19	X			√
33	2	√				20	1		√	
34	1		√			21	1	√		
35	1	√				22	X			√
Total		**15**	**04**	16		23	2		√	
%		**42.85**	**11.42**	45.71		24	X			√

Table: Thesis Statement Use in the ASS

ES N°	§ N°	C	Inc	Abs
1	1	√		
2	1	√		
3	1		√	
4	1	√		
5	1	√		
6	2	√		
7	1	√		
8	1	√		
9	1		√	
10	1	√		

Continuation right column:

N°	code	C	Inc	Abs
25	1		√	
26	1	√		
27	X	√		
28	X	√		
29	X			√
30	X			√
31	1	√		
32	1			√
33	1		√	
34	X			√
35	X			√
Total		**17**	**08**	**10**
%		**48.57**	**22.85**	**25.71**

Table: ESS Thesis Statement

3. Topic sentence use

AS	§n	C	Abs	Im	In	Tit	Li	T		S	°			p	c		st	

1	5	1	5	0	0	1	2	1
2	2	2	0	0	0	3	3	1
3	4	3	1	0	0	0	0	1
4	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	1
5	4	2	1	1	0	0	0	1
6	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
7	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	1
8	2	1	1	0	0	0	1	0
9	2	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
10	2	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
11	3	2	1	0	0	2	0	0
12	3	2	1	0	0	3	0	0
13	2	1	1	0	0	2	0	0
14	3	1	2	0	0	6	0	0
15	5	6	0	0	0	3	0	0
16	2	4	1	0	0	5	0	3
17	3	2	1	0	0	0	1	0
18	3	1	0	2	0	0	2	0
19	3	2	1	0	0	3	2	0
20	4	2	1	1	0	1	0	3
21	3	3	0	0	0	6	2	2
22	7	6	1	0	0	11	1	0
23	3	2	0	1	0	6	1	0
24	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
25	3	3	0	0	0	0	2	2
26	7	6	1	0	0	3	0	0
27	4	2	1	1	0	0	0	0
28	3	1	0	2	0	3	0	2
29	2	2	0	0	0	5	1	0
30	3	2	0	0	1	5	4	1
31	7	1	6	0	0	3	1	2
32	7	5	2	0	0	7	1	1
33	5	4	1	0	0	9	4	2
34	4	2	2	0	0	10	1	0
35	5	3	2	0	0	6	3	2
T	122	82	35	9	1	103	34	26
M	3,49					1,26	0,97	0,74
%		67,21	28,69	7,38	0,82			

Table: The ASS Topic Sentence Use and Topic Shift

ESS	§ n°	C	Abs	Imp	Inc	T
1	4	3	1	0	0	0
2	3	1	2	0	0	2
3	7	3	4	0	0	1
4	3	3	0	0	0	0
5	3	1	2	0	0	0
6	3	3	0	0	0	2
7	2	1	1	0	0	2
8	3	1	2	0	0	5
9	3	2	0	1	0	0
10	3	3	0	0	0	0
11	4	3	1	0	0	5
12	6	4	1	0	1	5
13	3	1	2	0	0	4
14	3	2	1	0	0	3
15	7	5	0	2	0	2
16	3	1	0	2	0	2
17	3	2	1	0	0	1
18	1	0	1	0	0	1

19	3	3	0	0	0	5
20	3	1	1	1	0	1
21	3	3	0	0	0	0
22	5	4	0	0	1	2
23	4	2	2	0	0	4
24	3	2	0	0	1	1
25	5	3	2	0	0	4
26	2	2	0	0	0	2
27	6	3	3	0	0	1
28	2	2	0	0	0	2
29	3	1	2	0	0	2
30	3	2	1	0	0	3
31	3	2	1	0	0	0
32	6	4	2	0	0	6
33	3	1	2	0	0	3
34	4	2	1	1	0	2
35	3	3	0	0	0	3
T	**125**	**79**	**36**	**7**	**3**	**76**
M	**3,57**	**2.25**	**1.02**	0.2	**0.08**	**2.17**
%		**63.2**	**28.8**	**5.6**	**2.4**	

Table: The ESS Topic Sentence Use and Topic Shift

Appendix II

Sample of Students' Introductions

Introduction

Since our independence, the government had been making much effort to support education in Algeria. Training teachers was the norm to make teaching more related to post- graduate students from E.N.S Institutions; so that the process of teaching and learning would have successful results.

All life is an experiment. The more experiments you make the better." (Ralph Waldo " Emerson).One of the marvellous experiments that the teachers' training school of Constantine offers for us as fifth year students, is the Practical Training; after years of the theatricalstudies, the students make a typical step forward to the first contact with the professional world.it's the best workable means to evaluate the skills which the student acquiredduring the whole years of study. Furthermore, the Practical Training is a golden opportunity through which the trainees get access to the teaching profession, thus, they should take the full advantages from this unique experience.

Curriculum for this study cycle is designed to suits student's needs and aims at preparing them for their future job through both theory and practice. Theory stretches over a period of five years, during which students move from studying matters basically linked to language use and usage through several modules as: Writing, Grammar, Oral expression, Civilization; to those related to language teaching and learning through modules such as Pedagogical Psychology , Trends and Educational Systems and Teaching English as a Foreign Language. They are of a great importance because of what they provide as information concerning various theories of learning, different views about education and its development through history, and various approaches to language teaching and learning.

The period of theory is crowned in students' fifth year by a practical training. This latter aims at helping students to put into practice all the theoretical courses and meet the requirements of various skills developed during instruction. It also offers the trainees a continuous and regular pedagogical situation in which they are directly going to get in touch with teachers, learners and all the educational staff. During this period students receive advice and direction to guide and enable them to integrate gradually in their future workplace. This training is divided into three phases: the Observation phase, the Alternate Phase and the Full-Time Phase.

Each of the phases is devoted to a particular purpose. The Observation Phase is made up of two kinds of observation; a general observation in which we observed the environment of the school, its components and its staff, and the classroom observation is for observing what happens inside the classroom, mainly the steps of the lessons and the way the teacher deals ... . After this phase, trainees go through the Alternate Phase which gives trainees the opportunity of taking part in the teaching activities. Finally, in the Full-Time Phase, the trainees ... sponsibility of the teaching process.

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The general observation is the first step the trainees have to do. Therefore, the trainees had to visit the host school in order to gather some information about it, its staff, its structure and its location and so on. The first time we went to the school, we had an interview with the general supervisor.(because the headmaster was busy with otherthings and seemed not happy to see us!)who provided us with the information we needed and seized the opportunity to get rid of the routine of her desk ,since she did her best to keep this step as long as possible.

My colleges and I were oriented to ZIGHOUD, in"Sath el Mansoura" .The official name of the school is ZIGHOUD Yousef Secondary School, the school named after the patriot ZIGHOUD Yousef,glorifying his nationalist spirit and sacrifice during the revolutionary war; The institution was inaugurated in 1974.in its early years, the school was offering sits only for girls,then,it was allowed for some teachers' sons of the other gender to become pupils in this school and finally,the school became co-educational.

Coming to the institution's structure, the institution is very vast;it occupies four hectares.it contains one main pedagogical building which made up of two floors; the ground floor contains the administration, which includes the headmaster's office, the offices of other administrators, the teachers' room, a library, a room in which conferences take place and classrooms for the first year level. The first floor devoted to second year level (an exception is observed for a third year class because it is constituted by only few member of pupils) while the second floor is for the third year level. In addition to this block,the school contains an annex in which we find laboratories and workshops.The school has twenty classrooms,seven laboratories,three play grounds,a refectory,a sport hall, a computing room and a library which contains approximately a sum of six thousand books.

At the level of human resources, there are a sufficient number of employees who are mainly devoted to keep order and attempt to eradicate disciplinary problems, as well as to work for the benefit of the pupils, including the headmaster, a deputy head, an administrator, general supervisor, twelve pedagogical assistants, two laboratory assistants and a librarian. The teaching team at ZIGHOUD Yousef Secondary School consists of sixty three teachers among them there are five English teachers and all of them are women.The school hosts a total number of eight hundred and forty seven pupils, among them five hundred and one are girls. Concerning the repetitives, there is a total number of one hundred pupils, most of them are first year learners.

Introduction:

Teachers' Training School of Constantine offers a valuable opportunity to those who wish [
messengers of knowledge. Students at this institution undergo a pedagogical training that ends wit
the practical training which takes place in real educational institutions, primary, middle or seconda
schools; it is then for students to put what they had acquired in theory into practice. Thus, the
curriculum for this study cycle is designed to convene the student's needs and aims at preparing th
for their future job. More specifically, students in their fifth year, are introduced to the practical
training which aims at helping them put into practice all the theoretical courses and meet the
requirements of various skills developed during instruction. The practical training also, gives the
trainees the opportunity to be in a continuous and regular pedagogical situation in which they are
directly going to get in touch with teachers, learners, and all the educational staff. During this prec
period, students receive advice and directives, from both their supervisor and their training teachei
order to guide and enable them integrate gradually in their future workplace. In fact, the practical
training is divided into three phases during which students plan and carry out their tasks as teachei
These phases are namely the Observation Phase, the Alternate Phase, and the Full-time Training
Phase.

The Observation Phase is the first phase in the practical training. Many theories have pi
that in addition to learning through direct experience, people can learn through observation. Thus
phase is of a crucial importance. It allows trainees to be acquainted with the teaching situatior
serves as a means of acquiring knowledge about their future job. It aims at enabling them to be a
of the principles that concern the pedagogical environment and the available educational means.
phase is made up of two complementary parts, general observation and specific observation. The
helps the trainees to be familiar with the environment into which they will be integrated durin
training period. It consists of observing pupils' behaviors gathering information concerning the sc
pupils, teachers, human resources, and the available pedagogical means. The second licenses the
focus their attention on particular aspects of the teaching/learning process. This includes observ
of classroom activities and interaction, different teaching techniques and pedagogical aids used t
training teacher during the presentation of the lesson.

In the Alternate Phase, trainees start to participate in various teaching tasks. This perioc
step that prepares trainees for the full-time training phase by getting the necessary information
lesson preparation, activities, and teaching cards mainly. Trainees gradually participate in the va
teaching tasks; including preparing teaching cards, correcting some copies of tests, exam
homework and even designing some tests. This phase aids the trainees to put into practice the acc
theoretical knowledge during the observation of various teaching activities. It also helps the train
Prepare of some issues pertinent to the teaching profession like classroom and

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management, motivating learners and assessing their assimilation, and dealing with disci
problems ... etc.

After the partial participation in the various classroom activities during the Alternate
trainees start their last phase of the practical training; the Full-time Training Phase. Students
charge all the classroom activities and lessons that the teacher was supposed to perform for his
During the Full-time Training Phase, trainees have to consolidate the basis of their profe
experience and to put into practice the skills acquired during their instruction in the training inst
Also, they get the opportunity to realize a longer interaction with learners within a
comprehensive pedagogical framework. Essentially, they have to prepare and master the topic
presented during the Full-time Training Phase.

All in all, the three phases: the observation where the trainees sit at the back of the classro
only to observe what is happening, the alternate in which the trainees start taking part in the teac
process and dealing with pupils for the first time, and the full time in which the trainees live, for
15days, as full time teachers, are the most important periods ever in the Teachers' Training Scho
students' career because the trainees acquire some kind of knowledge about the different aspects
teaching-learning process that would help them in their future job. Thus, the practical training is
sufficient for future teachers to overcome fear and hesitation when confronting learners.

تقرير التدريب الميداني

AS15

ويتم هذا التدريب عبر مراحل بدأت هي:

مرحلة الملاحظة: والاشتراك الملاحظة وسيلة ناجعة في التعلم ومفيدة في الآن نفسه، وتعرف الطالب المتربص بمهنته أكثر، كما أنها وسيلة للتعرف على المحيط التعلمي التعليمي والأطراف الفاعلة فيه، وقد امتدت مرحلة الملاحظة خلال التربص التي مررت به من الرابع ديسمبر إلى الحادي عشر من نوفمبر الشهر لسنة 16 من (2/01/12 إلى 11/11 اليوم)، والملاحظة هنا نوعان: ملاحظة عامة متمثلة في ملاحظة المؤسسة التطبيقية بشكل عام وشامل، من حيث الموقع، والهيكل والتجهيزات وغيرها.

وملاحظة خاصة، متمثلة في ملاحظة القسم التطبيقي والنشاط داخل القسم، وهذا ما سنتطرق إليه في الموضوع الأول من هذا التقرير.

