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Major: Analysing Discourse in English Language Teaching

Developing the Writing Skill through Written Discourse Analysis  
The Case of Second Year students of English at El-Oued University

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## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to

My parents whose words of encouragement and advice still ring in my ears.

To my brothers and my lovely sister

To my mother-in-law Habiba

To my husband Abdallha Leghdemsi whose endless support sustained me throughout the  
work.

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## ABSTRACT

The present enquiry explores insights of the *analysis of written discourse* in teaching the writing skill focusing on its contextual, macro-organisational and cohesive level. This triangular focus is a solution to the failure of contemporary teaching practices of FL writing that focus more on systematic knowledge neglecting the other types of written discourse. As a result, the observed deficiency of second-year students written productions are beyond the sentence level. We propose written discourse analysis as it examines language uses at the three-sided stated levels: schematic knowledge , macro-organization, and cohesion respectively. The main of the inquiry is threefold: the first is to examine teaching and learning situation of second-year LMD students. The second is to exploit findings of discourse analysis in FL classroom, suggesting teaching procedures, activities, and varieties of texts to writing teachers. The third is to measure the extent to which WDA offers better results in writing a contextualised, organized and cohesive discourse. to test the hypothesis, qualitative and quantitative methods are integrated: A) a questionnaire was administered to teachers (N=7) and to the second year students at Hamma Lakhdar University, at El-oued, to explore the teaching and learning situation and assess attitudes toward our research variables. B) the quasi-experiment involves: 1) Pretesting the students, so as to set the ground for comparing the students' output before and after treatment; 2)Teaching writing for twelve (12) sessions through written discourse analysis , 3) and post-testing to assess the amount of Discourse awareness developed along that teaching period. The obtained data indicate a considerable variability before and after intervention.

**Keywords:** Discourse Analysis, Written Discourse Analysis (WDA), Writing Skill, Top-down, Bottom-up elements, Schematic knowledge Macro-organization, Cohesion

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

CBA: Competency-Based Approach

CBA: compretency-based Approach

CBT: compretency-based teaching

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

DA: Discourse Analysis

EC: Ethnography of Communication

ELT: English language Teaching

FL: Foreign Language

FLW: Foreign Language Writing

GA: Genre Analysis

L1: First Language or Mother Tongue

L2/SL: Second Language

SA: Speech Act

TALO Text As Linguistic Object

TAVI: Text as a vehicle of information

WD: Written Discourse

WDA: Written Discourse Analysis

WS: Writing Skill

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## **Introduction**

Due to the rapid change at all levels of life including culture economy, society, and the expeditious magnification of technology, the world has extremely become an immense, interactive system of communication. It is that "closest link between language dominance [and the different areas of our lives that] make[s] progress as an international medium of communication (Crystal, 2012, p.7 ).

Having this boundness between real-world realities and language use, language pedagogy is to cope with the requirements of our modern lives in terms of considering learners' needs. The students at university level need not only the mastery of linguistic knowledge. It is uncontested among researchers (such as Widdowson, 2003, 1978) that communication requires enacting different maxims of communicative competence to use language appropriately in its social context. FL students at university level need to be acquainted with the ability to interact in the enterprise of sharing and openness to the world of academic research.

Writing is one of the facets of communication and probably the most needed skill in students' academic lives. Language writers are required to reflect the mastery of language and their understanding of content knowledge of their careers. Different communicative tasks are undertaken through writing such as passing exams or tests, writing reports, essays, doing homework, publishing articles, conducting dissertations, taking notes that all determine their success or failure. Having the crucial role of writing skill, what is the most consistent approach that would best yield effective writing results?

### **0.1 Background to The Research Problem**

Recently, many reviews have been provided in introductory books, such as in Kroll (2003) on SL writing, considering the latter as a newborn discipline rather than as an area

of language teaching. FL/ SL writing has just become a discipline of its own in the 90s and the 80s. It is perceived that before the 1960s Second and Foreign Language Writing (hereafter, SL\FLW) was not to such a broad area that L1 writing was the most taught subject, however, over around the last 50 years, SLW became a very dynamic research area that has its own disciplinary discourse.

The writing skill was neglected, if one compares it with the primary importance devoted to speaking skill because language pedagogy adopted the audio-lingual approach at that time. This neglect had been continued during the nineteenth century due to the rise of applied linguistics. FL/SL teaching generally was confined to direct application of scientific descriptive linguistics especially between the 1940s and 1960. In addition, teaching pedagogy relies on L1 theories. These were transformed into teaching methods such as free composition, controlled composition or teaching approaches such as the audio-lingual approach. There was no theoretical framework underlying FL writing situation.

In the light of these circumstances, writing was taught as a means to an end. It was not considered as a basic skill and was mainly regarded as " an orthographic representation of speech " (Kroll, 2003, p.16). Writing activities centred on the reproduction of what had been heard or read of—in lieu of translation exercises-, rather than developing on production abilities. Say, writing during the nineteenth century was not the ultimate goal of English language teaching rather it serves the learning spoken the language.

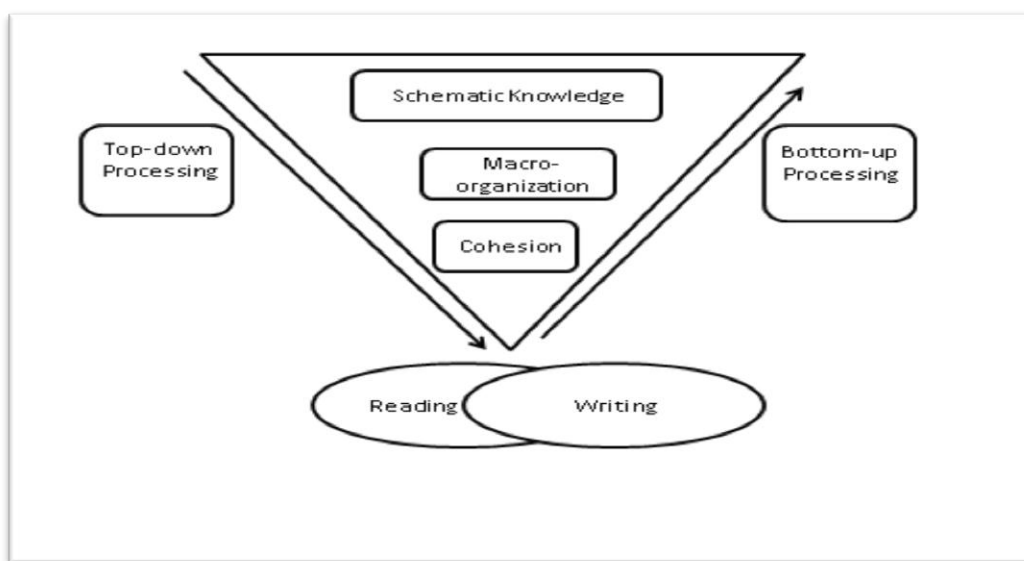
In the beginning of the 60s and 70s, strong contradiction arose against the traditional pedagogical practices. In the beginning of the 80s interests shifted to FL writing research; for example, different models of writing as a process had been conducted, such as Hayes and Flower (1980, as cited in Matsuda, 2003). Nowadays, signs of maturity of SL writing

as a field could be easily perceived: a) SLW became a topic of interest in recent conferences. Online journals are devoted to the publication of research on SL/FL writing, wherein various areas of applied linguistics such as text linguistics, discourse analysis, ethnography, and cross-cultural communication were investigated in relation to writing.

One of the disciplines that evolved during the 1980s as a reaction against sentence-based pedagogy is Discourse Analysis (DA). DA is mainly concerned with the analysis of language above and beyond the sentence level. Although the first version of DA, as one can notice in Harris (1952) was purely based on the description of the recurrent linguistic elements in long texts. Later on, the analysis of discourse was undertaken from different angles, as a social event, pragmatic, functional, or critical angle.

Currently, DA has a prominent interest in ELT and ELT research. The stretch of language above the sentence is considered as the basic framework for language teaching and interaction. In such a way, the analysis of discourse from whatever point of view relies heavily on investing knowledge (linguistic, cultural, contextual, etc). Discourse competence involves the ability to deal with and master such types of knowledge to create a certain communicative message.

One of the recent models of teaching writing skill that based on discourse knowledge and strategies is that of Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000). They put flesh on the bones of the already existing accounts of communicative competence. It involves five competencies: discourse, linguistic, pragmatic, intercultural, and strategic competence. Discourse competence is the core of the model since it supports the realisation of the other competencies. Our suggested model is inspired by that of Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, however with particular emphasis on the concept Written Discourse Analysis (WDA). The term WDA is selected as it best reflects the objective of the work.



**Figure 1: WDA-Based Model of Teaching Writing Skill**

**(designed by the researcher)**

The main principle behind the suggested model for teaching writing skill is that the ability to produce written discourse is achieved only through the exploitation of certain types of knowledge basic in effective communication. These include *schematic knowledge*, *macro-organization of discourse*, and *cohesion*. WDA, in this respect, is considered as a systematic investigation of WD at various level. It is implemented as a pedagogical technique to create the appropriate context for a particular communicative interaction, to raise awareness and to expose students to discourse regularities through engaging them in a *bottom-up and top-down* processing. Another implication of the WDA based model is that teaching writing centres on two major types of language abilities. The first is reading: Students' knowledge is activated to decode, interpret, and figure out the intended meaning of a given discourse. The second is writing student writers produce discourse through combining different types of knowledge (that are stated so far) with communicative strategies.

How is WD relevant to *learning to write*? WD is an interactive way to best represent inseparable attributes of human communication that were totally neglected in traditional teaching approaches and relatively not carefully considered in recent classroom practices: WDA shows how the writers' intended meaning are embedded in a given context. The teacher attracts students' attention to certain aspects of WD, negotiate situations of boundness of language use and context; students will gradually be sensitive players of words.

WDA provides ways of examining language at the macro and micro levels and provides opportunities for student writers to invest different types of knowledge, linguistic and extra-linguistic, that include knowledge about the topic, the audience, etc. It is, then, such intellectual processing and direct exposing to different written productions that accumulates experience in language use and knowledge of WD routines that would foster students' ability to write effectively on one hand. Other competencies such as strategic competence, sociolinguistic competence would be promoted on the other hand.

Having introduced the main key variables and focus of the present study, we find it worth in the coming discussion to evaluate and highlight areas of inadequacies in the literature on SL/FL writing and DA, so as to synthesise and contextualise the research stand and contribution.

Starting with the output variable, an immense number of related research examined the nature of FL writing including the FL writer, teacher, text, etc. However, in terms of teaching policy, much of L2 theories are derived from L1 context. There is accordingly no explanatory theory for the nature of writing relevant to FL context. It has been recognised that there are considerable pedagogical frameworks formulated accordingly, such as genre approach, process approach, a functional approach that focus on key notions



such as communicative event, cognitive stages, cohesive and linguistic aspects. However, one aspect is emphasised at the expense of the other. There is a need, then for a teaching model that consistently considers the multidimensional and complex nature of WD in FL context.

To put in another way, recently the main objective of teaching writing lies in the notion *performance* or realisation of the well-written discourse of particular type. When the teaching input emphasises 'usage' side of language, the result would be misleading then. The overwhelming evidence corroborating the focus of competence in teaching is the fact that students have already language knowledge such as conjugation verbs in present perfect tense or past simple, constructing compound or complex sentences that convey certain semantic meaning, etc. However, what is commonly noticed is that student writers fail to put things into action in a natural way. The point of inadequacy lies in the teaching input that does not result in proficient writing output.

Shifting our discussion to the independent variable, the term WDA is used by different researchers, for example, Grabe (1984) and Ferris (2003) to distinguish the analysis of Written discourse from the whole realm of discourse analysis. Also, it is worth to mention that WDA as an area of investigation is not a relatively new realm. Traditionally, works in the area of text linguistics were concerned with the statistical analysis of lexicogrammar elements usually in scientific or legal rhetoric such as in Swales (1974) and Crystal and Davy (1969). Recently, the examination of WD has been shifted from the lexico-grammatical level to organizational one, then to the multidimensional level (as cited in Bhatia, 2004).

In this respect, WDA has been considered as a research method for describing a defining feature (s) in particular type of discourse, examination of written productions of

L2 students that would enrich the area of material or coursebook design. WDA is not directly applied in the teaching of particular language area or skill.

In addition, the area of WDA (and DA in general) currently characterised by its rapidly growing literature on DA. Prominent works attempt to explain the application of DA *findings* in FL language teaching. Despite the fact that such insights contributed to our understanding of the product and the process of WD, less attention has been paid to experimental-based studies of the efficacy of actual analysis of WD on the student writing proficiency.

## **0.2 Statement of the Problem**

Having the central importance of written communication, different models are suggested to teach writing skills. Although thousands of research have been conducted during the last decades (to investigate various key issues related to writing skill, including the process, the writer, and the written products), teaching and learning to write is still a challenging task for both teachers and students.

Despite the fact that the current teaching approach is performance or output oriented, and practices of the traditional methods are still embedded in SL or FL classroom as addressed by many researchers such as Widdowson (2003). The teaching of writing nowadays is generally confined to linguistic units such as sentence patterns, or listing transition words according to their functions in the text or introducing a set of tips such as how to write introduction, body, or conclusion. As to writing teachers' response to the students' written productions, the emphasis is totally given to correctness and accuracy. As to writing tasks, particularly in exams, teachers do not consider features of the communicative situation of natural language uses, such as for who, what, when and for what purpose the students write. What is commonly observed in a real-life context, a

quotation or statement is provided, students discuss or defend. In this respect, the two sides of language knowledge that are "knowing" and "doing" in Widdowson's (1978) words are not pedagogically considered in parallel despite the fact that they naturally coincide and require two types of context, linguistic context and communicative situation. Such pedagogical practice had its due effect on the students' Written Discourse (WD) production.

When the students are concerned with the "doing side of language to fulfil a particular communicative goal, their exploitation and selection of language resources, do not effectively match up features the context of the situation (or schematic considerations involves knowledge about the topic, purpose, audience). This would affect the entire discourse features including its macro-organization and cohesive devices. In this respect, teaching pedagogy would not initiate students to do things with language and deal with levels of WD from an interactive point of view. Having such perspective, we are not neglecting the role of linguistic knowledge or 'systematic knowledge' in teaching. It is fair to mention that many researchers have debated such issue. The question that is usually addressed: why do teachers heavily concentrate on the correctness of language production if they are not themselves sufficient for communication?

A relevant answer to our context is provided by Cook (1989). The first reason for emphasising correctness is that correct productions of the sentence is 'a sign of literacy' and manifestation of knowledge of language particularly aims at acquiring rules. However, when it is a matter of acquiring communication, we need to go beyond the linguistic study of discourse one. In this respect, focus on accuracy and grammar may not appropriate or disservice to our students. To say it clearly, "there is more to using language, and communicating successfully with other people, than being able to produce correct sentences." (Cook, 1989, p.3).

### **0.3 Aims of the Study**

Teaching pedagogy must accommodate the wide range of needs and suggest solutions to such problems. As WDA concerns with the study of language in use, building classroom interaction upon the analysis of language use would be the best way to maximise opportunities for students' participation; to expose them to varieties of functions and their signals, discursive features, cohesive resources, and how sensitive the process of meaning-making ( either interpretation or production) as it is embedded and affected by a given context. WDA is exploited to shed the light on the quality of the input and to promote the students' discourse awareness. The main objective, then, is to measure the extent to which the later would improve the students' WD proficiency.

To this end, students are provided with opportunities to acquire ways of doing things with language as they analyse WD through top-down and bottom-up processing. Approaching reading to writing classroom interactions and practices in terms of such type of processing helps develop purposeful and analytic thinking as readers and writers as well. Also, being in direct interaction with different types of texts will promote students' sensitive selection of contextual clues, elements of language to reflect a certain intention and address a certain audience in mind.

Another objective of WDA-based teaching is to acquire repertoires of discourse knowledge and language use. Thus, for example when they are asked to describe they could select from the repertoire of descriptive language style; when they are asked to argue for or against a certain claim they could respect the standards of argumentation of

Aims of this inquiry are summarised as follows:

- To examine teaching and learning situation of second-year LMD students, identifying the main areas of difficulties, students needs, and the teaching practices.

- To test the efficiency of WDA model in teaching writing skill based on the interactive presentation of language in use whereby we expose students to varieties of text types they need in their academic lives.
- To acquaint students with writing repertory which includes other aspects other than linguistic knowledge, mainly discourse knowledge and contextual knowledge.

#### **0.4 Research Questions**

We attempt by this investigation to examine the teaching of the writing skill under the implementation of WDA approach. Accordingly, the main question is:

- How would WDA improve the students' written production?

The objectives of this enquiry are, also, guided by answering the following sub-questions:

- What are the students' and teachers' attitudes toward the current teaching and learning situation?
- What are the effects of implementing WDA in teaching the writing skill?
- How would WDA raise the students' schematic knowledge awareness?
- What effects would WDA have on students' macro-organization of written discourse?
- what effects would WDA have on students' use of cohesive devices?

#### **0.5 Research Hypotheses**

This investigation is designed to test the following main hypotheses:

- 1- Students who receive teaching through WDA would better consider schematic elements in their writings.

2. Teaching students according to WDA framework would better develop their writing in terms of macro-organization.

3- Teaching through WDA would improve the students' use of cohesive devices.

## **0.6 Rationale**

Different real-life facts stimulated the investigation of the already discussed issue. Second-year students of English had received eight years of English teaching (four years in middle school, three years in secondary school), and have been enrolled as first-year students at the university level. However, it is generally argued that the students' written productions lack maturity in the use of language in general and proficiency in writing in particular. The present inquiry accordingly seeks to examine (through the conduction of the pretest and responding to the questionnaire) the main areas of deficiencies, rather than building the study on general speculations.

In addition, direct contact with the population and attending written expression sessions yielded to the perception of the following: steps of a writing lesson are not managed smoothly and effectively, the teacher depends heavily on handouts and explaining facts; lack of interaction and motivation on the part of the students; aims of the lesson are not achieved, for example when the course is devoted to teaching argumentative essays, the production step at the end of the session is usually missing. Such remarks motivated the researcher to design lesson plans and activities based on WDA to purposefully manage teaching and learning interaction and meaning negotiation process in an effective and enthusiastic way.

The present inquiry is significant in different respects. First, it attempts to provide teachers with a pedagogical framework to the analysis of written discourse, whereby he/she can shed the light on any language aspect(s) of the discourse type(s) he/ aims to

teach. The study also brings the macro-level of discourse (communicative situation configuration, the overall discourse organisation) and micro-level (include features of cohesion namely reference, ellipsis and substitution, lexical cohesion) into a symbiotic relation. , rather than teaching parts of the whole in isolation from each other. WDA we suggest based on bottom-up and top-down processing enable integrating linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge, to ultimately bridge the gap between teaching theories and practice that mainly one of the issues have been addressed recently.

## **0.7 The Mode**

In this investigation, the written mode is select for many reasons. The examination of written texts is easier, as written data is always available, unlike spoken mode that is spontaneous and temporal, thus students and the researcher could refer to all classroom activities. They are, also typical realisations of students mastery of language: written texts are products that enable us to understand prior knowledge of students and current learning situation. In addition to the basic role written communication plays in the student's academic success. Not to mention the researcher predisposition is formed by the fact that WD is the basic means of language representation.

## **0.8 Research Methodology**

To test the hypothesis, and the suggested teaching methodology, eighty-seven (87) second-year students of English at Hamma Lakhdar University, Algeria. Second-year students of English have been chosen as they are required to write different types of essays of certain communicative type as set up by the ministry of higher education and research in the programme of written expression (See *Appendice04 and 05*).

The nature of the research, the objectives we set, and the problem we have identified, all require the implementation of quantitative and qualitative methods.

Questionnaires are addressed to the eighty-seven (87) second-year students of English, and eleven (11) teachers at Hamma Lakhdar University. The questionnaires aim explore the teaching and learning situation, in terms of the teaching practices, teaching and learning problems, and needs, attitudes toward the research variables. An independent/paired trial quasi-experiment has been designed. The respondents have been already assigned to groups by the Department of Foreign Language, English section, at El-oued University. They were pretested and posttested so as to set grounds for comparing their achievement before and after they have received the manipulation of the treatment variable (WDA). The main purpose is to test the amount of awareness and effective written production, in terms of considering schematic knowledge, macro-organization of WD, and cohesion.

## **0.9 The Structure of the Thesis**

The thesis is structured in five chapters divided into two parts. The first three chapters are devoted to the literature review that provides theoretical accounts of the two variables of the research. The first chapter examines the nature of FL writing and its role. It also provides a comprehensible review of the main teaching trends have been adopted, in Algeria trying to deduce how FL writing has been dealt with under each framework.

The second chapter is devoted to the field of DA to introduce the key relevant concepts. It aims at setting the ground for the specialised concepts of WDA discussed in chapter three. The latter explains WDA knowledge which are relevant to our focus. In this respect, our aim to explain the WDA insights esssential in writing and to highlight how to deal with such knowledge in the classroom.

The practical part, in its turn, involves two chapters. The first one involves the analysis of the learning and teaching situation. We reported areas of deficiency in writing to prove gaps highlighted so far. The last chapter puts all has been discussed in the



theoretical part in action. It aims to check the hypothesis that confirms the contribution of WDA to improvements in students WD productions alongside with discussion of the results obtained. Pedagogical implications are provided to teachers of FL writing. The conclusion is drawn on the basis of the findings obtained, some future prospects are discussed.

### **0.10 Limitation of the Study**

Notwithstanding the significance of the work in that our investigation provides accounts of a WDA from multilevel dimensions including reader-oriented, rhetorical (macro-structure), and functional consideration (cohesive devices) some limitations are to be raised.

The problems discussed are related to second-year students of English at the El-oued University. Thus they are Contextually confined to one 87 students. It is resonable to generalise the problems discussed and the findings to all second-year students in other regions.

This study is not longitudinal. It is conducted in one semester. The researcher-teacher finds it difficult to deal profoundly with different types of texts and their subtypes as the number of sessions is limited. The findings obtained, then, would not fully count for the effectiveness of the manipulated variable.

### **0.11 Key Terms**

To delimit the conceptualization of the key concepts of the research, the main technical terms are defined starting from the general to the specific one:

- *Communicative competence*: the underlying system of both knowledge of language and skills of using it needed in communication (Richards & Schmidt, 2014).

- *Discourse competence*: involves "the selection, sequencing and arrangements of words, structures, and sentences/utterances to achieve a unified spoken or written whole with reference to a particular message and context[ for example, argumentative, descriptive, etc]" (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, P.16)
- *Written discourse analysis* according to Kaplan and Grabe (2002) is a systematic analysis of features of various level of language use occurring in written texts.
- *Top-down processing* involves consideration of knowledge-driven consideration such as the audience, discourse knowledge of writing conventions (formal schemata) prior knowledge and writing experience (content schemata) (Cook, 1989).
- *Bottom-up processing* is the exploitation (either in the reception or the construction of discourse ) of text-driven elements such as cohesive features, expression and syntactic structures to fit top-down knowledge (ibid).
- *Schematic Knowledge* is "conventional assumptions and beliefs which define knowledge what is accepted as normal or typical in respect of the way reality is structured." (Widdowson, 1973, P. 102). Schema involves pre-existing knowledge of different types, namely formal/interpersonal schemata (knowledge about rhetoric and discourse), content/ideational schemata (related to content or topic area), and contextual knowledge.
- *Context* is the co-existing features of the communicative situation for Widdowson, (1973) that involves sociological components such as who, what, how and for what purpose does communication take place.
- *Macro-organization* functional relations among bits (or segments) of discourse that formulate a text pattern of a particular type such as problem-solution, claim-counterclaim patterns (Bhatia, 2004).

- *Cohesion* is a bottom-up discourse attribute that involves the exploitation of lexicogrammatical resources to hang parts of discourse as a whole (Halliday and Hasan, 1991).

## **CHAPTER ONE: WRITING SKILLS**

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## **Introduction**

This chapter is assembled to present reasonably comprehensive sense of the key issues related to writing skill and clarifying variables related to our investigation such as: understanding the nature writing skill and its related issues, the status of FL Writing in Algeria including the main teaching approaches implemented and the current research trajectories.

### **1.1 The Nature of Second Language Writing**

There is rapidly growing literature on the nature of Second Language writing (SLW) and on the field in general since the 80s (Matsuda, 2003). In Hyland (2003) SLW is examined in terms of views on language and learning to provide implications for teaching writing in SL context. Kroll (2003), however, broadly investigates SLW in terms of key issues concerned, discussing the multi-aspect of SLW. Weigle (2002) provides a comprehensive account that best describes the complex nature of SLW abilities although her work is limited to assessment. The following discussion aims at understanding such complexity through comparing SLW to first language writing (L1) and other language skills.

#### **1.1.1 *FL and L1 Writing***

Writing abilities differ from one teaching context to another. Wang (2012) summarises differences between L1 and L2 academic writing at threefold levels: lexical level, sentence, organisational or paragraph level. He also points out to differences in terms of writing conventions of discourse community and readers' and writer responsibilities.

It is important to clarify that the teaching and learning situation of English is mainly considered as FL since English is not spoken in the students' environment. Unlike L1

situation, the students underwent certain cognitive processes. An FL student writer is guided to deal with strategies such as brainstorming, multiple drafting, feedback, which are unconsciously processed in L1 context: L1 is a standard system of language that the students speak. Students have already acquired the linguistic resource. However, in FL context, writers usually refer to their L1 to support intellectual thinking (Lay, 1988 as cited in Jun 2008). Accordingly, FL students need special instruction since the writing system differs from spoken language in terms of form and use (Weigle, 2002). Comparing writing in FL context with that of L1, we argue that learning and teaching writing is more difficult in FL context that is due to the immaturity of the students' communicative competence.

### ***1.1.2 The Relationship between Writing and Speaking***

A great deal of literature has been devoted to examining the relationship between speaking and writing from different angles. At the semantic level, (Kalantzis and Cope, 2012) disentangle features of meaning differences across the two modes. At the linguistic level, a detailed account is provided by Walfe (1985, cited in *ibid*). Biber, 1991 discusses the difference between writing and speaking at the same axis, however, he provides an empirically-based analysis of spoken and written text. He reported six dimensions of variation (that there is no need to be stated, see Biber, 1991). Having a broad and a multidimensional account, Combeet and Carter (2001) compared spoken and written language in terms of linguistic features, the contextual components, the social and functional roles, and the boundaries and overlap between them.

A widely cited categorization is based on contextual differences. Considering time constraint, spoken language is transitory, whereas writing is permanent. The writer, then, unlike the speaker, has the privilege of planning and revising that determine the linguistic structure and vocabulary density. Focusing on the availability of interlocutors, writer and

reader can not immediately interact with the reader, while speaker and listener have the advantage of their co-existence, in that they contribute in processing meanings and make recourse to contextual and paralinguistic resources such as intonation and stress that are converted into punctuation and layout when writing (Brown, 1994, cited in Biber, 1991).

It is noticed that Brown's distinction focuses on the contextual dimension, mainly the time of production, and the distance between interlocutors. He neglects other crucial points that go beyond what has been mentioned above: the communicative goals, situations of their users, and the cognitive processing of language. A broad view is suggested by some researchers. For example, Grabowski (1996, as cited in Weigle, 2002) states that points of distinctions include purposes of use, situations where writing is used rather than speaking, or vice versa, norms and social conventions.

Such analysis of the two types of language productions is not only theoretically discussed, that in fact pave the way for classifying the two types of language productions. By way of illustration, Vähäpassi (1982) categorised written texts on the basis of two dimensions: Cognitive processing, and purpose. Vähäpassi's classification of text types, then are threefold: (1) reproducing already linguistically encoded or determined information; (2) organising information known to the writer; (3) inventing or generating new ideas or information. Jacobson (1960) propose six writing purposes: a) To learn, b) To convince, c) To inform, d) To convince, or persuade, e) To entertain, or delight, and, f) To keep in touch (as cited in Weigle, 2002). Such classification is mainly purpose oriented.

At the cognitive level, many researchers investigated how writing and speaking require different cognitive resources. Accordingly, Grabowski (1996) when writing, planning, information retrieval, and information producing are central cognitive processes that writers undergoes, however, speakers focus on maintaining the flow of conversation,

such as using turn-taking signals or avoiding long pauses (Sacks et al, 1974). The writer needs to imagine the readers' current knowledge, interests, and the readers' purposes, exploiting his\her cognitive energy in managing different types of information related to audience, content, and the appropriate forms of written texts, unlike speakers who can easily get feedback from the listener (as cited in Weigle, 2002).

Bachman and Palmer (1996) argue that both skills are not intrinsically different. Although the two language abilities differ in terms of textual features, contextual uses, situations, and uses of sociocultural norms. They are similar in that both speaker and writer exploit the already existing linguistic repertoire to fulfil a particular communicative purpose. It is the nature of the specific task that a language user attempts to carry out that determine the use of one skill rather than another.

Such accounts have affected classroom pedagogical concerns. By way of illustration, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, (2000) suggest two views that are basically relevant to classroom practices. The first view implies that speaking is more contextually- bounded due to contextual elements discussed above. This interaction is the core of speaking skill (that coincide with Brown's view). The due effect of this view is considering writing as not confined to the context that helps interpret on the part of the reader; rather it is mastery of linguistic repertoire and rhetoric conventions. Hence it is writer autonomy-based rather than a reader-based process. The second view is socially-oriented and focuses on similarities between the two modes as both contextually dependent.

It is remarked that recent investigations generally focus on similarities and overlap between the two modes of communication and variations across certain dimensions, as stated above. conversely, traditional orientation as stated by Grabe and Kaplan (1996),



reflects the contradiction between educational researchers and linguists about the superiority of one skill over another.

### ***1.1.3 The Relationship Between Writing And Reading***

An overlay of knowledge processing results in some shared points between readers and writers. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) state that at the macro- processing stage readers' prior and shared knowledge is activated including different types of knowledge. According to Carrell and Eisterhold (1983): schematic knowledge involves content schemata and formal schemata. Content schemata involve 'background knowledge on the topic and relevant socio-cultural knowledge' (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2001, p. 716). Formal schemata include 'knowledge of how discourse is organised with respect to different genres, topics, or purposes (P.716). Second, ontexual knowledge involves recognising the overall features of the reading situation, the participants, the setting, the topic, purpose, and the place.

Put simply, reading and writing are related in that "we write so that someone else can read and comprehend the message: The relationship that holds between reading and writing is quite obvious: it is the relationship between the production and the reception" (Celce -Murcia and Olshtain 2000, p.142). Readers decode and interpret texts through making use of these types of knowledge to achieve at the writer's intended meaning. However, writers construct their texts by means of certain knowledge to formulate discourse for the reader. Thus the two types of ability are common in the type of knowledge activated and text-based communication.

For this reason, the model which has been suggested in the introduction comprises two types of language ability that a language user needs: discourse interpretation and production. Accordingly, reading and writing are interactively integrated, having the fact

that reception and production skills are integral and interrelated in the communication process.