مرحلة التدريس المدمج: وهي ثاني مراحل التدريب الميداني، يلتحق خلالها الطالب المتربص مرة واحدة في الأسبوع لمدة ثلاثة أسابيع، وفيها يقوم بتحضير المذكرات والدروس وتقديمها بالتشاور مع الزملاء في التربص حسب تقسيم الأستاذ المطبق.

في هذه المرحلة يبدأ الطالب بالمشاركة تدريجياً في مختلف المهام البيداغوجية، وهذا لإعداده لاستلام الصف كلياً في المرحلة الأخيرة وهي مرحلة التدريب الكلي، وقد امتدت هذه المرحلة من 08/01 إلى 15/01/2015.

مرحلة التدريب بالكامل، وهي آخر مراحل التدريب الميداني، يلتحق فيها الطالب المتربص وفقة زملائه ولمدة ثلاثة أسابيع عاملة بالمؤسسة التطبيقية أين يقوم بالتكفل التام بالقسم ومختلف الأنشطة البيداغوجية، إذ امتدت هذه المرحلة من 05/05/2015 إلى 22/02/2015.

وما ينبغي التأكيد عليه هو أن هذا التدريب الميداني ذو أهمية كبيرة بالنسبة للطالب المقبل على هذه المهنة الجليلة، فهو يهدف إلى إعداد معلم كفء مؤهل علمياً ويداغوجياً، ويمكن حصر أهدافه فيما يلي:
- وضع الطالب وجهاً لوجه مع العملية التعليمية مع المتعلمين بالخصوص.
- وضع المعارف النظرية إلى اكتسابها الطلبة أثناء دراستهم موضع التطبيق وترجمتها في واقع تعليمي تعلمي حقة.
- تجسيد مبادئ البيداغوجيا الراهنة أثناء الممارسة خلال الطالب، والتعرف على تقنيات ووسائل التدريس.

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AS 15

تقرير التدريس الميداني

- مساعدة الطالب المترص على كسر حاجز الخوف والرهبة والتوتر الذي
قد يعيق نجاح العملية التعليمية.
- ضمان حد أدنى من التحضير للتكفل التام بالقسم وهذا من أجل تعليمه
جعم الفشل كأكل تجربة أولى للمعلم
بالإضافة على تقييم التقدم المحرز في مختلف الكفاءات سواء أكانت
تعلمية معرفية أو تعليمية تربوية، بيداغوجية
هذه بعض الأهداف المسطرة للتدريب الميداني والموصول الى
تحقيقها تم توجيهي أنا و زميلة في "يونس صبرية"، الى غاية
سهام" وتشريبي أميرة" إلى متوسطة حمودي الشهيد، الكائن
مقرها بحي سيدي مبروك الأعلى، والتي افتتحت سنة 1913
وهذا التقرير فرصه للتعبير عن حربتنا التي عشناها خلال هذا
الترص، وعرض ملخص عنها من خلال محورين الموضوع
الأول يتضمنون عن تحليل للشبكة الملاحظة التي قدمناها الأثنا الموضوع
الثاني يتضمن وصف المحاضر خلال فترتي التدريب المدمج والمعلمي
وفي الأخير وصلنا الى خاتمة عرضنا فيها النتائج المستخلصة من
هذا التدريب.

مـقدّمة :

إنّ الحركية العلمية والتكنولوجية التي يعرفها العالم تفرض على كل أمّة تكوين أفرادها ليكونوا فاعلين ومساهمين في هذه الحركية، ولن يتأتى لهاذا إلّا بتطوير منظومتها التربوية وتزويدها بما بالكفاءات، لهذا المسعى تمّ إنشاء المدارس العليا بالجزائر، وأهم ما يميّز هذه المدارس هي أنّها تضمن لطلّابها في نهاية المشوار تربّة ميدانية تتمثّل في « التدريب الميداني » وهو تكوين تطبيقي يتمّ من خلال التنسيق بين وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي ووزارة التربية الوطنية، حيث يعدّ أوّل اتصال للطالب بالعالم المهني فيطّلع من خلاله على كل تفاصيل العملية التعليمية التعلّمية ممّا يسهّل عليه الاندماج في المحيط المدرسي المستقبلي، يمرّ هذا التدريب بثلاث مراحل متتابعة [ملاحظة ، تدريب مدمج ، تدريب مغلق] ويهدف إلى : « تمكين الطالب من ربط معارفه النظرية بموضع التطبيق العملي.

* يسهّل على الطالب الانتقال إلى المحيط المدرسي بمختلف مكوّناته.

وقد تمّ توجيهنا من طرف مصلحة التربّصات بالمدرسة العليا للأساتذة إلى ثانوية "بوهالي محمّد السعيد" وهي أكبر ثانوية بولاية قسنطينة، تمّ افتتاحها في 1 أكتوبر 2001 تقع في الوحدة الجوارية رقم 6. على مستوى قرب محلة المحافلات. تتألف الثانوية من جناح إداري بضمّ 15 مكاتب كما يشمل كذلك على قاعتين للأساتذة وكذا قاعتين للإعلام الآلي ، أمّا الجناح التربوي فيتكوّن من 30 حجرة دراسة و 6 مخابر وكذا قاعة للتربية و مدرج بطاقة 125 مقعدا، كما يستفيد المتعلّمون من خدمات المكتبة والّتي تضمّ 1400 كتابا في مختلف المواد.

- أمّا عدد تلاميذ هذه الثانوية فيبلغ 1166 تلميذ ، منقسمين بين 356 تلميذ سنة أولى و 754 تلميذ سنة ثانية و 499 تلميذ سنة ثالثة، موزّعين على الشعب المختلفة ماعدا شعبة " الهندسة المدنية "، يشرف على تدريس هؤلاء التلاميذ 67 أستاذ منهم 49 نساء، أمّا أساتذة اللّغة العربية فعددهم 7 أساتذة منهم 5 نساء و رجلان (خلوف نلابي / العرباوي نبيل)، يسهر على تسيير هذه المؤسسة طاقم إداري

Appendix III

Written Expression Teachers' Interview Guide

Objective of the interview

The present interview is part of a research work that investigates the kinds and sources of writing problems encountered by Algerian learners of English and possibly the role of culture and mother tongue interference with such problems.

As teachers of writing, your contribution is of a precious importance. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions below. Your honesty and thoughtfulness in answering these questions is greatly appreciated and will directly benefit the research process

Thank you for your collaboration and patience

Amina Haddad

Doctoral candidate

Department of English ENSC

I. **Background information**

Qualifications (degree & field), teaching experience, teaching Writing experience, level taught, special training in teaching writing (self education/ self-training)

II. **Students' Writing difficulties**

1. During your teaching experience, what type of writing errors /difficulties that students repeat every year?

2. What do you think the source of these mistakes /difficulties are? (insufficient instruction, inadequate instruction, students' level, students' motivation, cultural differences between EFL writing & students' L1 writing habits, other)

3. Difficulties? What are the usual most difficult points /aspects to teach about:/ per level

- The sentence? (structure, rules, types, etc)
- The paragraph? (structure, types, …)
- The essay? (structure, types, …)
- The process?
- Ideas organization & development
- Other

4. By the end of your instruction, do you find that some/ all/ most of your students' writing have improved? What do you often feel your students master the least/ needs further instruction?

III. **Teaching writing methodology**

1. Describe a typical lesson/ procedure/ the approach/ method you follow to teach writing
2. Describe the evaluation & feedback procedures you adopt for writing

IV. **The writing course**

How do you find the syllabus of writing? The objectives?Time? Do you have suggestions to revise it? What do you propose to improve the teaching of writing?

V. **Culture and Intercultural rhetoric**

1. Teachers' views of culture: Do you use CR? What approach to culture while teaching writing? Do integrate culture while teaching writing? How?
2. Contrastive rhetoric questions: What kind of transfer mistakes do learners usually make in writing? What is the role of mother tongue transfer on writing? What are the rhetorical characteristics of writing in Arabic that influence students writing in English? How do you deal with this phenomenon in your course?

Appendix IV

Written Expression Teachers' InterviewTranscripts

1st year teacher transcript

T: So, after teaching them the § structure, the learners-- most of the learners have no difficulty to follow exactly the shape; I mean they do not have any difficulty to identify the elements that constitute a §: they know what they have to include in the topic sentence, how they are going to develop & provide this t.stce with supporting stces& how to conclude

Q: So, by the end of your instruction, for eg in 1st year- while teaching the §- at the end of your instruction, do you find-- what are the objective that you find you have reached & what do you find that students, for eg, need to to—T: Practice more? Q: Yes

T: For the form, the elements that constitute the §, I think that the objective has been achieved. But for the-- overcoming the errors is more difficult to obtain, to achieve. Why? I've noticed personally that both levels, whether we are talking about 3rd year students or 1st year students, most of them, not all of them, keep repeating the same- a high percentage- in spite of all the efforts, the comments, the type of feedback. I've been providing my learners this year (3rd year students) with combined feedback & conference feedback- mine, their classmates in addition to discussion of the comments- but in fact at the end of the year, till the last exam, I've noticed that the same mistakes are repeated

Q: You mean mistakes of spelling, grammar, tenses—

T: Those who do not think of using transitions/signals, still do not use transitions signals. Those who sometimes mis-start their § with a topic sentence-they start directly developing their idea, they still forget the t.stce. in spite of all the comments

Q: So, there are students who do not use the topic sentence? There is a problem with the t.stce?

T: Yes

Q: How many? Not a lot? A minority?

T: Let's say in a group of 30, 5 not more than 5.

Q: So, we were talking about the difficulties, let's talk about--. So, again by the end of your instruction what is the point that you feel that you need to teach more, that you wish to re-teach or to reinforce more in your writing syllabus?

T: (A short pause). Q: If there are no points, it's ok. T: No, what do you mean by 'Which point?'. Concerning grammar--? Q: You tell me. The § structure, I don't think-- So grammar?

T: It concerns grammar

Q: What about punctuation?

T: Punctuation!? I don't know if this year I have been teaching a good group, good level, but they haven't a problem of punctuation

Q: Let's talk about 1st year students

T: The others, 1st year in the previous years—

Q: You teach punctuation, at the end of your instruction, do you feel you have reached the objective?,

T: Not a 100%. They master some marks of punctuation. Probably, they find more problems with comma because we the comma more than the others

Q: What do you think the causes of the mistakes/ errors are?

T: The grammar mistakes? Q: Mistakes that are persistent

T: The vocab register is very limited, this may lead to produce spelling mistakes probably. Word choice, I haven't talked about it but this error is repeated by the learners; they miss to choose the word. What else, for eg, tense is due to grammar knowledge

Q: And the lack of vocabulary--

T: They sometimes substitute, they sometimes translate from mother tongue to English because they lack the English, & sometimes they mis-choose the word, they choose a word instead of another because they lack

Q: They lack vocab & grammar

T: vocab & grammar

Q: Ok, what did we talk about? The usual difficulties at the level of the sentence, at the level of the §; what about the essay? You are teaching 3rd year students, & you taught them, you taught this level previously; what difficulties concerning the essay are often exhibited?

T: Mainly the presence of the topic sentence at the beginning of each § & how to conclude the essay

Q: What do you mean by the presence?

T: I mean, sometimes they put it; sometimes they don't use it. This is the most important difficulty they face. They forget about it. And at the end, since they lack time they conclude without following the principles, steps of how to conclude an essay. They do not, they neither paraphrase nor summarise; they directly conclude supposing that they have the right to concludethe way they want

Q: So, in the 1st year when they write §s, they do not tend to have problems with the topic sentence

T: No, because they focus much on the topic sentence, & I suppose it is a new element that they have grasped recently. They were not aware of the topic sentence in the secondary school. Since it is new, they focus on it, & all what comes follows automatically, I suppose.

Q: And when they write an essay they forget about it because now the focus is not the topic sentence.T: No. Q: it is the essay in general.

T: The focus is on the thesis statement in the introduction, the focus is on the development of the idea in the different developmental §s and the focus is on the conclusion

Q: So, they have no problem with the thesis statement?

T: No, most of the time. Q: Most of the time- most of them. But they have problems with the topic sentence. T: Yes.

Q: What about transitions & linking--?

T: Some use transitions signals, others forget completely to use them, & the main comment—

Q: It's a common problem

T: Yes, yes. In order to get rid of this the comment I make to my students is 'When I read your papers, I feel like I'm jumping from one sentence to another, from one idea to another. So, put transition signals in order to have a smooth movement, but in fact they do not

Q: Yes, what about the ideas development &organization? Since there is no—usually the use of transitions is not successful, do ideas seem to develop, to flow logically?

T: In spite of the fact that there are no transition signals, there is a logical movement, but you feel like jumping. There is a kind of logic. Q: Coherence exists. T: Coherence exists

Q: Let me now talk about ideas development. In the essays, do students develop--Do you feel that students have this difficulty of: not developing sufficiently a given idea?

T: Yes, sometimes §s are too short, or the explanation is not enough, we need more clarity, more clarification . Sometimes, they do not illustrate where--

Q: Is this a common problem?

T: No. it's common, but it's not—T: Especially those learners who lack vocab have no equipment to explain

Q: Yes, what about wordiness & repetition of ideas? T: A few people. Q: Is it apparent in essays?

T: It is apparent but not to large extents. Q: not by the majority. T: in fact, this problem when you mention it once or twice, they remember to take in consideration

Q: Again, now you have finished teaching the essay, what do you think at the end of your instruction, students achievedyour objectives of essay writing, & what are the objectives that need to be—T: Achieved. Q: Worked more?

T: So, Of course we do not put all learners in the same basket—

Q: Ah, yes. Let's talk in terms of percentages

Q: By the end of your instruction concerning essay writing, what are the objectives that you feel are achieved and those that you feel need to be worked more?

T: So, what has been achieved at the end of instruction was the global structure of the essay since they study it two years, in the 2nd year & in the 3rd year. So, no problem with structure;

concerning the content of each § they know what to include in the introduction, conclusion, developmental §s, no problem concerning the link between the thesis statement & number of §s & elements to tacklein each §. So, I suppose what they have to work more on grammar because they still repeat the same grammatical mistakes, especially tense & I told you subject-verb agreement & consistency

Q: So, they write good introductions?

T: Most of them start well the essay

Q: The conclusion?

T: Most of them mis conclude

Q: So, there is a problem with the conclusion?

Q: And the developmental §, most of them write good developmental §s?

T: Let's say 60% of, I'm talking about the group I taught, 60 or 65% of the learners succeed to develop §s & 35% either forget the topic sentence or don't explain their ideas enough.

Teaching writing methodology

Q: Let's move to the 3rd point which concerns your teaching methodology, your teaching writing methodology. What do you follow? Do you follow the product approach or the process approach? Or a combination of both?

T: Since my learners have already been introduced to the different types of the essays-

Q: Let's start with the 1st year

T: The 1styear, it is the process approach, may be both of them: we start with the process approach& then we move to the product approach

Q: Ok, can you describe a typical lesson of the 1st year?

T: Hhhh! Concerning the §?

Q: Yes, how do you start the lesson? How do you-? Can you describe a typical lesson of § writing?

T: For example, if we consider the descriptive §, I remember that I gave my learners some theory about the descriptive §, how to write a descriptive § relying on the 5 senses; then, I provide them with some samples, some descriptive §s; we examine them collectively together & we try to identify the different elements that should be used or included in writing a descriptive § just to check whether the theory given to the learners is-- not the appropriate one, but to check their understanding of the theory. After examining collectively the different samples, I provide them with a topic & they write a descriptive § on the topic

Q: In the classroom?

T: In the classroom. No, with 1st year students not all the time in the classroom, sometimes in the classroom, sometimes at home; & sometimes individual work, sometimes group work. this is what I do

Q: So, when you give them a task? How do you--? Can you describe this writing task? How do you proceed with the task?

T: I remember I once gave them a topic, the same topic- let's say pollution, & since we study subject, purpose, & audience before writing any §, I asked them to narrow the topic by their own, to think of a particular audience & to state a specific purpose; & at the end of their productions, they worked collectively in groups, & the work was in the classroom. They started in the classroom & finished at home. And we read all the productions, we found that these elements cannot be isolated or separated from § production. They have understood finally what I meant by thinking of a specific purpose, thinking of a particular audience. For example, the same topic 'pollution' or 'smoking', I do not remember exactly what was the topic, but the choice of the vocab, the ideas included are closely linked to the audience, the age of the audience whether you are addressing primary school children, you don't use the same vocab. This is what they understood

Q: And the outline? Where is the outline?

T: The outline before

Q: Do you ask learners to use the outline? Do you or oblige them to the outline?

T: I invite them; I encourage them because I know most of them do not use the outline in the exam. I just try to convince them that the outline is a helping tool, not a hindering tool

Q: Have you tried the situation, or have you witnessed the situation if students are let free would they use the outline or would they start writing directly?

T: It depends on the student Q: In general

T: Let's say ahalf of the class, no more—Q: Wouldn't use it—T: No, use it without being imposed. Less than half of the class do not use it.

Q: And when they finish, you said you give sometimes individual work sometimes group work, you take the productions of the students;how do you correct them?

T: On the board. I correct them personally, & we choose one sample in the board, & we correct it on, mentioning the errors for 1st year students; for 3rd year students just comments

Q: So, you signal the error, & you write the comment, & then you select 1 §.

T: Generally, they choose, & we put on the board, & we correct it together

Q: What about revising? Do you ask students to revise? Is it a step in your lesson? This is what I meant by the process approach

T: I tell them to revise, but I do not check whether they do or not. Q: There is no—T: No supervision

Q: There is no guiding procedure? T: No

Q: During your evaluation feedback, you said 'I write both comments, & I signal the errors'. How do you signal them?

T: I underline the error & mention that it is a spelling mistake foreg, but I do not correct it

Q: What about the comments? What type of comments do you make?

T: For example, "good topic sentence" or "not precise". Q: So, the comments you make them on the content & organization. T: "Too many grammar mistakes", "too many spelling mistakes", "the example is appropriate or not"

Q: Ok, but the examples are much more related to the content &organization? T: yes

Q: When you come to give a score, how much—how do you divide your grade? According to grammar--? In terms of percentage, for eg, how much would give to content?

T: Personally, I have never thought of dividing grades, but I alwayshave a global—Q: Ok, a holistic approach

T: And the errors are going to decrease, & the type of errors, what I call "unforgivable mistakes" such as forgetting the 'S' at the end of the verb with 'he' & 'she' in the present is unforgivable, the ---- Q: Punctuation? T: Not really, the past participle of some particular irregular verbs, irregular plural, theses errors are unforgivable.

Q: Yes, there are unforgivable--, especially grammatical errors

T: In relation to age, to the level. 1st year students have unforgivable mistakes- a list- & 3rd year students another list

Q: So, it is a holistic approach, the number of mistakes will influence the kind of score?

T: Exactly

Q: Let's talk now about the syllabus of writing. Do you find the syllabus--? Oh we have not talked about 3rd year. Could describe the lesson of 3rd year?

T: The lesson of 3rd year. Since they have already been introduced to the different types of the essay, so I just refresh their memory the main theory about the type. Then, I provide them with one topic, just one topic, & they are obliged to write on that topic inside the classroom, submit the paper before leaving the session, I take the papers, correct them, correct generally half of the group. I have tried a new method this year: I take half of the papers, I leave half in the class, the learners are going to correct them & I correct my papers without mentioning anything on the model, they do the same, they do not write any comment or mention any mistake, they just put it on an extra paper& I do the same, & when we finish we meet & we discuss both evaluations & sometimes I discover that I have missed noticing something—At the end we discuss both corrections in the presence of the candidate, I mean the owner of the paper. What I found is that the learner remembers better the comments & the errors he made, why? Because all those comments have been repeated by 5 people not only the teacher privately, but 5 people spoke about all—You have forgotten to put the 3rd person S, you have… It's like public humiliation which has been welcomed by the learners& it has a positive effect

Q: I want to come back to the § in the 1st year. We spoke about evaluation & feedback procedures. You said—I would like to know whether—to confirm just: you do not use the

same way. You said "sometimes they write individually, sometimes in group". What about evaluation & correction? Is it always the same? Do you always take the papers correct them or do you--&or vary?

T: When it is individual—No, I always take the papers, correct them& we put a sample. When it is an individual work, we put more than one sample. When it is—

Q: Because I remember you once used a method where students read their §s their papers during the class

T: Oh yes, I did it. The papers that we do not put on the board we read them. But I show them how to examine the paper while the learner is reading. 1st reading, they are just focusing whether the § contains a topic sentence & what follows is logical & how does the learner conclude. Another reading to try to locate some of the mistakes, not all of the mistakes & of course identify the category. Are they spelling mistakes? Grammar mistakes? Like this. We lack time, we cannot correct all the papers

Q: Do you use this method also with 3rd year students?

T: No

Q: We reached the point of the syllabus. How do you find the syllabus of the 1st year?

T: You mean the 1st part which talks about sentence structures--? Q: In general, how do you find it?

T: Too too many—detailed. Q: In the 1stchapter? T: Yes. Q: So, your comment "the 1st chapter about sentence structures is too detailed"

T: There are too many details. Q: So, it should be shortened?

T: Yes, Since the points tackled in the written expression module are repeated, not all of them, they find them grammar too, so we have to make it lighter. I don't know—

Q: Ok, what about the objectives of the syllabus?

T: The objectives? For me the objective is to—Q: To write a good sentence? T: In the 1st part to succeed to write a good English sentence & at the end to write a good English §. These 2 objectives are appropriate for me

Q: Time?

T: Time allocated to this program? Not enough or enough you mean? Q: Yes, what do you think?

T: Since the 1st part is detailed, it influences on the time of the 2nd part. We do not have really enough time to tackle the different types of the §& practice. We practice once or—Q: Youpractice one type or two maximum? **T**: Not all of them. **Q**: It is because of the 1stchapter? **T**: Exactly. **Q**: So, if we reduce the amount of lessons in the 1st part, we would have more time for § writing chapter. These are your suggestions. What about the conditions? Class number?The number of students in the class?

T: The number is appropriate. Personally, I did not teach large groups. But if your objective is to work with all the learners, the number is too—you can't. you want to work perfectly, you should have 15 people in the group. If you want to work perfectly.

Q: Do you have any suggestion to improve the teaching of writing? Concerning the syllabus? Or through--?

T: I don't think if it is possible to do it, but it seems more utopic than something else, the teachers of written expression & the teachers of grammar normally they work together because the items that are included in grammar are used in written expression why not combining both modules since I suppose that for both the objective is to help the learner to write using correct English, & without grammar lessons we can't write correct English, & without our lessons—But I don't think it could be possible. Since the objective is to write the § at the end of the year, why they do not start directly with the theoretical part of § writing. At least learners start with a kind of frame, an overview, a picture that is clarified, more clarified than the one they had in secondary school. When they have the global image of the §, what to include in a § comes with time. Now, if we have this picture & with some lessons in WE of grammar knowledge—What I want to say is that teaching WE & another session of grammar that before the learner has been taught § writing, he has to practice immediately that point & what he grasp in writing mechanics & use them in writing a § from the beginning of the year til the end of the year. This will probably improve the writing more.

Q: You mean, for eg, the 1st chapter about sentences- sentence writing, etc, when the students write sentence in isolation they do not feel the relevance of the rules. When they use them in writing a §, they feel how—

T: Even when they study the present, for eg, present simple in grammar, if they do not use it in context—Q: Contextualized, yes—T: They can't keep it. & if you want to check you have to ask them just after the series of the exams, you will find that they have forgotten everything

Q: The last point we reach intercultural rhetoric; what do we mean? We have reached the point concerning culture. What is the place of culture in—Do you think that there is aplace of culture in the writing course?

T: You mean how does culture influence their writing?

Q: Is culture important in the language, writing class?

T: The learners' culture,

Q: Ok, let's start with the target language culture.

T: The more they know about the target language culture, the easier will be the task. This is what I believe in. concerning—

Q: Do you use culture in your writing course?

T: No, I do not focus at all on culture

Q: So, there is no pre-identified objective?

T: Exactly

Q: But you mention from time to time culture. How?

T: For example, the samples I provide my learners withare, sometimes not always, concern the target language culture.

Q: So, you signal, you highlight the--?

T: Exactly

Q: What about the native culture, the mother tongue culture?

T: I think that the mother tongue culture acts more as a hindering tool morethan an enhancing one. It has a negative effect. Why? Because they relate everything to their culture

Q: So, there is interference?

T: The way they analyze things, the way they--. If you provide them with a specific topic, they view it from an Algerian angle.

Q: So, it is one of the problems or difficulties of their writing is the use of the mother tongue culture in writing? The use of transfer I mean. So, they use transfer?