Reading -writing based models gained considerable interest in recent FL teaching pedagogy. Olshtain and Celce Murcia (2001) for example, provide writing teachers with an interactional model ( that is further explained in *Chapter Three*) based on receptive processing features since both readers and writers deal with written text. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) argue that being a good writer is being able to write a text that can be “read successfully”. The writer is, then, responsible for managing language, content, and writing conventions that serve the reader in inferring meaning (As cited in Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000).

Raimes (1983) proposes reading as an effective communicative activity in teaching writing. He argues that reading different types of texts provides topics that students can discuss and rewrite, etc. such interaction is an effective way of learning composition process as they process the language through two other modes, speaking and listening. Reading engages the students in a new culture, new language uses and direct use of language production of a native speaker.

## **1.2 FL Writing Instruction in Algeria: A Situated Review**

Although research on second language writing is a relatively new field, we find it difficult to compile the immense number of research conducted in the field. We have thus to impose some restrictions to provide a precise account of what has been done: selecting up to date works directly related to the key concerns of our inquiry so that to provide equally thought-provoking and inspiring resources for readers.

### **1.2.1 *The Status of SLW in Algerian Curriculum***

English is considered a foreign language in the Algerian Curriculum (since French is the second language). The status of French in Algeria is totally different from that of English. To specify the situation of EFL in Algeria, we interested stating Bernard's (1991) classification an FFL or an ESL teaching situations which are: a) English as language of instruction that is not spoken outside the classroom, but it is needed for educational success and in workplace situations; b) English is not the ultimate goal for educational success, but the members are language speakers; c) Immigrant to a new country in which the second language is learnt to survive in the workplace, since students have low- language background; d) People learn English to get advanced university degree, or write for advanced subject matters; e) Language is learnt to enhance education and for personal interest (cited in Weigle, 2002). In Algeria, the situation of teaching of EFL involves features of *a* and *d* contexts.

In such context, although SLW and English, in general, are not widely used in business, politics, law, advertising, research and the mass media; at the university level, English is used in international publication and research. Students, then, highly need writing and reading skills to accomplish such academic demands. In the coming discussion, we will have a general overview of the main contextual constraints of teaching SLW with a particular focus on variables such as learning or teaching objectives, approaches, classroom techniques, activities and teachers' procedures (Teachers' Guide, 2005).

To start with, all Algerian students start receiving some English instruction from age 11 to 18. That includes three main phases. The first is compulsory education or middle school education that lasts four years for learners aged 11 between 15. The second phase is

secondary school education starts in age 15 to 18. The third is university phase that usually involves teaching english for specific purposes (ibid).

As determined by The Ministry of national education curriculum, the general objectives are based on education and qualification: teaching-learning of English serves to learn other subjects and in promoting competencies, values, and cross-curricular competencies.

Teaching and learning English contributes to learning other subject matters from different areas. These are summarised as follows: Cultural and intellectual, and universal values, intralinguistic comparisons, the acquisition of scientific and technical knowledge and research, openness to the world and attaining other knowledge, the accessibility of information, resources centres, and databases, the acquisition of civic behaviours and understanding concepts such citizen, freedom, democracy ( Teachers Guide, 2005).

Learners are to acquire three competencies related to language and skills. These are a) to interact and produce oral texts in a meaningful situation, b) to interpret oral texts, and c) to produce written messages of the defined type. These competencies are extended according to the students level. The ultimate aim is to develop communicative competence and to be a member of the professional/vocational community in which English is used for learning and communication (ibid).

Another objective included in the learners' exit profile involves the assertion of certain values: They assure a) identity that involves expressing and defending the three dimensions of Algerian nation ( Arab, Islamic, Amazigh) through English. b) National conscience value aims at being proud of the linguistic and cultural heritage. C) citizenship and openness to the world value rests on formulating a good Algerian citizen to be aware of the current and the coming issues (ibid).

The learning and teaching of English also serves to promote cross-curricular competencies that are fourfold: Firstly, learners will promote certain intellectual abilities such as, the use of critical ability to process types of texts, to understand and interpret verbal and non-verbal message, showing problem-solving ability in various situations, creativity in language production, and autonomy in learning. Secondly, they attain some methodological knowledge such as peer or group work, time management, technology, and self-evaluation. Learners also acquire communicative abilities, personal, and social awareness, and attain the values of socialisation and living in harmony with modernity (ibid).

From what has been stated, it is evident that learning and teaching English lead to the fulfilment of many objectives: communicative, intellectual, methodological, social, and pragmatic.

### ***1.2.2 The Role of FL writing in Learning***

Learning a second language is centred on the notion of communication. Writing is one of the basic modes of communication that is essential to share and interact in different cultural contexts when the other interlocutor is absent (Raimes, 1983). If writing for Raimes is a means of being embedded in the specific culture, for Weigle (2002) writing is the “tenet” of communication that is to be taught as it is used for communication rather than as an “object of study”: Writing has a central role in the students' academic lives. Tribble (1996) suggests real life-based reasons for developing an ability to write effectively: a) to give one's significant advantage in his career's progression; b) to consolidate language learning and ensures confidence; c) to set up one's firm and to get access to professional opportunities.

Writing has reinforcement role (Kaplan, 2002). When writing, students are involved in manipulating and practising various elements of the target language and direct interaction with the text. A great effort is made, hence, in expressing ideas, they use the eyes, the hands, and the brain in a collaborative constant way. It involves intellectual processing: students think about finding the right sentence, the right words, the utilisation of current knowledge that is obtained from educational instruction and already accumulated knowledge. Having such knowledge recalling and processing, thus, all strengthen language learning (Raimes, 1983).

In addition, writing is a learning tool. At high educational level, writing has an essential role in expanding one's own knowledge, as written words on pages reflect the writers' critical thinking. Well- experienced student writers are regarded as successful masters of cognitive skills that are needed for university success, thus at this level, the emphasis is put on the extent to which thought is original, sound, and how ideas are developed (Weigle, 2002).

### ***1.2.3 Teaching Approaches of FL Writing***

There are reviews that carefully examine teaching writing in a broad context. For example, Leki (2010) offers a profound analysis of English writing curricula around six countries in the world. The main purpose of Cumming's study is to examine what are the shared attributes, the differences between them, and to review how well-experienced teachers plan, conceive, and deliver courses (i.e their usual practices).

In our context, however, it should be clarified that there is a lack of such contextual reviews in Algeria. In recent years, an increasing amount of research has appeared. A considerable number of research attempts to test the effectiveness of the particular intervention in the teaching or learning process. By way of illustration, Hellalet (2014) has

investigated the use of authentic materials on students' academic writing style. Focusing students' written productions, Hazal's has examined (2013) the learners' use of cohesive devices. Some studies do provide general reviews about the main teaching approaches adopted in Algerian education such that of Doufene (2007); however, to the author's best knowledge, very few publications can be found in the literature that discuss how writing skill had been approached in Algerian classrooms.

The forthcoming review is based on teaching frameworks and detailed explanation of the classroom practices, teaching practices and objectives. The researcher uses primary references, such as textbooks and publications of the ministry of education, and researchers' reviews.

Throughout the history of Algerian education three, main approaches were adopted by the ministry of education: a) the structural approach, b) the communicative-functional approach, and c) competency-based approach ( Hayane, 1989; Doufene, 2007).

*1.2.7.1 Structural approach.* After the independence, mainly during the 70s and until the 80s the Ministry adopted the structural approach ( Hayane, 1989). In the light of structural-based education, the adopted methods are inspired by new theories in linguistics developed at that time.

*1.2.7.1.1 The grammar-translation method.* (GTM) was adopted immediately after the independence from 1962 to 1969. Teaching writing was basically confined to learning grammatical definitions and conjugations by heart and then applying them by means of grammar- Exercises and translation activity designed for this purpose. In addition to translation and grammar exercises, other classroom activities were reading comprehension questions, antonyms /synonyms, memorization, cognates exercises,

deductive application of rules, filling in the blanks, using words in sentences, and writing starting from a reading text as a model (ibid).

The main principles behind those techniques are summarised according to Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2000) as follows:

- reading written literary text translation from the target language to the mother language,
- communication in the mother tongue is allowed,
- the primary skill is reading and writing,
- the teacher is the authority in the classroom,
- learning correctly the forms and rules of the target language is important, and
- language is learnt through memorization

*1.2.7.1.2 The new method: the aural-oral method (1969-1975).* In 1969/70, Due to needs for specialised FL pedagogy, new manuals have been designed based on the audio-lingual method. The purpose was to:

Improve the standard of English in Algeria and to make it corresponds more closely to our needs, a new textbook has been introduced [...] this textbook \_success with English\_ is based on the conclusions of present-day linguistics and language teaching\_\_ It, therefore, represents a change from traditional textbooks, and requires from the teacher a different approach." (Ministry of Education, 1970, p.5, as cited in Hayane, 1989, p. 180). Unlike Grammar translation that has no theory (Richard and Rodgers, 1986); the Audio-Lingual Method built upon a strong theoretical base derived from linguistics (theories of language) and psychology (views on learning) that are converted into pedagogical concepts.



Firstly, language is redefined as *communication*: Defining language as communication implies considering it as culturally and contextually embedded. Classroom practices, then, focus on the daily activities of the target language community. In this respect, "Language is situational" (Ministry of Education, p. 18 cited in Hayane, 1989, p. 187). The pupils must practise the language in a meaningful context, in situations that actually occur.

Secondly, Accordingly, language learning is based on conditioning and stimuli to form new habits (Freeman and Anderson, 2011). Language learning is regarded as a mechanical process: "Language is a habit. Language teaching in the early stages is habit teaching [in that] learning a language is like learning to drive a car or playing the piano. If the pupils practise the different language skills, they will acquire correct language habits" Ministry of Education, p. 7 cited in Hayane, 1989, p. 184-185).

*1.2.7.2 Writing skill under the structural approach.* Teaching and learning writing under Structural-based teaching had different constraints. The teacher might not ask students to produce what they had not practised before as stated in the ministry publication:

The pupils will hear you [teacher] present the new language items in a real situation. Only when they have heard the new structure and understood the situation can they begin to practise it themselves. In the same way, we should not expect them to read anything that they have not practised orally first, and we should not expect them to write anything unless they have experience of hearing it, saying it and reading it"

(Ministry of Education p. 18 cited in Hayane, 1989, p. 187).

It is apparent in this respect that structural-based teaching strongly neglected student writers' intellectual ability and knowledge.

In addition to learning a habit, segmentation had yet been essential principles as stated by in Hayane (1989) in Fries' words (1945):

Language is structural. We break the language down into separate items and give the pupils practice in using each item. Our unit of teaching is the sentence, not the word the different sentences from the structure of the language. We present each structure systematically and step by step (P. 186).

Writing skill accordingly was treated superficially, in that it was defined as s " [s]ounds grouped together and represented by letters he makes" (teacher's Guides, 1970, P.7). Also, speaking and listening had gained more importance than writing. It is argued that, "Language is understanding before expression". Skills are practised within the classroom respecting their natural order just like first language acquisition The four skills are: Hearing\_\_Speaking\_\_Reading\_\_Writing. Each new language item should be taught in that order". (Ministry of Education, p. 18 as cited in Hayane, 1989, p. 186-187).

Teaching writing was the last step in the teaching unit and skills were treated in isolation from each other. The students first listen to a Dialogue (which is a basic mode for presenting language structures) to memorise new structure. When reading, the students' task is to recognise and associate the printed forms with the spoken form they have already heard and pronounced. The last lesson in the teaching unit is writing that mainly aims to support learning the language and to consolidate remembering spoken language. The following quotation, best illustrates the point: "Before he can write the learner must be able to both to read and to shape the letters of the alphabet. He should ideally be able to say the sentences which he expected to write. For writing is not primarily a means of teaching the language; it is an aid to remembering it." (the Teacher' Guide, 1970, P. 13 as cited in Hayane, 1989, P. 213).

Accordingly, the main teaching procedures in a writing lesson are listed as follows:

- a) the teacher uses a picture.
- b) Pupils answer questions on the board and pupils copy.
- c) teacher deletes words, students complete the sentences.
- d) students write short text from memory or complete substitution tables (Teachers' Guide, 1970, cited in Hayane, 1989).

Teaching writing, in such a way, aims to repeat language behaviours, or namely *to drill*.

Drilling was an important teaching technique that has different aims: a) assuring confidence, b) correct practices, c) automatic language habits, c) teaching new structures", d) consolidating, e) testing, and providing feedback. (Hayane, 1989).

*1.2.7.2.1 The direct method (1970-1975).* Due to the unsatisfactory teaching outcomes, on 30 September 1970, the ministry published new manuals to solve the inadequacy of the old one. Although publications of the Ministry of education did not clearly state the approach adopted. Hayane (1989) perceives that the reformulation owned mixed characteristics between the direct method and the natural method which is another face of structural orientation.

The main principle of the direct method is the disfavour of translation into the mother tongue. Meaning is to be conveyed directly in the target language through the use of demonstration and visual aids. Having communication as a central teaching goal, the emphasis was given to the use of everyday vocabulary and structures and new words are explained by means of known words. Meaning is taught by inference from the situation. Also, a specific care was given to the notion linguistic competence. Grammar was redefined as descriptive and records how language is used. Grammar was taught within situations of uses; a rule of grammar was figured out inductively from examples given by the teacher that was a reaction against habit formation teaching.

Despite the fact that the structural approach widely spread in teaching FL in general, it imposes many drawbacks with regard to the teaching of FL writing in particular. To start with, a written text is viewed as signs on that should be organised according to a system of rules. Learning is confined only to mastering linguistic knowledge. Second, teaching writing, then, was not an aim for its own. The writer is totally passive, he/she is

not an active processor of discourse (Silva, 1990). Our justifications can be perceived in the following words:

Before he can write the learner must be able to both to read and to shape the letters of the alphabet. He should ideally be able to say the sentences which he is expected to write. For writing is not primarily a means of teaching the language: it is an aid to remembering it. (the teacher's Guide, 1970, P. 13 quoted in Hayane, 1989, P. 213).

In addition, the teacher is the doer of everything. He/she is an "archestra leader" (Freshman and Anderson, 2011).

*1.2.7.3 Communicative language learning (the mid 80s-2000).* Ten years of teaching under structural approach "[...] has shown that while students achieve relative mastery of the grammatical structures and patterns [...] When it comes to doing transformation exercises, they are much less successful when they have to understand a written passage or write an essay." (Teacher's Book, 1985: as quoted in Doufene, 2007, P.14)

The mid-eighties had witnessed the application of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). It mainly had sprung as a reaction to Chomsky's theory of syntactic structure (1957) in that it implies the characterization of the underlying ability of language speaker that enables him to produce grammatically correct sentences.

The British linguists, on the other hand, stressed on the functional aspect of language (Richard and Rogers, 2002). Many language pedagogies in the world have noticed that communicative abilities require not only mastering linguistic structures. For example, Widdowson (1978) claims that learners who master some the rules of linguistic usage are usually unable to use the language: Within a social context, students need to perform certain functions, such as promising, inviting, and declining invitations.

A fusion of theories of British functional linguists, such as Firth and Halliday, as well as American sociolinguists, such as Hymes (1967) and Labov (1972), and ideas on philosophy of Austin (1975) and Searle (1969) on speech acts are essential constructs of communicative competence that was an important shift in the field (cited in Freeman and Anderson, 2001).

Accordingly, new concepts have been introduced in the teaching of the writing skill. The audience and the purpose of a piece of writing are stressed. Students are encouraged to produce their communicative acts they encounter in reality and to ask: 'why they are writing?', and 'who will read it?'. Moreover, the audience was extended to include not only the teacher, also all the members of the classroom, since the student writers perform effectively when they are engaged in sending real communicative acts to a defined readership (Raime, 1983).

The other key concepts of CLT are summarised as follows:

- Language functions are more important than its form;
- Functions are to be presented in real context and it is better to introduce authentic language;
- The Focus is the intended meaning. Language is vehicle of communication it is not an end in itself;
- One communicative function can have different language forms;
- The unit of Language use is at the discourse level, thus coherence and cohesion are to be mastered;
- Language practices should resample real-life contexts (e.g. games);
- Students should be given the freedom to speak and express their opinions;
- Errors are natural and result from the development of communicative skills;

- Communicative interactions stimulate the student's cooperation thus more opportunities for meaning negotiation;
- Appropriate use of language forms is part of communicative competence; and
- The teacher is a facilitator and counsellor and a manager of communicative interactions (Freeman & Anderson, 2000).

Having these leading principles, textbooks have been designed to meet certain teaching objectives. Tables (1) and (2) best illustrate the difference between the two teaching approaches, structural-based and Communicative or functional syllabus.

Number	Key Structures
01	Word Order in Simple ,Compound and Complex Sentences
02	Continuous and Present Simple Present Tenses.
03	Simple Past Tense
04	Simple and Continuous Present Perfect Tenses
05	Simple Past and present Perfect Tenses Compared
06	Articles; Some and Any.
07	Continuous Past Tense; Used to; Would.
08	Comparatives and Superlatives; as.... as; Not so...as Expressions of Quantity
09	Prepositions of Time and Place
10	Passive Voice
11	Simple Future Tense; Going to; Present Continuous with Future Meaning.
12	Continuous Future Tense; Simple and Continuous Future Perfect.
13	Simple and Continuous Past Perfect Tenses.
14	Indirect Speech in Statements Questions and Imperatives.
15	Conditional Sentences (If + Present, Past and Past Perfect)
16	Must ;Have to ;Need ;Should and Ought to
17	Have and Have Got.
18	Can; May; Be able to; Manage to.
19	Gerund
20	Prepositions after Verbs and Adjectives.

**Table 1: The Mid-Seventies Structural Graded Syllabus**  
( Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, 1973, p. 63-64)

Source	Unit	Function	Topic
New lines	01	Describing People	Four Friends
	02	Describing People's Regular Activities	Rachid's Day
	06	Instructing	How to Make a Piece of Equipment
My New Book of English	03	Describing a Place	The British Isles
	04	Narrating	Djeha's Stories
	05	Planning Future Activities	A Tunnel Under the Sea
	07	Describing a Process	How Nescafe is Manufactured

**Table 1: An Example of Communicative Functional syllabus  
(Ministry of Education, 1998-99)**

Table (1-2) clearly illustrates the main focus of CLT. Items of the syllabus are classified in terms of communicative functions, unlike the structural-graded syllabus (Table 1.1) lessons are listed in terms of grammatical elements. Communicative syllabus integrates communicative functions with the appropriate social context, that is activated in topics such as *the British Isles* and *Four Friends*.

In this respect knowledge of the language is enacted through knowledge of society Hymes' words: "The acquisition of such competence [communicative competence] is of course fed by social experience, needs, and motives, and issues in action that itself a renewed source of motives, needs, experience." (Hymes 1972: 275). For this reason, CLT is characterised as 'learning by experience' or 'the direct practice of communicative acts' (Richard and Roger, 2001, P. 158).

Classroom practices are designed, then, so as to encourage the fulfilment of certain communication for functions. Fluency, interaction cohesion and coherence were strongly emphasised in the classroom through activities such as ordering scrambled sentences, information gap exercises, role plays, language games, and problem-solving tasks, group and pair work (Freeman and Anderson, 2011). In this respect "the materials and activities [help] to show the students what they can do with language forms and to provide for the

immediate use of the language." (Teacher's book. 1985-1986, P. 3 quoted in Doufene, 2007, P.16).

Although CLT has no underlying learning theory, it gained a wide interest in the world. However for Richards and Rodgers (2001), CLT was not safe from the negative criticisms which can be summarised as follows: a) CLT framework complies with the notional syllabus suggested by Wilkins (1979) that mainly characterised by the specification of semantic-grammar categories and types of communicative functions needed such as those listed in Table (1.2). British linguists view that CLT functions are considered as superior elements to grammar. This direct replacement had not yet focused on the process, rather it was still the product. Widdowson (1979) furtherly clarifies the point:

Only a very partial and imprecise description of certain semantic and pragmatic rules which are used for reference when people interact: they tell us nothing about the procedures people employed in the application of these rules when they are actually engaged in the communicative activity. If we are to adopt a communicative approach to teaching which takes as its primary purpose the development of the ability to do things with language, then it is discourse which must be at the centre of our attention. (Widdowson, 1979, P.254). According to Widdowson, the functional level is only part of communication ability since communication requires also knowing procedures language users actually do with language.

*1.2.7.4 Competency-Based Teaching (2002- present day).* Having such recommendations, and due to the inevitable changes that touch all aspects of life, economy, culture, etc, and the globalisation of the world, reformulations then have been conducted by the ministry of national education in 2002. The Competency-Based Approach (hereafter



CBA) has been adopted as an alternative to CLT. The approach is described as "rather than being linked to the performance of specific real-world tasks. CBT thus shares some features with Communicative Language Teaching but with particular emphasis on the later"(Richards and Roegers, 2001, P. 143).

The CBT implies different constructs. It is based on functionalist and internationalists view on language. Language is perceived as the medium of interpersonal interaction through which people accomplish certain purposes. The learning theory underlies the CBT is composed of cognitive and socio-constructivist conceptions that based twofold principles: a) learning is contrastive entails the fact that learning is best promoted as students understand current information through referring to prior knowledge and experiences; b) learning is best promoted through social processing of language with others (Ibid).

The CBT is a vital shift the teaching of Writing skill, in that it is a transition from

[...] a paradigm of accumulation and transmission of linguistic knowledge and ideas to a paradigm of interaction and integration, all within a social constructivist view of learning. Focusing on the learner will enable him to be actively engaged in deeper cognition, acquisition of knowledge and development of a number of competencies. (Ministry of National Education, 2015, p. 4).

The main key concepts adopted in CBA are summarised according to Richards and Rogers (2001) as follows:

- Proficient communication in society.
- Acquiring both language forms/skills required for particular real-life situations.

- Learner-centered approach: all teaching elements (objectives, materials, tasks ...) are determined by students' needs analysis.
- Task- or performance-centred orientation
- Modularized instruction (objectives are segmented into sub-objectives for the sake of explicit and clear progression).
- Outcomes are explicit and predetermined at the beginning of the course.
- Continuous and ongoing assessment.

*1.2.7.4.1 Writing skill under CBA.* In contrast to the traditional approaches that consider skills separately and having no interaction with each other. In CBA skills and competencies are promoted in integration rather than in isolation in that "competencies are interdependent and evolving. Any incomplete acquisition of one will hinder the acquisition of the others. In addition, an important role is given to strategies (strategic competence) in order to foster effective learning" (Ministry of National Education, 2015, p. 4).

Having the social and intellectual principles discussed so far, Writing in CBA is approached as a problem-solving activity and context-based communication. The students check, expect, overcome obstacles, and suggest solutions to real-life issues. The following example best illustrates the point:

- *Prepare a short public statement saying what you would do to fight corruption if you were elected mayor of your town (New Prospects, P52).*

After the topic is set up for the students. The teacher constructs the writing task in steps so as to move from easy objectives to higher order objectives. As CBA is output-oriented and performance-based, the teacher focuses on characterising what the learner will do with language (tasks). The above-illustrated topic of Think, Pair, Share rubric is followed with instructions whereby students undergo different cognitive stages in order to be able to act or produce well in the suggested situation, such as the following:

- *Work individually select three ideas from the thesis statements in the essay structure below.*
- *Jot down details about the ideas you have selected as follows...*
- *Write a first draft essay using the structure provided above. Then exchange the drafts with your partner for error checking.*
- *Write a revised version and share your ideas with the class. (ibid, P29)*

These cognitive stages are brainstorming, drafting, and revision.

A writing task is undertaken in a social interaction framework that complies with the notion of "social constructivism" (acknowledged by Vygotsky, 1978). Again, the best example of cooperative learning strategy is Think, Pair, Share, rubric. After the teacher introduces the topic and sets the task, he/she divides the students into pairs. They write, then exchange and share their ideas with others in the same peer so as to provide feedback. Also, writing tasks are functionally-oriented. The students are supposed to select certain forms (that have been taught previously) to perform certain communicative functions. These are classified according to the students needs to meet social or academic requirements, for example writing an argumentative, Writing the description of an ideal school.

1.2.7.4.2. The drawbacks of CBA. Since the CBA is currently used in the Algerian educational system teaching deficiencies are still resulting. However, CBT is one of the topics that give birth to a heated debate and many contradiction among researchers and teachers. To the researchers' knowledge, despite the fact that CBT focuses on mastering competencies and doing things with the language through putting the learner in the centre of the learning and teaching process, teaching practices decentralise the learner- focused orientation: there is lack of interactive strategies and techniques in a writing course that leads to authentic language productions, in that written tasks are conducted as a

homework. There is no guarantee that students produce written texts themselves (Richards and Rodgers, 2011).

At a broad context, many practical and philosophical criticisms are directed toward CBA. Tollefson (1986) claims that there are no accurate procedures to develop certain competencies needed for the program. Moreover, there are traces of structuralist view that lies on the notion of modularizing instructions or objectives i. e, "the sum of parts does not equal the whole ". In addition, it is prescriptive as the focus is on thinking skills to be promoted through maintaining classroom relationships rather than focusing on outcomes of such as behaviours (Cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2011).

## Conclusion

Having analysed the teaching approaches, a comprehensible view is constructed on how writing skill is treated in each of the frameworks adopted which are further summarised in the following table.

<b>Structural Approach</b>	<b>Communicative Language Teaching</b>	<b>Competency Based Language Teaching</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Aims at mastering structures</li> <li>-teacher –centred</li> <li>-Non contextualised language</li> <li>-Language is thought through drilling and over teaching</li> <li>-"language is a habit"</li> <li>-Focus on grammar</li> <li>-Units are ordered in terms of linguistic complexity.</li> <li>-speaking is primary</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Communicating purposefully</li> <li>-Learner-centred</li> <li>-Contextualised language use</li> <li>-Language is learnt in communication</li> <li>-Language is functional</li> <li>-focus on form and meaning relationship</li> <li>-Units are ordered in terms of functions</li> <li>- holistic view on Language skills</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Performing appropriately in society</li> <li>-Learner-centred, and outcome-focused</li> <li>-Contextualised language use</li> <li>-Language is learnt through social interaction and collaborative learning</li> <li>Language is functional and interactional</li> <li>-focus on language,socio-cognitive skills, and knowledge.</li> <li>-Units are ordered in terms of small objectives, tasks, or cognitive processes</li> <li>- Skills are taught in integration and practised in peers</li> </ul>

**Table 2: A Summary of the Teaching Approaches to FLW**

It is evident, then that each framework was adopted as a reaction to the inadequacies of the preceding one. Teaching writing is not a matter of promoting one area at the expense

of many other, as communication either written or spoken is dynamically involve dealing with aspects of knowledge and abilities. To the researcher's experience, different signs of superficial accounts could be perceived. In methods such as controlled writing students are provided with minimum elements without any contextual information. In such a way, they start to perform strictly prescribed options and produce a decontextualised text. The focus, also, is yet on the content. In addition, one could refer the unsatisfactory outcomes at university after students have received eight years of tuition in English to lack of having an elected nature of the play of words. Writing teachers need to be acquainted with teaching model that consideres the needs of the students, the characteristics and recurrent patterns and knowlege of EFL Written disourse so as to effentively teach the writing skill from a wholistic and interactive view rather than from atomistti view.

## **CHAPTER TWO: Written Discourse Analysis (WDA)**

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## **Introduction**

As the main theoretical assumption of the research is formed with the fact that “It is in discourse and through discourse that all of the other competencies are realised. And it is in discourse and through discourse that the manifestation of the other competencies can best be observed, researched and assessed.”(Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, P.1). In other word, DA is an essential unit of teaching writing ( including classroom interaction and practice, evaluation). The present chapter provides an overview of the general framework DA and WDA. It firstly provides a discussion of the preliminaries concepts, including discourse, context, and text. Also, the main approaches to the field are explained, highlighting the correlation between DA findings and ELT in general, and FLW in particular. WDA is defined and its background is reviewed.

### **2.1 Discourse Analysis**

Discourse analysis as an interdisciplinary research domain is so well institutionalised and defined as the study of language. However, the researcher finds it reasonable to dwell for a bit on the different conceptualizations of discourse analysis, and to delineate for the reader the nature of WDA in our investigation.

The frequently cited definition in the literature on DA is 'the study of language use' (Trappes-Lomax, 2004). Different implications of this broad definition could be figured out. Van Dijk, (1997) confined it to the examination of language above the sentence level, focusing on the way textual units are hung together. Put another way, the purpose of the analysis is to look for such features: relationships, arrangements, and connectedness which are merely textual.

The definition does not provide any specifications of nature of, concerning what aspect of language uses involved. A more reconcilable, and specific view on DA is

provided by Brown and Yule (1983) when they draw the line of discourse analysis as: “The study of discourse is necessary, the study of language uses. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve human affairs.” ( p. 1). Brown and Yule's view of DA complies with the functional perspective wherein how purposes and functions are realised through the system of discourse.

Trappes-Lomax (2004) refers to the first thrust as 'language as text' (structural perspective) and to the second 'language as event' (i.e. functional perspective). In addition to these, he points out to two other views: the first is language performance orientation (interactional) that sheds lights on what is happening, who and how, i.e the dynamics of the process users make that usually takes place in spontaneous and direct interactions. The second is language as a framework of knowledge and social power that helps to understand the interpretation of discourse users' relations in the way they use language.

The different conceptualisation on DA is due to the fact that the study of discourse necessitates overlapping language studies namely, psychology, and, social sciences. However, they are common in their focus on language use and context (Dijk,1997; Gee, Hendford, 2013; Yule, 2010; Flowerdew, 2013).

To impose restrictions on DA we opt for, discourse analysis has got two aspects: The first involves theoretical analysis of written/spoken texts. DA involves, for example, grammar discourse analysis, text linguistics, genre analysis and communication discourse analysis that look at language use within specific institutionalised contexts. The second aspect is applied discourse analysis, concerned with the implementation of analysis (such as speech analysis and genre analysis) for pedagogical purposes, for example, teaching writing skill (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000) that is the main concern of this study.



## 2.2 The context

The context is one of the elements that Chomskian generative grammar paid scant attention to, and it was emerged by the publication of Harris's *Discourse Analysis* in (1952), and later the notion of context in its broad sense and the ability of considering it in society was the core of Hymes' (1964) work in sociolinguistics. Currently, Context is unseparated element in the study of language use. It is generally defined as the environment in which the linguistic productions occur that involves "other characteristics of the social situation or the communicative event that may systematically influence text/talk." (p. 3).

Many researchers have become interested in the characterization of different components of the context of the situation. Most of the stated elements (Paltridge, 2006; Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000; and others) fall into three categories: 1) situational context, the physical features of the environment such as the participants, social setting; 2) background knowledge, what is previously known by the interlocutors either in terms of prior discourse or cultural, interpersonal, and 3) social knowledge.

Different accounts of the nature of these extra-linguistic components have been provided. Fairth (1957) accounts for the context of the situation based on correlation to the language events, that involves the relevant features of participants, their verbal and non-verbal actions, the effects of the verbal action and relevant objects (Fairth, 1957, as cited in Widdowson, 2004). Widdowson disagrees with the language event- correlated context, since it lacks clarification code-context relation, and there is an 'opposition' between language as an abstract system and context as concrete components of communicative acts.