T: Concerning culture.

Q: Culture yes. In 1st year, do they use transfer? What do they transfer?

T: What do they transfer? (A long pause before the answer until interviewer reformulates the question).

Q: what are--? When you read the §, what are the problems that you feel that here they are just transferring from Arabic?

T: (A short pause before the answer) For example, when they talk about the Algerian society, or they relate everything to the Algerian society. Even if you mention something which has nothing to do with the Algerian society, they find the way to link it. They have an Algerian view of everything. No objective analysis; everything is colored, painted by the Algerian perception

Q: And what is this Algerian perception? For eg, they over-generalize?

T: I don't know. I'll give an example—(The teacher hesitated until interviewer suggests possibilities)Q: They use religion? They--?

T: Yes, most of the time they use religion to tackle any topic which is not normal. We have to be from time to time objective, to be isolated from religion, we cannot link everything to religion. I give an eg, one day I provided my learners with a sample which describes a woman, & you know it. When they read the sample, they mentioned many possibilities(about who or what the woman could be), but the one I thought of & which was obvious has not been mentioned. And when I told them about my option, (a prostitute) they said we felt ashamed to—Q: Taboo!? T: Yes, it's a taboo. I thought the § was describing a woman: I thought of a prostitute, & they were thing of a model, top model, an artist, but in fact—

Q: But they thought of your idea, but they—

T: They thought but they couldn't say it because they felt a taboo. So this is linked to their culture because they are Algerians & they belong to the Algerian culture, & it is forbidden. But I explain to my learners that this is

Q: So, while explaining, did you make this comparison between their culture & the target lge culture?

T: (A short pause) when I explained, I just said to them that what seems shameful & forbidden in your culture is not so in the others' ,& you have to make this cut; you have to analyze things objectively. Take it as it is without having pre-opinions about it

Q: Doyou use this method frequently in your teaching: comparing cultures?

T: No

Q: What are the other problems or errors that you find are characteristics of writing in Arabic, in fact & occur in their English §s, if you remember?

T: Writing in Arabic?—(A short pause until interviewer reformulates). Q: When they write, you feel this Arabic not English

T: The word choice. Q: Vocab, yes. Structures? T: Of the sentence? No. Q: Wordiness? T: Yes, this habit of repeating the same idea many times.

Q: So, students of 1st year use wordiness & repetition, what about in 3rd year?

T: Not often

Q: When you face these problems, how do you deal with them? T: You mean wordiness&--?

Q: Those transfer problems?

T: for eg, for wordiness I just say that they have to explain exactly the idea.

Q: But you do not say this is Arabic. We do this in Arabic & not—

T: No

Q: So, you do not use this method, we call it 'intercultural rhetoric': teaching writing in English in comparison with their Arabic—

T: No

Q: Ok, the final question. So, after—at the end what do you think: do you follow a culture-free teaching of writing?

T: It is free from culture. I do not focus or refer to culture while teaching

Q: Ok, so you do not integrate culture while teaching writing?

T: Yes, not all the time. Sometimes—Q: When you have the occasion, without a pre-definite objective—

T: Frankly, without knowing myself that I'm talking really about culture. I may do it spontaneously & unconsciously as I feel it in that moment without really giving it a label.

Q: Yes, thank you very much. It took more time than I--

2nd year teacher transcript

Date of interview : June, 12th at 10h

Q : First you know the objective of the research. It's about writing, writing… basically it is about students' writing problems

T: Students' writing problems, difficulties…

Q: The difficulties & the possible sources of these problems. One of the possible sources is the influence of the mother tongue, but this is one of them. I want to know more from teachers who have been teaching writing for a while. That's why first your teaching experience?

T: Well, I have been teaching writing since 2006-

Q: 2nd year?

T: Well I taught writing for 1st year just once, but since then I have been just teaching for 2nd year

Q: You are more experienced & more specialized I think, so your qualifications: a Magister in?

T: Reading & writing convergences

Q: You have had some training in- theoretical & -

T: Yes, for sure, and I'm taking the team of writing for 8 years: I am responsible for the team & things are going almost so good

Q: First, the 1st question concerns- since you have somehow an important experience, in comparison to the other colleagues- I think, you are the most experienced teacher- what types of writing errors students repeat every year & difficulties? Since you are dealing with 2nd year, we are going to talk about 2nd year students.

T: well, if we want to categorise learners' errors, well here there are some errors that influence the quality of ideas, & of course this is mainly related to the mother tongue interference. So, the result will be wordy sentences

Q: So, wordiness-

T: Wordiness is the major problem I'm facing with my students each year, & I'm trying to help them overcome this problem. Well, for sure they are of course progressing but it remains. On the other hand, of course the lack of reading is one of the major problems. It is one that influences the ideas, &-

Q: So, it is the lack of content if you want content information

T: Content information. Main 2nd year writing syllabus, learners start writing essay: it is an initiation to essay writing. Well, for sure we try to cover different patterns, & most for some of them they can rely on their background knowledge, but for almost all the other types, say mainly informational essays, they need to read. The result of this lack, well, is apparent in their quality of writing.

Q: As far as the organization of the essay, the content,-

T: I will tell you something: from my experience in teaching writing, when I start with my students at the very beginning for sure the objective of the course is: By the end of the year, they will write a 5 paragraph essay- this is the target, the objective. Good. By the end of the year learners succeed to develop a well-organized essay, with 5 §, a well written introduction, & a well written conclusion. The problem of my students is the § writing: yes, the topical §; they still suffer from writing a well-developed topical §. And I think that this is a problem is

due to the weaknesses of 1st year& I will- because I've tried almost many times to discuss the problem with my colleagues, & that may be there is an over focus on speech parts & sentence structure, the time left for § writing is too short: only the 2nd semester, not a full semester, & it is not enough to develop the skill of writing a §

Q: And what is lacking, what is the most important, the most apparent problem in § writing?

T: Well, theoretically they know what are the types of sentence they need to include: topic sentence, supporting details, but here in practice most, almost all students write without a topic sentence. The sentences, well you find that there is no- the sentences are supporting… they do not support each other because there are many controlling ideas within one §.

Q: Not unified §

T: And of course this will affect the essay

Q: Yes, and about the ideas developed, do you find that students develop their ideas sufficiently?

T: Somehow, it depends on their proficiency, their level

Q: I mean in general: can you say that most of them have the problem of insufficient development?

T: I think we cannot say there is a high percentage; at least, well there is a number: yes they insufficiently develop

Q: Because you were talking about wordiness. It means students repeat the same idea but do not develop it sufficiently; they just keep repeating &-

T: Because they ignore that while writing, the topic sentence should control the other ideas even though they have learned it, & if you ask them, they will repeat it, but in practice they have not-

Q: Is it lack practice? Lack of writing experience? They do not have enough writing experience

T: Experience. But if you compare them with writing introductions & conclusions they succeed, I do not know why. Why they succeed in the introduction & the conclusion?

Q: yes, this a good question. I noticed this too. So, if you are to- May be you have already answered this, but I want to recapitulate. If you want to categorize- per sentence, per §, the essay, the process, ideas organization-, so the problem is not at the sentence level?

T: No

Q: It is much more at the § level,& it has to deal especially with the structure of the §: lack of topic sentence, the supporting sentences are-

T: Well, I did not mention another problem which is also major in essay writing: well, the students are even though they are writing within a process, but they write without an outline

Q: I was coming to this because this is the result of the influence of the mother tongue. I was coming to this. That's why I was talking about the positive aspects & the negative ones. So, it is the §, the structure of the §, the § usually does not have a topic sentence & usually is not unified

T: Lack of unity

Q: What about use of transitions? I've noticed also

T: Yes

Q: Students do not have serious problems with transitions?

T: They do not. They link sentences, but still- transitions may be lack of knowing the functions of transitions within patterns. Each pattern has its specific transitions, may be even though we provide them with lists of transitions, but still when writing- I don't say all of them- some of them

Q: Yes, some of them, but the majority masters somehow to a certain level the use of transitions, the linking words

T: Yes, somehow

Q: Then, the ideas organization- ideas organization-, do you find that their ideas are logically- they are able to organize logically their ideas?

T: Well, still it is the same not all of them; a few of them succeed,

Q: And the majority?

T: The majority are trying: there are those who are trying, & others who do not know if I want to classify them

Q: A few master this skill,

T: Are trying to, & a very low percentage they do not know how

Q: And we spoke about the development, & you said also some of them develop sufficiently while the rest, may be most of them, do not

T: Do not

Q: Let's come to the process. 1st – before coming to the process by the end of your instruction, you make an evaluation of-- & you spoke about the objectives, & you find what are the objectives that you have reached & what are the objectives that are not or what are the aspects that learners still have problems with at the end of your instruction? The positive 1st

T: The positive. So here at the end of the year all students are aware of the different patterns of organization, that each pattern has a specific thesis statement. As far as the organization, they are aware enough, they know how to feed each pattern. Still, the negative side is that: well all of them succeed to write an essay- a 5 § essay-, but they still—not all the essay are good enough. Some are good, I'll say a few are good (Q: let's say 30 percent?). Yes, some, the average one those who are trying to do, they represent a high percentage, & very few their essay need to be revised . I've tried a method with them: reviewing the essay since it is one part of the process. Well, here—when I revise the essay & provide them with feedback, & I choose a direct feedback: mentioning what the problem is & what needs to be done, good **…** once before not this year, & I have compared students are asked to write a 2nd draft—

Q: So, you have come to the process. Are you using the process approach?

T: Yes for sure

Q: During all these years you have been using the process approach; you are not using the product approach but the process approach. How do you use it? Can describe to me a lesson, a typical lesson?

T: Good, so since it is teaching by making or raising learners' awareness directly (Q: explicitly). No, implicitly (Q: oh, ok implicit). So, here we start from a model essay. Students are asked to read the model, & they are asked to analyze the different §s; they identify the

major points of the essay, mainly the thesis statement. And of course, we start working from the pattern as far as those highlighted sentences—

Q: So, you do not start with theory?

T: No

Q: So, you extract it inductively (my mistake)

T: Then, when we finish of course we compare it to the previous: what makes this thesis statement different from the previous one? What are the linking words, the transitions, the signal words? And of course we start from this point.

Q: So, theory comes after

T: An analysis of the essay, an analysis, there is a response- of course which is based on understanding, & we end by a pattern. Of course, this is finally to provide them with … about the pattern

Q: You build together the lesson.

T: of course, in order to write, students are not provided with an assignment. They start from a topic, any topic (Q: general). Yes, a general topic, say for example the topic of food. Starting from this topic they will plan. (Q: So, they go through the stages of the writing process.). And they move on to outlining, then writing the first draft, and of course all this time I'm supervising the process.

Q: So, they do this in the classroom?

T: In the classroom

Q: And your role is to guide them through? T: Yes. Q: Can you tell me how many sessions do you spend for example for planning, or much time?

T: Of course the phase that is taking much time in my session is the planning phase. Well, here reading for the topic, generating ideas, jotting down using different strategies for generating ideas, then trying to study those ideas, putting them within an outline. Of course, it takes me sometimes, I can say sometimes two sessions (3hours) because I need to pass from one student to another. Of course students do not start writing until I tell them; they do not start writing until I have checked all the outlines.

Q: Ok, because you said they do all this in the classroom, so they do not read. T: No, they read at home. Q: So, you ask them to read at home. T: They read at home. Q: So, you tell them the topic is 'food', so you tell them go & read about it, & when they come to the classroom, they go through the planning phase, & you supervise them. And the final step is the outline writing in the planning phase?

T: Well, here also what I do with my students is when I check the outline, I ask them to write the introduction, & I will check the introduction. Q: yes, after the outline?

T: yes, of course they do not start writing the – Q: Well, we were saying after the outline they start—

T: Writing the introduction. Q: After the outline?

T: Yes, after the outline. Of course each student wants me to read his introduction. Of course, in order to satisfy them, it is time consuming. But still, ok I check all the introductions; & whenever I check all the introductions they are asked to – Q: Re-write? T: To complete-- Q: Ah to complete—

T: Just to complete the 5 § essay

Q: when you check the introduction, you ask them to rewrite the introductions?

T: Sure because I'll check the different part—and I think this is—

Q: You've talked about the planning phase: so, they do their planning in the classroom which may take two sessions. And then, they write their introductions which you check; you check almost every introduction, & they rewrite it, & then they write the—

T: Of course, I do not review the rest ……. Q: So, when they finish it will take another session?

T: Another session is the session of reviewing. Q: First, the session of writing: they write in the classroom. They finish the essay in the classroom?

Q: Even if they are left with the conclusion or a §, they complete it in the classroom. Once they finish all the essays, it is time for reviewing. Of course, I apply two types of revision. The first one is self-revision: each student is asked to revise his essay. Well, for sure they are subjective in revising their essays. Within the same session, I employ the peer-review—

Q: When they revise, sorry, for self-revision, you provide them with a checklist?

T:, Well here the checklist, of course each type has its own checklist. That's what we're using. Of course they use the checklist. The checklist I provide them with a print, a copy in which what are the aspects to be reviewed while revising for the essay. For sure, I do not trust their revision—Q: It's not very reliable. T: I mostly trust their peer review; they are almost somehow objective. Well in that I ask them to leave their peer feedback & to provide me with the paper. They do not write the second draft.

Q: So, you take the papers, the first draft with their peer remarks or comments

T: Ok, I have done at the very beginning, it is this way. Another time I ask them to—

Q: Ok excuse me, before another time not for this same essay? T: No. Q: You take this first draft—

T: I take it to show them the importance of their peer feedback. I take the essay to check if their peers really succeed in visualizing the errors, the organization; & they almost do. They did it. & this of course, it is proving to me they are acquiring.

Q: And they are assimilating what you are teaching. So, when you take their 1^{st}draft , so in fact you are revising their writing & their peers' comments. Then, you—T: I revise—Q: put your remarks on the writing, on the peers' comments?

T: Well this is of course for the 1st time, the 1st essay. In the coming essays of course—

Q: Excuse me, again. Then, you give them back this 1st draft with your comments?

Q: With my comments, asking them to rewrite—Q: To rewrite—T: Without checking, & this is the problem. Q: Ah, T. the 2^{nd}draft. I could not check

Q: You cannot, & we will come to talk about the problems of teaching writing using the process approach.

T: Ok. Good. In other cases, in the coming essays, after their peers revise their essays, I will ask them to rewrite the draft taking into account their peers' comments. Well, some – Q: And you take this 2nd draft? T: Yes, the 2nd draft. Some did, but other no; they just—Q: So, when you say some- some: a minority.

T: A minority they just erase the comments; mainly the comments are written in pencil

Q: Ah, they are not objective; they are subjective

T: They are not objective why, they do not trust their peers comments. For sure, I cannot – Q: Control this, yes. T: It is one of the problems because we have not sufficient time

Q: So, the process approach you find it effective?!

T: Well, at the beginning students find difficulties to--, but whenever they get used to the phases, it is almost done automatically.

Q: They enjoy the process, but it is difficult to implement because of?

T: Difficult to supervise—Q: Yes, because of?

T: Well difficult to supervise: lack of time- time pressure, mainly the process- - Q: What about the class? Don't you think that the class is overcrowded for the process approach?

T: I think that 15 to 20 students is the maximum number for the teacher so that he-- More than 20, it is overloading the teacher with too much things to do

Q: And that's why probably why the other teachers do not use the process approach?!

T: they do not, even when they use. I know some of my colleagues -- well because she cannot supervise everything. She is selective

Q: Yes, I want to talk about this. That's why I want to compare teachers say we use or they follow the process approach, but in fact they are not following it in the same way. They are adapting the approach. So, now let's come to the last step—

T: And there is another problem because I 'm always discussing the matter of reviewing & evaluating the essay—Q: Yes, I have come to the evaluation of the essay—

T: Myself in evaluating an essay with my experience- my experience, puff!!! experience – Q: You are

T: I find difficulties to evaluate one essay, or each part of just one essay. I cannot ask them to write another essay because-- Well even though I ask them, but I – Q: You may ask them you cannot correct it again. T: I cannot; I haven't time. It's impossible for me, but there are some teachers who succeed. I don't know how is it possible

Q: I am trying this, but I have not succeeded because not all students—since you cannot correct all the 2nd essays, I cannot say I have succeeded. For example, I have succeeded with the 1st objective which is to make them write a 2nd essay, to make the students review their 2nd essays—

T: Even when students write a 2nd essay, they choose, well, opinion about the essay. Of course, I cannot say no because they are trying, they are doing their best to improve the skill. That is why I myself do not ask them to ------- Q: yes, from the beginning. T: Well, I'm advising them : in order to improve your writing, you have to write, engage yourself in extensive writing. Q: this is the best way normally. I mean for good teaching of writing this is the best way- to ask them to write more & more, but the teacher—the problem is that the teacher cannot evaluate more & more. So, what do you propose?

T: So, here I think making students help us in doing the task. That ok, it -- For example, peer review if really we want to develop the skill within the learners to review, they become review—they will help us. And this one of the solutions. Also, I think

Q: Ok, this is one of the solutions. To reduce the number of students in the class is another solution

 T: There is another method in that we make here peer writing, instead of writing individually. Q: Have you tried it? T: well I was thinking about it. I think I have done it once, just once in that a group of 4 students: they plan together, they engage themselves in outlining. They succeed in providing me with 5 essays, Good essays.

Q: But this is not very reliable to know about each student's level

T: Even students want to know their teacher's opinion about themselves.

Q: Their own writing, yes. So we have reached the evaluation step. How do you evaluate? What do you evaluate?

T: Well in evaluation of course, it is a scale we go through starting by the content, originality of the ideas, moving to the organization of the essay, then mechanics in which we include spelling, sentence structure & of course the last aspect is the style

Q: And you give them scores?

T: well, of course this done automatically, but mainly I use it when correcting the essay exams because we want to be, well, fair. While correcting their review of writing, most of the time not so ok so—Q: Detailed? You give a general mark. T: organization & content, I focus on them. For sure I highlight the other problems

Q: Let's talk about the writing syllabus; how do you find it?

T: It's good

Q: It's good; it's objectives are clear. The time?

T: The time allocated for it 4 hours & a half, I think it's enough

Q: But we—is it enough for the process approach?

T: It's not

Q: What do you suggest to revise- I'm talking about the syllabus of writing, but the course of writing?

T: The course I think it's better if all teachers of writing follow the same process . Q: They are following the syllabus, Q: But not the same process- Q: Method, teaching method, even if there is a team??!

T: There is a team, we are talking, we are advising them, but you cannot supervise them. And of course, here we come to another problem is that some students they trust more other teachers; they are comparing. Q: Ah, they trust more teachers-- not their teachers. T: No, the Because they are selfish students; they want their writing is-- to be read & which is something to be done. So here, they are comparing this teacher is reading, he is a best reader—Q: The teacher who reads more –

T: Is good & best teacher

Q: Well one of the problems I want to talk about concerning the teachers of writing. Do you think that teachers of writing need more-- in the department -- from the department, for example, more accommodations? I mean, for example, a teacher of writing—

T:He iIs doing more the teacher of writing. We are investing too much time—Q: At the same time, he is teaching other subjects. Do you find this normal? T: No, it is not normal. Q: What do you suggest concerning this?

T: Well, I suggest that a teacher of writing could not teach writing for more than 5 to 6 years because after this period of time of course he is not well doing good. I'm trying to be, to do my best ok, but still it is tiring. Well here logically the department of English has to consider this: time, at least to regard it as something extra. Q: Yes, why not for example not to overload teachers with other subjects. T: Yes, with other subjects. This is for example another solution.

Q: The last point is culture: the role of culture in the teaching of writing. Ok, do you believe that culture plays a role in the writing course?

T: Yes, for sure

Q: And how do you see this in your writing class?

T: Well here if you want because culture the language is culture, language is culture, and of course the way we are teaching the foreign language for sure we should develop within learners the importance of the foreign culture: how they get to the foreign culture through reading, they have to engage themselves through. They are in a direct contact with foreign writers, ok. They'll get in touch with culture in writing

Q: Honestly speaking, do you include culture in a part of your course?

T: No, maybe I—

 Q: Because there is an approach; we call it the 'culture-free approach to syllabus.

T: Maybe I regard it in choosing the model essays, well.

Q: For example, in the model essays, do you attract your learners' attention to the culture?

T: Yes, I do because it is important

Q: And let's come now to the other aspects of culture: writing in another culture. Do you attract your learners' attention that writing in that culture from writing in our culture?

T: Yes, for sure. And this is one of the solutions in order to overcome mother tongue interference

Q: Yes, because we call this 'intercultural rhetoric'; so, do you raise your learners' attention about the influence of --?

T: I do, and sometimes, I give examples during my lesson I give example. Sometimes, when reviewing students' essays, I highlight this problem by some extracts.

Q: Extracts. The extracts show transfer. Learners transfer from their culture in writing. Can you please give me some examples of those transfer errors or aspects?

T: Good, for example the adverb of time. Well here in Arabic, we always start with the adverb of time; in English, it is always the case: sometimes at the beginning, at the end. It depends on the focus & stress we put on the word itself. But here at writing the first word in the introduction, when I read the 1st word in the introduction, I'm reading in Arabic not English. For example, 'in the recent times' (wa mina el 3osur el haditha wa l3asr lhadith: write the translation in Arabic). So, here you can see they are influenced by their mother—

Q: So, Arabic structures: vocabulary & structures

T: Even though in the examples, the choice of examples, when they exemplify they are referring back to their culture whatever the topic. They couldn't get far. I don't know why, maybe because of the lack of reading.

Q: Yes, again we come to the lack of reading. So, they use examples from their own culture & apply them even if the content does not –

T: And they try to to – Q: Force them into the context. T: To adapt them within the context they are in.

Q: Yes, ok. And how do you deal with this phenomenon?

T: Well, sometimes, I just underline it & highlight it, but getting in a debate with my students--. Q: No

T: I can't. Q: You do not open a 'cultural debate' saying for example--?

T: I can't, it's impossible

Q: The last point --- We have already say it: do you integrate culture while teaching writing? How?

T: By the choice of the topic, by raising their awareness to read

Q: This is the foreign culture. Do you make comparisons with their mother tongue or their native culture?

T: No

Q: Thank you very much. It was tiring, sorry.

T: No, no. I was thinking are you going--

3rd year teacher transcript

Q : You know the objective is to investigate the writing difficulties experienced by our students, students of English & to try to understand the sources or the causes of these difficulties. Well, the sources I'm interested in is the cultural influence on writing in EFL, but it's not this right from the beginning. I would like first with some general information about your background: your field of specialism, degree, teaching experience, & writing teaching experience?

T: So, thank you first of all. I've been teaching at the ENS since 2008; I taught writing & grammar for 3rd year learners. I hold a magister degree in applied linguistics & didactics. That' all I can say for my background. If you need further information

Q: Did you have a special training in writing? For example, in teaching writing?

T: No, I didn't

Q: Ok, let's start first during this experience you have been teaching writing to 3rd year students. During this experience, what types of errors or difficulties- I'm using both words errors & difficulties, whether it's an error or a difficulty that you have noticed- students repeat every year? I mean, the most common errors/ difficulties that are repeated every year?

T: Well, I think that the most common difficulty I've encountered with my learners is that they think in Arabic & write in English. Each & every time it's a matter of translating directly from Arabic into English. Whether it fits or not; it's not really their concern. What matters for them it is well structured in terms of English, but in terms of content, you feel like—it's not English;it is Arabic translated into English

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Q: That is the most common difficulty

T: The most common difficulty I've encountered with my learners

Q: Ok, so since you have named this, what do you think the cause of this is?

T: Well, generally speaking, I've tried to tackle this problem with them to try to find a solution, & they kept on saying that most of the time it's because they are reading in Arabic; generally they do not read in English.

Q: They do not read in English!?

T: Yes. Starting from the 3rd year they start reading because of the dissertation they are supposed to write. That's when they generally start reading in English. The problem is that they generally read in Arabic. And sometimes you feel this when you ask them to relate a given experience they lived or to summarize a given novel they have read. Generally, we have books in Arabic: the author, the content- everything is in Arabic, & then they try to say it or to write it in English

Q: Since you have been teaching writing to 3rd year students, I guess it's the essay structure.

T: Yes

Q: So, what do you think is the most difficult point or aspect to teach about the essay?