Widdowson (ibid), on the other hand, agrees with Hymes' classification of the context into setting and scene and he alternatively used the terms situation and context.

Accordingly, the context is ‘some schema of components of speech acts’. The setting refers to ‘the time and the place of speech act and to the physical circumstances.’ The scene ‘designates “the psychological” setting, or the cultural definition of an occasion’ (Hymes, 1974, p.55, quoted in Widdowson, *ibid*). The first is concrete and mainly stands for the setting adopting Hymes’ definition. The second one is abstract, in this respect, the situation stands for the scene.

Halliday and Hasan (1991) provide a consistent analysis of the context of the situation to present the co-occurrence of sociolinguistic elements. The first is the *field*, the subject matter or the nature of the social interaction. The second is the *tone*, the social relation between interactants or who are taking part. The third component is the *mode*, the rhetoric function of discourse in context.

The context has a significant role in the analysis of WD. It is a basic source that helps interpretation through the appropriate realisation of text-context relationship. According to Widdowson (2004) misinterpretation mainly occurs when a discourse maker (reader or writer) fails to make that connection. Schiffrine (1994) also regards context as the text in that both are essential sources for identifying the communicative content.

### **2.3 Approaches to Discourse Analysis**

It seems reasonable to go in depth in the frameworks of DA to understand how to carry out the process. As discussed in section (2.4), although the history of discourse analysis is less than 50 years, it has maintained its roots taking insight from multi-disciplinary findings. Even it is ironic to say that discourse analysis is a discipline for itself; rather it is “a pursuit in danger of evaporating into others” (Cook, 1989, p. 13).

In general, DA approaches can be categorised into two categories depending on the aspect of language analysed: formal and functional approaches. The first orientation

involves the examination of structural components how they are held together as a whole. Bhatia (2004) elucidates that surface-level analysis involves dealing with aspects such as phonology lexico-grammar, semantic, and organisational aspects. The analyst considers inter-textual and structural knowledge as important insights of discourse production.

In the second trend, however, the primary subject of the analysis is not much concerned with formal textual connectedness as much as with the communicative force of written discourse since language product itself is viewed as " a type of communicative action" (p.2). The pursuit of DA can, therefore, focus on different aspects of language use: how language is used to do something? How is language used in a particular discourse genre? How is language used by a particular social group? Such questions fall within the scope of speech act analysis, genre analysis, and register analysis respectively wherein the analyst looks at actions, purposes, or language features that individuals of particular group exploit and that identify them as belonging to one group (Flowerdrew, 2013).

### **2.3.1 *Speech Act Theory***

Within speech act framework, language is regarded as a means of performing actions. Act analysis considers the underlying conditions of its production and interpretation that is to say, actions language performs (Schiffirine, 2006). The factors affect meaning-making in the context of situation include the physical context, social, mental world and roles of participants as meaning is dynamic in nature as the process of meaning-making involves intercession between those contextual clues and utterances and between utterances themselves and the meaning assigned to them ( Paltridge, 2006).

Two works stimulated pragmatics in general and the speech act as an approach to discourse analysis in its own: John Austin and John Searle. They supposed that words often do things, rather than transmit information. Searle (1969) builds on the work of

Austin through his philosophical reasoning: How do people create speech act in relation to the world they are in? How is a speech act classified? What is the difference between the literal meaning of a word and the intended meaning? In which way can an utterance convey more than one speech act? The rationale of his work is based on the fact that the linguistic form or even the function of a sentence is not only responsible for stating facts *viz* the problem occurs when the listener/reader do not understand what is beyond the function that is the invisible meaning.

The underlying idea behind Searle's (1969) work is that meanings or functions (illocutions) are reached through utterances (locutions). In other words, "whatever can be meant can be said" (p.20) that is Searle's principle of expressibility. Expressibility is governed by means of rules and conditions. As to rules, they involve two types; constitutive rules (create or define new forms of behaviour), and regulative rules (regulates the existing form). As to conditions, they can be either textual or contextual. Meaning assigning depend on the necessity of the act itself and on the nature of such elements. This approach combines the study of meaning and linguistic system (Schiffrin,1994)

Speech Act theory foregrounded innate communicative features of communicative interactions. Specifically, examining the relation between "...what the speaker means" (the invisible meaning) and "what the sentence (or another linguistic element ) uttered means..." ( Searle, 1969, p.21). He labels what is said, i.e. the literal meaning of the word as 'illocutionary acts'. What illocutionary act really is, what is verbally accomplished by what is said is the illocutionary act. The effect achieved by performing the illocutionary act is a perlocutionary act (ibid). such insight, i.e. the components of our speech act is crucial in the analysis of discourse.

The heart of speech act theory is the notion of illocutionary effects as opposed to location act. Thus, Searle classified them into five illocutions on the basis of analysing the conditions they occur in such as the relationship between the interlocutors, their interests, or the sequences of the illocutionary act. These are:

- a) representative (how things are)
- b) directives (the hearer is directed to do an action)
- c) commissives (the speaker himself perform an action)
- d) expressive (involves actions of expressing feelings and emotions), and
- e) declarative (the reality change when performing the act) (Schiffrine, 1994).

Though speech act is criticised, in terms of there are no clear-cut or direct mapping of functions to forms (Turnbull, 2003); Rose & Kasper (2002), the act as the basic unit for analysis is implemented in different investigations. By way of illustrations, the speech act as a unit of analysis is present in ethnographic models of communication of Hymes', Sinclairs' and Coulthard's model of discourse analysis, and conversation analysis.

Such findings explicitly account for the role of the receiver in the process of meaning making and the action he/she would fulfil. Meaning according to speech act perspective is figured out according to when the receiver ends up with the same thought have been coded, unlike communication models that proposed during the 1930s such as Shannon and Weaver (1949) in Turnbull (2003), namely the code model, that based on coding and decoding processes.

Say, in Seale' taxonomy and accounts for the connections between speech act components, he recognised the role of inference and explains that communication does not depend on conventionalized meaning that a sentence or its elements have to mean is

modulated by the context. Also, what is conveyed is not always identical with, or goes beyond what has been literally said: It is the intended meaning that is inferred.

In addition, speech acts are part of linguistic competence (their creation and interpretation is partially formed by rules of language). The structure of the actors and their interpretation are shared between the receiver and producer of language acts. Last but not least, act is limited, however, one locution can convey multiple illocutions. This is the case of indirect speech act, in which the locutionary and the illocutionary act differ from each other (in contrast to direct speech act, when both of the two coincide). They are interpreted according to the context and the shared knowledge (Schiffrin, 1994).

### ***2.3.2 Ethnography of Communication***

Anthropologists and linguists are totally distinct disciplines in terms of the methods they use, the problems they investigate, and the nature of data they analyze; however, they are both interested in communication: Language is a medium of communication. Communication understanding for a linguist is as important as for an anthropologist since it is part of culture. Ethnography of Communication (hence, EOC) is an approach to DA that stems from the common interest of the two areas (Schiffrin, 1994).

For Saville-Troike (2003) EOC finds out and examines rules for contextually appropriate behaviour in a community or group, or what the individual needs to know to be a functional member of the community. For Davies and Elder, (2004) is the study of the place of language in culture and society. Actually, EOC refers to Dell Hymes article entitled "*The Ethnography of Communication*", in 1964 when proposed «communicative competence» as an alternative to «linguistic competence» proposed by Chomsky. Hymes added a flexible aspect to language analysis when he claims that linguistic competence covers the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences. Communicative competence

should include how such formal aspects are appropriate to the Socio-cultural context of language use. (Gee and Handforl, 2013). Hymes elaborates this clearly in the following:(1962)

What [forms of language] are used, where and when, among whom, and for what purpose and with what result, to say what, in which way; subject to what norms of interaction and interpretation; as instances of what speech acts and genres of speaking? How do community and personal beliefs, values and practices impinge upon the use of language, and upon the acquisition of such language by children? (p. 8).

Members of community Such knowledge exploit to organise interaction to fit their large community. They are part of communicative competence and cultural knowledge (Schiffrin, 1994).

EOC looks at data considering certain questions: what does a speaker need to know to communicate appropriately with a particular speech community, and how does he or she learn to do so? This paradigm focus, then on the following types of knowledge: linguistic rules, communicative rules of communication (sociolinguistic and linguistic), and cultural rules (Saville\_Tjroike, 1982, p. 2).

The main contribution of Hymes (1972) is a grid for identifying the different facets of a communicative event. These components were formulated and signalled in his mnemonic device SPEAKING, each letter stands for the following components:

- (S): (Settings and scenes) Setting refers to the physical circumstances, time, place. Scene refers to the psychological or cultural definitions of the event;
- (P): (Participants) Who are involved, as either speaker/ listener, audience;
- (E): (End include) Goals refer to what is expected to be achieved in any event and outcomes refer to what is actually achieved;

- (A): (Acts) are particular types of utterances such as requests, commands, and greetings;
- (K): (keys) include the tone, manner, and spirit in which acts are done;
- (I): (Instrumentalities or the channel being used) the particular language or language varieties used and the mode of communication (spoken, written); and
- (N): (Norms of interaction) rules of speaking, who can say what, when, and how in addition to Norms of interpretation refer to the conventions surrounding how any speech may be interpreted (Gee and Hanford, 2013).

Hymes (1972) sets up key concepts for the analysis of discourse. Some of them have been stated throughout the discussion; however, it is useful to define them explicitly. A) Speech community is of primary focus that is defined as " a community sharing rules for the contact and interpretation of speech,[ sociological and cultural rules] and rules for interpretation of at least one linguistic variety [ linguistic rules]." ( p.54 as quoted from Schiffrin, 1994). B) A speech event is the basic unit of the analysis defined by Saville-Troike (2003) as

"A single event is defined by a unified set of components throughout, beginning with the same general purpose of communication, the same general topic, and involving the same participants, generally using the same language variety, maintaining the same tone or key and the same rules for interaction, in the same setting." ( p. 23).

They are carried out through communicative means such as speeches, sermons, prayers, classroom lessons, etc. C) communicative situation is the context in which speech events occur any social situation in which speech is an element (ibid).

EOC aims not only at describing and understanding how people communicate in specific settings. It seeks to formulate meta-theory wherein the global theory of communication. In addition to the categorization of communicative behaviour, EOC 's



insights can serve anthropology, psychology, sociolinguistics, applied linguistics, theoretical linguistics domains to formulate insights into a theory of language and linguistics (Saville-Troike, 1982).

### **2.3.3 *Pragmatics***

Pragmatics is one of the approaches to the study of language meaning in use within its broad context (Brown and Yule, 2010). It is similar to semantics in the subject of study (meaning), however, each of the two approaches two different aspects of meaning: In the former framework, the analyst looks at the conventionalized meaning, what is conveyed in words, phrases, and sentences, namely the 'conceptual meaning'. However, the latter investigates meaning as it is bounded by the context and the speaker's communicative intention; it is the study of 'invisible meaning' or inferred meaning.

The most relevant definition of pragmatics to language pedagogy according to Rose and Kasper (2001-2002) is suggested by Crystal's (1997): pragmatics is "the study of language from the point of view of the user, especially the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effect their language has on other participants in the act of communication." (p. 301).

The investigation of pragmatic use in a second language falls within the scope of interlanguage pragmatics, such as the study of Rose and Kasper (2002) investigation. They approach it as an acquired or learnable process, focusing the progressive aspect of L2 learners' abilities of pragmatic production and comprehension. The main areas of interest in interlanguage pragmatics are speech acts, conversational structure, and conversational implicature.

The study of language act in use, in this respect, has two interfaces: Pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics according to Leech, (1983) and Thomas (1983).

Pragmalinguistic involves pragmatic strategies and linguistic forms used for softening communicative acts and interpersonal meanings. The second, however, comprises the social perceptions underlying participants' interpretations and performances of communicative acts. Mastering both of them require dealing with form-function relationship, and social appropriateness (Thomas, 1983, as cited in Kasper and Rose, 2002).

Discourse study.. is the study of the situational uses of the potentials of the language. Discourse is constituted by ``text."...The particular province of discourse study. .excludes, on the one hand, merely linguistic or semantic analyses and, on the other, aspects of the situational context and cultural context. But whenever either the linguistic or the metapragmatic considerations can throw light on text as such, they become subordinately relevant to discourse analysis. (Kinneavy, 1971, pp. 22-24quoted in Kaplan and Grabe, 2002 )

Normally, both of two interfaces of pragmatic are investigated EFL context. However, the weight is given more to pragmalinguistic, although sociopragmatics is the trickiest matter to be handled in the classroom. Researchers focus on uses of pragmalinguistic components, such as discourse markers and strategies such as in House and Kasper (1981), or realisations of different speech act, such as predictive categories in expository text by Tadros (2002). However, the finding of such investigations is not yet tested in practice in ESL classroom, as well in terms of their effectiveness on learners. (Ibid).

The theory which becomes the " the hub of Pragmatic research" is Gricean pragmatics (Fasold, 1990, p. 128 quoted from Schiffrin, 1994). Grice (1957) noticed that

speakers can infer meanings apart from that of what is literally said, namely *implicature*. He is interested in investigating how speaker's meaning is deduced? (Schiffrin, 1994).

He thus comes up with an important idea, namely, co-operative principle. A set of questions were asked such why are people co-operate? Why they use language in accordance with norms? After he had noticed that people co-operate when designing their utterances. Grice reasoning is formed by his observation of people's rational or social contract. The social contract among people involves shared principle: People naturally know how they should interact with communication. Discourse making, then, is 'a form of collaborative social action' Jaworski and Coupland (1999, P. 49). In that, speakers contribute to making their talk 'truthful', 'informative', 'relevant', and 'clear' (Woods, 2006).

These are summarised as the main principles of this collaboration in terms of maxims: 1) Quality (saying enough bits of information). 2) Relevance (saying things related to the topic). 3) Manner (saying a thing in an organised way to facilitate interpretation). 4) Quantity (speaking honestly truly). If there is breaking down in such a rule, interpretation can hardly be achieved. The Gricean theory provides ways of analysing an underlying facet of communication: intention (ibid).

#### **2.3.4 Genre Analysis**

Bhatia (2004) generally defines genre analysis (thus GA) as the study of situated linguistic behaviour in institutionalised academic or professional settings, " (p.22). He cited different terms or conceptualizations of GA: as in Miller (1984) 'typification of rhetorical action', or Baserman (1994) 'regularities of staged, goal-oriented social processes', (Martin, Chritie & Rothery, 1987).

Ferris (2003), Johns (1997, 2003) and others outline three different groups of schools conducting genre research: (1) The Sydney School, based on the Systemic Functional Linguistics approach; (2) English for specific purposes (ESP) researchers (John Swales (1990); and (3) the New Rhetoric group, composed mainly of North American rhetoricians and compositionists (e.g., Freedman & Medway, 1994; Herrington & Moran, 2005).

Whatever perspective of their analysis, the main common assumptions of GA studies summarised according to Bhatia (2004) in what follows:

- Any genre has a recognisable communicative event, communicative purposes, mutual understanding, members of a discourse community, regular occurrence.
- Genres are 'highly structured and conventionalized' and have constraints for both expressing through lexico-grammar resources and giving discourse values.
- Members of a discourse community have shared knowledge on the genre uses more than newcomers to discourse community.
- In genre creation, members of discourse community use generic resources to express 'private and organisational intentions within the formation of 'socially-based communicative purpose.
- The disciplinary and organisational cultures are reflected in the social, professional practices.
- Genres are recognised through a set of textual, discursive and contextual factors as all professional and disciplinary practices have their own principles.

There is relation between genre approach and teaching of FL writing. Genres are recognized by the real-world contexts in which texts are produced. They involve definable features of texts produced for specific audiences or discourse communities, newcomers to

DC analyse the characteristics of those text-types so that the target audiences understand and accept them. The main attribute of genres are:

- Text types are “actions we want to accomplish” (Miller, 1984, p. 151)
- They reflect “ways in which people get things done through their use of language in particular contexts” (Paltridge in Johns et al. 2006, p 236); and
- They are “purposeful, social, and situated” (Johns, 2009, p. 2005).
- Simultaneously include “repeated or conventional features” and also “situational” features (2009, p.206).

As such, several key concerns are to be considered when investigating that ‘class of communicative event’ (Swales, 1990, p. 58). These are: the 1) communicative event is an activity wherein language ‘plays both a significant and indispensable role’ (Swales, 1990, p. 45). For Bahatia, (1993) the communicative event is a structure-determiner element and has got that mainstream nature among members in terms of intent, positioning, form, and functional value. There are thus a set of conventions and boundaries pertaining to genre analysis or genre writing. 1) The communicative event is conducted for particular communicative purposes, 2) the purposes are addressed to members of discourse community who share a mutual intelligibility of their genre purposes. That ‘rational’ nature restricts its members’ selection of the content, style, and the overall organisational structure. Say, it is the criterion that preserves genre from being another text type (Swales, 1990).

To the researchers' knowledge, having such dynamicity and various types of knowledge interacting, genre analysis makes FL writers aware of the process of its construction. The discussed conceptualization of genre constitutes the first school to GA which is established by Swales (1981, 1990). Genres are made by a member of a discourse

community and addressed to other members the same discourse community. Geners are composed of units or moves which is the smallest unit of the analysis. This notion was commonly held by different researchers applying it in their investigation of different text types; for example, Bhatia (1983, 1993); Dudley Evans (1994, 1995) and others (as cited in Hoey, 2001).

## **2.4 Definition of WDA**

WDA is an approach in applied linguistics. It is distinguished from the broader realm of discourse analysis, which includes spoken discourse or conversational analysis (Ferris, 2003). Kaplan and Gabe (2002) defines WDA as "systematic analyses of the linguistic features and patterns occurring in written texts" (p. 192, as cited in Ferris, 2003, P. 646). As Conner and Kaplan (1987) put, forward WDA involves examination of "various levels of language ... which interact with a text [including] ... the *intrasentential* structure, the *intersentential* structure, and the *discourse* structure (p. 2) (Ferris, 2003, P. 646). Cook (1989) considers WDA as a second approach that looks for order and regularities in language, similar to linguistics but it also concerned with "how to do things with words, to achieve, effects, and communicate successfully with people in particular contexts" rather than "being concerned with the rules of language as an isolated object..." (p. 12).

Since discourse analysis is implemented in "a wide-ranging and heterogeneous disciplines" (McCarthy, 1991, p.7), it has various meanings.

A common sense definition of Discourse is 'language unit above the sentence' (Harris, 1952). Chomsky (1965) has noticed that the sentences people produce are not limited. However, stringing grammatically correct sentences together does not necessarily produce discourse. Along similar lines, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) put forward the

claim that it is misleading to define discourse in terms of a sentence or a phrase, as language elements when they are put together in use constitute discourse.

Discourse in this respect is regarded from a restricted level of language that is semantic and syntactic level. In such a way, the term text is extensively used in the literature instead of discourse to imply a linguistic or a printed record (Brown and Yule, 1983). Halliday and Hassan (1976) are prominent in the literature on the concept texture; “text is best regarded as a SEMANTIC unit” (p. 2). In addition, Brown and Yule (1983) differentiate the term text from discourse as a process and product, holding the traditional view that discourse refers to the process of spoken interaction. Similarly, Dijk (1997) provides abstract Vs concrete aspects: One can view discourse as an abstract concept in that it is a type of social phenomena. In its concrete sense, discourse is spoken written or any specific type of language use, such as political discourse, religious discourse and the same.

Recently, discourse has taken a general sense including written or spoken productions. A detailed definition \_which is particular to the field of DA rather than to text linguistics\_ is given by Beaugrande and Dressler (1981). Accordingly, discourse is a ‘communicative event’ in which the following seven criteria must be satisfied:

- Cohesion- grammatical relationship between sentences;
- Coherence- the cognitive organisation of the text;
- Intentionality- the purpose of language produced;
- Acceptability- the relevance of the message to the audience;
- Informativeness- the quantity and the quality of new information;
- Situationality- the circumstances in which a given message is produced or perceived; and

- Intertextuality- the relationship between the text and the world outside it.

The stated definition goes beyond the linguistic aspect. Titscher and Jenner (2000) state that Beaugrande and Dressler's criteria involve twofold categories of conditions: text-internal ones such as cohesion and coherence, and text-external conditions that involve extra-linguistic context. One of the interpretations of discourse that complies with the first paradigm is linguistic units are selected to fulfil certain functions. In Schiffrin's words (1994) "text is the propositional meanings that are linguistically realised in grammatically definable units"(P. 363).

Celce- Murcia and Olshtain (2000) and Schiffrin (1994) argue that it suffices to say that discourse is a form-function couple but it is more satisfying, according to them, to define discourse as "an instance of spoken or written language that has a describable internal relationship of form and meaning (e.g., word, structures, cohesion) that relates coherently to an external communicative function or purpose and a given audience/ interlocutor." (p.2).

### **2.4.1 *Types of Written Discourse***

As there is no clear-cut definition of discourse, it is not easy to classify its types. Depending on formal elements, such as the medium of discourse reception and the consequent production of potential response, linguists, such as Cook (1990) distinguish two types of discourse which are profoundly different: written and spoken modes (their main attributes have been discussed in section 1.1.2). Depending on the number of language user, discourse could be classified into dialogue and monologue. Another division based on the purposes of language use, discourse would be transactional language nature, which is used to obtain goods and services or interpersonal language, when the language is used for socialising (Nunan, 1993).



One of the categorisations related more to WD is known as the Organon model. Three types of discourse are classified depending on the aspect of the language emphasised: a) Informative type of discourse is when the writer conveys knowledge in relation to the context; b) narrative type is when the focus is rather on expressing; and c) argumentative is when it is a matter of supporting or rejection particular view (Renkema, 2004).

## **2.5 The Historical Background to WDA**

Kaplan and Grabe (2002) state that WDA is relatively a recent area that emerged in the early 1970s. It was well developed during 40-50 year time span. To understand the nature of WDA research, it is important to examine efforts done in discourse analysis.

DA was not such an independent area as it was in the twentieth-century newborn discipline investigated language in its contexts. These mainly are linguistics, sociology, psychology, and anthropology that studied language in use (McCarthy, 1994). Despite the fact DA was considered as a means to investigate through language, rather than for language itself, their object of study was the mind, society, cultures, computers, the media, or literary works (Cook, 1989), they provide DA nowadays with insights. This impressed the whole discipline with a tangled nature (Cook, 1989; Van Dijk, 1985; McCarthy, 1994, Bahatia, 2004). WD recently could be looked at from different angles as a text, also as a genre, as a professional practice, or social practice. The coming discussion presents how the field has been sharpening during more than 50 years of its emergence.

### **2.5.1 *Superficial Analysis Phase***

For Van Dijk (1983) the earliest forms of WDA could be traced to classical rhetoric studies 2000 years ago. While ‘*grammatica*’, (nowadays linguistics ) studies sought normativeness and correctness of language use, rhetoric studies dealt with how speech is

constructed in political and legal settings, in terms of its planning, organisation, and specific operations (Cook, 1989), to help the speaker achieve persuasive effectiveness (Dijk, 1985). The main areas of research are contemporary stylistics, structural analysis of discourse, with consideration of cognitive and social psychological notions on memory organisation and attitude change in communicative contexts, etc (ibid).

Classical rhetoric declined as Structuralism emerged in the Middle Ages and the seventeenth and the eighteenth centuries. Structuralism developed in France. The analysis of *The Morphology of the Folktale* namely based on early structural principles (morphology, phonology) focused on a set of fixed *thematic functions* of tales. An interdisciplinary emergence of several fields of the humanities and the social sciences took place in Russia, known as “Russian formalism”, including anthropology, poetics and linguistics

Ironically, the term DA was conceived by a linguist himself, Zellig Harris's publication of *Discourse Analysis* in 1952 explained the distribution of linguistic elements in extended texts, focusing on sentential connections (McCarthy, 1991; Cook, 1989). He was worth suggesting two possible directions which were: ‘continuing the descriptive linguistics beyond the limits of a single sentence at a time’; and ‘correlating culture and language’(Harris, 1952, p. 356 quoted in McCarthy, 1991). The work is considered as the starting point of DA, and the upshot that paved the way for linguists, scholars of other disciplines to engage themselves in relevant studies from the 1960s and 1970s (McCarthy, 1999).

After Harris’s publication, in the 1960s- 1970s semiotics and the French structuralism approach emerged, researchers interested in cultural practices and narrative discourse (Dijk, 1985), and variation studies (Bhatia, 2004). The first publication of a

structural analysis of discourse published in French in 1964 *Communication*. Metz extended the analysis of films. Bathes analysed rhetoric of publicity pictures. Then, he provided an introduction to semiotics as a new discipline, entitled *Semiology*. Two years later, another issue, *Communication 8* was devoted to the structural analysis of narrative written by researchers interested in written analysis (ibid).

The most important publication was on the other side of the ocean in 1964. Ethnography based research was undertaken order to search the language and society of Native American (Indians) Cook (1989). Hymes in Language in Culture and Society examined speech in its social setting, and suggested a sociological construct on the study of discourse (McCarthy, 1991). Despite the fact that the terms ‘text’ or ‘discourse’ was had not yet often used throughout the book, key constructs such as forms of *speech*, *communication*, and *communicative* event developed the traditions of studying intercultural norms of common verbal interaction (spoken DA) , namely, ethnography of speaking (Dijk, 1985).

Another innovative approach evolved in the 1960s was Chomsky’s *Generative Grammar* that was a paradigm shift in all sister disciplines. Pike introduced a tagmemic approach to language and his analysis of narrative was closely related to DA. Harris claim for linguistic discourse analysis led to a new generative –transformational approach to the grammar of discourse (ibid).

In Britain, Halliday (1961) developed a functional systematic approach to written discourse, focusing both on the thematic organisation and on sentence connectivity. Halliday is one of the leaders of the Prague school and the British work in general that based on structural-linguistic criteria of isolated units and formulating rules for defining a coherent discourse (McCarthy, 1991).

The functional view is a very sound contribution in the field. WDA was conducted in a form of language variation analysis (Halliday, McIntosh, and Stevens, 1964) which was mainly centred on the analysis of categorization of statistically significant features of lexico-grammar within varieties of types of discourse. For example, Barber (1962) singled out the grammatical features of within a set of scientific texts, and Swales aimed at identifying nominalizations in legislative discourse (see *Table 2-1*) (cited in Bhatia, 2004).

In sum, the early attempts in the analysis of written discourse were threefold: First, systematic discourse analysis had a descriptive and structural nature and was limited to the area of both linguistics and anthropology. Second, the analysis is confined to some popular and *native* text types. Third, the functional analysis of sentences and discourse and text linguistics were apart of the generative-transformational grammar. However, the findings, as well as the drawbacks had definitively an impact on the development of DA and other studies of language during the 1970s. Moreover, the 1960 and the 1970s was considered as the period in which DA has started to attract attention from a variety of disciplines (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000).

### ***2.5.2 The Emergence of discourse analysis as a new discipline***

Transformational-Grammar was criticised for being de-contextualised and superficial. That paved the way for sociolinguistics to maintain its roots in the late of the 1960s (Fishman, 1968). The 1970s was the decade of a systematic DA as an independent research area. Considerable interest was given to language variation in its *sociocultural context* and the analysis of monographs. For example, Labove (1972a, 1972b) studied Black English analysing forms of verbal duelling among adolescence (Dijk, 1989).

Another significant work in the 1970s was pragmatics that developed due to the philosophical work by Austin (1962), Grice (1969), and Searle's (1975) speech acts. Unlike

sociolinguists stressed on linguistic variation in a social context, pragmatics interested how sentences realise different sorts of social acts, they took the path of correlating forms to actions and contributed to a new dimension to discourse analysis deemed pragmatics (McCarthy, 1991).

### **2.5.3 DA *Inter the disciplines (1974-1990s)***

Accordingly, many researchers analysed the functional values of the lexicon-grammar feature in specific contexts. For example, Swales (1974) examined the functional value of en-participles in Chemistry texts. Also, Dubois (1982) looked at the discourse value of noun phrases in biomedical journal articles (as cited in Bahatia, 2004).

Although such descriptions provide structures for uses with their functional values that were important in the development of WDA, little attention was paid to the functional variation patterns at macro-level namely ‘schematic structure’ in Van Dijk (1985), Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), ‘information structure in Brown and Yule (1983). The findings of such analysis can be generalised to broader rhetorical patterns leading to the identification of macrostructure of certain discourse (ibid).

In addition, the idea of avoiding the superficial and context-free analysis was commonly considered and lead to further development in Text Grammar (TG) in German and other European countries (Dijk, 1985). The scope is extended from clause-level unit to *rhetorical structure* that can be found in the work of Winter (1977); Dijk, (1977), Hoey (1983), Tadros (1985), Trimble (1985) (cited in Bahatia, 2004). The text and its features were viewed as a chain of sentences studied from an integrated perspective (Teun Adrianus van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983). Halliday and Hassan (1976), Dijk (1972), Debeaugrande (1980) are the basic source of reference in this respect (McCarthy, 1991).

DA borrowed some notions from the field of psychology. Due works on experimental testing of the psycho reality, in the early 1970s, notions of cognition and information processing revolutionised the field as a reaction against the behaviourist tradition. Semantic memory and the representation of knowledge were interesting subjects to many researchers such as Carroll & Freedmle). The early attempts of integrating psychology and DA were marked by the work of Kintsc and Bower and Rumelhart (Van Dijk, 1983).

Out of these research and ideas, the notion of schemata gained a wide sphere. For example, Cook (1985) defined the concept as prior knowledge of a particular situation that helps in decoding the meanings of words within a given text. Language community is to share prior knowledge activate it through keywords in context to enable language learner to understand the message (1990).

As to sociolinguistics, the notion of social context stimulated the analysis of everyday social natural interaction in small societies. This approach was applied not only in the analysis of monolingual discourse, a genre such as stories, texts myths. But also, natural and spontaneous language use was recognised too. In addition, interests in social interactional and pragmatic perspective was shifted to the analysis of dialogue within institutionalised context e.g., the work of Sinclair and Coulthard analysis of classroom talk (1975) ( as cited in Van Dijk, 1983).

During the 1980s, research at the University of Bringham was based more on the analysis of spoken texts. That according to Coulthard was due to the lack of methodology for WDA in comparison to talk analysis. For this reason, he collected articles of published research presenting a set of consistent approaches for investigating the structure and the nature of WD. The articles share some common assumptions which are as follows:

a)Texts are viewed from a systematic angle of language; b)The interactive nature of texts necessitates being aware of the purpose and the process of its creation; C) one text has many possible textualizations, thus, interpretation of meaning is partial (Coulthard, 1994). The focus on patterns of text organisation and larger pieces of discourse attracted researchers' attention. Thus, more recognition of macro-structures in different discourse types are provided, for example, problem solution pattern (Hoey, 1983), and rhetorical structure (Swales, 1990) which is extended in Bahatia (1998).