T: Uhhhhhh. (a short pause). I've noticed in terms of product, the end product or result of their essays, they are not really having problems with it. They care much more about the structure; the content is neglected generally, they are not interested—For them, you notice this whenever you are correcting or giving feedback. It's not in terms of their ideas; they never question their ideas. for them, "madam, what's wrong with this sentence?", "it's the adequate tense", "am I having any problem with my punctuation?". It's not. For them" it's ok. When you say "it's in terms of ideas; I'm not feeling what you are writing", for them—

Q: So, the problems appear at the level of the ideas. T: Exactly. Q: So, what do you think? What's wrong with these ideas exactly? How?—it is with their organization? Their development?The way they develop their ideas?or the way they organize, arrange them?

T: no, I think that since it is a foreign language, they think that whenever they master grammar, whenever it's the language, content will follow automatically for them. They do not

know that they need to work on it hardly-hard so as to improve this writing quality. For them as long as I'm mastering the grammatical rules of the language, I know my punctuation or punctuation of the language, everything is going to follow automatically.

Q: … because this is the essence, the core of my work. so, can you be more specific about the ideas? I mean give me examples of the problems they show: lack of ideas, lack of details, lack of examples, or lack of logic in the ideas elaboration, or -- what have you noticed?

T: Well, I've found for example that it is lack of ideas. Q: Lack of knowledge, background knowledge?

T: Yes, background knowledge or the language itself because I think this fluency, logic … it can be overcome in case they have the ideas. But when you start from the ideas that are missing in their essays, I think that here lies the biggest problem in their essays. Q: It's lack of ideas. T: Yes, it's lack of … It's my own experience. I feel that we are not having the ideas we are expecting from them.

Q: So, the essay will look like something having just one idea, & students are--T: Yes. Q: not developing?

T: You feel that it's just one idea from the beginning till the end, & they keep on repeating the same thing. Q: Using different--- T: using different words, different structures, & that's all

Q: Ok, so, you said at the level of the structure-the structure of the essay I mean: the introduction, the paragraphs, -- T: They have the different parts of the essay. Q: They have no problem, you have; the introduction, you have the body, & then they have the conclusion. They know that whenever you start the essay, it's general idea, background information about the topic, then the core, & then you wrap up what you are saying by trying to avoid to suggest a new idea. They have those details, but when it's time to put them into practice & to present a given content of the ideas they are trying to express, that's where I see it's just one idea from the beginning till the end. You do not feel that they--

Q: So, not enough, sufficient elaboration? T: Yes

Q: And by the end of your instruction this is the aspect that you feel needs be to be-- T: to worked on, yes

Q: worked & reworked on, yah now let's move to your teaching methodology. Are you following the process approach or the product approach?

T: Well, I'm putting emphasis on both. Q: both, the combination. T: Yes, I start with the process approach. I'm trying to help them plan their ideas, draft & then revise & edit without neglecting the product, the final product. So, I think that I'm trying to use both.

Q: Can you describe a typical lesson of writing for you, from the beginning

T: Yes, generally the first two to three sessions are devoted to how to start writing, how to get started. It's one way of planning, & I'm giving them room enough to select their own way of starting their essays: brainstorming, clustering or whatever. So, they start planning, & then we move to the 2nd-- Q: they plan in the classroom? T: inside, yes. Q: & you supervise? T: yes. Q: & they do it individually?

T: individually. And then, we select a given way of planning, we jot down the ideas on the board, & then we try to draft. When it's time to drafting, we do it all together because we are having the ideas. We are just trying to see what can be, what shouldn't be nit the essay. And then, once drafting is over, I ask them-- Q: What do you mean by 'drafting together'? Each one writes one draft?

T: yes, yes, but whenever we select one plan-- it's an individual plan, & then an individual draft. But once it's over, we select one plan, & then we draft this plan all together; it's not the draft of the same student. Q: Ah, yes, yes

T: So, one is going to write his or her own plan. Then, all together we develop the 1st draft.

Q: in the classroom, yes, & then?

T: And then, we develop our own--a common essay, a collective essay. Next time, it's the plan, your own plan, your own essay. Which means you are having the draft, we are having the plan--

Q: It's another assignment, another session?

T: Yes, 1h30 just for essay writing inside the classroom, & then, I collect the essays by the end of the session

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Q: So, the next time students will go through the ---(an external interruption). So, in the second assignment, students go through the process in the classroom: they plan, revise, ah they draft, revise & then they give you the final product. While doing this, do you supervise their planning phase?

T: Yes, & I ask questions if ever they are encountering problems, they raise their hands & they say, for example, "I'm having a given idea, can I put it?. Is it part of the plan? Should I have it or not?" So, they ask their questions, & we try to answer all together.

Q: Let me ask a few questions about the phases- about the outline. So, by the end of the planning phase , students should end up with a sort of working outline. T: Yes. Q: Through your experience have you found that students have really, all of them, all the time use the outline?

T: No, they don't. it's just for the sake of the teacher. It's just whenever you are asking them to plan that they plan, & we notice this during the exam: they never plan.

Q: So, if they are let free, they won't plan, & they won't even write the outline?

T: No, & they have said it explicitly; for them it's a waste of time. They are saying it out loud "if ever I plan, I'm wasting my time, so I prefer to write directly my essay".

Q: So, we were talking about the outline. So, if students are let free, they won't do any planning--

T: They won't, no. Q: & they won't write an outline. T: No, they won't. Q: they prefer to start writing directly. T: they start writing directly without any plan, & I'm pretty sure that that's they what they are doing each & every time. Unless you ask them to plan, they won't plan

Q: And when they start writing, T: Yes. Q: It's not a kind o free writing; it's directly a first draft. T: Yes

Q: And then, when it comes to revising, when they revise, ok, what do they revise usually?

T: No, it's at the level of form, not the content. We have noticed this at least from my own experience, when it's peer feedback we are trying to get, you notice that it's in terms of-- it's not the adequate tense; normally we have a full stop not a semi colon, or I don't know which other-- mechanics of writing, form. It's never, -- it's not the adequate idea, it's not the

content. Whenever form is there, they think that content will follow automatically for them. As long as it's an essay free from errors, from--I don't know which other problems they think they are having, it's ok for them. Ideas-- for them it's a foreign language; they don't think that they are asked or supposed to master the language as much as the structure the grammar of the language

Q: When we come back to your lesson. T: Yes. Q: When you follow the process approach, & you reach the revision stage in the model essay that you develop together, so you revise the essay—you make a class revision? T: Yes. Q: It's not revision; it's production because-- T: Yes, a common production, a common essay we develop all together, but I'm asking them as well to write their own essays, & then I collect. Q: Yes, what do you ask them to revise? I mean, frankly speaking, do you give them for example a procedure to follow while revising?

T: No, generally I don't

Q: You tell them orally. What do you tell them to revise?

T: Well, we start by saying that an essay is form plus content. Then, I ask them to start from form.

Q: With form first! T: Yes, that's what you have noticed in terms of problems in our essay. We take them into account, & then we move to content. Each & every time, I'm telling them that it's the communicative approach, for example. So, as long as I'm getting your idea no matter what you are doing in terms of language. So, we try to split it into two parts if you want: 1st part form, & the 2nd one content

Q: Do you provide, sorry, them with a kind of checklist to revise--? T: Yes, they have. Q: Content? T: Yes, & they try to check & answer each & every time they are having this problems, so it's form, it's content, it's not-- they are provided with a checklist. I provide them with one at the beginning of the year, & I ask them to forget about it at the beginning since we are at the level of planning; & whenever we reach revision, they start working & using this checklist.

Q: Since you--, let's now move to the evaluation feedback stage. How do you evaluate the essay? What are the procedures you use?

T: I'm using the indirect method which means that I'm never underlining & then specify the mistake the students are making. I just underline without specifying neither the nature, or

what should be written instead. I leave this to the learner. During this evaluation session or correction, they need to diagnose this by saying for example--, & I ask them to bring their essays & to specify the kind of mistake: "I've underlined this, yes, what do you think the problem is?" they are going to say "I think it's not the adequate tense for example, it's not tense the way it should be." Or it's in terms of content when it's a whole sentence. "What do you think we should say?" In case the student is unable to correct his own mistake, we say to the whole class, & they try to help one another by saying that's what should be written instead, & sometimes they don't find answer; they don't know where lies the problems, so-- Q: They cannot identify --, T: exactly, so here I'm going to interfere & say "here lies the problem"

Q: So, you have a kind of feedback session. T: Yes. Q: so students come with just essays which are--T: underlined. Q:-- just highlighted T: exactly. Q:--without any comment. T: no comment. : Q: & then you have a kind of class conferencing. T : yes. Q: How do you proceed with students? One by one? Or--?

T: No, one by one it's time consuming. Q: So, how do you proceed? You select? T: I select, for example ahhh--- Q: How many essays per session? T: Normally, we can reach 8 essays. No, generally speaking, & from my own experience it's in terms of type. Q: type, ah essay type! T: Certain types. If we take the argumentative essay for example, no I can't reach 5 or, generally 3 to 2,& then I stop. In case it's the essay by example--no I'm linking it with the type of essay you are covering with your learners

Q: So, you do this during this feedback session, & then that's it. Next session, you will stop feedback on this essay; you will start a new lesson-- T: a new type, yes. Q: & in the feedback of the new type, do you select the same students? T: no, not the same. Q: you will select--? T: other students

Q: ok, let's move to the syllabus of writing. How do you find it? The 3rd year syllabus?

T: hhhhhm. Well, I think we need to work on it, on certain aspects

Q: what needs to be changed?

T: for example, if you take style, tone, diction, they are very important in writing. We are relegating them to later stages. I think if ever we are having just, having them just after the pre-steps (planning, drafting) because yes I'm going to plan, to draft, but in case I'm having

problems with the words I'm using, with the structures I'm using, I need to work on them before moving to the types themselves. Now we are having the stages, then jumping directly to the types which means that it's over, as if I'm saying to learners you know which words to use, you know what to put in your essay, so let's start now the different-- or let's cover the different … we can have in terms of essay. I think that diction, tone, style –Q: should be dealt with-- T: before the types-- Q: Ah, before because that's what's going in you want to spice the essay. Now we are having them after the types of essays. Q: At the end of the syllabus-- T: yes

Q: So, if you were to propose some-- to make some suggestions to the revision of the syllabus, it's the content; you would like to make changes concerning the content. What about the objectives of the syllabus?

T: No, I think that it's ok with the objectives. Q: Time? T: time!? Now, we are having 3 hours, & we can't talk about the session of the presentations. Now, 3 hours, they are not really enough to instill this skill in our learners. Q: Even in the 3rd year? T: Even, no that's the last year they are having writing. Normally, it should stay with the learners till the end of-- , but to have the 3 hours with all the types of essays because that's not what they are really covering during 1st & 2nd year years. So, normally, we should devote much more time to practice.

Q: So, but I have understood that during 3rd year it's much more for--. T: Yes, it's practice. Q: It's practice. T: yes, but sometimes you notice that learners are not really mastering a given type, so you need to come back to theory before moving to practice, especially when you are dealing with the argumentative essay. We are having big problems with this type of essay

Q: Ok, the last rubric is concerned with intercultural rhetoric. So, the role of culture in the writing class; what do you think? Have you ever thought about the place of culture?

T: Frankly speaking, I've never thought about this before

Q: Let me guide you. For example, we started from the beginning with transfer, with students' transfer from their mother tongue. Students are making a lot of

T: May be it's just this, but we are not conscious about the issue. Q: Yes, it's this. They are making transfer. What type of transfer errors? What type of transfer do they make? You said they make

T: It's an integral translation. The word as it is to the foreign language or the language they are using in their essays even if it's not English. That's what I have noticed.

Q: The structures? T: Yes, yes. It is Arabic put in English words. Q: with the ideas. T: Yes.

Q: And the organization of the essay, do you feel also that they are transferring this?

T: No, for the organization of the essay you don't feel this at all. It's in terms of ideas, & diction, etc. But in terms of structure, they know that an introduction is having a given form, way of expressing ideas, the body, & then the conclusion. May be that's what we are having nearly in all the languages. Even in Arabic, we are having the same pattern: introduction is nearly the same, the body… That's why we are not noticing; we are not feeling it.

Q: The difference is in what to put in the introduction, what to put in the paragraph, how the ideas are developed. For example, in the introduction what is the most difficult aspect that students or find difficulties with?

T: you feel that you are having a very long introduction. Whenever you say introduction, it should not related every single aspect of the topic you are supposed to deal with later on.