WDA was sharpened by the emergence of Genre Theory (GT). Three schools to the analysis of genre are evolved: a) the American School, b) the Sydney School of Systematic Functional Approach to genre) The British ESP School. Genre studies mainly aim to achieve comprehensive clarifications on the way specific members of discourse community use and process discourse, and to explain why they construct genres in the way they do and not in another.

Having broadening the context from different respects erased different areas of studies. The context regarded as external aspects (as stated in section 1.3), or conceptualized in terms of dynamicity and constantly progression of discourse, and considering the role of the wider social factor (evolved a popular area of Critical Discourse analysis Fairthelough, 1985 ). In addition to multi-dimensional analysis of the social context that characterised the 1990s. Findings from different disciplines as speech act theory, as conversational maxims (Grice, 1975), ethnography of communication (Hymes, 1964) all enriched the field and led to a multidisciplinary- based approach to discourse analysis is suggested by Coulthard (1994).

To sum up this section, the research efforts with regard to WDA are summarised chronologically according to Bhatia (2004) in the the following table:

Stages	Analysis	Findings	Example
<b>Textualization</b>	Statistical analysis of lexico-grammar	Passive in EST, nominalization in legal English, Noun-verb combination in legal text	Halliday et al (1964), Barber (1962), Crystal and Davy (1969), Spence (1975)
	Textualization of distinctive lexicon-grammatical resources	Tenses in scientific rhetoric, EN-participate, in chemistry texts, tenses, in reporting past literature, nominals in academic writing	Swales (1974), Oster (1981)
	Text and discourse	Relationship between semantic and pragmatics of text, coherence in text interpretation, intertextuality	Van Dijk (1977), De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981)
<b>Organization</b>	Textual Patterns leading to text types	Rhetorical structure, rhetorical grammar structures in scientific texts.	Widdowson (1973), Selinker et al (1973), Tador (1985), Candlin et al (1980).
	General Global pattern of discourse organisation	-Rhetorical patterns: problem-resolution, schematic structure, Macro-structures	Coulthad (1977), Hoey (1983), Van Dijk (1988)
	Cognitive structure and rational in genres	Moves structure	Swales (1981), Bhatia 1982, 1983; Hasan 1985
<b>Contextualization</b>	Cognitive structures and rational in genre	Genre mixing and change	Berkonkotter and Hukin (1995), Bazennan (1994)
	Multidimensional and multiperspective analysis of professional and institutional genres	Genre across disciplines	Swales(1998), Bhatia 1990, 2000
	Language as critical discourse, language as social control, language as social interaction	Language ideology, language as mediated discourse	Faith (1992,1993), Slembrouck (1994), Scollon (1998)

**Table 3: Historical development of Written Discourse Analysis (Bhatia,2004, P. 12)**

Table (2.1) shows Ferris (2003) denotes that WDA is generally used as a research method in to study L2 writers and their texts (Hinkel, 2002, 2005); in this respect the purpose would be: a) to characterize the nature of L2 writing, b) to compare L1 with L2 writers, c) to identify text features of different levels of writers, and d) mostly used in L2



settings, mainly integrated with other research methods, to assess the effectiveness of various types of instructional interventions.

In sum, The history of DA is described by Van Dijk as continuous, changing and interrelated; but it is also overlapping and complementary: some areas share common concerns; the emergence of one discipline is based on the drawbacks of the previous one.

## **Conclusion**

Having a glance at DA framework, one can deduce that DA is a wide branch. It is concerned with language use. The human language in actual communicative processing underpins various complex aspects. Consequently, approaches to DA appeared to conduct research on linguistics behaviour analysing the entire related components which affect, directly or indirectly the process of communication. DA research provides fruitful insight into language teaching.

All the approaches to the analysis of written or spoken discourse seem to meet in their ultimate purposes. For Coulthard (1997) DA approaches have two angles: the first describes the product in its context, in terms of portraying supra-sentential structure, or social interaction. The second describes the process i.e. portraying the procedures and the way participants undergo meaning interpretation. In Coulthard's words:

However, as many researchers, such as Dijk (1977), acknowledge, the focus on use implies compilation. To sum up, An approach to DA should be to such explicitness and integration that accounts for the various properties, including textual and contextual and schematic level of the WD. To this end, it is important for the sake of explicitness to identify the type of knowledge required relevant to the creation and interpretation of WD that will be discussed profoundly in the coming chapter.

## CHAPTER THREE: KNOWLEDGE OF WRITTEN DISCOURSE AND TEACHING IMPLICATIONS

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## **Introduction**

Nevertheless, WDA insights are important in different areas of language teaching such as teaching vocabulary and grammar (Connor & Kaplan, 1987; Polio, 1997, 2001, 2003); there is no explicit inquiry into the two areas i.e, WDA and ELT, so as to bring the two areas symbiotic relation clarifying the due effects in terms of the teaching outcomes. We intend to clarify, in theory (later on in practice) the addressed issue (Ferris, 2003).

In this chapter, the weight is given to more specific issues of our inquiry: WDA is defined, A synthesis of the main areas and their contribution to L2 teaching are discussed. The types of knowledge required in the world of WD are presented correlating them to the main pedagogical procedures and profound discussion on techniques and strategies that enable the teacher to engage the students in discourse searching process and practice. This section pulls together theoretical insight and actual pedagogical procedures to teach writing from an interactive angle.

### **3.1 Areas of WDA and SL Teaching**

Ferris (2003) explains that the specific application of WDA has essential implications for L2 classroom teaching: contrastive rhetoric, corpus linguistics, and genre studies.

#### **3.1.1 Contrastive Rhetoric**

When Robert Kaplan he addressed one of the pedagogical problems, as he observed that "The foreign-student paper is out of focus because the foreign student is employing a rhetoric and a sequence of thought which violates the expectations of the native reader." (Kaplan, 1966, pp. 3–4, quoted in Ferris, 2003). He aims at going beyond the linguistic orientation shedding the light on the fact that different languages and cultures do

employ a “rhetoric and sequence of thought” that vary in certain ways across languages that burden L2 writers. The main interest of contrastive rhetoric with regard to SL writing include interlanguage comparison of written products, the study of error resulting from transfer from L1 (Connor, 1996).

The relevance of contrastive rhetoric to the FL/SL classroom is a debatable topic. Many researchers contested the usefulness of contrastive rhetoric findings in teaching writing. Kaplan himself argues that that contrastive rhetoric as a hypothesis was never designed to promote rigidity or ethnocentrism. Kaplan’s findings were redesigned in ESL composition texts and utilised as justification for prescriptive, formulaic teaching of the “correct” way to write in English. Moreover, it is criticised in terms of ignorance of issues of genre, such as audience, their understanding and their knowledge that constrain the production of text-types (Grabe, 1987). For this reason, Grabe and Kaplan (2005) further, refined his view in asking pairs of questions addressed by CR research (pp. 378–379)

- 1a. Who has the authority to write?
- 1b. Who may be addressed?
- 2a. What may be discussed?
- 2b. What form may the writing take?
- 3a. What constitutes evidence?
- 3b. How can the evidence be convincingly arranged?

Hence, Rhetoric informed broadly.

On the other hand, Leki (1991) claimed that “the findings of early contrastive rhetoric studies were whole-heartedly embraced in many ESL writing classes” (pp. 123-124). CR mainly aims to correlate textual practices to cultural norms of a particular language. Also, it stimulated L1 and L2 composition scholars to promote a process-

oriented approach to writing instruction which focused on students' evolving texts and ideas rather than prescribing "Ideal Texts".

Contrastive rhetoric had important implication in the L2 classroom: It is not intended to teach structures. This is the specific application of contrastive rhetoric. Leki argued that contrastive rhetoric research now gives findings "much less immediately importable than they once seemed" (1991, p. 134) in that in its broad application involves "instant enlightenment" and "metacognitive awareness" (Leki, 1991, p. 138). In the same line of thought, Kaplan (2005) states that the benefits of contrastive rhetoric to writing classroom are summarised in the following points: Beyond the sentence level thinking; awareness of discourse differences across languages and extending one's background knowledge, assumptions, and language practices.

### **3.1.2 *Corpus linguistics***

In his 1987 paper, "Cultural thought patterns revisited," Kaplan called for the necessity for rapid analysis of long segments in a limited the time and at multiple levels (or interacting features) of texts. Corpus Linguistics (hence, CL) addresses this practical problem through methodological and technological means. Thus, ts powerful tools support SL and FL classrooms endeavours to teach language areas, to design dictionaries and teaching materials, etc (Biber, 2006).

CL can, also, be narrowly considered as a type of research approach (Tardy & Swales, 2008) that is identifiable in many respects: 1) It uses a corpus, 2) It uses computer-assisted automatic analysis techniques to process data, 3) It is empirical in that its aim is to describe language patterns rather than relying on intuitions or observations, 4) It is essentially quantitative in approach, and recently qualitative elements have been included (such as interviews and case studies) (Conrad, 2005, pp. 394–396).

CL is interested in issues on various topics. They are summarised as follows: differences between speech and writing, e.g, the study of university language in Biber (2006); across text-types (e.g Grabe, 1987 ) can be specific to academic disciplines (such in Ken Hyland, 1990) or over general context such as the examination of English learners' corpora in Reppen(2001) and Reynolds (2005).

There are some objections to the extent to which corpus linguistics findings are “useful” in the language classroom (Conrad, 2005). The rejections lie in the fact that how to transform the empirical description of naturally (co)occurring language features into teaching materials.

Contradictions on the usefulness of CL in L2 classroom are both philosophical and practical. As to philosophical one, CL research insight is purely linguistic and does not provide a consistent view on how language is acquired (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). As to practical limitations, they are related to the design, application and conduction of CL research that require careful selection and treatment of data, including the corpus, computer software, statistical procedures, understanding the statistical result, and finally transforming the findings into useful classroom materials. In addition, interpretation of data that requires substantial training in both formal linguistics and WDA and Second Language Teaching advanced statistics.

Despite these objections, CL research nonetheless has much to offer to FL/SL classroom. Firstly, its findings are empirically tested sources for developing a variety of useful materials, including learner dictionaries, word lists, grammar and vocabulary student texts, etc (Biber et al., 1999). Academic Word List gives rise to various online and printed teaching resources that are used for teacher preparation (Coxhead, 2006; Hedgcock & Ferris, 2009) and for student analyses of academic texts (Conrad, 2005). Secondly,

Corpus Analysis CA of L2 students writing has contributed to existing research about the nature of L2 writers and their texts. Corpus studies have the advantage of being larger, faster, and probably more accurate overall, corpus (as cited in Ferris, 2003).

Thirdly, It may be argued that corpus techniques can be utilized in the language classroom Conrad (2005, 2008). As a way to devote students' attention to language and "make generalizations," to promote "hypothesis formation and testing", noticing and grammatical "consciousness-raising" (p. 402 cited in Ferris).

### **3.1.3 *Genre Studies***

The third area of WDA is genre studies. Research of Sydney School, based on the Systemic Functional Linguistics approach provides fruitful insight most concerned with the WDA and their findings are the most directly applicable to L2 instruction. There is no need to define this area as it has been previously discussed in section 2.6.6. We will focus rather on the nature of such studies and their application in the FL/SL classroom.

Genre studies aim at characterisation of specific communicative contexts. Research of the Sydney school is interested in the identification of elemental genre in schools and workplaces and designing curriculum to help students achieve their communicative purposes accordingly, focusing on macro-structure, and the typical internal progression of ideas or '*stages*' (Johns, 2003). ESP researchers investigated both the structure and language characteristics of the specific genre and within its move. However, they are more precise and specific in targeting genre to specific discourse communities, particularly for adult learners, for example, Swale's analysis of academic research articles (1990).

As to L2 Classroom applications of genre studies, genre studies contribute a purpose-oriented pedagogy. GA schools intend to develop genre pedagogy to initiate adult students to the mainstream of academic and workplace communication by monitoring the “rules” of the particular genres. In the same line, ESP pedagogy aims to help EFL students to exploit their knowledge of general English language for their particular instrumental purposes (Ferris, 2003).

Application of genre in ELT was not safe from pedagogical drawbacks. The static and the intensive bottom-up language analysis do not fit into a writing course syllabus that includes content knowledge and processing. In addition, it is generally held that genre as a discipline-specific approach is valuable for upper-division undergraduate (specialized in particular domain), it is not useful for non-specialized students (low-division) students need is more appropriate at this level to teach students the conventions of “general academic English” (Johns, 2003, p. 207) .

Genre studies have absolutely been very influential in the teaching of writing skill. There is no doubt that genre insights have been useful in addressing particular students' disciplinary demands, raising consciousness about the conventions and general metacognitive awareness of the reality of genre in every communicative situation they will encounter. However, the application of WDA in the L2/FL classroom is confined to certain aspect of language use. Firstly, findings of GA would be oversimplified and turned into 'rigid formula' that learners must follow correctly. Secondly, the linguistic-driven analysis is not adequate for the overall comprehension and effective communication uses. Thirdly, it is unrealistic, on the part of the teacher, to accomplish such type of research as they are time-consuming that requires technical skills and linguistic training. Thus, the findings of the discussed approaches to WDA insight would not practically be consumed by the FL/SL writing teachers (Ferris, 2003).



Before shifting the discussion toward the most specific part of the theoretical account, it is worth mentioning that we do agree with McCarthy (1994) in that findings from DA may not *always* be applicable in the language classroom. This would clarify the obstacles in applying WDA research output teaching. To the researcher's experience, when genre analysis, contrastive rhetoric, for example, are used to investigate language for the sake of language for its own, the teacher will consume his effort and time. It is advisable to invest the existing research findings taking into consideration what really exists in the classroom.

### **3.2 Knowledge of use in WD**

After Hymes (1972) had recommended the description of communicative competence as a the main purpose of linguistics rather than grammar, many models of communicative competence were suggested: Canale (1983) modified their first model of communicative competence have been proposed in 1980 adding discourse competence (DC) as an essential part of communicative competence. It includes the ability to create different types of cohesive texts through combining language structures (cited in Coulthard, 1977).

Quite recently, experts in ELT analysed DC components and their relation to other language abilities. For example, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain(2000), McCarthy (1994), Cook (1989), and Brown and Yule (1983) put discourse at the centre of the teaching models. They provide a detailed account of DA knowledge and practices for language teachers. They discuss in theory and practice different DA constructs, suggesting DA activities for classroom practices.

In this respect, many authoritative and influential studies are nowadays reference frameworks for teachers and researchers interested in the areas of ELT and DA. Halliday

and Hassan's accounts of cohesion in English (1976) explores functional concerns of textual unifications. Brown and Yule (1983) adopted a linguistic approach to the examination of discourse manifested in two main processes: message creation, and interpretation. A practical experience in analysing discourse of different types is offered by Hatch (1992).

Common areas of DA that are discussed in the stated works and that are particularly important in teaching writing skill are cohesion, coherence, and genre structure. For Demo (2001) the production process involves combining discourse knowledge with communicative strategies, taking into consideration the contextual features of a given situation and knowledge of the world. In the coming discussion, the focus is given to understanding different types of knowledge required for the production of WD.

### **3.2.1 *Textual Knowledge***

Kaplan and Grabe(2002) put forward that the central element of WDA is "the *actual structuring of the text via some consistent framework*". WD accordingly would be viewed differently. For example (Dijk, 1997) analysed discourse as structure, as action and interaction in society, and as cognition. It is out of our concern to review them all. Attention will be paid to the basic aspects that affect the entire discourse.

**3.2.1.1. *Cohesion*.** As it has been mentioned in DeBeagrande and Dressler's (1981) definition of discourse (section 2.2) cohesion and coherence are basic criteria of a communicative discourse. Halliday and Hasan (1976) the leaders of Systematic Functional Linguistics (SFL) have done much research into what makes a text a text, i.e. how one can differentiate a cohesive grammatical unit from a random collection of sentences. SFL is an approach that aims at patterning linguistic data in its social context. It examines how meaning is made through language within the context of use. How options are selected

from language system. How these elements are functional for meaning assigning. SFL systematise language resources in terms of its relation to aspects of meanings, ideational, interpersonal, and textual meaning (Schleppegrell, 2013; Eggins, 2004)

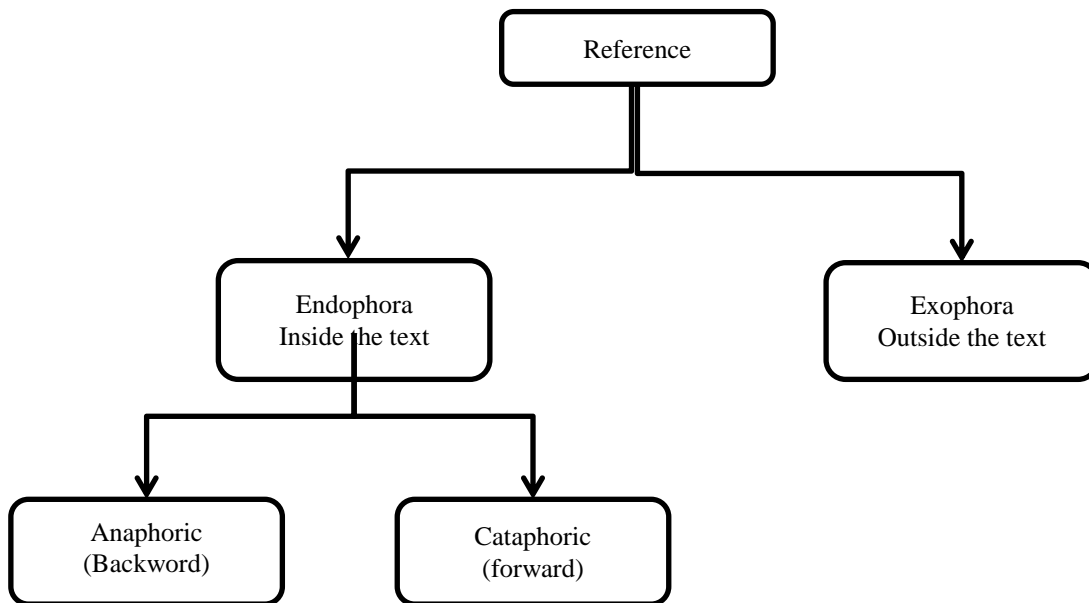
Accordingly, cohesion is dealt with under 'Textual metafunctional analysis', the third paradigm in SFL analysis in addition to ideational and interpersonal level (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, 2014; Gregg, 2012; and Eggins, 2004). They provide a profound theory of understanding how elements in text hang together based on non-syntactic relations (Schleppegrell, 2012). The main construct behind Halliday and Hasan's Cohesion in English (1976) is the notion of 'texture'. Texture is an aspect of coherence that makes a text. The texture of a text has many aspects (internal or external to the text and realised through different resources).

Cohesion is text-internal elements that are maintained through manipulating devices or combinations of lexical and referential chains. Halliday and Hasan (1976) called such devices 'cohesive ties'. They are "semantic relation between an element in a text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it" (p.8). Accordingly, five cohesive devices have been sorted out, namely, reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions and lexical ties.

*3.2.1.1.1Reference.* Is a linguistic unit that directs the readers to refer back to what is already mentioned to understand particular element in the text. It establishes two identical meaning through two different linguistic elements in different positions in the text. reference can be pronouns, possessive adjectives, possessive pronouns, demonstratives, and articles.

The relationship between such elements and their incidents is twofold: a) *endophoric reference*, the incident is inside the text. It is divided into two categories: *anaphoric*

*reference*, the linguistic item refers backwards to its incident, and *cataphoric reference*, the linguistic item refers forward to its incident. *b) exophoric reference*, the incident is outside the text that is usually referred to the context of the situation (situational reference), or to the participants' schematic knowledge (homophoric reference). The figure illustrates types of reference according to Halliday and Hasan (1976).



**Figure 2: Types of Reference Based on Halliday (1976)**

The most cohesive type of reference is the endophoric reference since it establishes ties inside the text. As illustrated in Figure 2 it divided into two types, by ways of illustration, anaphoric and cataphoric references are realised in the following examples:

1- If the boy wants to know what is covered by the guarantee, he has to read the fine print and consult a lawyer.

2- John asked him to sing and so Bill sang (Hatch, 1992, p. 224).

In the first example, The pronoun *he* refers anaphorically to the linguistic item *boy*. While in the second example, the referent *him* refers cataphorically to the noun *Bill*.

In some situation, reference would not be cohesive. Definite articles as a cataphoric reference have the combination of definite article referent plus the modifier (noun phrase) is not a cohesive device, such as *The title of the book*. Unlikely, Anaphoric reference of the definite article consists of (*the* +synonym\repetition) is cohesive. For example, last year I bought a new *house*. *The house* is very well built (Fowerdrew, 2013).

Linguistic elements of reference are personal, demonstrative, and comparative. All of the references are nominal group except adverbs. The personal reference includes personal pronouns, possessive adjectives, and possessive pronouns Demonstrative reference is used to refer to the degree of proximity between elements in a given context. Comparative reference involves the uses of certain adjectives and adverbs for particular or general comparison.

*3.2.1.1.2 Substitution and Ellipsis.* the first is an item or a phrase that is replaced by another one. The linguistic elements used to substitute are a nominal group, namely: *one- does- so* respectively. As to ellipsis is 'substitution by zero' (p.142): Halliday and Hasan (1976) state that it is similar to substitution in that both are grammatical cohesive; substitution involves usually omission of an element as it can be understood elsewhere in the text, or rarely an item that will occur. To understand more the nature of those cohesive devices in English, Halliday an Hasan discussion is summarised in terms of comparison of the reference and substitution.

*Table 3.1* presents how both are realised. We refer again to Hatch (1992, P.225) exemplification as they are more explicit than that of Halliday. The items between brackets are the incident, the underlined words are substitution elements or omitted elements.

Types of substitution and ellipsis	Examples of substitution	Examples of ellipsis
Nominal	Do you want the blankets? Yes, I want <u>one</u> (blanket)	They are small take two (cookies)
Verbal	Did you sing? Yes, I <u>did</u> (sang)	Were you typing? No, I wasn't (typing).
Clausal	The blankets need to be cleaned. Yes, they did (to be cleaned).	I don't know how to work this computer. I'll have to learn how(to work the computer).

**Table 4: Examples of Substitution and Ellipsis**

**3.2.1.1.3 Conjunction.** In *Oxford Learner's Dictionary* (2017), a conjunction is a word that joins two phrases or sentences. Unlike reference, they do not require exophoric or anaphoric referential relation, rather they establish certain semantic meaning in their own. Thus their meaning is not available elsewhere in the text like that of substitution. The cohesive relation of conjunction involves "...interpreting an element in terms of its environment [the linguistic environment]..." to recognise the semantic relation through "specification of the way in which what follows is systematically connected to what has gone before." (Ibid, P.227).

Conjunctions are classified according to their meanings into four categories according to Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Halliday and Mathiessen (2004) presented in the following table:

Additive	Adversative	Causal	Temporal
and	but	so	then
in addition	yet	then	next
besides	however	therefore	after
furthermore	though		finally

**Table 5: Categories of Conjunctions**

Conjunctions are common in their functions which is maintaining. They link whole clauses rather than two elements within it (like a reference) and placed in different positions within it (ibid). Hence, they create cohesion within and beyond the clause level function as a transition at the rhetorical level unlike the other resources of cohesion are concerned with how elements in the text go on as 'information' (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

Another point to mention, conjunctions are universal in nature. They are forms of sociolinguistic construction of reality. They are neither phoric nor express identity. A conjunction is a semantic entity in its own right that establishes in the reader's mind 'logico-semantic relationship through linguistic means, mainly adverbs, prepositions, and nouns (Halliday and Mathiessen, 2004).

*3.2.1.1.4 Lexical Cohesion.* involves exploitation of the second area of language, namely lexis. In the first introduction to SFL Halliday and Hasan (1976) classified lexical cohesion into two type: reiteration and collocation. The first is defined as "the repetition of a lexical item, or the occurrence of a synonym of some kind, in the context of reference; that is, where two occurrences have the same referent." (P.318-319). The coreferentiality is basic in all types of ties. The lexical tie is created, in this respect by means of four elements: a) "general noun "the class of [that] is a small set of nouns having a generalised reference with the major noun class." (P.274). For example, *mango*, *apple*, *nectarine* all are subtypes of the general noun *fruit*. Synonyms, repetition, superordinate and near-synonyms all are aspects of reiteration.

The second is defined as "Collocation is the repetition of a lexical is cohesive in its own right, whether or not there is the identity of reference or any referential relation at all between the two." (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, P.319). They are words usually appear together as they have 'mutual expectancy between due to their frequent occurrence in a

given environment, such as the key-open\_ door. It is the tendencies of language uses that governs their uses in discourse, not the grammatical rules of language. Collocation is considered as a cohesive device since "there is cohesion between any pair of lexical items that stand to each other in some recognisable lexicosemantic relation." (P. 285).

Semantic relation between lexical items has different facets: A) hyponymy involves a superordinate relationship between specific words, e.g. *table*, *desk*, and *chair* all are hyponymy to the noun *furniture*. B) meronymy is "a part-whole relationship" such as *limb* and *roots* are meronomies of the superordinate *tree*. C) antonymy has the semantic meaning of opposites. D) lexical chain or ordered set represented in the subsequent relationship between the items that extends at the discourse level. For example, months of the year, days of the week, can result in a strong cohesion in discourse. Consider the example:

I want to think of Christmas present for doing. A good Christmas present for Dion might be Taj Mahal's new record. Taj Mahal's new record is the first he's done in eight. Eight years is a long time to wait for a new record from the master blues.

In Hatch's (1992, P.226-227) example, *a good Christmas- Taj Mahal's new record-eight years* are items of the lexical chain. Lexical items in a chain would co-refer either to the same entity, co-classified according to the same class (Halliday and Hasan, 1989, 1985).

Lexical cohesion paved the way for further research. For example, Hoey's (1991) analysed authentic text to demonstrate how patterns of lexis operate within and between discourse. His model is based on two correlated levels of language organisation: a) lexis considering lexical cohesion as the most dominant, and b) text. (Hoey, 2005) argues that lexical items are meaningful in their own right, not like grammatical cohesion, the meaning



depends on the referent. Unlike Halliday and Hasan (1976) analysis that based on referential nature of creating cohesion. He, on another hand, provides his own argument for his stand on lexical cohesion: lexical cohesion is the only type that realises 'multiple relationships' since more than one item can be linked. B) that multiple relationships, for him create 'nets' within the text. Thematic organisation.

**3.2.1.2 Thematic Structure.** Halliday and Hassan recognise three types of texture. What has been discussed is (a) texture at lexicon-grammar level. Other types of texture only supplement cohesion in building texture are (b) thematic structure and information structure. These are elements of the linear organisation. Having the clause considered as a communicative event that constructs the message.

**3.2.1.2.1 Definition of theme.** Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) define theme as " the point of departure" they define the concept in terms of its initial position in the sentence. Furthermore, McCarthy (1991) denotes that " the front of the clause (by whatever means) is a signal of what is to be understood as the framework within which what we want to say can be understood. The rest of the clause can then be seen as transmitting what we want to say within the framework." (p. 52).

**3.2.1.2.2 Linguistic elements of Theme.** Meaning emphasis is realised in the use of theme. The linguistic means whereby meanings are realised would have different implications accordingly. Further illustrations are provided in *Table 3.3*

Elements of theme	Examples
-Object fronted (osv)	-The Guardian, Joyce reads
-Adverbial- fronted (asvo)	-Sometimes Joyce reads the guardian
-It-theme cleft ( It + be + c/o+ sv )	-It's the guardian Joyce reads
-Wh -pseudo cleft (wh + sv + be +c/o)	-What Joyce reads in the Guardian
-Right displaced subject (s(ponoun) ves(Noun))	-She reads the guardian Joyce
-Left displaced sub	-Joyce, she reads the guardian

**Table 6: Linguistic Elements in Themes**

The theme is created by means of passives, reversals, fronts, the expletive ‘there’, the What-cleft and the It-cleft sentences. These are summarised in table (3.3) with an examples then we will discuss their functions:

**Passive voice:** is generally used to focus on the object (agent) rather than the doer that is not possible active sentences since the object becomes the part of the rheme (Fowerdrew, 2013).

**Existential there.** Is used to give more information. The subject of there-clause is usually indefinite noun phrase to introduce a new topic or new information (Flowerdew, 2013).

**Cleft sentence.** breaks down the information in a sentence into two parts in order to provide an extra focus (Hewings and Hewing, 2000; Fowerdrew, 2013) for example, *It is the wife who decides (the wife decides)*, to make attitude, as in , *it is of note that..., it is worth pointing that...,* to emphasise, as in *it follow that..., it is apparent that...;* to

conclude such as, *that 's what I am talking about.. and what I've tried to share with you this morning ...* (Olshtain 2000).

*3.2.1.2.3 Types of Theme.* Halliday (1985, p. 54) provides a broad categorization of thematic elements as follows: 1) Topical theme which is presented by a nominal group, a prepositional phrase, or an adverbial group. 2) An interpersonal theme which consists of any combination of vocatives, modal adjuncts, and mood marking elements. 3) The textual theme that includes connectors such as coordinates & subordinates and conjunctive adjuncts which relate the clause to the preceding texts.

On the basis of this typification, other categories are provided. Two types of theme can co-occur: simple and multiple themes. The simple theme usually has a topical element. Multiple-theme realises the three language metafunctions: 1) interpersonal theme shows the relationship between speakers' attitude and what is said e.g, personally, darling, and the like. 2) Textual theme connects clauses. Accordingly, when the theme of the sentence conflates with its grammatical subject, the theme is called unmarked; the marked theme is an element other than the subject occupies the theme position, such as adjunct. When both types are used in one sentence, the textual theme *usually* comes first. This illustrated below:

*On the other hand, fortunately, advances in all the science of education have given as the opportunity of improving our method of educational instruction. (Flowerdrew, 2013, P.68).*

The multiple themes involve textual (marked theme) and nominal or topical themes.

*3.2.1.2.4 The role of theme in discourse.* Theme is related to the entire discourse in certain respects. It is the theme that "gives the clause its character as a message (Halliday and Mathiessen, 2004, P.64). It is related to the whole discourse in that it results

"[...] some form of organisation whereby it fits in with, and contributes to, the flow of discourse" (ibid). The flow of discourse is maintained due to the phoric relation between what is given and what is known (Brown and Yule, 1983). The selection of themes in certain ways signal and transmits what is to be said next in the text (McCarthy, 1991).

Themes exploitation goes beyond textual linkage to affect readers' perception of the communicative message. Olshtain and Celce Murcia (2000) put forward that Theme rheme combinations give a distinctive emphasis assigned to certain parts throughout the discourse. McCarthy (1994) views that it is a framework of understanding. In this respect, fronting devices are different options the display information focus, *it' the Guardian Joyce reads*, for example, signal the focus on the *Guardian* rather than *Joyce*. Cook (1989) considers the use of thematic elements is not just arbitrary or just for aesthetic purposes, they have communicative function and affect the readers' comprehension. He clarifies that:

At first then, it would seem that this ordering of information is another instance of a formal connection between sentences in discourse. [However] On closer inspection it turns out to be also contextual, dictated by what is going on in the mind of the sender and the assumptions he/she makes about what is going on in the mind of the receiver (P. 63).

Theme selection or interpretation, then, is reader-based, as the choice of thematic elements depends on the degree of shared knowledge the interlocutors. To sensitise students to this end, different perspectives on theme and rheme analysis are considered.

**3.2.1.3. Macro-organization of WD.** The macro organization of the WD depends heavily on elements that have been already discussed. Three perspectives on the analysis of how information is distributed in discourse are to be discussed.

*3.2.1.3.1. Thematic analysis.* mainly originated from the Prague school's view of 'communicative dynamism', i.e. investigating how elements manage the development of information, through focusing on the relationship between theme and the rest of the sentence (rheme) Brown and Yule (1983) in Halliday and Matthiessen's words (2004) 'remainder'. Analysing how the two are linked to through the text results in certain thematic structure.

Thematic Structures accordingly have different patterns. A) One pattern involves the rheme of sentence one becomes theme of sentence two, namely a rheme-theme pattern though MacCarthy does not use this label. B) In the second pattern the theme of sentence one is used as the theme of sentence two, that is realized through repeating the same rheme in each sentence, or using the resources of lexical cohesion explained previously (i.e. synonymy, hyponymy, etc). C) In the third pattern, the theme of sentence one is composed of two themes of the following sentences (Flowerdrew, 2013).

McCarthy (1991) analysis of theme in the whole discourse differs from that of Martin and Rose (2007) analysis. McCarthy's (1991) analysis is theme within the sentence. While Martine and Rose (2007) consider the whole clause as a theme, in their terms hyper-theme of the whole paragraph. The macro themes are text organization higher than the hyper-themes. Macro themes in their turns are components which belong to certain register (as cited in Flowerdew, 2013).

*3.2.1.3.2 Information structure.* involves focussing on theme as a device to focus on information packaging in discourse. Such analysis facilitates to the receiver what is given that is theme ( that reflects what the reader and writer know, or the knowledge that is shared), and rheme shows new information (Halliday and Mthiesse, 2004). Theme-rheme relationship is a matter of relating old information with a new one since the more

informative part or what is known moves information forward (Olshtain and Celce-murcia, 2000).

*3.2.1.3.3. Propositional relation.* Approaching the text from semantic relation point of view help recognize WD patterns. In other words, discourse “ [...] involves semantic relations between sentences, hence, relations between propositions expressed by these sentences” (Van Dijk, 1980, P. 53) that would realise, for example, cause-consequence, reason-phenomena, comparison-contrast discourse pattern. Crombie (1985) using the term 'binary discourse values', instead of cohesive relation, defined it as " the significance that attaches to utterances by virtue of the specific types of relationship which they bear to one another." (P.2 as quoted in Flowerdew, 2013). In the same line of thought, many researchers interested in Clause relational approach /Proposition Relation approach. (E.g. de Beaugrande, 1980; de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981; Connor, 1987; Dressler, 1978; Kinneavy, 1971; Lautamatti, 1987; Meyer, 1975; van Dijk, 1972, 1977, 1980, 1985).

Further elaboration is provided by Dijk (1997). As meaning is shared and social in nature, In this respect, the description of discourse at macro level involves propositions "the meaning of the whole clause or sentence" (p. 9). Proposition relation analysis involves considering " meaning relations between propositions of a discourse obey a number of coherence conditions" that are *functional* in nature. For example, specification, generalisation, illustration or contrast with respect to previous propositions" and how they contribute to the overall discourse pattern (p. 9).

### **3.2.2 Non-linguistic knowledge in WD**

In addition to textual knowledge, there are other sorts of knowledge of different nature. Language users aim to achieve a particular goal by language use, and the receivers as well focus on the intended meaning (the functions) rather than the literal meaning: utterances

bind together as discourse without formal links, only if we ascertain that utterances have got functions. There is no one-to-one correspondence between functions and an utterance in its own.

The perception of intended functions in WD depends on the *context*. One of non-linguistic element basic in WD communication and study. The concept context is profoundly defined in section 2.4. It involves different sorts of information physical, psychological, and social. Thus we have two types of meanings to utterances: context-free meaning or semantic meaning and contextual based one. Discourse interpretation and creation is a matter of processing underlying intentions (Widdowson, 1978).

**3.2.2.1 Schematic-driven knowledge of WD.** The discourse makers figuration of discourse is also based on certain types of knowledge outside the text, namely schematic knowledge which is a pre-existing knowledge in the language user's mind. It involves two types of knowledge: First, content schemata (Croll, 1983) or ideational (Widdowson, 1990) involves "knowledge of conceptual content or topic area." (p. 104). Second, interpersonal schemata (Widdowson, 1990) represents customary ways in which we engage with the second person. That is to say, the conventions, norms of the interaction of the particular sociocultural world.

For Croll (1983) deals with the role of the second type of knowledge, in her words formal schemata in reading. Her view is the most relevant to our context, in that it constitutes background knowledge about the formal, rhetorical organisational structure of different kinds of texts (1983, PP. 83-84). Both of two according to Widdowson are 'states of mind', customized and conventionalized as normal in particular communication.

Accordingly understanding the writer's intention is based upon the reader's selection of schemata that is continuously modified to establish consistency with the discourse

structure and content. As readers interact and interpret discourse, processing it in a top-down direction i.e starting from the readers' knowledge to smaller elements. Writers must consider the audience expectations and support them through the text (Johns, 1986).

Brown and Yule (1983) emphasise the psychological perspective, the importance of participants' background knowledge in the interpretation of discourse coherence stored in memory, taking such forms as a frame, schemata, script, scenario and plan. If their interpretation of a discourse is inconsistent with the mentally stored knowledge, WD is interpreted as an interrelated unity (coherent).

**3.2.2.2 Pragmatic-driven knowledge.** As "the denial of relational proposition leads to inconsistency and explicit mention of these propositions leads to redundancy" (Unger, 1996, P.176). Studies, also confirm that students use semantic and syntactic ties (Connor, 1984; Khalil, 1989; Maxwell & Falick, 1992 as cited in Leki et al, 2008). We refer redundancy in WD production to lack of awareness of the implicit aspect in WD productions, in that propositions are intended to have communicative acts.

Widdowson (1978) explains how to discourse examined in terms of the illocutionary act (defined in section 2.6.1). it ties discourse when “ the relationship between the illocutionary acts which propositions, not always overtly linked, are being used to perform.” (Widdowson, 1978, p.28). Unlike knowledge of cohesion whereby “the overt relationship between propositions expressed through sentences,” (Ibid, p.29). He explains that “in the case of cohesion, we can infer the illocutionary acts from the prepositional connections which are overtly indicated: in the case of coherence, we infer the covert prepositional connections from an interpretation of the illocutionary acts.”

To conclude, all the non-linguistic element discussed are different aspects of coherence since coherence is abstract by its nature and is only presented in the mind of the



reader. However, textual knowledge explained so far realise cohesion. We find it useful, at this level of the discussion to clarify (Widdowson, a1978; b 2007, Halliday and Hasan, 1976). The relationship between the two presenting them analogically as follows:

<b>Cohesion</b>	<b>Coherence</b>
-Internal contextual links (textual schemata).	-External contextual reality (ideational and interpersonal schemata).
-Deals with the formal structure.	-Deals with the underlying interpretation.
-Based on the relationship between proposition.	-Based on the relationship between illocutionary acts.
-A text can be cohesive but not coherent	- A text can be coherent without cohesive
-It is realized through the use of textual knowledge.	-It is partly realized through contextual, schematic, and pragmatic knowledge.

**Table 7 The Difference Between Cohesion And Coherence**

As it can be noticed in Table 3.4 having different types of knowledge and being used together with communicative strategies, one can deduce that textual knowledge helps "to construct meaning that makes contextual sense to them [readers], in other words, to the extent that cohesion in the text enable them to derive a coherent discourse from it." (Widdowson, 2007, p.49).

Halliday's model of cohesion is currently considered a basic framework whereby researchers find their own elaboration, (e.g, Tanskanen, 2006; Gutwinski, 1976; Flowerdew & Mahlberg, 2009). Till recently, the SFL model is applied to characterize other language other than English-Japanese as in Thomson & Armour (2013) and Chinese as in (Li, 2007) and encourage many ESL writing research like (Young & Harrison, 2004), (Bruce, 2010) (Christie & Derewianka, 2010) etc.

However, the model is generally criticized for being linguistic-driven and neglects other basic elements of discourse (Ventola, 1991). Flowerdew (2013) criticized Halliday and Hasan's accounts of the relationship between texture and coherence. They state that

this relationship is reciprocal by its nature. However, there is no clear view on what the notion texture implies (Brown and Yule, 1983). In the following quotation, they explicitly state that: "what creat text is the TEXTUAL, or text-forming component of the linguistic system of which cohesion is one part." (P.299).

Then again, it is generally perceived that cohesion does not necessarily lead to coherence in discourse (Cook 1989; Coulthard 1977; Brown and Yule 1983; Van Dijk 1980; Nunan 1993; Carrel 1982). Hasan (1985) views that the texture of the text is not only manifested by structural unity. It is not only confined to the semantic relationship, It is rather related to the interlocutors' perception of coherence'. She describes coherence as 'an all-or-none phenomenon'. Such explanation seems more explicit in that she makes it clear that cohesion is part of the story of texture.

### **3.3 Pedagogical Framework of WDA**

A common perception particularly striking about ESL writing teachers "...is that the teachers overwhelmingly view themselves as language teachers rather than writing teachers; they attend primarily to surface-level features of writing seem to read and react to text as a series of separate sentences or even clauses, rather than a whole unit of discourse (Zamel, 1985, P.86 quoted in Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, P. 141).

If one looks closely at the interface between communication and the nature of WD production, it comes up to Widdowson's view (1978); communicative language teaching aims to promote the ability to communicate. The whole business of communications is to be investigated. Accordingly, "Such a commitment involves, [ as he] believe, a consideration of the nature of *discourse and abilities that are engaged in creating it* [...] and an attempt to think out the possible pedagogical procedures which will lead the learners towards the ability to handle discourse." (Emphasis is added, p.ix). Much of WD

knowledge are illustrated previously to focus on ways of enacting them, starting from the top to the bottom level.

### **3.3.1 *Top-down- oriented analysis***

Discourse is framed by means of language knowledge and schematic knowledge. The first involves grammar, vocabulary, and textual elements. The second are implied and can be inferred by the reader, since writers consider illocutionary act he/she wants to achieve, knowledge of society and culture, and knowledge of the topic area, etc. Top-down elements in discourse go beyond the first and comprises second and all the aspects of WD have been discussed in section (3.2.2). The outside-text knowledge analysis affects all levels of WD production

**3.3.1.1. *Readers' based elements.*** The reader is one of "knowledge of other standard formats in which information is conveyed" (Brown and Yule, 1983). It is mainly the writer's responsibility to consider readers in mind since "we write so that someone else can read and comprehend the message (Olshtain and Celce-Murcia, 2000, p.142).

Olshtain and Celce-Murcia (2000) argue that the audience in writing classroom is better to be extended to the students rather than the teacher only. Some helpful questions in this context are suggested so as to consider readership needs carefully:

- What is the reader likely to know about the subject?
- What will the reader want to know about the subject?
- How should I organize the information I have so that is easily understood by the reader?
- Can I use some special gimmick to make the written passage more interesting and more appealing to the reader? (P.156).

Such question help the students recognize readers' background knowledge, needs, discourse structure.

Cook (1989) provides some useful suggestions on the problem of lack of reciprocity in WD and lack of the actual elements of the context. An utterance such as 'the window is open' could be interpreted in different ways. Lack of reader elements results 'tongue-tied written production. One way is to imagine the reader and ask 'ghost questions' to make certain assumptions to determine what or how to write and to specify *social roles and Psychological roles* of the reader and writer to specify further information about kind of information and discourse type and function.

Culture-based perspective suggested by Robert Kaplan's contrastive rhetoric (defined in *section 3.1.1.1*) that mainly based on the assumption that people's language reflects thought patterns presented in their language production. Lack of awareness about such patterns causes communication breakdowns. Language teachers are advised to make a comparison of parallel texts (on the same topic or of the same register) in two or more languages, in terms of rhetorical organization (Olshtain and Celce-Murcia, 2000).

The most important account for readership consideration is Grice's (1975) maxims quantity, quality, relevance and manner (that are\_ further discussed in 2.6.5) Quantity implies determining the amount of information and elaboration. Quality maxim involves respecting norms of appropriateness in relation to specific culture. Maxim of relevance means that the written product is meaningful in a given context. Such top-down consideration supports writer's evaluation of the readers. The Maxim of manner involves bottom-up consideration, is the text clear in terms of its form? Is the form compatible with the content? Answers help in revision and editing stage. For Cook using co-operative assumptions are basic for interpretation of discourse, "combined with general knowledge

of the world, the receiver can reason from the literal, semantic meaning of what is said to the pragmatic meaning and induce what the [writer] is intending to do with his or her words."(PP.29-30).

The problem is that students can easily notice cohesive devices, however, they do not use to " key the text into a context so as to make sense of it." (Widdowson, 2007, p.28). Doing so is based on readers' interaction with discourse, in that students are asked to maintain or identify the reader with ' *schematic frame* of reference' to different types of schemata defined earlier. As to *frames* is defined as a mental predisposition in the reader's mind that helps to project him to what is to come next. Choosing the appropriate title of the text, determining collocations (words that occur together) may predispose the content area of the discourse. The teacher has a role in selecting the appropriate schema. Widdowson (1978) suggests a subject based approach that is exploiting what students have already learned from other subjects like geography, philosophy and science that support the students either in the production or interpretation of WD.

In addition, as keying the text into its context is an aspect of coherence, the teacher is also responsible for developing strategies that "involve considerations of extratextual features related to the background knowledge the reader is likely to bring to the reading of the text and intratextual features that the writer must build into the text. " (Ibid, p.149). Selecting coherence based activities would rest on: ordering, adding supporting sentences, rewriting different versions of the texts, filling the gaps in the cloze with words chosen as fillers, etc, selecting genre and rhetorical format directly related to the purpose of writing, focusing on the relation between coherence convention and intended audience (ibid).

Cook's (1989) view implies that teaching interaction is to be drawn on considering some linguistic and situational detail as clues to fill gaps in understanding, and form a general hypothesis on the nature of discourse. Possible questions are:

1. Who or what sort of person is the sender of the message?
2. What sort of person is the sender addressing?
3. Where are the addresser and the addressee?
4. What is the purpose of the discourse?
5. Is [it] complete discourse or an extract?
6. What type of discourse is [the text] (e.g letter, recipe...)?
7. What is the meaning of the following (some keywords from a text understudy)?
8. Which of the participants in the event was most successful? (P.80).

According to Cook such Top-down questions aim to enable students predict the content, answer factual questions, identify the sender and intended receiver, discuss issues raised.

**3.3.1.2 Macro organization.** The overall structure of discourse is related to the propositional development of discourse (Widdowson, 1978). How each sentence is to be contextually appropriate when it expresses a proposition that fits the propositional development of the whole discourse (McCarthy, 1991; Olshtain & Celce-Murcia 2000). One way, to deal with macro structure is to examine how information is structured discourse as "determined by the sender's hypothesis about what the receiver does and does not know"(Cook, 1989, P. 64).

Classroom interaction is shifted to discussing the following issues that these questions raise: what are the inherent constraints of language uses that make an

argumentative text argumentative? What are the regularities of language uses that are common in all argumentative discourse.

Thematic analysis spells out the global meaning of discourse beyond grammar and linguistic traditions. We need to ask a question like "What was she speaking/writing about? Questions that sum up the most important information. Since topics define the overall 'unity' of discourse and typically expressed through discourse segments such as headlines, summaries or conclusions (Van Dijk, 1997). There are many activities which deal with the propositional organization of discourse:

- Information order processed like a dialogue (question and answer) through imagining the interlocutor (Cook, 1989, P.64).
- Cross text comparison of different text-types (Olshtain and Celce-Murcia, 2000).
- Comparison of thematic selection in different text types (Flowerdrew, 2013).
- Planning when writing such as writing outline or flowchart that supports students.
- Using text as a model students alter, expand, shorten, or elaborate (Olshtain and Celce-Murcia, 2000).
- Identifying signalling items related to the macro patterns. For example, McCarthy (1991) analysed key vocabulary indicating Problem-Solution pattern, include words like a *dilemma*, *hinder (ance)*, *answer*, *result*, *(re)solve*, and the like.

Cook (1989) also suggests activities that based on interpretation and production of discourse: Information gap activities, one-way communicative tasks (based on students' knowledge), two-way communicative tasks (involve exchange).

Information quantity and ordering is promoted through activities based on adding and removing information: The teacher selects a piece of discourse and adds information to it. Then he provides information about the receiver. The students are asked to remove the

additional information and rewrite the discourse again. The aim is to maintain the same quantity information of the text (Ibid).

Article choice also reflects the degree of mutual knowledge (in terms of given Vs new information. The teacher changes the use of the article in discourse students rewrite the discourse again, for specific reader. Particular attention is given to considering the difference between actual use which is based previously mentioned in the text, and definite articles use based on assumptions about the schemata of the receiver (Ibid).

Cook also suggests thematic activities. For example, in teacher destroy-restore activity, he/she first alter information structure of a particular discourse. Students reorder and restore it. They can be provided with different way of ordering information at clause level (fronting devices manipulation) and then have the students decide the most appropriate contextually based sense of discourse (Ibid).

### ***3.3.2 Bottom-up analysis oriented analysis (cohesion)***

Olshtain & Celce-Murcia (2000) argue that making discourse meaningful and unified in the reader's mind depends on realities of the world and on interaction between top-down and bottom-up processing. The bottom-up element of WD involves local and specific features, including choosing lexical items and grammatical forms, appropriate use of cohesive devices.

As we have been stated so far, many scepticism on considering textual cohesion as the sole element in discourse. As a result of disregarding the context, cohesion is generally taught as decontextualised elements, that is realized in clustering cohesive elements in semantic groups such as additives (and, in addition, further more, etc) discounting their semantic variation (Johns, 1986). However, it is appropriate to teach cohesive devices from wholistic view: cohesive elements are "governed by the writer's purpose, the



audience knowledge and expectations, and the information to be conveyed" (Johns, 1986 p.249).

Classroom activities in this respect will focus on the role of cohesive devices in discourse. For example examining lexical chains as cohesive devices (Olshtain and Celce-Murcia, 2000). In addition cohesion awareness is promoted through practicing interactive activities which involve decisions on bottom-up choices, for example, connecting pairs of sentences and filling the blanks, and jigsaw activity (McCarthy, 1991, P. 153)

### **3.4 Conclusion**

Recently, more underlying concepts were considered, and the contribution of a certain number of other features was considered rather than focusing on one side of the story. The discourse notions that have been discussed are multidimensional. We do believe that teaching Writing is to be holistic, exploiting knowledge about discourse [form and function relation, macrostructure, contextual elements, knowledge of the reader, the underlying intention (illocutionary act)]. Our approach to the analysis of written discourse centres mainly on engaging students in acting as readers of discourse, and discourse analysts as they examine how writers construct their message for a particular readership, synthesising different types of knowledge of WD, namely contextual and textual.

## CHAPTER FOUR: TEACHING AND LEARNING SITUATION ANALYSIS

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## **Introduction**

This section aims at collecting data from second-year students of English and teachers of written expression in the department of English at El-oued university through responding to a questionnaire. This chapter is not concerned strictly with checking the hypothesis that centres on measuring the extent to which the research input (WDA) improves the students' output (written production). The main aim is to describe and explore the teaching and learning situation wherein the application of our suggested methodology will be undertaken before the implementation of the quasi-experiment treatment.

As to clarify our selection of the questionnaire as data gathering tool, it is an effective means to directly interact with the informants; furtherly, they help capture various type of data so as to best "understand better how things are really operating in your own, personal environment\_\_ in your classroom or other learning setting\_\_ or to describe the abilities, performances, and other characteristics of the learners, teachers, and administrations involved in your professional life" (Dörnyei, 2014, P. 119).

Also, the data has been gathered is of different types: Factual data involves information related to the respondents' experience and knowledge. Behavioral data reveals what the respondents do when writing or teaching. Attitudinal data concerns the respondents' opinion, interests' or how they feel about-about particular issue. The three types of data are yielded by questionnaire as maintained by (Dörnyei, 2014).

### **4.1 Aims of the Questionnaires**

Having that general aim stated above, we have to identify the related subsidiary topics we seek to describe. Both teachers' and students' questionnaire aim at eliciting real-life data about the teaching and learning situation of FL writing. That would offer insight

of contextual constraints of the population we are concerned with before any intervention took place.

Starting with the teachers' questionnaire, answers to the following questions are the main specific aims: What qualification and how old experience do SLW teachers have? What is the nature of teaching practices including teaching approaches, classroom practices, language aspects and writing issues mostly dealt with? What is the teachers' perception of second-year students' writing proficiency? What are the teaching challenges they face?

As to The students' questionnaire, generally, aims at providing a breadth information of various types about second-year students the first section is structured up to categories: the participants' knowledge related to different components of mastering written discourse (schematic knowledge, macro-level organisation, and cohesion), their writing difficulties and needs, and their opinions toward the teaching practices.

## **4.2 Description of The Questionnaires**

Both questionnaires (*see Appendix 01 and 02*) are highly structured. The teachers' questionnaire is composed of four (04) sections and three main questions. Each questions suggests from three to five options. While the students questionnaire four (04) and five (05) questions. All the questions are closed and involves set of options. We intended to choose closed questions as they are easy to encode and analyse and they yield objective data since the responses (options) are already made, no effort, or free writings are required. Respondents are asked to indicate their level of argument through selecting one of the four scales, mainly strongly agree, agree, disagree, undecided. Hence subjective bias or misunderstanding on the part of the researcher is avoided. As some students would feel bored and tired and would not answer seriously thus sections are ordered according to their

importance to the research. The questions are unambiguous, accurately, and clearly stated to achieve reasonable response rate.

### **4.3 The Sample**

The questionnaires were conducted at Hamma Lakdar University, El-oued. The sample involves the whole population available: One hundred second-year students of English and seventeen (17) teachers of written expression. Starting with the students, The preliminary sample was 100 students, however, we considered only 87 respondents who have completely filled in the questionnaire: (3) Respondents unwillingly did not take part, that would be because of time constraints or other reasons. (3) Students were absent when the questionnaire was distributed, and (7) questionnaires were subtracted because of their unserious responses and a lot of missing data. That is to say, 13 questionnaires out of 100 were discarded from the analysis.

There are some facts that stimulated the choice of the population. First, they need more training in academic writing as they will graduate next year. Another motivation is that second year written expression syllabus (*see Appendix 03 and 04*) set the ability to produce different sorts of essays as its main objective, unlike the first-year syllable that focuses on grammar points. Having different text types as the ultimate teaching objective require macro organization and discourse elements have been discussed previously. It is inevitable to mention that all the population involved in both the experiment and the questionnaire share the same culture and the same L1, except two students who come from the west of Africa (Mali and Nigeria).

However, teachers though all are Algerian, it is noticeable that there are some regional differences, particularly in terms of the use of French by teachers who come from the north of Algeria that is mixed with the Algerian dialect in everyday communication and

even in academic contexts. The number of teachers is 17. Most of them have magister degree. All of them responded to the questionnaire and were favourably disposed towards the improvement and reflection in relation to teaching FL Writing skill.

#### **4.4 Administration of the Questionnaires**

Two ways are selected to administrate the questionnaires. For both the students and the teachers, the questionnaires are self-administered, in that the participants themselves respond to the questions without any involvement of the researcher. Our argument for selecting this type of questionnaire administration is to minimise the influence of the researcher bias. As to the students, the questionnaire is handed out at the end of a course so that we can easily and quickly collect them from the respondents. However, as it is difficult and time-consuming to meet them at the same time and the same place, some of the teachers' questionnaire was sent in an attachment via email and facebook. Generally, all the participants interestingly respond to our request because much of their needs and problems are addressed.

#### **4.5 Data Analysis Procedures**

The first step is to recognise what type of data gathered, as the level of data entails the type of statistical analysis. In this respect, some researchers deal with Likert scale questionnaire in terms of interval data. However, most argue that as the aim is to measure the level of agreement, data is mainly ordinal as the difference between items scale cannot be measured because the distance between the two scales is unknown. Responses are coded and listed on a case-by-case basis using a common statistical package, namely SPSS. We should also clarify that the Statistical analysis is univariate. possible statistical measures accordingly involve the frequency of distribution (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). As to data presentation, cross—tabulation or sometimes called highway tables are selected so

as to present data in an adjunct way to consistently and critically interpret combinations of the respondents' produced responses.

#### ***4.5.1 Teachers' perception of the teaching of FL Writing***

##### ***Questionnaire***

This section, facts related to FL writing teachers of second year students at El-Oued university are accumulated and presented. First, it provides an overview about teachers' qualifications and experience. Then identifies the teaching approaches they most likely adhere to and areas of practices they focus on. Also, it examines the teachers' perception of the students' written production and attitudes towards their writing proficiency level.

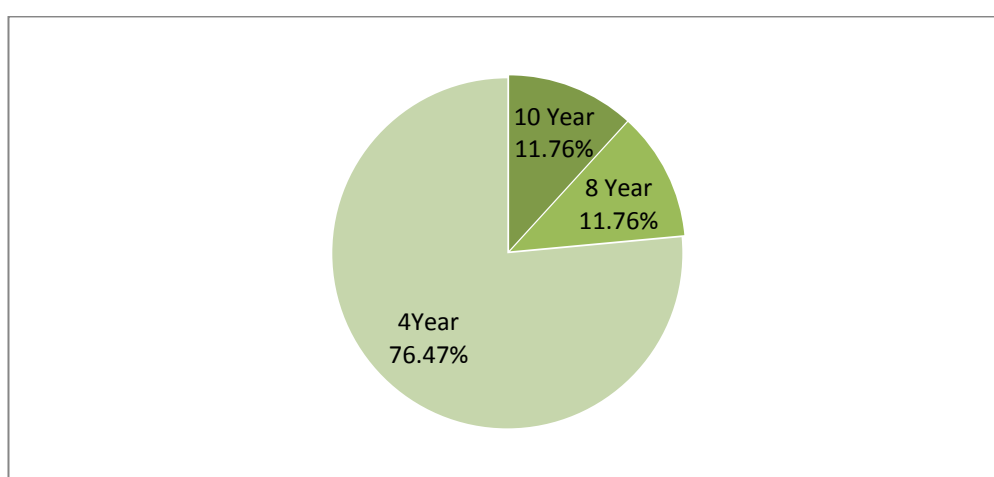
***4.5.1.1 Teachers' qualifications.*** In our examination of the teachers' qualification, we resort to relevant information including the degree of the teachers' formal education, years of experience in teaching, professional speciality, the relevant professional research was undertaken. Such variables would indicate their high or low qualification and, then, some hints on teaching or pedagogical efficacy would be inferred, correlating such constraints with the other variables will be stated in the forthcoming discussion.

Data in table (4.4.1) shows that the teachers' qualifications vary in many respects. In regard to the formal education degree, just one teacher has PhD in Applied Linguistics and Didactics

Informants	Degree	Years of teaching	Speciality	Research
1	Doctore B	10	Applied Linguistics	1
2	Magister B	10	Didactique	0
3	Magister B	8	Translation	0
4	Magister B	8	ESP	0
5	Magister B	4	Linguistics	0
6	Magister B	4	Translation	0
7	Magister B	4	Literature	0
8	Magister B	4	Translation	0
9	Magister B	3	Translation	0
10	Magister B	3	Translation	0
11	Magister A	2	ESP	0
12	Magister A	2	Translation	0
13	Magister A	2	Translation	0
14	Magister A	2	Translation	0
15	Magister A	1	ESP	0
16	Magister A	1	Didactique	1
17	Magister A	1	Didactique	0

**Table 4.8 Teachers' Qualification and Experience.**

As to the teaching experience, most of the teachers (76%) can be considered as novice teachers. Two teachers out of (17) have eight years'experience while the overwhelming number mainly (13) have less than six years'experience. Data is presented in the following pie Chart (Figure 3).



**Figure 3:Teaching Experience**



As to their professional qualification, It is noticeable that the majority of the respondents have magister degree some of them are still doctorate students. most respondents (8) are specialised in translation. The rest of the academic specialisations are ESP(3), didactics (3), applied linguistics and didactics, (1) linguistics(1), Literature (1). What is common among all the respondents is that their little contribution to FLW research and DA, although five of the total number conducted some small-scale studies related to their content area of studies.

One cannot rule out that teachers might be qualified or not relying only on the years of teaching. Determining whether teachers are qualified or not requires more variables. In some cases depends on self-effort, continuous reflection, and refinement. On the other hand, lack of well-experienced teachers, no professional investigations and collaboration, and specialized training may have influenced teaching efficacy of teaching FL writing.

**4.5.1.2. Teaching approaches.** Table 4.2 summarises the teachers' selection of the teaching approach they adopt in their classroom.

Variables	Answers	Frequency	Valid percent
<b>a. Structural approach</b>	Strongly Agree	0	0.00
	Agree	0	0.00
	Disagree	13	76.47
	Neutral	4	23.53
	Total	17	100
<b>b. Process-based approach</b>	Strongly Agree	10	58.82
	Agree	3	17.65
	Disagree	2	11.76
	Neutral	2	11.76
	Total	17	100
<b>c. Genre-Based Approach</b>	Strongly Agree	12	70.59
	Agree	3	17.65
	Disagree	0	0.00
	Neutral	2	11.76
	Total	17	100
<b>d. Discourse analysis</b>	Strongly Agree	2	11.76
	Agree	1	5.88
	Disagree	3	17.65
	Neutral	10	58.82
	Total	17	100
<b>e. No precise approach</b>	Strongly Agree	10	58.82
	Agree	2	11.76
	Disagree	5	29.41
	Neutral	0	0.00
	Total	17	100

**Table 9: Teaching Approaches**

More than half of the respondents (58%) indicate their strong agreement with the use of process approach. The like portion is given to genre analysis approach. The overall responses indicate that there are some respondents who support the use of more than one approach. However, the most important aspect of the data is in responses to item (e), in that considerable number of teachers (58%) do not adopt a definite approach. There is a great trend, then, in neglecting theoretical knowledge while it is generally held among many language pedagogy experts that teachers have to be aware of the teaching theory adopted. Another striking point behind the recurrent selection of the option *neutral*,

particularly in the case of DA, in that (58%) of the teachers out of 17 responds to *neutral* the most likely explanation is that respondents do not have any related stand or opinion.