Q: they end to write long introduction. T: long introduction. Sometimes you feel that the introduction is nearly the same as the body whereas-- while teaching how to write an introduction, you need to be specific, to go straight to the point by reaching the thesis statement. But for them, you are having too many details, & then they think that. Q: that's what I meant by organization of ideas & details; I do not mean structure of the essay in terms of introduction-- T: ah, that's what I meant by structure. Q: my question is concerned with organization & arrangement of ideas. So, they have the introduction, the paragraphs, etc., but what to put: which ideas?, the details? T: they are not having that

Q: this is the rhetorical, one of the rhetorical characteristics they may transfer from Arabic. So, what is the role of the mother tongue in writing? In this situation, it has a negative influence?

T: I think yes; it has a negative influence. It's negative transfer from their L1 to the foreign language

Q: do you have some knowledge about the rhetorical characteristics of writing in Arabic?

T: not really. Q: not really?, yes. T: It goes back to many years ago, so--

Q: how do you deal with this in your course? With this problem?

T: well, I'm asking them to read in English. Reading, each & every time, I'm telling them reading in English is the solution to all your problems. Unless you read, you won't improve your writing quality

Q: so, you do not use what we call 'contrastive rhetoric'?, i.e., teaching to write in English by making reference to writing in Arabic?

T: no, I'm not doing this

Q: so, what approach to culture teaching while writing? Obviously, we have some approaches to culture while teaching writing. One of them we call it the culture-free approach; I mean, we do not make reference to culture while teaching writing.

T: I think that's what I'm doing

Q: yes, but do you make reference to the foreign language culture?

T: no, I'm not

Q: do you integrate culture, so no. so thank you

T: maybe I'm doing them unconsciously

Q: ok, let's investigate this. What do I mean by integrating culture--

T: do you mind suggest some examples?

Q: For example at the level of sample selection, we did not say this at the beginning when you described-

 T: ah, yes. I'm doing this. Q: you select a model, & then you study the model, the essay--

T: Ah, yes, yes, I'm doing it, & we are embedding if you want with the culture of the language within the sample I have selected.

Q: Yes, but in an indirect way. T: yes. Q: but do you have this as an objective from the beginning?

T: No, I'm doing it unconsciously to be frank

Q: Unconsciously, & during the discussion in the classroom, you discuss the content- cultural content of the essay explicitly? T: yes. Q: Ok, while doing this, you tell your students this is the culture of the English speaking-- T: yes, but I'm not starting from it

Q: yes, because you do not have the objective right from the beginning

T: exactly, that's why I'm saying I'm not having it as an objective. I'm not starting from it to see whether I achieved it by the end or not. I'm doing it-- it's embedded in the sample; we are having the culture of the foreign language. I'm never doing it explicitly; I'm not starting from it.

Q: And when you do it, you do not make comparison with the mother tongue?

T: No, I'm just limiting myself to the target language, to the culture of the foreign language. I'm never comparing or contrasting the two cultures.

Q: So, neither contrasting the two cultures nor contrasting the two writing styles in the two cultures?

T: No, I'm not

Q: Thank you

T: you are welcome & good luck

Q: It took more time than what I planned. Thank you very much

Appendix V

The Official 1st Year Writing Course Syllabus

Writing

(Volume Horaire : Annuel : 135hrs. Coefficient 2)

- Process of writing.

  - Brief introduction to the paragraph.

    - Planning.

    - Drafting.

    - Revising.

- Types of construction

  - Phrase.

  - Clause.

  - Sentence

- Subordination – Co-ordination – Capitalization.

- Outlining.

  - vertical list.

  - tree diagram.

- The English paragraph.

  - indentation and topic sentence.

- The narrative paragraph.

  - (process – Chronology) the semicolon.

- Guide writing.

  - (The narrative paragraph) the colon.

- The descriptive paragraph.

  - spatial development.

- Free writing.

  - punctuation review.

- Expository paragraph by examples.

- Parallelism.

  - Vocabulary growth.

- Summarizing and paraphrasing.

- Free writing activities.

- Wordiness.

  - The apostrophe.

- Note taking.

- Sentence openings.

- Spelling.

- Parentheses – Dash – End Marks.

- Connectives.

- Punctuation review.

  - Comma splice ; run-on sentences.

- Vocabulary Growth.

  - using idioms.

- Force in writing.

  - General review.

Appendix VI

The Actual (Unofficial) 1st Year Writing Course Syllabus

1st year Written expression syllabus

Chapter one: Structure of the English sentence

Types of constructions

- Finite verb
- Phrase
- Clause
- Sentence

Types of phrases (noun, prepositional, gerund, …)

Types of clauses (Dependent, Independent)

Types of sentences

- Simple
- Compound
- Complex
- Compound-complex

Type of dependent clauses

- Adverbial
- Relative
- Noun
- Conditional

Punctuation

Parallelism

Wordiness

Sentence problems (Choppy, Stingy, Run-on, Faulty subordination,…)

Chapter two: Introduction to the paragraph

What is a paragraph?

Structure of the paragraph

- Topic sentence
- Supporting sentences
- Concluding sentence

Paragraph outline

Paragraph unity

Paragraph coherence

Chapter Three: Types of paragraphs

1. Narrative paragraph
2. Descriptive paragraph
3. Expository paragraph developed by Examples
4. The Comparison and contrast paragraph

Appendix VII

Content Subject Teachers' Interview Data

Teachers' responses yielded the following data.

1. First and Second Year Modules

-TD mark: a 3rd mark in the annual evaluation

-Compulsory assignment for all students

-Students select freely reading materials.

-Two assignments per year, maximum

-Mostly individual, depending on time availability

-Presented orally in front of class, mostly in the form of exposé

-Written manuscript submitted

RT   -Both content information and oral presentation are corrected almost equally, little if no attention is made to written manuscript

- Content subject information: 50%
- Oral performance: 50%
- Written form: Often never corrected

Feedback:

- Provided the day of the presentation
- Oral
- Both teacher and peers

-Written manuscript never returned to students

Linguistics   No assignment

CL   No assignment

2. Third Year Modules

Civ.   No assignment

IP   No assignment

LG   Extra-assignment (added by teachers)

-Optional, students are free to do or not

- Topics imposed by teacher

-Topics are chunks from the syllabus

-One assignments per year, maximum

-Mostly individual, depending on time availability

-Presented orally in front of class, mostly in the form of exposé

-Written manuscript submitted

-Both content information (linguistic knowledge) and oral presentation are corrected almost equally, little if no attention is made to written manuscript

- Content subject information: 50%
- Oral performance: 50%
- Written form: Often never corrected

Feedback

- Provided the day of the presentation
- Oral
- Both teacher and peers, but mostly by teacher

-Written manuscript

- Often never corrected
- When corrected, holistically, most attention is paid to language forms, structures and mechanics correctness.
- never returned to students

Lit.   No assignment

PTES   No assignment

TEFL   No assignment

3. Fourth Year (4b4/ 4b5) Modules

Afr   No assignment

Civ   1 written assignment for 4B5 students only

-TD mark: a 3rd mark in the annual evaluation

-Compulsory assignment for all students

-Topics imposed by teacher: Topics related/ parallel the syllabus

-One assignments per year, maximum

-Mostly individual, depending on time availability

-Presented orally in front of class, mostly in the form of exposé

-Written manuscript submitted

-Evaluation:

- Content subject information: 40%
- Oral performance: 40%
- Written form: 20%

-Feedback

- Oral, provided the day of the presentation
- Mostly by teacher

-Written manuscript, said to be corrected, but never returned to students

LG   No assignement

Lit   No assignement

MDD   TD mark: a 3rd mark in the annual evaluation

-Compulsory assignment for all students

-Topics imposed by teacher

-Practice of Topics are chunks from the syllabus

-One assignments per year, maximum

-Mostly individual, depending on time availability

-Presentation

- rally in front of class,
- sometimes discussed in the form of workshops
- other times, written form submitted without presentation

-Evaluation:

- Content subject information: 70%
- Oral performance: 10%
- Written form: 20%

-Feedback

- Oral, provided the day of the presentation
- Mostly by teacher

-Written manuscript feedback:

- Always corrected and returned to students with feedback on:
- Focus on content information (pedagogical)
- Little writing beyond sentence level is required
- Attention is paid to forms, structures and language correctness

P.Ped.   No assignment

TEFL   No assignment

TESD   TD mark: a 3rd mark in the annual evaluation

-Compulsory assignment for all students

-Topics imposed by teacher

-Practice of Topics are chunks from the syllabus

-One assignments per year, maximum

- Individual, pair or group work depending topics, time availability and students tendency.

-Presentation

- orally in front of class,
- sometimes discussed in the form of workshops
- other times, written form submitted without presentation

 -Evaluation:

- Content subject information: 70%
- Oral performance: 30%
- Written form: Not always required

-Feedback

- Oral, provided the day of the presentation
- By both teacher and class

 -Written manuscript feedback:

- When submitted, rarely corrected and never returned to students with feedback
- When corrected
    - ✓ Focus on content information (pedagogical)
    - ✓ Some attention is paid to forms, structures and language correctness

WSRE   Extra-assignment (added by teachers)

-Compulsory assignment for all students

-Score: Added points to the main exam mark

-Topics imposed by teacher

-Practice of Topics are chunks from the syllabus

-One assignments per year, maximum

- Individual work

-No Presentation

-Only written form submitted

-Evaluation of written manuscript and feedback:

- Always corrected and returned to students with feedback
- Focus on content information (methodological issues in research undertaking and writing) 90%
- Some attention is paid to forms, structures and language correctness 10%
- No attention is paid to writing patterns beyond the sentence level

4. Fifth Year Modules

Afr.   No assignment

Civ.   No assignment

IC   TD mark: a 3rd mark in the annual evaluation

-Compulsory assignment for all students

- Topics are chunks from the syllabus, imposed by teacher

-One assignments per year

-Pair work, depending on time availability

-Presented orally in front of class, mostly in the form of a lesson

-Written manuscript submitted

-Evaluation

- Content subject information: 50%
- Oral performance: 50% teaching and class as well debate management skills
- Written form: Often never corrected, when corrected focus is on lesson plan, organization, and materials used
- No attention is paid to writing form nor content and organisation

  Feedback:

- Provided the day of the presentation
- Oral
- Both teacher and peers

-Written manuscript never returned to students

LG   Extra-assignment (added by teachers)

- Optional assignments, students are free to do or not

Topics are chunks from the syllabus

Topics imposed by teacher

-Score: Added points to the main exam mark

-One assignments per year, maximum

- Individual or pair work

-Oral Presentation

-Evaluation

- Content subject information: 50%
- Oral performance: 50% teaching and class as well debate management skills
- Written form: Often never corrected
- When corrected focus is on Content subject information
- Writing never considered

Feedback:

- Provided the day of the presentation
- Oral
- Both teacher and peers
- Content subject information, oral performance and presentation skills

- Only written form submitted

 -Written manuscript,

- rarely corrected

never returned to students

Lit   No assignment

SD   TD mark: a 3rd mark in the annual evaluation

-Compulsory assignment for all students

-Topics imposed by teacher

-Practice of Topics are chunks from the syllabus

-One assignments per year, maximum

- Individual, pair or group work depending topics, time availability and students tendency.

-Presentation

- orally in front of class,
- sometimes discussed in the form of workshops
- other times, written form submitted without presentation

-Evaluation:

- Content subject information: 70%
- Oral performance: 30%
- Written form: Not always required

-Feedback

- Provided the day of the presentation
- Oral
- By both teacher and class

-Written manuscript feedback:

- When submitted, rarely corrected and never returned to students with feedback
- When corrected
  - ✓ Focus on content information (pedagogical)
  - ✓ Some attention is paid to forms, structures and language correctness
  - ✓ No writing beyond sentence level patterns is evaluated

PT   Extra-assignment (added by teachers)

- Optional assignments, students are free to do or not

Topics are chunks from the syllabus

Topics imposed by teacher

-Score: Added points to the main exam mark

-One assignments per year, maximum

- Individual or pair work

-Oral Presentation

-Evaluation

- Content subject information: 60%
- Oral performance: 40% teaching and class as well debate management skills
- Written form: Often never corrected
- When corrected focus is on Content subject information
- Writing never considered

Feedback:

- Provided the day of the presentation
- Oral
- Both teacher and peers
- Content subject information, oral performance and presentation skills

- Only written form submitted

-Written manuscript,

- rarely corrected
- never returned to students

Appendix VIII

Exam Questions Sample

Second Year First Term Exam in Linguistics

Q1- Give the distinctive feature which distinguishes between each pair of phonemes in the following:

/ m/ and / n/ --- / k/ and / g/ --- / t/ and / p/ ---/æ/ and / a: / **(2 pts)**

Q2- Negate the following by adding the appropriate prefix to each: **(5 pt)**

Tolerant-clear-honest-lock (v)-behave-responsible-true-Arab-correct- Speakable   .