#### 4.5.1.3 FLW practices.

Variables	Answers	Frequency	Valid percent
<b>a. Correctness</b>	Strongly Agree	<b>11</b>	<b>64.71</b>
	Agree	6	35.29
	Disagree	0	0.00
	Neutral	0	0.00
	Total	17	100.00
<b>b. Cohesion and coherence</b>	Strongly Agree	<b>12</b>	<b>70.59</b>
	Agree	4	23.53
	Disagree	0	0.00
	Neutral	0	0.00
	Total	17	100.00
<b>c. Communicating certain readers</b>	Strongly Agree	<b>5</b>	<b>29.41</b>
	Agree	7	41.18
	Disagree	0	0.00
	Neutral	5	29.41
	Total	17	100.00
<b>d. Rhetorical features and moves</b>	Strongly Agree	<b>0</b>	<b>0.00</b>
	Agree	10	58.82
	Disagree	0	0.00
	Neutral	7	41.18
	Total	17	100.00
<b>e. How-to -write discussion</b>	Strongly Agree	<b>5</b>	<b>29.41</b>
	Agree	2	11.76
	Disagree	0	0.00
	Neutral	0	0.00
	Total	17	100.00

**Table 10: Teachers' Focus in a Writing Session**

Table (4.3) depicts the main language aspects mostly practised in the classroom. Starting from the highest to the lowest rate: the majority of teachers (15) tend to focus on explaining how to write a certain text. Interestingly, this correlates with variable (b) in section 1.8, in that teachers of FL writing do not have a definite approach on the basis of which they design writing course and select activities. Responses to item (e) prove that the focus is given to strategies and routines of writing, such as how to write a topic sentence,

how to write the introduction part of an essay, etc. The respondents rank cohesion and coherence (12), correctness (11), rhetorical characterization and structure, and finally communicating readers (5) respectively.

#### ***4.5.1.4 .Teachers' perception of the students' written productions.*** Table

(4.4) represents teachers' perception of the students' written production.

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Answers</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Valid percent</b>
<b>a. Advanced</b>	Strongly Agree	0	0.00
	Agree	0	29.41
	Disagree	10	29.41
	Neutral	7	41.18
	Total	17	100.00
<b>b. Acceptable</b>	Strongly Agree	3	17.65
	Agree	5	29.41
	Disagree	4	23.53
	Neutral	5	29.41
	Total	17	100.00
<b>c. Partially master</b>	Strongly Agree	10	58.82
	Agree	7	41.18
	Disagree	0	0.00
	Neutral	0	0.00
	Total	17	100.00
<b>d. Coming to university with limited knowledge</b>	Strongly Agree	5	29.41
	Agree	7	41.18
	Disagree	3	17.65
	Neutral	2	11.76
	Total	17	100.00

**Table 11: Teachers' Attitude Toward Students' Writing Proficiency**

It reveals crucial information about the overall writing proficiency level. Respondents strongly agree (58%) with the partial mastery. Another striking result to emerge from the data is that there is no agreement on advanced option because that would be restricted to some cases. However, most of them agree with the fact that students come to university with a limited knowledge. This suggests indirectly that the students' problems of written communication go back to their previous stages of compulsory education. The results

obtained are compatible with what has been stated in the literature, FL and SL writing teachers are like language teachers, that is likely reflected in the students written output.

**4.5.1.4 FL writing teachers' challenges.** Apart from this slight non-alignment, the result confirms that most teachers, at any rate, do find some difficulties.

Difficulties	Answers	Frequency	Valid percent
<b>a. Inconsistent Teaching framework</b>	Strongly Agree	10	58.82
	Agree	5	29.41
	Disagree	2	11.76
	Neutral	0	0.00
	Total	17	100.00
<b>b. Input And Output Apartness</b>	Strongly Agree	12	70.59
	Agree	2	11.76
	Disagree	3	17.65
	Neutral	0	0.00
	Total	17	100.00
<b>c. Getting students Exposed to text practices</b>	Strongly Agree	7	41.18
	Agree	10	58.82
	Disagree	10	58.82
	Neutral	0	0.00
	Total	17	100.00
<b>d. Appropriate realisation and awareness</b>	Strongly Agree	10	58.82
	Agree	4	23.53
	Disagree	3	17.65
	Neutral	0	0.00
	Total	17	100.00

**Table 12: FL Writing Teaching Difficulties**

The majority of them (12) view that the teaching input they provide is apart from or not realise the expected teaching outcome. An important implication of the finding is that the teaching methods or teaching input generally do not effectively foster the students' writing ability. Another sort of teachers obstacles, as it can be noticed from the table, 10 out of 17 (mainly 58%) of the respondents strongly agree with the difficulty to enable students appropriately realise written discourse and being aware of language use. Approximately the same portion (10 agree, and 7 strongly agree) suggest difficulties in exposing students

to getting them practise varieties of written text. Probably, we suggest that this is due to insufficient time devoted to practice and production.

#### ***4.5.2 Comments and Discussion***

Direct interaction with the participants serves as a reliable real-life evidence for the existence of the problems which have been stated so far in the introduction (section 1.2 *Statement of the problem*) and the inconsistency addressed theoretically in the literature review. The analysis of the teachers' responses has, also, led us to the elucidation of some facts.

Starting with the positive side, most teachers are aware of the teaching challenges the students' level and. These mainly comprise a set of interdependent interrelated variables. It would appears that both the unsatisfactory level of the student and the teachers' problems are due to the absence of an explanatory theory that counts for or considers principled treatment of the dynamicity of FL writing or non-specialised teacher training in teaching the four skills. In all, the difficulties in teaching writing skill discussed so far, are all pedagogical in their nature.

#### ***4.5.3 The Students' perception of Teaching and Learning of Writing***

##### ***Skill Questionnaire***

The subjects involved in the questionnaire are eighty-seven (87) second-year students at Hamma Lakdar University. The number of females is more than males. The whole sample is homogenous in terms of the age and years of learning English: the most frequent age is between 20 and 22, only three students are aged 27 years.

The questionnaire aims at identifying different components which will be involved in the study. The students' discourse knowledge, needs, problems, are, also crucial elements

to be considered when planning a writing lesson. A profound discussion is devoted, then, to the students' perception of the learning and teaching of writing.

This section represents the Students WD knowledge which involves examining different components of WD discussed in *Chapter Three: Knowledge of use in WD* to see the extent of which they are aware of. To this end, the coming discussion is divided into three parts: Schematic knowledge consideration, macro-level organisation, cohesion.

**4.5.3.1. Schematic knowledge consideration.** Data in Table (4.6) represent respondents awareness of the different types of top-down knowledge discussed in *Chapter Three*.

Schematic Knowledge	Answers	Frequency	Valid percent
<b>a. Readership consideration</b>	Strongly Agree	10	8.7
	Agree	10	8.7
	Disagree	60	52.2
	Don't know	7	6.09
<b>b. Contextual knowledge (time, place, topic, purpose)</b>	Strongly Agree	50	43.5
	Agree	27	23.49
	Disagree	0	00
	Don't know	13	11.31
<b>c. knowledge of the topic area</b>	Strongly Agree	55	47.85
	Agree	32	28.71
	Disagree	00	00
	Don't know	00	00

**Table 13: Second Year Students Consideration Of Schematic Knowledge**

Results show that nearly most (60%) students do not consider readership-related elements. However, more than the half of the respondents strongly agree with the importance of contextual knowledge and content area knowledge.

**4.5.32. Macro-level organization.** Table 4.7 provides Insights into how students devise their WD.



Overall Macro Structure	Answers	Frequency	Valid percent
<b>a. Rhetorical structure e.g, cause and effect, compare and contrast</b>	Strongly Agree	41	35.67
	Agree	36	31.32
	Disagree	00	00
	Don't know	10	8.7
<b>b. New Vs old information</b>	Strongly Agree	00	00
	Agree	10	8.7
	Disagree	30	26.1
	Don't know	47	40.89
<b>c. Meaning-based organization (propositional development)</b>	Strongly Agree	72	62.64
	Agree	15	13.05
	Disagree	00	00
	Don't know	00	00
<b>d. Illocutionary based organization</b>	Strongly Agree	0	00
	Agree	10	8.7
	Disagree	30	26.1
	Don't know	47	40.89

**Table 14: Students' Attitudes Toward Macro Organization Of WD**

Most of the students (66%) arrange segments of discourse on the basis of the meanings expressed say, propositional level. Also, all the respondents respond positively to the rhetorical organization perspective (72% strongly agree and 30% agree). However, more than the half of the respondents do not know how to approach their writing beyond the semantic level such as using linguistic items to provide evidence or to describe. Similarly, students respond negatively to new Vs old information structure.

**4.5.3.3. cohesion.** Examining the students' knowledge of cohesion involves mainly asking respondents to indicate their degree of agreement toward the importance of cohesive devices.

Cohesive devices	Answers	Frequency	Valid Percent
<b>a. Conjunctions</b>	Strongly agree	47	49,4
	Agree	36	41,4
	Disagree	2	2,3
	Don't know	2	6,9
	Total	87	100,0
<b>b. Transition Words</b>	Strongly agree	49	56,3
	Agree	30	34,5
	Don't know	6	6,9
	Disagree	2	2,3
	Total	87	100,0
<b>c. Ellipsis</b>	Strongly agree	14	16,1
	Agree	28	32,2
	Don't know	26	29,9
	Disagree	19	21,8
	Total	87	100,0
<b>d. Substitution</b>	Strongly agree	44	50,6
	Agree	34	39,1
	Don't know	9	10,3
	disagree	00	00
	Total	87	100,0
<b>e. Lexical Relation</b>	Strongly agree	32	36,8
	Agree	36	41,4
	Don't know	19	21,8
	Total	87	100,0
<b>f. Pronouns</b>	Strongly agree	45	51,7
	Agree	27	31,0
	Don't know	8	9,2
	Disagree	7	8,0
	Total	87	100,0
<b>g. Fronting Devices Or Theme</b>	Strongly agree	9	10,3
	Agree	31	35,6
	Don't know	32	36,8
	Disagree	15	17,2
	Total	87	100,0

**Table 15: Students' Attitudes toward their use of Cohesive devices**

Generally, respondents' answers indicate that they see certain cohesive devices as important, though there are noticeable differences in their degree of agreement. Starting with the positive agreement, more than half of them perceive the use of *conjunction*

*pronoun, lexical relations, transition words* as the most important cohesive devices. The percentage of disagreement answers increased with regard to the use of *fronting devices* ( 32 % don't know and 15 % disagree) that is more than the percentage of positive agreement: 9% of the respondents strongly agree with the use of fronting devices, and 31% of them agree. In addition, less than the half of the respondents recognize the importance of ellipsis as a cohesive device considering the sum of *don't know* and *disagree* scales which is 45%.

**4.5.3.4. Students' writing difficulties.** Answers to the students' difficulties as illustrated in *Table 4.9* in writing are related to different dimensions of discourse creation including mastering some cohesion aspect such as (items *e* and *c*); overall organization of discourse (item *b*), fitting the text into its context (*f* and *a*), and the students' general impression on their written production. It is fair to mention that asking students about their difficulties would not be reflective of real difficulties and the analysis conducted in the coming chapter gives accurate picture, however we resort to the two different types of data gathering tools to provide an in depth analysis.

Difficulties	Answers	Frequency	Valid percent
<b>a. Difficulty in Appropriate language use According to certain Communicative situation.</b>	Strongly Agree	14	16,1
	Agree	35	40,2
	Disagree	8	9,2
	Don't know	30	34,5
<b>b. Organisation of text Pattern for descriptive purpose or argumentative, etc.</b>	Strongly Agree	7	6.09
	Agree	18	15.66
	Disagree	55	47.85
	Don't know	7	6.09
<b>c. Logical shifts between sentences and ideas</b>	Strongly Agree	7	6.09
	Agree	34	29.58
	Disagree	46	40.02
	Don't know	00	00
<b>d. Immatured Written productions</b>	Strongly Agree	9	12,6
	Agree	33	35,6
	Disagree	35	30.45
	Don't know	10	8.7
<b>e. Lack in students' lexical diction</b>	Strongly Agree	29	25.23
	Agree	47	54,0
	Disagree	6	6,9
	Don't know	4	3.48
<b>f. Inability in addressing particular reader</b>	Strongly Agree	40	34.08
	Agree	27	23.49
	Disagree	10	8.7
	Don't know	00	00

**Table 16: Students' Writing Difficulties**

A high portion of students face difficulties related to lack of lexis related to a certain topic or text type and addressing certain readers. The degree of arguments slightly

decreased with regard to the overall quality of WD (d) and the use of language within the appropriate communicative situation. Results, however, indicate that most students do not have problems related to cohesion and macro organization of WD, in that disagreement (45%) percentages are remarkably higher than those of arguments.

**4.5.3.5. Students' writing needs.** A consensus view on data displayed in Table 4.10 confirms that most respondents welcomed our propositions. A strong agreement is

Students writing needs	Answers	Frequency	Valid Percent
<b>a. Maximising WD practices</b>	Strongly agree	60	69.0
	Agree	25	28.7
	Disagree	1	1.1
	Don't know	00	00
	Total	87	100
<b>b. Examining other similar texts to how language is used</b>	Strongly agree	49	56,3
	Agree	27	31,0
	Disagree	3	3,4
	Don't know	8	9,2
	Total	87	100,0
<b>c. Getting information for the content of WD.</b>	Strongly agree	26	29,9
	Agree	44	50,6
	Don't know	6	6,9
	Disagree	11	12,6
	Total	87	100,0

**Table 17: Students Writing Needs**

indicated by the majority (69% strongly agree, and 28% agree) of the respondents toward maximising language practices in the classroom. It can be seen that by far the great demand is for the analysis of WD so as to extract their feature of language uses. What is also interesting about this data is that the degree of agreement is considerable in option *b. Examining other similar texts to show how language is used*. The findings confirm the fact that DA is a learning strategy or a learning style although it is fair to mention the fact that such process of text examination is neither systematic nor objective oriented

#### **4.5.4 Comments and Discussion**

The results obtained have suggested that different facts that will be considered in the coming section, summarised as follows:

- There some contradiction in the results obtained. It was surprising that students generally indicate their positive answers toward the consideration of schematic elements in section (4.5.3.1 *Students' schematic knowledge*), however, some relevant problems at the schematic level are extremely obvious, as it has been shown in section (4.5.3.4 *Students' writing difficulties*).
- At the Macro organizational level of DA, students arguments centre on semantic aspect and the use of formal cohesive elements such as pronouns, conjunction (*Table 4.8*); whereas, they face difficulties in dealing with elements of the communicative situation ( *Table 4.9*)
- At the pedagogical level, students' highly demanded classroom practices in language use.

#### **Conclusion**

To sum up both results of the teachers and students questionnaires are correlated in certain respect. It appears that the the superficial outcome is due to the teaching input that is not consider the complex and wholistic nature of written discourse. Thus, the learning situation and variables imply a reading based model that comprises all the gaps highlighted in this respect and neglected in the so-called teaching practices. The needed approach function as awareness raising device at both schematic level (knowledge of different types) for enacting or fostering language uses realisation (performance). A profound discussion on the later will be discussed in the next chapter

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## **Introduction**

The present study seeks to check whether implementation of written discourse analysis in the teaching of the writing skill would result in any improvements in the participants' written production. Accordingly, this section puts all that has been emphasised so far in action. It is devoted to the experiment design, conduction, and testing the hypothesis of this inquiry. The light is shed on how the three aspects of WD together with teaching practices would be approached from discourse analysis perspective. This chapter explains the suggested teaching approach, the research methodology, procedures, data measurements and analysis. Finally, conclusions are drawn from the overall presentation and interpretation of the results.

### **5.1.1 *The Training in WDA***

During 12 sessions, including the pretest and post-test sessions the experimental group have been trained implementing DA insights. We intend to not inform the participants that they are taking part in our investigation so as to create a natural environment for the students so that they behave in a normal serious way, thus no change in their learning habits and no pre-existing conditions would influence the variables. The training sessions are carefully designed taking into consideration certain parameters that are inspired by insights provided by different experts in DA including Halliday and Hassan (1979), McCarthy (a1991, b.2001), Cook (1989), Nunan (1993), Celce-Murcia & Olshtain (2000), Widdowson (a.2004, b.1973), Flowerdrew (2013).

**5.2.2.1 *Teaching procedures and principles.*** The adopted methods that serve as awareness raising device is based mainly on certain stages:

- Before writing activities aims at twofold 'breaking the initial barriers' and to well prepare the students well to start. Possible activities that can be devised at this stage



are brainstorming activities, discussion, oral interaction (role play, pair discussion...), games. They are usually followed by asking some self-awareness questions, such as what do you feel? what hinders your fluency in writing? What made it easier and what made it more difficult?

- Then students were provided with a reading text to be analysed. It is mainly considered as the basic level of classroom interaction. At the top-down level, students were asked to infer the general contextual features of discourse, including questions related to the topic, the reader related information, the type of the language used. At this level of discussion, language knowledge and extra-linguistic realities were brought in classroom interaction, to better help students decode and activate similar schemata.
- Attention after that was shifted to the macro-organizational level. The students were directed to clarify how the WD in hand is organised, in different respects. Finally, students were asked to observe how cohesive elements are used to create certain relations of different sorts within the texts. bottom-up processing aims at being aware of different sensitive means of language use, how selecting certain language devices can render the meaning of discourse in different ways, and how information is handled in discourse.

After observation and interpretation that support students to determine roles, and understand actual meaning realisation, different tasks were provided to manipulate and practice language areas and features emphasised are essential to ensure understanding and promote written language use (in this respect, different types of activities were suggested in *chapter 3*). In the production phase students were provided with a communicative situation to respond to.

As to the main teaching principles considered in teaching Writing Skill to the experimental group, we find it useful to summarise them as follows:

- Reading to write based model: the interactive nature of reading and particular reader's needs are to be addressed.
- Observation-interpretation- manipulation, and production based interaction.
- Experiencing in interpretation or production writing various text types related to their needs and interests.
- Provide practical opportunities to write for particular defined aims.
- Bottom-up and top-down processing of discourse knowledge.
- Considering discourse regularities related to three dimensions schematic, macro-organizational, and cohesive aspects.
- Teaching input is selected or designed to provide students with "meaningful controlled practice within varieties of contexts for use".
- Jargons or difficult terminology is avoided in order not to burden or confuse the students.
- Writing is viewed as an ongoing process of decision making.
- Training fosters two types of unseparated competencies, discourse interpretation and production process, so that meanings are discussed from receivers point and sender interdependently.

**5.2.2.1 The teaching materials.**the teaching material is basically texts and activities of different types. It is important to point that they are not considered as the vehicle of information (TAVI) rather our focus is on Text As Linguistic Object (TALO) as John and Davis (1983). The teaching materials are selected according to a proposed criteria including the teaching objectives and content, the students level, background, and needs. All the teaching materials involve texts of various types (descriptive, argumentative, etc ).

Many texts and activities are extracted from DA books, they include journal articles that are authentic (are not written for pedagogical purposes). Some texts are adopted by the researcher from text TOEFL coursebook, newspaper, and magazines, and analysed to prepare them for classroom application. Texts are supported by a set of instructions and activities, essential components of teacher and students' interaction and provide the context for language interpretation and practices.

**5.2.2.1 Top-down and bottom-up discourse processing.** It has been maintained that our teaching method centres on the teacher-student interaction and the analysis of language use. The term analysis itself implies understanding how elements of WD as parts constitute it as a whole. The systematic interpretation of discourse involves twofold processing: 'top-down' and 'bottom-up'. In the top-down approach to DA, the description starts with a contextual conceptualization of the text. Understanding the context is the platform of text interpretations. Then, processing is shifted downwards toward the examination of utterances within the text "in the expectation of finding evidence – linguistic evidence –..." (Woods, 2006, p. xi) for meaning users. In bottom-up processing, the analysis starts with small units that the texts contain, hereby evidence of how a text is structured in a particular way. An analyst examines why a set of words are used rather than other, or how expressions and phrases have specific meaning rather than another.

## **5.2 The Sample**

The experiment took place in the Department of English, at the University of Hamma Lakhdar, El-oued. The informants participated in the experiment are the same students who answered the questionnaire, however, they were 52 because of some administrative constraints and lack of available classrooms. They have received one year of formal teaching in writing (2015-2016 academic year). The general broad lines of the

programme of written expression module are designed by the ministry, however, details are left to institutions for further development or specifications. The participants have been taught in their First Years the basic units they need to construct a paragraph, then in second-year focus is given to strategies of writing essays of different types. A detailed presentation of the programme is provided in *Appendix 4*.

In addition to the students, the other participants involved are the teacher and the researcher. They have their own tasks: The teacher who accepted to conduct the experiment has 10 years' experience. She has a magister degree in didactics. She is interested in exploring the new programme, that is given to her a week before starting the training sessions and treatment, so as to be well-prepared and to get an overview of the programme. Her role involves mainly, following the teaching steps and procedures outlined in the lesson plans. In addition, she negotiates meaning and interacts with the students, sets up activities, manages and organises them when doing a group work, checks and provides feedback, directs students' attention toward certain discourse elements, and she is a test rater. However, the teacher is not the doer of everything. The main tasks, then, are a negotiator, a facilitator, a guide, an advisor. As to the researcher he has no interaction with the students so as to reduce subjective bias. The main role is a course and test designer, observer, then analyst of the results and interpreter.

Turning the discussion to the role of the students. They are put at the Centre of communication process, as they are active processors of discourse: They act like discourse analyst, in that, they observe, interpret according to certain context, and extract features recurrent features akin to the communicative purpose, meaning negotiators and makers (when interpreting, producing, or interacting with the teacher).

### **5.3 The Design of the Experiment and Procedures**

This experiment is quasi by its nature, as it lacks some features of a true experiment that is, in our context, randomization and control group; the sample has already been provided. The researcher has no ability to assign the subject to groups or select certain groups. Thus the best design as advised by Cohen et al (2007) is the one group pretest-posttest design. Thus, The fifty-two 52 students were taught by the same teacher, both are pre-tested and post-tested and trained in the same way. We insist on having this large number so as to ensure the reliability generalizability of the results achieved.

#### **5.3.1 *The pre-test***

Before administering the pre-test, the researcher has formally consulted the teacher of written expression of second-year students at El-oued university to investigate how teaching goes on and determine needs, and ways of interaction, to outline everything related to the experiment and collaborate with the teacher.

After that, the pre-test was administered to the students. As our teaching integrates the analysis and reading texts, the pre-test, like the post-test, comprises two parts: the first concerned with WD interpretation, and the second part is devoted to WD production. In WD interpretation students are required to answer some questions related a reading text that in turn relevant to their background knowledge. The questions are simple and directly inferred from the reading text some questions need awareness about certain discourse aspect, on the part of the students. In this respect, they are involved in the decoding process. In WD production part their task is encoding knowledge of different types. Students were asked to write an argumentative essay for their peer, in which they express their opinion about the following topic: "Social media are a two-edged sword." Our arguments for selecting this topic are: First, the topic tackles a currently observed and real-

life issue. Second, To reduce bias, we tend to test them in a way that they are familiar with, i.e, they used to be asked to write an essay responding to a quotation or certain topic that is usually general and lacks the feature of communicative interactions. we tend, then to introduce the topic highlighting basic contextual traits of the communicative situation.

### **5.3.2 *The Post-test***

The aim of the post-test is to diagnose students' improvements in WD production after having the training sessions. it is similar to the pre-test in terms of diagnostic purpose; however, the latter seeks to identify areas of weaknesses, the former specifically aims at measuring students' progress in areas have been taught. Both of two are common in certain respects: The same evaluation grid, method of scoring, and type of WD are used. They are consistent in terms the testee and the tasks to minimise factors caused by variation in scores. They are valid in that they test precisely what we aim to test. Students were asked to respond to interpretation activities and a writing task, with careful consideration of elements have been taught in the training sessions. An evaluation grid is already explained to the students in instruction sessions.

### **5.3.3 *Assessment***

As to the scoring method the analytic, rather than holistic method so as to provide a detailed information on students' WD proficiency. Assessment rubrics\_ are based on WDA insights discussed in *Chapter One* had been under focus during the training sessions these are presented in detail in the following evaluation grid:

Areas	Scores	Description
<b>Schematic knowledge</b>	<b>4</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- the ability to deal and consider the elements of the context within which WD is embedded including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The audience</li> <li>• The purpose</li> <li>• The type of discourse</li> <li>• The content of the text in relation to the topic.</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<b>Macro-organisation</b>	<b>2</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Ability to appropriately order parts of the written discourse, getting the certain flow of a recognisable pattern of Discourse using appropriate cues.</li> </ul>
<b>Cohesion</b>	<b>4</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The ability to master and appropriate selection of various lexico-grammatical cohesive devices including to smoothly and intelligibly maintain relations between sentences and parts of discourse <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Conjunction</li> <li>• Reference</li> <li>• Ellipsis</li> <li>• Lexical cohesion</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

**Table 18: Evaluation Grid of WD Production and Interpretation**

The format of evaluation grid in Table is adopted and modified from Hincle (2003), however, the criteria are based on our research focus and teaching objectives which are stated above in the grid from the from top-down element to bottom-up ones. It is worth to mention also that the highlighted parameters are considered in assessing *A) interpretation* ability and the *B) production* of WD, presuming 10 scores for each section.

## **5.4 Analysis of the Results**

Our treatment variable involves the implementation of WDA in teaching writing, dealing with three main aspects of WD relevant to the input variable of the inquiry, schematic knowledge, macro organisation, and cohesion that have been discussed in details in *chapter 03*. These are measured in the same way the students have been taught, i.e in terms of WD interpretation and WD production, comparing both types of achievements, in some respects since they are interrelated theoretically as we have clarified in sections throughout this inquiry (see section 1.2.3 and 3.3.1), thus it is worth to include interpretation ability an essential aspect of contextualised and proficient writing. The

quantitative data gathered are presented statistically, so as to investigate empirically the extent the respondents' written productions are developed after intervention took place.

#### 5.4.1 *The Pre-test*

The quantitative data collected from the initial test presented in Table (5.2) both to reveal the students' proficiency level before training them in WDA, so as to gather data to be compared with the results obtained after teaching. The means brought from the treatment group in the pre-test, presented in terms of all aspects have been assessed.

Aspects	Interpretation	Production
<b>Scheme</b>	<b>2.34</b>	<b>1.09</b>
type	0.88	0.26
content	0.79	0.33
purpose	0.25	0.30
audience	0.41	0.20
<b>Macro-org</b>	<b>1.32</b>	<b>0.65</b>
D.sig	0.51	0.20
D.seg	0.80	0.45
cohesion	2.57	1.45
Lexis	0.70	0.39
Ellip	0.15	0.00
Ref	0.81	0.48
conj	0.90	0.58
<b>Mean</b>	<b>6.22</b>	<b>3.20</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>9.41</b>	

**Table 19: The Pre-test Means of WD Aspects**

An aspect is considered problematic when the pre-test mean- in each aspect is less than the medium of scores listed in the grid *Table (5.2)*. As presented in the table, the number of non-problematic aspects WD interpretation is low. However, in WD production these aspects are not effectively realised. In the forthcoming discussion, we will account for each the unsatisfactory data obtained from the pre-test.



**5.3.1.1 Schematic Analysis.** Putting constraints on the types of schemata reviewed in *Chapter 3*, We have focused only on top-down elements that most affect WD production, mainly recognizing the readership, topic, type of discourse, and relevant content schematic knowledge.

Aspects	Interpretation	Production
<b>Schem</b>	2.34	1.09
<b>Type</b>	0.88	0.26
<b>Content</b>	0.79	0.33
<b>Purpose</b>	0.25	0.30
<b>Audience</b>	0.41	0.20

**Table 20: Schematic knowledge Consideration in WD Interpretation and Production**

Results indicate that schematic knowledge is considerably recognised in interpretation process more than in production.

Starting with the interpretation the following facts are noticed:

Most of the respondents do not identify the addressed readership, the same number of respondents did not grasp the intended message or communicative purpose behind the writers' classification of Vitamins needs, despite the fact that most of them properly, understand content information of the text and identified the text type.

Answers to the question "*What do you think the main communicative purpose behind the writers' classification of Vitamin supplement categorization?*" Many students superficially answered, " to classify types of Vitamin supplements". It is obvious, then that respondents did not go beyond the rhetorical structure to infer the underlying intention that explains why Vitamin is needed and the extent to which people can take them, and ultimately to make people aware of the main issue discussed.

However, as shown in *Table (5.3)* in WD production, students fail to address those components although the writing task (*see Appendix 05: the pretest*) **restrict** the contextual

aspects of the written communicative situation. To illustrate the point it is worth to restate the writing task given to the students in the pre-test and decode its contextual elements:

Nowadays people usually comment that "social media are a two-edged sword" In no more than 20 lines, write an argumentative essay **words** in which you **sensitive** university students about the topic stated above (*Appendix 05: The Pre-test*). The writing task involves the following contextual components:

▪ <b>The situation or problem</b>	-Nowadays people usually comment that " "social media are a two-edged sword".
▪ <b>The Target audience</b>	-University students
▪ <b>The Objective of writing</b>	-To sensitise or make them aware of
▪ <b>The Task of the writer</b>	-to argue
▪ <b>Length (or quantity)</b>	-No more than 20 lines

**Table 21: Criteria for Designing Writing Tasks**

what, how, to whom, and why are basic elements affect the whole WD production in a certain way. *Inability to signal such contextual elements has generally yielded unfocused and to other bottom-up misuses that will be addressed in the next level of WDA.*

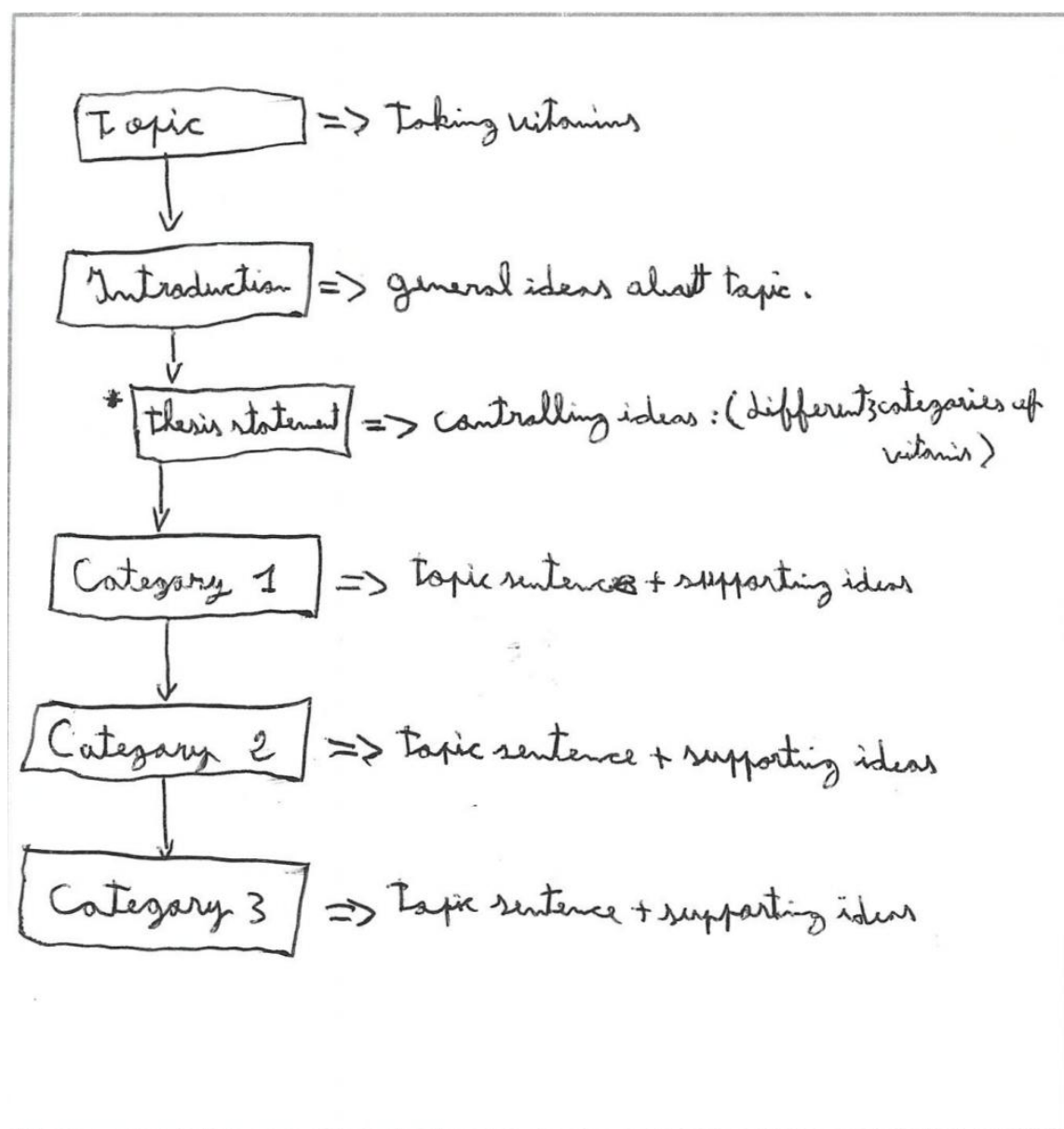
**5.3.1.2.Macro-organization.**data related to the macro organisation of WD involves mainly considering how the sequencing of ideas is and whether the information is organised in a certain way to form certain discourse pattern which is argumentative in our case.

Aspects	Inter		prod	
	Pretest mean	Nº Low Scores	Pretest mean	Nº Low Scores
<b>Mac-org</b>	1.32	8	0.65	29
<b>D.seg</b>	0.80	30	0.20	16
<b>D.sig</b>	0.51	14	0.45	26

**Table 22: Pre-test results of Macro-organization of WD.**

The table shows that the number of low scores is higher in Production than that of interpretation. A considerable number of the respondents' identified the main parts of WD

in hand. However, what is frequently noticed is the focus on formal aspects that would be unique to any other text types. This point is illustrated in Figure (4)



**Figure 4: An illustration of the respondents' Diagram presentation of WD Macrostructure.**

Data on WD production is quite revealing. Although most WD productions are structured in terms basic parts of essay, i.e, introduction-body-conclusion. Their organisation of WD does not comply with the norms of argumentative discourse and the

manipulated signalling expressions do not go along with the nature of the communicative situation they have responded to. The main features noticed in this respect are discussed below with supporting illustrations extracted from the students' answers in the pre-test:

- Most respondents make use of the given quotation in the task without any refinement to fit their purpose or of writing or the text type they are supposed to produce.
- Many students do not explicitly state the main thesis statement. This point could be clearly noticed in the following introduction:

"Social media is a collection platforms and tools that allow users to share a content, their experiences. it includes Facebook, twitter, skype, youtube...for example, Facebook is a popular free social networking website that allows users to....social media impact importance on education to develop the language and skills."

In this introduction, \_\_disregarding mistakes such as missing the "s" of present simple, misuse of articles, adjectives, punctuation, and pronouns which are not related to the level under discussion \_\_the respondents start with defining social media, providing examples, then direct shift to discussing its impact on education without preparing the reader to the content and the purpose of the essay.

Discourse Signals (D.S) do not fit the communicative purpose of WD: In the introduction, they use adverbs like, *nowadays*, *at present times*. Transition words in the body of the essay are: *firstly*, *secondly*, and the like. Conclusions are usually signalled using expressions such as, *in short*, *at the end*, *to conclude*, and *so*.

In addition to other problems in handling the macro-organization as related to the action of pursuing that could be observed in

- Lack of counter-argument, some arguments are based on personal intuition, and subjective, rather than substantive facts, or even they are left unsupported.
- Based on explanatory facts, descriptions, unelaborated statements.
- unnecessary information.
- Short conclusions, lack of restating the main points, usually advice or personal perception related to the topic.
- Direct statements (i.e, do not based on inference as meanings are encoded at propositional level, rather than pragmatic level).

**5.3.1.3Cohesion.** In this section, respondents' manipulation ties established at sentence and discourse level through lexico-grammatical resources in Table 5.6 are characterised.

	Interpretation		Production	
	Mean	Nº Low Scores	Mean	Nº Low Scores
<b>Cohesion</b>	<b>2.57</b>	3	<b>1.45</b>	43
<b>Lexis</b>	0.70	2	0.39	10
<b>Ellip</b>	0.15	45	0.00	53
<b>Ref</b>	0.81	2	0.48	10
<b>Conj</b>	0.90	5	0.58	7

**Table 23: Pretest Results of Cohesion in WD Interpretation and Production**

The processing of bottom-up element in the interpretation process is not as problematic as in production, in that in the first as stated in the table there is only one problematic aspect, in that 45 respondents do not recognise elliptical items in the reading text. However, lexical ties (mainly, synonyms, opposites, lexical), reference, and conjunctions are mostly identified. Unlikely, in production, these are neither appropriately mastered nor effectively used:

**5.3.1.3.1Conjunction.** Results show that students exploit certain semantic ties in the sentence. Misuses of conjunctions in, characterised mainly as unnatural use and overused such as in the following examples:

" **Although**, All **this benefits** of social media, **but it** has some disadvantage".

In addition to the faulty capitalization and the mistakes in bold type, the meaning of the second clause depends on the first sentence, as marked by the use of *Although*, the conjunction of concession carry the meaning of contrast and contradiction. Thus it is not necessary to use the coordinator "*but*" in the dependent clause.

Another example which best illustrates the inappropriate use of ties at sentence level is selection of if-condition type:

[...] if we need to benefit from social media, we need to careful to our use to it, we need to bay attention to the different programmes and the very important advice is to use social media in good make it helpful tools. the bad use of it make it bad tools."

In this example, some previously stated problems appeared again; spelling mistakes in "*bay*", subject-verb disagreement, the use of adjectives as a verb, and unstructured sentences. As to the condition type selected categorised as condition *type zero* that usually used to express a scientific truth or fixed condition. The relationship between actions (verbs) in the example, however, is based on the possibility of occurrence, that totally does not coincide with the context of discourse.

**5.3.1.3.2 Reference.** In WD interpretation, students correctly identified referent words of anaphoric, and cataphoric reference. By contrast, the use of reference in WD production, as indicated in Table 5.6 is limited. Recurrent characteristics related to reference are stated as follows:

- The most used category is anaphoric reference, to refer to an item that is very close to its referent (rather than far ones) and based on pronoun and demonstrative types of reference.

- There is no exploitation of other types of reference, cataphoric and exophoric relations.
- Reference words do not concur with their referent ones. For example, listing the ways social media is referred to students wrongly used the third (3rd) person plural "they", and third (3rd) person singular neutral "it" (*see Sample 02*).

**5.3.1.3.3 Ellipsis.** Only 5 as it can be deduced from *Table 5.6* respondents inferred from the text correctly the verbal ellipsis. While in WD production, no one exploited them. This negative result would be due to the fact that students did not receive any explicit instruction.

**5.3.1.3.4 Lexical Cohesion.** Students generally identified the lexical ties making recourse to the textual framework. These are synonyms, antonyms, and general word

	Mean	
	Interpretation	production
<b>Lexis</b>	0.70	0.39

**Table 24: Lexical cohesion in DA Production**

In WD Production, however, results are totally different as reflected in *Table 5. 7*, the whole group gets 0.39 out of one on Lexis. The main problems related to lexis are:

- Over repetitions, limited lexical ties as highlighted in the following extract from (Sample, 03):

"In short social media has **advantages** and **disadvantages** point. If you use that in a **positive** point you will see social media is positive. And if you use that in **negative** point you will see social media is negative".

- The semantic ties between words written in bold are opposites, synonyms. The italicised items are all examples of unnecessary repetition.

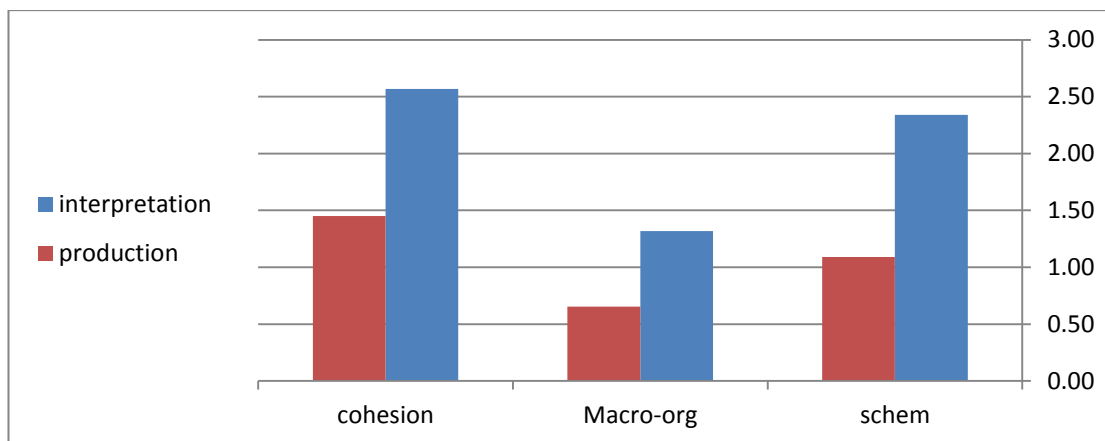
- The use of some lexical chains such as *facebook, skype, twitter* refers to the general word social media.
- The majority of the students' lexical selection lacks variety and context-correlation to the topic, for example, 'jumping, packages, faith, health, mind, eyes, feeling tired' Do not coincide with the topic and the context

### **5.4.2 Further Observations**

In this section, we find it worth to point to noticeable facts that affect the overall writing proficiency, in this respect. Putting forward the fact that the three dimensions WDA are interdependent, and co-interact: Discounting one element would result in deviations at the expense of the other. For example, lack of readers' consideration results generally in product-based production. Human communication of any sort requires two or more interlocutors. When writing, although they are far from each other, reader and writer do interact through the text.

Again, due to the one angle view of writing, problems and difficulties in writing are not merely due to gaps in linguistic competence, rather they are basically due to unawareness of the nature of WD and how bottom-up selections of language affect the overall pattern of D, and not to mention problems in actual realisation of D in its context. The already interpreted results prove that students relatively, interpret, many textual and functional aspects of written discourse, however, the same elements are not realised in the communicative situation. However, the relationship between the two type of D processing explicitly presented in the following bar chart





**Figure 5: Correlation Between WD Interpretation and Production.**

This particular bar graph best illustrates the point that has been made. The first remark that could be pointed out is that the general perception of WD is relatively higher than in production. It appears that the textual dimension is higher than the rhetorical organization and contextual configuration of WD.

### **5.4.3 The Post-Test**

As have been argued in the pre-test, that most of the problematic aspects are related to WD production, thus the training sessions have been designed to solve the students' deficiencies in writing. The post-test analysis then puts particular emphasis on highlighting improvement made through comparison between pre-test and post-test results. Table (5.8) provides a general view of the means of individual elements of WD.

<b>Aspects</b>	<b>Interpretation</b>	<b>production</b>
<b>Scheme</b>	<b>2.92</b>	<b>2.20</b>
Type	0.90	0.64
Content	0.87	0.57
Purpose	0.56	0.54
Audience	0.62	0.45
<b>Macro-org</b>	<b>1.39</b>	<b>1.26</b>
D.sig	0.61	0.59
D.seg	0.78	0.69
<b>cohesion</b>	<b>2.62</b>	<b>1.83</b>
Lexis	0.74	0.65
Ellip	0.15	0.02
Ref	0.83	0.56
conj	0.89	0.60
<b>Tot</b>	<b>6.93</b>	<b>5.29</b>

**Table 25: The Post-Test means of WD elements**

The number of problematic elements (when an aspect gets a score less than 1 score on the macro organisation, and less than 2 on the other aspects) has decreased from 11 to 2. One explanation that can be suggested is that the treatment has resulted in improvement in the respondents' WD processing and production in general. More detailed presentation of data can be noticed in table (5.9).

N	Post-test Scores	Diff, Scores	Pre-test	N	Post-test Mean	Diff, Scores	Pre-test Scores
1	16	5	11	26	13	2,25	10,75
2	14	6	8	27	14,25	3,25	11
3	17,5	7	10,5	28	11,25	1,75	9,5
4	13,5	5,5	8	29	11,75	4	7,75
5	13,5	4	9,5	30	11	1,5	9,5
6	12	3	9	31	11,75	1,75	10
7	14,5	5,75	8,75	32	12	4,5	7,5
8	14	4,75	9,25	33	10,5	2,25	8,25
9	13,5	5,5	8	34	9,5	1,25	8,25
10	12,5	4,75	7,75	35	14,5	4,5	10
11	12,5	5,25	7,25	36	10,5	-1	11,5
12	14	6,5	7,5	37	9,75	1,5	8,25
13	16,5	7	9,5	38	7,75	1,5	6,25
14	12	3,25	8,75	39	8,5	-2,75	11,25
15	13	3	10	40	11,5	0,75	10,75
16	11	1,75	9,25	41	8,5	-1	9,5
17	15	3,5	11,5	42	9,5	-1,75	11,25
18	12,5	2,5	10	43	7,25	-2,5	9,75
19	15,5	3,5	12	44	11,25	0,75	10,5
20	14	3,75	10,25	45	12	0,5	11,5
21	14,75	4,5	10,25	46	10,75	3,25	7,5
22	13,5	4	9,5	47	13	4,75	8,25
23	13	0,25	12,75	48	11	0,75	10,25
24	12,5	2,25	10,25	49	6,75	-2,25	9
25	13	2,25	10,75	50	10,75	4,75	6
				51	11,5	4	7,5
				52	12,5	4,5	8
				Tot	12	3	9

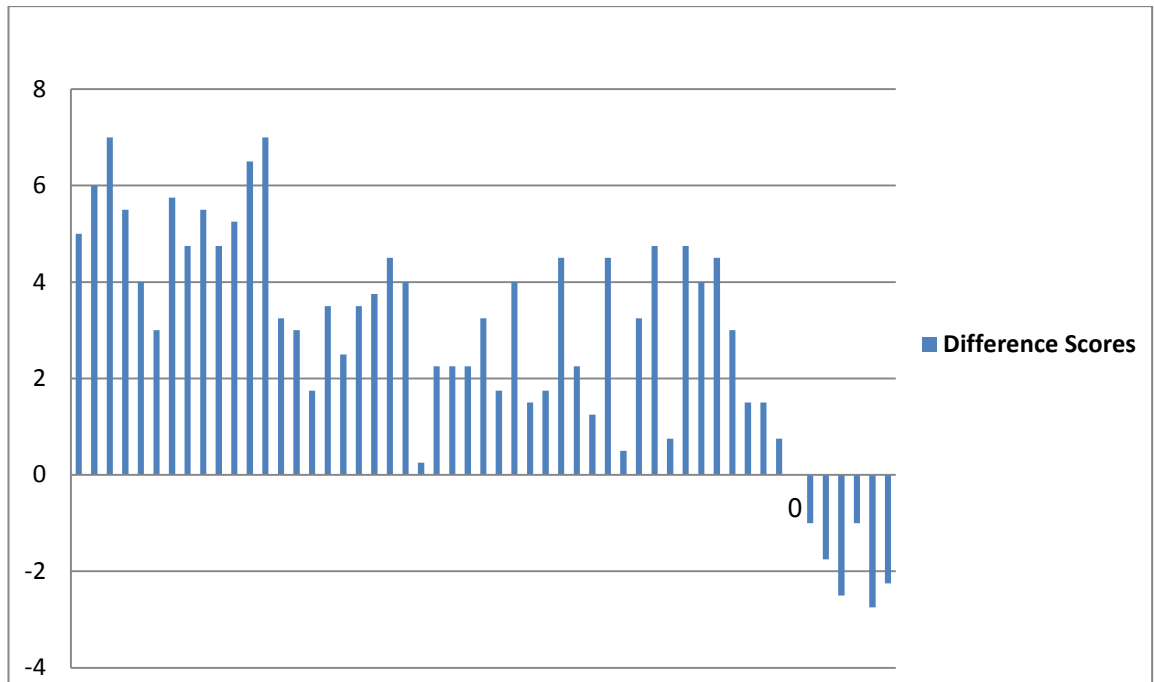
**Table 26: Improvements Results in WD Processing.**

Focusing on production of WD, improvements can be noticed in *Table 5.10*.

<b>N</b>	<b>postest Mean</b>	<b>Diff. Scores</b>	<b>Pretest</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>postest Mean</b>	<b>Diff. Scores</b>	<b>Pretest</b>
<b>1</b>	8	4.25	3.75	<b>26</b>	7.5	4	3.5
<b>2</b>	6.5	3.5	3	<b>27</b>	4.75	1.25	3.5
<b>3</b>	8	4	4	<b>28</b>	4.75	1.25	3.5
<b>4</b>	6	4.5	1.5	<b>29</b>	4.75	2.5	2.25
<b>5</b>	6	1	5	<b>30</b>	5.75	2	3.75
<b>6</b>	4	2	2	<b>31</b>	5.25	1.75	3.5
<b>7</b>	6	2.25	3.75	<b>32</b>	6	3	3
<b>8</b>	6.5	4	2.5	<b>33</b>	5.5	1.75	3.75
<b>9</b>	6	4	2	<b>34</b>	5.5	3.75	1.75
<b>10</b>	6	3.25	2.75	<b>35</b>	6.5	3.5	3
<b>11</b>	5.5	3.25	2.25	<b>36</b>	3.5	0.5	4
<b>12</b>	6.5	3.5	3	<b>37</b>	1.5	1.75	3.25
<b>13</b>	7	2.5	4.5	<b>38</b>	2.75	0.5	2.25
<b>14</b>	5.5	2.75	2.75	<b>39</b>	4.5	1.75	2.75
<b>15</b>	5.5	1	4.5	<b>40</b>	4	0	4
<b>16</b>	4.5	1.75	2.75	<b>41</b>	4	1.5	2.5
<b>17</b>	6	1	5	<b>42</b>	4	0	4
<b>18</b>	6	2.25	3.75	<b>43</b>	2.75	0.5	2.25
<b>19</b>	5.5	0.5	5	<b>44</b>	3.75	0.25	3.5
<b>20</b>	5	1	4	<b>45</b>	6	3	3
<b>21</b>	7.5	3.25	4.25	<b>46</b>	4.75	2.25	2.5
<b>22</b>	6.5	3.5	3	<b>47</b>	4.5	2	2.5
<b>23</b>	5.5	0.25	5.25	<b>48</b>	3.5	0.25	3.25
<b>24</b>	6.5	3.25	3.25	<b>49</b>	2.75	0.25	2.5
<b>25</b>	6	3	3	<b>50</b>	4.75	3.25	1.5
				<b>51</b>	4.5	2.5	2
				<b>52</b>	5.5	3	2.5

**Table 27 Students Improvement scores in WD production**

4.3.3.1 Comparing pre-test with post-test scores on WD productions. The pre-test scores are lower than the post-test ones. The degree of variation is converted into a frequency of distribution diagram (*Figure 6*) so as to make it more explicit to figure out the difference between the pre-and post-test scores on WD production.



**Figure 6: Frequency of Scores Variation**

Only 6 difference scores are under zero value. Few scores are relatively equal to zero. Most of the rest spread toward the left end of the score axis arranged from 1 to 7 difference scores.

### ***5.5.3.2 Improvement in WD production: comparing pretest and posttest***

**results.** The aim of this section is to examine whether the analysis of WD would yield improvements in the achievement scores compared with the pre-test scores. The scores of 52 students pre-tested and post-test yielded the results have been presented so far in *Table 5.9* and *5.10* and graphically presented in *Figure 5.2* We need, then to count for the difference between them, with a particular emphasis on WD production considering areas more or less improved than another.

	Pre-Test Mean	Diff	Post Test Mean
<b>Schem</b>	1.09	1.11	2.20
<b>Macro-Org</b>	0.65	0.61	1.26
<b>Cohesion</b>	1.45	0.37	1.82

**Table 28: Improvement WD Production**

Improvement is considered either when one level of D gets average more than or equal to 2 scores on Schematic knowledge and cohesion, 1 on Macro-organization. We should point out that the difference between the pre and post-test scores should be considered, even when the average is low since the respondents level in writing is generally low. However, generally, considerable improvements can be **a notice**

. Detailed examination of the post-test performance will be provided in the coming discussion.

**5.5.3.2 Schematic consideration improvements.** Schematic elements have been considerably framed in post-test WD productions.

	pre-test mean	Diff	Post-test Mean
<b>Schem</b>	1.09	1.11	2.20
<b>Type</b>	0.26	0.38	0.64
<b>Content</b>	0.33	0.24	0.57
<b>Purpose</b>	0.30	0.24	0.54
<b>Audience</b>	0.20	0.25	0.45

**Table 29: Improvement in Schematic Knowledge Consideration in WD.**

**5.5.3.2.1 Audience.** Explicit signs of readership consideration are noticed in post-test written productions. The differences between pre-and post-test cues of readership considerations are italicised in the following extracts:

The Post-test Extract	The Pre-test Extract
<p>-Social media is very important and helpful tool nowadays. First of all it is first destination and source in which <i>teachers</i> and students find most of their research relevant to the study. Also, <i>language learners</i> may rely on it to enhance and develop their levels, for example they can add penfriends who are natives in the language and make conversations to increase the listening skills.</p> <p>-[social media] it serves the educational purposes and aspects by helping the <i>students</i> in the different educational level, and it provides scientific articles, it also helps <i>higher education learners</i> and <i>researchers</i> to approach and [...]. Finally, social media keeps you update about what's new in the world.</p>	<p>-There are many disadvantages of social media. Firstly, it will be waste of time if <i>people</i> use for no reasons. Secondly, it could be a ...Finally, if <i>children</i> use it anytime it will turn negatively for their study.</p> <p>-As a conclusion, people know how and when use social media in order to benefit from it.</p> <p>-Social media need a big attention to be used and the <i>children</i> must have an adult person to watch them on who they use this technology, everything in this life have an good and bad effect, so we should focus more on [...].</p>

Despite that language mistakes are still made, in the post-test the audience is precisely addressed. Reference words related to the context of teaching and learning at the university level are selected, such as researchers, students, teachers.

**5.5.3.2. Content.** Relevant content is selected accordingly. The pre-test results describe how poor respondents' content is. Results converted positively in the post-test, in that more acceptable and contextually selected content is provided.

### The Post-test Extract

1-There are many advantages of internet. As we can make donations online. Also, we can send and receive information across **large** matrix of computer systems. Through e-mail service, we can send messages for both business and personal purposes. It has opened the doors for virtual online offices. **Athother thing**, we do not need to visit crowded stores to buy our stuff, we can make online purchases.

### The Pre-test Extract

1-In our life the majority of people are using the social media as **platform** to **shere** **there** ideas and opinion **such** a **facebook, twitter, youtube** and Instagram which is a very good for exploring the **tailent** people and the **creative** one on this platform.

2-As we spend hours in **surfing** and jogging, jumping from pages and another, and laod in the mind bad habbits that the social media propose and contain in it packages, even conentration in the screen phone mobile can get to certain dommages, it gets the person to **travell mindly** to another place and cut his relationships with the **neiborhood**. If we support what social media propose in its bad sides the person can **loose the faith** and his look to the future will change if he was not smart to overcome it.

In the pre-test, content information selected in paragraph one based on social experience supported by the unusual use of the social media, such *exploring the tailent people and the creative one on this platform...* The second Paragraph (2) sound very subjective, involves unrelated propositions, and vague concepts. However, in the post-test most respondents' writings include factual and correlated propositions.



## 5.5 Improvements in Macro-organization of WD Productions

The pre-test and post-test results reflect the differences in the ways students organise their discourse. In the post-test, the respondents organised their WD in different ways discussed in the training sessions.

	Pre-test mean	Diff.	Post-Test Mean
<b>Macro-org</b>	0.65	0.61	1.26
<b>D.sig</b>	0.20	0.38	0.58
<b>D.seg</b>	0.45	0.24	0.69

**Table 30 Improvements In Macro-Organization**

*Discourse Segments.* having said that students' essays in the pre-test are generally organised in terms of the main parts of the essay. In the post-test, there are noticeable improvements in the way students arrange their WD productions. A very recurrent, remark implies the functional-based segmentations, that is to say, parts of discourse have a purpose to be fulfilled that constitute at the end an argumentative discourse.

### **The Post-test Introduction**

1.-In today's world other technology has brought about an entirely change of life. One of this technologies is social media which has turned this world to a small village, so undeniabl has huge impact of our daily routine. These soial net workings have many benefits; however, there are may drawbaccks as well drawbaccks as well.

### **The Pre-Test Introduction**

1.Social media and technology allows users to share opinions and experience and [...] meda itself and facilitating the communiction between group of people and it consired as two-edged swords.

2. Like any social phenomenon social media have advntages and disadvantages on people's life, the way we use this technological window maks a quite effective role in the world with both sides, bed one and good one. So it is important to know what to do and not.

In the Introduction part, most students initiate the topic by stating the main issue followed by the thesis statement. Pre-test introduction starts with the role of social media as a mean of communication, thesis statement do not match the body part. In addition, sentences are unclear, thesis statements based on the wording of the task rather than the students own expressions. In addition, post-test involves orientations to the reader such as '*..in the following lines the positive and negative aspects of social media will be discussed.*'

- In the body section, the two sides if arguments are discussed each one in separate paragraphs, however in the pre-test these are mixed together and the considerable number of students neglects topic sentence.

- Conclusions in the post-test involve restating of the main ideas, strong device, and the combination of the two stands. These are signalled using conjunction, adverbs.

## 5.6 Improvements in Cohesion

	Pre-Test Mean	DIFF	Post Test Mean
<b>Cohesion</b>	1.45	0.37	1.82
<b>Lexis</b>	0.39	0.25	0.65
<b>Ellip</b>	0	0.02	0.02
<b>Ref</b>	0.48	0.08	0.56
<b>Conj</b>	0.57	0.02	0.60

**Table 31: Improvement In Cohesion**

The table above indicates that cohesion resources uses are considerably enhanced in the post-test, only the use of ellipsis remains problematic. Unlike the pre-test results in which we have pointed out that the participants' manipulation is limited in terms of quality and overused in terms of quantity. Some relevant observation in this respect involves:

- Lexis is varied and more relevant to the topic despite some misuses of verbs, adverbs are noticeable.
- The lowest mean is given to ellipsis. Only nominal ellipsis is the most used type such as in: *"some advantages [ of social media] are..."*
- Reference is also varied in its type such as verbal, however anaphoric reference is the most dominant.
- Conjunction and transition items are varied in meanings. Respondents exploit concession words particularly in expressing the counterclaim or contrast, addition (besides, in addition, also).

## 5.7 Checking the Hypothesis

Firstly, as the method adopted is experimental, it is important to check the following hypotheses: The alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$ ) suggests that improvements in students scores are due to the implementation of the Independent variable. The null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) implies that the difference in students sores is not due to the treatment conducted. Statistically this is presented as follows/

- ( $H_1$ ): The present Mean= The post-test Mean
- ( $H_0$ ): The present Mean <The post-test Mean

the t-test is required to check whether the results are valid or not since the experiment involves one group pretested and post-tested, a two-tailed dependent t-test is applicable.

The formula of the T-test is presented statistically as follows:

$$t = \frac{\overline{x_1} - \overline{x_2}}{\sqrt{\frac{s_1^2 + s_2^2}{n_1}}}$$

Wherein  $S_1$  is the standard deviation of the pretest,  $S_2$  is the standard deviation of the post-test, and  $n$  is the number of the group. To assess statistically the difference between the scores of the two tests using the T-test other statistical procedures namely the standard deviation (SD) and variance (V) that are an estimate of dispersion are required in addition to the mean ( $\bar{x}$ ) (P-Value in Statistical Hypothesis Tests: What is it?, 2017).

	Mean ( $\bar{x}$ )	V(Variance)	SD(Standard Deviation)	T-test
<b>Pre- test</b>	9,39	2.273	1.50	0 .048
<b>Post- test</b>	9,41	2.38	1.54	

**Table 32: Statistical Hypothesis Test Description**

The entire performance of the students in the post-test is higher than the post-test as indicated by  $\bar{x}$  (x bar). The standard deviation shows how the students' results spread out over the mean. The variance is the average of the squared difference from the mean Var it's lower than that of the post-test that scores are closer to the mean. in addition to the mentioned statistical calculations,

The selected level of significance or alpha ( $\alpha$ ) is 0.5 that is to be compared with the p-value. The result of the T-test indicates that less than 05% probability that the achieved data happened by chance. In other words, since the P-value =  $0.048 \leq 0.05$  we reject the null hypothesis  $H_0$  and we accept the alternative one  $H_1$ .

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has provided a detailed examination of proposed study that is concerned with the implementation of WDA in teaching the writing skill for second-year students of English. The initial step was exploring the teaching and learning situation that reveals profound information about the students'needs, problems, and their discourse knowledge. Secondly, the main teaching steps are clarified, also teaching materials principles, assessment. Finally, the results obtained analysed making recourse to the student's productions, focusing on areas of improvements and answering the main research questions asked in the introduction of this dissertation.

The study explores also how findings from WDA analysis are effective and how such presentation of WD best support students and teachers to interact by mean of and through WD. The suggested model of teaching inspired by findings of the nature of WD to set an awareness-raising procedures seeking for effective realisation on the part of the students. The suggested model helped students after training took place, to enhance their uses of language considerably at different levels of WD.

## GENERAL CONCLUSION

Having conducted this study structuring it into different chapters, it is important to bring the whole thesis to conclusions. This section summarizes the findings and contributions, points out limitations of the current work, and pedagogical recommendations for teachers, and also outlines directions for future research

The research we conducted was generally aimed to answer the main research question of how to explore findings of WDA to teach writing skill effectively. The proposed methodology presented earlier in the in *Figure 0.1* takes the advantages of the research results on teaching writing. It synthesises literature on DA knowledge and teaching writing skill. It adopts two types of language strategy (bottom-up and top-down), reading-writing integrated perspective, and three levels of knowledge (contextual, rhetorical, and cohesive knowledge).