Tolerant	responsible ⟶	
		⟶
Clear	True ⟶	
		⟶
Honest	Arab ⟶	
Lock ⟶	Correct	
⟶		
Behave ⟶	Speakable	
⟶		

Q3- The relationship between the word and the name is conventional, discus. (**8 pts**)

Q4- How can the smallest meaningless sounds of a language be identified? **(5 pts)**

Teacher training School of Constantine   **3rd year / all groups**

English Department

TEFL Second Term Examination Key Answers

Exercise 1: In the table below, identify each of the four items as a material or medium mentioning the type of each of them. Provide two advantages and two disadvantages for each material/medium.   **(06 points)**

Allot 0.5 pt for every correct answer. 0.5 x 12=6

Item	Category/type	Two advantages	Two disadvantages/ limitations
Songs	Oral/Aural/Reading Material	-	-
		-	-
Language Laboratory	Oral Media	-	-
		-	-
Chalk board	Visual Media	-	-
		-	-
Newspaper articles	Reading Material	-	-
		-	-

Exercise Two:(06 points)

A/ Read the following statements about testing and fill in the gaps so that they make sense.

Allot 0.5 pt for every correct answer. 0.5 x 7=**3.5**

1.   Tests should test what they say they are going to**..................**.

2.   You should allow an appropriate amount of **.................**for students to complete the test.

3.   Tests should be designed so that it is easy to**...................**them consistently and fairly. Ideally, it should also be possible to grade them **....................**.

4.   Tests should have a positive 'backwash' effect. They should be designed so that preparing for the test will help students to progress towards **....................**and not divert them from the goals of the course of study.

5. There should be some **......................** for saying that the test measures what it says it measures. In other words, it should be based on some legitimate **......................**.

6. B/ Match the type of test, from the left column, with the rationale for administering it, from the right column.

Allot 0.5 pt for every correct answer. 0.5 x 5=**2.5**

1	Diagnostic Test	a	To find out if a student can achieve a particular task.
2	Placement Test	b	To help you predict if a student will be good at something.
3	Competency Test	c	To find out how much of what has been presented a student has learned.
4	Achievement or Progress test	d	To find out what a student knows and doesn't know.
5	Aptitude test	e	To find out which class to put a particular student in.

Question 3: (08 points)

Discuss briefly one of the following statements **(12-15 lines)**

1. Plan your lesson thoroughly, but in the classroom teach the lesson not the plan.
2. A warm up phase not only introduces the lesson, but also indicates the success or failure of the whole lesson.

Teacher Training school

Department of English

Fourth year class

American CivilizationTest

Answer four of the topics bellow, each in a paragraph of about 10-15 sentences

A/ What are Rockfiller's contributions in the field of Business.

B/ What are the problems that the late 19th century immigrants created?

D/ Explain how the transcontinental railroad harmed the Red Man.

F/ What are the American interests in Cuba and the Pacific during the late 19th century?

H/ Were Americans "impartial in thought as well as in action" during WWI? Explain.

I/ List and explain the fears that Americans experienced during the 1920s.

K/ President Hoover once predicted "a chicken in every pot and two cars in every garage."Did it happen? Explain.

L/ Explain the influence of John Dewey's "pragmatism" on Franklin Roosevelt's "New Deal".

NB: **Indicate** the topics you are working on in your exam sheet.

Teacher Training School of Constantine

Department of English

Pedagogical Trends

Fifth Year

First Examination

Answer the following questions

1. Define the terms *education* and *pedagogy* and compare and contrast them. (5 points)

2. Teacher training has not always been a preoccupation in the history of teaching. Discuss with reference to its first emergence. (5 points)

3. Although many achievements were realized in the field of education, pedagogy did not appear until the Seventeenth Century. Discuss. (15 points)

Appendix IX

Exam Questions Analysis Statistics

2nd year

	2tc/ Global	M				NM				T				Global T			
		N°	%	Sc	%	N°	%	Sc	%	N°	%	Sc	%	N°	%	Sc	%
Below § level	0 comp	02		07		00		00		02		07		18	58.06	73	45.62
	Word	03		16		00		00		03		16					
	Wd/ ph	00		00		07		26		07		26					
	Phr/ stce	00		00		03		14		03		14					
	Stce	00		00		03		10		03		10					
§ level	Srce/ §	00		00		03		16		03		16		13	41.93	87	54.37
	§	**06**		**47**		04		24		10		71					
Essay level	Short essay	**00**		00		00		00		00		00		00		00	00
	5 § essay	**00**		00		00		00		00		00		00		00	00
	Total	**11**		**70**		**20**		**90**		**31**		**160**		**31**		**160**	
	%																

3rd year

3TC/	0 comp		Below § level								§ level				Short Essay		5 § essay		T	
			Word		Wd/ ph		Phr/Stce		Stce		Stce/§		§							
	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc
Term1	2	9	1	8	2	7	2	8	2	8	0	0	5	24	3	36	1	20	18	
Term2	4	17	0	0	6	27	2	14	0	0	2	12	6	27	2	23	0	0	22	
Total	**6**	**26**	**1**	**8**	**8**	**34**	**4**	**22**	**2**	**8**	**2**	**12**	**11**	**51**	**5**	**59**	**1**	**20**	**40**	
N° %																				
Sc. %																				

3TC / Level of writing	M				NM				T			
	N°	%	Sc	%	N°	%	Sc	%	N°	%	Sc	%
Below § level	12	44.44	60	**25**	09	69.23	38	**15.83**	21	**52.50**	98	**40.83**
§ level	09	33.33	35	**14.58**	04	01.66	28	**11.66**	13	**32.50**	63	**26.25**
Short essay	05	18.51	59	**24.58**	00	00	00	**00**	05	**12.50**	59	**23.58**
5 § essay	01	03.70	20	**08.33**	00	00	00	**00**	01	**02.50**	20	**08.33**
Total	27				13				40		240	
%												

4th year (4b4 & 4B5)

4B4/B5 **Global**	0 comp		Below § level								§ level				Short Essay		5 § essay		T	
			Word		Wd/ ph		Phr/Stce		Stce		Stce/§		§							
	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc	N°	Sc
Term1	02	16	00	00	02	10	00	00	1	06	0	00	11	53	2	15	2	40	20	140
Term2	01	05	00	00	04	06	04	12	9	26	4	20	01	06	4	45	1	20	28	140
Total	**03**	**21**	**00**	**00**	**06**	**16**	**04**	**12**	**10**	**32**	**04**	**20**	**12**	**58**	**6**	**60**	**3**	**60**	**48**	**240**
N° %																				
Sc. %																				

Résumé

La présente étude vise à explorer les problèmes d'écriture à caractère culturel des apprenants d'anglais comme langue étrangère à l'École Normale Supérieure de Constantine (ENSC). Deux hypothèses ont été formulées : 1) l'écriture des apprenants d'anglais comme langue étrangère (ALE) de niveau avancé à l'ENSC ont des difficultés à réaliser les éléments macro-rhétoriques de l'énoncé de thèse, de la phrase de sujet, de l'unité et du développement du sujet et du paragraphe selon les conventions d'écriture en langue anglaise et les réalise plutôt selon les modèles de la première langue (L1), et 2) la persistance de ces difficultés d'écriture d'ordre culturel jusqu'à un niveau avancé peuvent être liés à un ensemble de facteurs culturels et éducatifs autres que la L1 tel que les perceptions des enseignants de l'expression écrite de l'influence de la culture sur l'écriture en langue étrangère (LE) et la quantité de pratique de l'écriture dans le cadre général de la formation. Pour vérifier ces hypothèses, une méthodologie mixte a été adoptée. La première étape est une analyse rhétorique contrastive qui consiste en une comparaison de textes écris en anglais par des étudiants d'anglais et en arabe par des étudiants d'arabe. Le but est de vérifier si des modèles rhétoriques de la culture de la L1 peuvent être trouvés dans des essais écrits par des étudiants d'anglais de niveau avancé. Deuxièmement, un entretien a été menée avec trois professeurs d'expression écrite du Département d'Anglais dans le but d'explorer leurs perceptions du rôle de la culture dans la classe d'écriture en langue étrangère. Ensuite, un entretien avec des enseignants de modules de contenu au Département d'Anglais et une analyse de contenu des questions d'examens ont été réalisés dans le but de connaître la place de l'écriture dans la culture éducative actuelle des enseignants d'anglais comme langue étrangère. Les résultats de l'analyse rhétorique contrastive ont révélé que la rédaction de paragraphes et d'essais de nombreux étudiants d'anglais était encore bien loin de la rédaction conventionnelle de paragraphes et d'essais en anglais et présentait des caractéristiques rhétoriques de l'écriture en langue arabe. Les résultats ont aussi révélé certains facteurs de la culture éducative (enseignement / apprentissage) qui pourraient expliquer la persistance de l'influence de la culture de la langue maternelle sur les compétences macro-rhétoriques des étudiants d'anglais comme langue étrangère au niveau du paragraphe et de la dissertation. Sur la base de ces résultats, quelques suggestions sont faites pour réviser le cadre global de formation des enseignants, y compris le programme d'expression écrite en abordant le concept de culture sous trois angles différents : la culture de la langue étrangère, la culture de la première langue et la culture éducative (enseignement/apprentissage).

ملخص

تهدف الدراسة الحالية إلى استكشاف مشاكل الكتابة ذات الطابع الثقافي لمتعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في المدرسة العليا للأساتذة بقسنطينة. تم طرح فرضيتين: 1) تظهر كتابات طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية ذوو المستوى المتقدم في المدرسة العليا للأساتذة بقسنطينة صعوبات لتحقيق العناصر الخطابية الكلية لبيان الأطروحة ، جملة الموضوع ، وحدة الموضوع والفقرة وفقًا لقواعد الكتابة في اللغة الإنجليزية وتحقيقها وفقًا لأنماط الكتابة باللغة الأولى، و 2) استمرار مشاكل الكتابة المتعلقة بالثقافة حتى مستوى متقدم قد يكون مرتبطًا بمجموعة من العوامل الثقافية والتعليمية بخلاف اللغة الأولى أنماط مثل كتابة تصورات أساتذة التعبير الكتابي لدور الثقافة في تطوير مهارة التعبير باللغة الأجنبية ومدى استعمال التعبير الكتابي في الإطار العام للتكوين. للتحقق من هذه الفرضيات، تم اعتماد تصميم منهجي مختلط. أولاً تم إجراء تحليل بلاغي مقارن بين الانتاج الكتابي لطلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية وطلاب اللغة العربية للتحقق مما إذا كانت الأنماط الخطابية ذات الجذور الثقافية للغة الأولى يمكن العثور عليها في المقالات التي كتبها طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية ذوو المستوى المتقدم. ثانيًا تم إجراء مقابلة مع ثلاثة أساتذة للتعبير الكتابي في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية بهدف استكشاف تصوراتهم عن دور الثقافة في فصل التعبير الكتابي باللغة الأجنبية . بعد ذلك تم إجراء مقابلة مع مجموعة من أساتذة مقاييس المحتوى في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية وتحليل محتوى عينة من أسئلة الامتحانات بهدف معرفة مكان الكتابة في الثقافة التعليمية الحالية لأساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. كشفت نتائج التحليل المقارن للخطاب أن كتابة الفقرة والمقال للعديد من طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية لا تزال بعيدة بكثير عن الطريقة النموذجية لكتابة الفقرة والمقال باللغة الإنجليزية وبدلاً من ذلك تظهر العديد من السمات الخطابية للكتابة باللغة العربية. بالإضافة إلى ذلك كشفت النتائج عن بعض عوامل الثقافة التربوية (التدريس / التعلم) التي يمكن أن تفسر استمرار تأثير ثقافة اللغة الأولى على المهارات الخطابية الكلية لطلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية على مستوى الفقرة والمقال. على ضوء هذه النتائج تم تقديم بعض الاقتراحات لمراجعة الإطار العام لتدريب الأساتذة بما في ذلك منهاج مقياس التعبير الكتابي من خلال معالجة مفهوم الثقافة من ثلاث وجهات نظر مختلفة خاصة بثقافة اللغة الأجنبية ، ثقافة اللغة الأولى و الثقافة التربوية (ثقافة التدريس / التعلم).