WDA has been proposed in this investigation as a solution to noticeable real-life problems that students especially at the intermediate level face. Second-year students of English at this level are required to write in certain communicative situations different types of discourse. In this respect, their WD productions seem to be apart from the communicative purpose and its context in terms of the three different levels put under scrutiny in this inquiry. The teaching model supports enhancing many deficient aspects of their language uses and weaknesses observed in their pre-test productions.

This inquiry has been stimulated by insights provided by discourse analysts such as Cook (1989), McCarthy (2001), Widdowson (2003) and many others. Discourse has been considered as a way to engage students in exploring 'the world of written texts'. It represents how language system is selected and how knowledge is presented. Students in

such processing of discourse have acquired how writers address particular readers and experienced language use routines in WD.

Having such interactive presentation of WD and the stated research objectives in mind, this work has been designed accordingly. Starting with the theoretical part, the main focus has been on exploring FL writing to best contextualise the work, identifying current issues related to the variables we are investigating (Chapter Three). After that, accounts of the conceptual paradigm of the research has been provided in chapter three and four.

The questionnaire in its turn has yielded essential findings. It has supported the characterization of the learning and teaching situation. Examining students' attitude in terms of their awareness of discourse knowledge, difficulties in writing, their learning needs. The main results achieved are listed as follows:

- Discourse knowledge is not fully or equally mastered.
- The students, then, tend to make recourse to similar WD so as to not get the content, rather perceive how language is actually used. Thus, one could deduce that WDA is a learning style on the part of the students.
- The students highly recommended WD practices in the classroom.
- The teachers' questionnaire has led to more interrelated facts. The most important issue is that the design of a written expression course is not usually based on certain teaching approach in mind, a great emphasis given to formal aspects of the language. The main result in terms of teaching outcome is decontextualised and inefficient written productions.
- These decided facts have been considered in the training session, so as to solve problematic areas.



Results obtained from the pretest generally confirms that students have problems related to the addressed levels of WD and a consistent teaching framework is required. It also confirms the necessity of designing written sessions having a principled awareness-raising framework so as to foster the appropriate realisation of WD.

The results also confirm that in the pretest schematic knowledge was neglected. Contextual information the audience (reader and writer) relationship, the communicative objective, the type of the text, content knowledge all are basic elements in WD communication. Students written language uses lack appropriateness to those elements affect language uses at other dimensions of bottom level. The opposite is observed in post-test drafts. It is worth to clarify for writing teacher to know that it is the reading based model that serves in the content of information providing. Again, acting as the reader is an effective way to look closely at how information is presented on a certain topic are The analysis of WD models best encourage them and provide ways for writing their own discourse effectively.

As to the results of the experiment, the aims of the training sessions are achieved. The students improved in terms of the use of language in its context and the macro-organizational level that were inappropriately mastered in the pre-test. The student's overuse of connectors and transition words is reduced; more focus is given to the propositional value of sentences flow and paragraphs flow in the text. Comparing the essays before with that of after the training, one can notice the balanced focus between levels of WD that were not mastered in equal and interactive way before training through WDA had undertaken

The results achieved went hand in hand with the hypotheses restated earlier. The study accordingly provides novice researchers with a thorough understanding of the

concept WDA, how it is exploited in teaching FL writing skill to what an extent would it foster the students' WD proficiency. It focuses less on knowledge of usage so as to draw attention to regularities of written language uses, combining the bottom-up and top-down processing of WD and presenting how these work together as interrelated elements.

FL writing teachers are recommended then to focus on the dynamic nature. The *whole of the elephant* is to be critically depicted rather than being confined to the explanation of minimal constituent parts such as a sentence, transition words, writing a paragraph, style, parallelism, accuracy, punctuation, etc in isolation from their surrounding elements, WDA is effective in dealing with different elements at the same time as all interact with each other.

## **Pedagogical Implications**

Further implications relevant to the investigation are worth to be stated: Our analysis is a mediation between product and process: the great focus is given to processing such as the identification of feature of WD that could be classified as textual, functional and socio-contextual in their nature and interpretation of meanings and writer's intention that all aimed to enhance effectively written productions.

The writing teacher attempts to implement this model in the teaching of WD in a certain domain, for example in business and workplace context. He/ she should integrate identify the schematic knowledge configuration of the selected discourse types: First, contextualising WD in terms of particular (Background knowledge a particular discipline, the participants and their relationship in that Discourse community (manager, secretary for example), content knowledge, communicative purposes addressed in a particular discipline for example in scientific community the most common types of WD are argumentative, referential, reports, and instructive texts. These serve to set up arguments, to describe

phenomena, to describe an event, and to tell how an action is performed respectively (Tenedini, n.d.).

However, It is fair to mention that extending such types of knowledge requires more time and more effort on the part of the teachers. More suggestions would involve: a) Devising activities based on subskills such as summarising which is a reading-writing based activity. We propose summarising as a schema extending activity since it is just like writing skill in terms of its complexity. It is a complex skill in that it requires mastery of content, understanding communicative intention, and context considerations. Not to mention its importance in academic lives, reflecting understanding for the teacher, communicating and share with others. B) Selecting various topic relevant to the students' subject area as advised by Widdoson (1978), in our context that would be psychology, universal culture topics, etc.

In dealing with the textual and macro characterization of WD, she/he should select the WD best represent language aspects related to the general area of the text types, focusing also on: How the WD types are segmented into functional elements that appropriately constitute a certain text type not another, and recognising the recurrent cohesive and textual feature.

The macro-organization of different discourse types suggested in the training session as writing an essay is the second shift in the written expression syllabus (see Appendix 05) since teaching in the first semester is devoted to writing a paragraph. Writing-reading connection again supported figuring out different ways of WD arrangement related to certain communicative purpose. However, we suggest 'atomistic-based' activities to best train students in a carefully staged practice of macro-organizations. These mainly split down the holistic communicative act into its constituent parts after the holistic view is

provided, for example, in problem-solution discourse pattern students need to practice subsequently: hows of stating the problem and alerting particular audience's attention, ways of suggesting solutions and convincing readers to it and so on. Such practice is still at discourse level however of low order level (paragraph) is devised, and aims to construct a larger discourse pattern.

Thirdly, Lexico-grammatical resources or any bottom elements are to practice in integration to other elements and not in isolation. We should mention, in this respect, that elements of cohesion are part of students' formal systematic knowledge schemata, however, misuses are due to lack of awareness, ineffective (inappropriate) exploitation is due to lack of practice. To this end, it is better to direct students and engage them in analysing how the use of cohesive elements varies across text types so as to observe how they are used naturally.

As to the textual orientation, it is important for a writing teacher to maintain a balance when dealing with different aspects discussed of writing skill discussed throughout this investigation. By ways of illustration, different ways and activities are designed to treat textual forms of the WD, however, it is important in this respect to not completely getting the students focussing the student's attention solely to the formal properties of the textual axis of discourse. Elements of discourse are to work together in interaction, not in isolation.

As to further research suggestions, there are several variables and methods that researchers could build upon. First, Having identified the limitations of the work further replications would be undertaken in terms of longitudinal studies. The model suggested would be adopted and modified to be applicable to other dependent variables such as speaking, and it would be more useful in teaching reading or other academic and specific

context such as writing for business English to investigate its effect on the teaching outcomes.

On the basis of the promising findings presented in this paper, and the researcher's experience, investigating students written productions is quite interesting and revealing. Related issues are continuing and further investigations of several questions remain to be addressed for future researchers. These would be in the area of interlanguage pragmatics such as the effect of French as a second language on learning and teaching English as a foreign language in Algeria, corpus analysis of students written productions to highlight related problems and areas of weakness; illocutionary or speech act- based analysis to investigate what language actions students tend to perform with readers when writings, ethnography based analysis of WD to describe students written production in terms of more abstract level of language practices, i.e. cultural and sociological one.

Another suggestion centres on theory-building research. It is worth to mention that accounts of the nature of discourse competence of FL learner is inadequate, compared to a great deal of description devoted to the grammatical competence of native speakers. A little description of discourse competence or communicative competence based on characterisation FL learners and teaching situation, thus more collaborative investigations on the part of Algerian researchers and teachers are required in this respect.

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## Appendix 01: The Students Questionnaire

Dear students,

We are undertaking a research on teaching FL writing skill. We would be very grateful if you would respond to the questions. There are no right or wrong answers; the responses you opt represent your best opinion. Your honest and truthful answer will be most useful and helpful for the research project we are undertaking. Be sure that any information you will be coded and will remain stickily confidential. The degree of argument is coded as follow: 1= Strongly agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Disagree, 4 = Don't know.

### I. Schematic Knowledge Consideration

<b>1. Do you perceive these elements as important to consider when writing</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>a.</b> Readers (their background knowledge, social status, cultural background...)				
<b>b.</b> Contextual elements of the communicative event (time, place, topic, purpose)				
<b>c.</b> Knowledge of the topic area.				

### II. Macro-level organization

<b>2. Which element do you depend on to organise the overall macrostructure of your text?</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>a.</b> The text structure of information e.g, cause and effect, compare and contrast				
<b>b.</b> Order of information according to what the reader knows and what he/she does not know ( new Vs old information, or thematic organization).				
<b>c.</b> Order of propositions (the semantic meanings of sentences or structures of language)				
<b>d.</b> Order of actional meaning that is your intended meaning of sentences or acts they fulfil, for example, comparative forms used to describe, examples give evidence				

### III. Cohesion

<b>3. Which element do you think as important to create cohesion in a written text?</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>a.</b> conjunctions (however, though, ...)				
<b>b.</b> Transition words (moreover, in addition...)				
<b>c.</b> Ellipsis (the omission of a word or group of words as they are previously mentioned).				
<b>d.</b> Substitution (replacing an item by its equivalent)				
<b>e.</b> Lexical relations like synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms...				
<b>f.</b> pronouns, relative pronouns, (demonstrative, possessive, relative pronouns, reflexive...).				
<b>g.</b> Fronting devices or theme (placing an element in the initial position of the sentence).				

#### IV. Students Writing Difficulties

4. What difficulties do you face when writing?	1	2	3	4
a. Appropiat use language according to certain communicative context				
b. Organisation of the text to get a certain pattern, e.g, descriptive,				
c. Shifting the discussion from one idea or topic into another.				
d. My writings seem immature and childish				
e. I misuse the knowledge of cohesion (ties within the sentence linkage across sentences and paragraphs).				
f. Addressing particular reader e.g, a manager, a foreign friend...				

#### Students' Writing Needs

5. What do you need to write communicatively?	1	2	3	4
a. To maximize language practices.				
b. To look for similar texts to examine how language is used.				
c. To get information and details about my content.				

**Thank you for your contribution**

## Appendix 2: The Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teachers

We are undertaking a research on teaching FL writing skill. We would be very grateful if you would respond to the questions. There are no right or wrong answers; the responses you opt represent your best opinion. Your honest and truthful answer will be most useful and helpful for the research project we are undertaking. Be sure that any information you will be coded and will remain stickily confidential. The degree of argument is coded as follow: 1= Strongly agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Disagree, 4 = Neutral.

### I. Qualification and experience

1. Experience in Teaching.....
2. Subject Specification.....
3. Degree.....

### II. FL writing Teaching Approaches

1. Which teaching framework do you prefer to use?	1	2	3	4
a. The Structural approach				
b. The Process-based approach				
c. The genre approach				
d. The Discours analysis approach				
e. I do not use any particular approach				

### III. Teachers' perceptions of the Students Written Production

4. Thinking about your students' written productions, please mark the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following:	1	2	3	4
a. advanced				
b. Acceptable				
c. Partially master language				
d. Coming to university with limited knowledge and proficiency				

#### **IV. Teachers' Difficulties in Dealing with the complexity of FL Writing**

<b>5. Thinking about the obstacles you face in teaching FL writing, please mark the extent to which the following are a problem for you:</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
a. There is no teaching framework that better consider all elements of FL/ Writing				
b. Teaching input is apart from the teaching outcomes				
c. Difficulties in exposing students to varieties of text types and engaging them in analysis processes.				
d. It is difficult to enable students actually and be aware of features of a particular written communicative situation.				

**Thank you for your cooperation**

## **Appendix 03: the Program of Written**

### **Expression, 1st Year**

**Semester : *S1 et S2***

**Unité d'enseignement : Fondamentale**

**Matière : Expression écrite (Written Expression)**

**Crédits : 6**

**Coefficient : 4**

**Mode d'évaluation :** Control continu 50 % Examen 50 %

**Aims:** This course aims at :

- Consolidating learners' linguistic competence ;
- Reviewing the mechanics of writing;
- Raising learners' awareness of the conventions of writing ;
- Developing learners' strategic competence.

**First Semester : Writing a Sentence.**

- 1- Parts of speech
- 2- Parts of the sentence
- 3- Sentences and sentence patterns
- 4- Kinds of sentences
- 5- Sentence errors :
  - 5-1-Fragments
  - 5-2- Comma-splices / Run-ons
  - 5-3-Choppy writing
- 6- Conjunctions / Parallelism
- 7- Punctuation

**Second Semester: Writing a Paragraph**

- 1- What is a paragraph?
- 2- The Topic sentence
- 3- Supporting Sentences
- 4- The concluding sentence
- 5- Unity and coherence :

5-1\_ Repetition of key nouns

5-2- Key noun substitutes

5-3-Consistent pronouns

5-4-Transition signals

5-5-Logical order



## **Appendix 4: the Program of Written Expression, 2st Year.**

Semester: *S3 et S4*

Unité d'enseignement : Fondamentale

Matière : Expression écrite (Written Expression)

Crédits : 6

Coefficient : 4

**Mode d'évaluation :** Control continued 50 % Examen 50 %

**Aims:** This course aims at:

- Consolidating learners' linguistic competence;
- Reviewing the mechanics of writing;
- Raising learners' awareness of the conventions of writing;
- Developing learners' strategic competence.
- Introducing and practising the different types of text

development

Third Semester

- Reminder
- From paragraph to essay
- Essay organization
  - ✓ The introductory paragraph
  - ✓ The developmental paragraph
  - ✓ The concluding paragraph
- Types of development [ different kinds of essays ]
  - ✓ Narration
  - ✓ Description

✓ Chronological order/ process essay

✓ Illustration/examples essay

✓ Comparison /contrast essay

#### Fourth Semester

- Expository essay
- Argumentative essay
- Cause / effect essay
- Classification essay
- Process /analysis essay

## Appendix 05: The Tests

### Taking Vitamins

This is a controversial topic for both ordinary people and the medical profession. Do we need vitamin supplements and, if [...] so why? To what an extent do we take them? We can divide vitamin supplement into three simple categories, each of which needs a different level of potency.

We know that modern food processing reduces vitamin content and overcooking, reduces it further. Anyone who eats a lot of processed food may suffer from vitamin deficiency and [...] need to take supplements. *So*, too, many elderly people who do not have a proper diet. There are also some sections of the population, which have lower social and economic status and [...] may not be able to afford a good diet. All of these people may benefit from a general, all-around supplementation of vitamins to ensure the minimum daily requirement.

The second category of vitamin supplementation may be needed by people whose lifestyles increase their need vitamins.) For example, people who work under stressful conditions may need more vitamin B. the habit of smoking and [...] drinking rob the body of certain vitamins. Such cases may need up to five times the recommended daily intake. In addition, many medical drugs can reduce absorption of vitamins or cause them to be excreted in abnormal quantities, for example, antibiotics, aspirin, and the contraceptive pill.

The third category of supplementation is the administration of doses of 10- 100 times the recommended amount. (This is called the 'therapeutic' use of vitamins and is a matter of great controversy.) It does appear to be the case [...], however, that complaints such as

heart and blood disease, respiratory infections, and skin complaints all benefit from large intakes of certain vitamins.

## **I. Interpretation**

1. read the text carefully then do the activities.

- a. To whom the text is addressed? In your opinion, what is the relationship between the reader and the writer?
- b. What do you think the main communicative purpose behind the writers' classification of Vitamin supplement categorization?
- c. Why is the topic controversial? And What register do the text belong to? Justify from the text. What type the text do you think is?

2. Give from the text the following:

- a. words belong to one general word class.
- b. Synonyms.....
- c. Antonyms.....
- d. Lexical chain.....

2. What or who do the underlined words in the text refer to?

- This (§ 1).....
- So (§ 1).....
- Them (§ 1).....
- It (§ 4).....
- These (§ 2).....

3. Classify the following items according to their functions and their meanings in the text:

- a) so (§ 2)-
- b) in addition (§ 3)

c) however (§ 4)

d) such as (§ 3))

4. In the text, the squares bracket [...] are used instead of deleted words.

a) Find the deleted words from the text?

5. Use a graphic organiser (a tree diagram, a map...), so that you visually represent the relationship between the ideas and the structure of the text.

## **II. Written Production.**

Nowadays people usually comment that "social media are a two-edged sword" In no more than 20 lines, write an argumentative essay words in which you sensitive university students about the topic stated above.

## **Appendix 06: Lessons of The Training Sessions**

### **Descriptive Essay**

#### **A certain room**

(1)The Paper will introduce my room to you- I mean I will talk about my dormitory (as follows: I call it a room).

(2)The room is at 104 on the ground in building 3 .Mr. John (my classmate) and I live in the room. There are two beds in it. And there are two desks. A bookshelf and two chairs in it. The door opens to the south. Mr John's bed desk and chair are in the right. Mine is on the left. There is a lamp under the ceiling. The bookshelf stands near the window in the middle of the wall. The bookshelves have six stories. No. 1.3.5. belong to me. The rest belong to Mr John. The bookshelf is filled fully with books. There are dictionaries, major books. Novels. Magazines and other books on the bookshelf.

(3)There are two pictures on the left of the wall a Chinese picture and a famous picture in the world. There is a calendar on the wall near the window. There are many postcards on the wall below the Chinese picture.

(4)There is a table lamp, which was assigned by the college. On the desk. And also there are books. Radio.recorder, box pencil and some industrial art goods on the desk.

(5)This room is very tidy and clean. We clean and mop the room every day. (Hatch, 1992).

#### **A. Read the text, then answer the questions**

1. Who is the writer do you think?

2. Why does he/she describe the room?
3. What kind of essay is the text?
4. The numbers are functional parts of a descriptive essay. Label them.

## B. Text exploration

1. what are the elements that the writer focuses on?
2. what are the linguistic elements the writer uses to present the objects in the room?
3. Do the objects belong to the writer and his friend? Justify.
4. How does the selection of sentence themes support the purpose of the text?
5. How does the writer approach the description of the room? Does the essay give a picture of a well-organized room?
6. Consider the following texts:

a)Dear Joan‘

Me, I'm sitting here at my desk writing to you. What's outside my window is a big lawn surrounded by trees and it's a flower bed that's in the middle of the lawn. When it was full of daffodils and tulips was in the spring. Here you'd love it. It's you who must come and stay sometime; what we've got is plenty of room. (McCarthy, 1991)

b)Dear Joan‘

I'm sitting here at my desk writing to you. A big lawn surrounded by trees is outside my window and a flower bed is in the middle of the lawn. It was full of daffodils and tulips in the spring. You'd love it here. You must come and stay sometime; we've got plenty of room .  
Love, Sally

c) Dear Joan ‘

I'm sitting here at my desk writing to you. **Outside my window is a big lawn surrounded by trees, and in the middle of the lawn is a flower bed.** It was full of daffodils and dips in the spring. You'd love it here. You must come and stay sometime; we've got plenty of room .  
Love, Sally

- What is the difference between the three textualization of the texts? Do they sound the same? Which one seems natural description?

7. The following text involves natural use (overuse) of fronting devices. Rewrite the text in a more appropriate way.

It was a few months after my twenty-first birthday, a stranger called to give me the news. I was living in New York at the time, on Ninety-Fourth between Second and First, part of that unnamed, shifting border between East Harlem and the rest of Manhattan. It was an uninviting block, treeless and barren, lined with soot-coloured walk-ups that cast heavy shadows for most of the day. What I had, was small apartment, with slanting floors and irregular heat and a buzzer downstairs that didn't work, so that it was the visitors had to call ahead from a pay phone at the corner gas station, where a black Doberman the size of a wolf paced through the night in vigilant patrol, its jaws clamped around an empty beer bottle (Nazario, Borchers & Lewis, 2010).

NB: The concept fronting device and other technical jargons are already part of the student's background knowledge of other subject matter namely linguistics.



## Argumentative essay

1.....

Recent changes in federal government priorities have been a reduction in financial support for the parents who use childcare. This is occurring at a time when there are increasing social and financial pressure on parents, particularly mothers to work. The issue of childcare and working mothers have been the subject of dispute for sometime. Many argue that the best place for a child is always in their own home with their own parents. However, it is my contention that there are many advantages to be had from using childcare...

2.....

It has been argued that children who attend childcare centres at an early stage miss out on important early learning that occurs in parent-child interaction. These children, so this argument goes, may be educationally disadvantaged later in life. However, childcare centres may actually assist children in their early learning. They give children an opportunity to mix with other children and to develop social skills at an early age. Indeed, a whole range of learning occurs in childcare centres.

3.....

Another argument against the use of childcare facilities is that children can be emotionally deprived in these facilities compared to the home. This argument assumes that the best place for children is to be at their parents, especially mothers, side for twenty-four hours a day. It claims that children's emotional development can be damaged when they are left in childcare facilities. However, parents and children need

to spend sometimes apart. Moreover, children become less dependent on their parents and parents themselves are less stressed and more effective care-givers when there is a period of separation. In fact, recent studies indicate that the parent-child relationship can be improved by use of high-quality childcare facilities.



It could farther be asserted that the government and the economy as a whole cannot afford the enormous cost involved in supporting childcare for working parents. However, working parents actually contribute to the national economy they are able to utilise their productive skills an pay income tax, while non-working parents can become a drain on tax system through dependent spouse and other rebates.

#### **A.Read the text then answer the questions**

1. What is the general theme of the text?
2. Why do you think the writer discusses this topic
3. Who are the readers of the text?
4. Is the writer for or against childcare facilities? Justify your answer.
5. what are the main pros and cons of childcare facilities?
6. Who are the persons and institutions involved in the text?
7. Examine the use of lexical relations in the text?
8. What types of reference are used in the text?
9. How does the writer conclude the essay?

#### **1-Text Exploration**

1. What is the type of the text?
2. the numbers (1-4) are the main functional parts of the essay. Identify them.

3. What are the main signals of the writer's arguments?
4. What are the conjunctions used in the text?

### **Practice**

1. paragraph A is an opening paragraph from an article entitled "The Ozone". Check and assess your understanding in the next paragraph (b). Underline signals from the author's point of view.

A) Remember the scepticism last year when the United States banned most aerosol sprays containing chlorofluorocarbons? People found it is hard to believe that squirting deodorant out of a can was jeopardizing the stratospheric ozone layer, which protects the earth from excessive ultraviolet radiation. It was like finding out that eating candy causes earthquakes.

B) But now almost all experts agree that the ozone-eating aerosol gases do indeed rise slowly into the stratosphere, where sunlight breaks them down and releases chlorine that does, in fact, erode the ozone layer. Even worse, the one seems to be eroding much faster than originally believed. The threat has not been eliminated, only postponed, by the American ban.

**Aerosol:** a metal container in which a liquid such as paint or hairspray is kept under pressure and released as a spray

**Chlorine:** Chlorine is a poisonous greenish gas with a strong smell

**Erode:** to gradually destroy the surface of something

2. Support the following paragraph with examples where they appear necessary.

Students who go to study abroad often experience a type of culture shock when they arrive in the new country. Customs which they took for granted in their own society are not followed in the host country. Even everyday patterns of life may be different. When these are added to the inevitable differences which occur in every country students may at first feel confused. They may experience rapid changes of mood or even want to return home. However, most soon make new friends and, in a relatively short period, are able to adjust to their new environment. They may even find that they prefer some aspects of their new surroundings, and forget that they are not at home for a while!

**Produce:**

1. Imagine that you are a member of an association for women's rights. Write a composition in which you express your view about working mothers and fast food

- Use Discussion vocabulary such as benefit/drawback, advantage\disadvantage, positive aspect/ a negative feature, pro (informal)/con (informal), plus (informal)/minus (informal)
- Present your case using impersonal phrases rather than I think: It is widely believed that young children need to be with their mothers ...Most people consider that .../ Some people believe/ It is generally agreed that ...It is probable/possible that /This evidence suggests that.../ It has been suggested that.....
- support statements by examples.

### **Claim-Counterclaim Pattern**

Historians are generally agreed that British society is founded on a possessive individualism, but they have disputed the origins of the philosophy. Some trace it Back to the middle ages, another link it to the rise of capitalism. But the consensus is that the cornerstone of this society has been the nuclear family-where man the Breadwinner holds dominance over his dependent wife and children. The values of individual freedom, self-reliance, individual advancement and crucially, the obligation of family duty to look after one's own time of needs are central to its operation. Within strict limits and under careful regulation, helping those less fortunate than oneself has been seen as part of the individual's obligation to society.

But, although most would accept that these values have been dominant, they would also acknowledge that the developed capitalist society saw the parallel growth of another ideology. Against individualism with its emphasis on individual freedom has been counterposed collectivism with its egalitarian values and stress on the view that one's individual's freedom cannot be paid for by the denial of freedom to others. The 19<sup>th</sup>-century growth of trades unions, the cooperative movement and organized socialist political movements are all evidence of this opposition to dominant ideology. Because of this recognition of collective rights and responsibilities, feminists have always seen the granting and safeguarding of women's rights as lying within this socialist tradition. (McCarthy, 1991).

#### **A. Read the text then answer the following questions**

What is the main issue or issues that the writer discusses?

What is the nature of the topic? a- sociological b- political – b-cultural justify the text.

2 what are the main supporting arguments and opposing ones.

### **B.text Exploration**

what are the expressions used by the writer to indicate his argument or counter-argument?

-what are the conjunctions shifts from opposing arguments to supporting arguments?

### **Problem-Solution Pattern**

Week by week the amount of car traffic on our roads grows, 13 percent in the last year alone .

Each day as I walk to work, I see the ludicrous spectacle of hundreds of commuters sitting alone in four or five-seater cars and barely moving as fast as I can walk .

Our traffic crisis now presents us with the classic conservation dilemma - too many people making too much demand for inadequate resources .

There are four possible solutions: One ‘provide more resources, in this case, build more roads and car parks; two, restrict the availability of motorised transport by artificially raising the price of vehicles and fuel; three, license only those with a good reason for needing motorised transport and prohibit unnecessary use; four, reduce the average size of motor vehicles, especially those used for commuting purposes .(from Cambridge Weekly News, 22 September 1988, p. 11 Quoted from McCarthy, 1991)

#### **A. Read the text carefully then answer the questions**

1. -What is the job of the writer you think?
2. Who is the text addressed to?
3. -what is the problem?
4. What solutions are suggested to solve it?
5. What is the type of the text? justify from the text.

## B. Text Exploration

1. Identify the main part of this essay, then recognized what type of essay (or text pattern) the is it?
2. what are the main signalling expressions of problems and solutions?
3. draw a diagram or an outline of hat best represent the plan /structure of the essay.
4. What types of reference do the writers use in the text?

### Practice:

In the following texts, items have been picked out in bold to show how words are used to 'wrap around' a long problem solution text. Use them in the main outline of a problem solution text. Discuss them in one paragraph taking into consideration the opening and closing sentences provided.

**Problem:** concern, difficulty, dilemma, drawback, hamper, hind (er/ance), obstacle, problem, snag

**Response:** change, combat, come up with, develop, find 'measure(s), respon( d/se)

**Solution/result:** answer, consequence, effect, outcome, result,

**Evaluation:** (in)effective, manage, overcome, succeed, (un)successful ,



## Text structure

Headline	TV Violence: No Simple <b>Solution</b>
Opening sentence	There is no doubt that one of the major <b>concerns</b> of both viewers and broadcasters is the amount and nature of violence on our television screens.  (main text)
Closing sentence	The chief 'lesson' of all our viewing, reading and discussion is that there is no simple solution to the <b>problem</b> of violence on television

(The Observer, 16 November 1986, P. 42 adopted from MacCarthy, 1991 )

### Produce

What if you were having great trouble understanding the material in a textbook?  
What if you were having great difficulties in summarizing your detailed lectures for the exam? Whatever the problem, there is probably a solution—if only you are creative enough to see it! (Hutchinson, 2005).

A. Outline a problem-and-solution essay about a problem you have now or have had in the past follow these pointers as you write:

- Begin with a description of the problem.
- Speculate about the cause of the problem.
- Make several suggestions about how to solve the problem.
- Indicate which suggestion you think would be the most effective.
- Comment on the anticipated outcome.

**B.**Using the given notes, write a problem-and-solution essay here. As you write, pay special attention to effective sentence order. You might want to begin with the best solution, or you might want to lead up to the best solution.

## Appendix 6: Students' WD Production in the Pre-test

### Sample 01

A social media is a collection of online platforms that people use to share content, experience and media itself. It has many advantages and disadvantages.

The advantages of social media are a lot. Firstly, people use it as a way of education. Secondly, it helps the users when they need information for any topic they search about. Finally, people use social media to enjoy when they feel bored. These are the main advantages of social media, but also it has many disadvantages.

There are many disadvantages of social media. Firstly, it will be waste of time if people use it for no reasons. Secondly, it could be a cyber bullying. Finally, if children use it anytime it will turn negatively for their study.

As a conclusion, people should first think and then use social media in order to benefit from it.

inspe  
- a few  
readers.

## Sample 02

Now days, technology effected all the corner of our life. Social media with all its elements are part of this technology. its weapon with two side; it can be positive and it can be negative.

First, Social media are very effective communication tools, because it lets people instantly with all what happens among news, programmes, and rather many social media tools. It gives people such area to practice some of their knowledge or to advice new one. It can be also sunny to avoid life problems. people can benefit from it in educational field.

With all those positives or good sides, there are also a lot of negatives and bad side on there. Social media with bad use it can be a weapon to fire different wars, it also destroy the unite of society by separate the small unit of society which is people or individuals and destroying his collectivity.

Finally, if we need to benefit from social media we need to be careful to aware us ~~from~~ to it, we need to

pay attention to different programmes and the very important advice is to use social media in good make it helpful tools. the bad use of it make it bad tools.

very beautiful

### Sample 03

Social media are set of applications that allows users to create and share many thing like create profiles, share photos, it is famous one in the world nowadays. in other hand it have some advantages and disadvantages. it is a two-edged sword. So, Social media have numerous positive and negative point.

There are some positive point. First of all, communis w:R each other via internet. Also, substitute to learn another languages. Specifically on English Student when practice language with native speakers. Beside, knowing more information around the world. in addition, it is allow to the student do their school project. in brief, it is enjoyable

while there are many negative point. Firstly, wasting time. Secondly, addiction. thirdly, spend money. Finally, every one use it over time for some lost their eyes. *I. question*

All in All, Social media as we say before are a two-edged sword. Hence, every one must be use it in useful subject and didn't lost their time for ~~useless~~ useless one.



## Sample 04

...Social media become a part of our life, and it have a two edged sword that will be discussed...

...Social media like all the tools have a good and a bad sides. The good thing about social media is that consider an excellent way of communication between people all around the world. Also many of people depend on the social media to gain their money like youtuber, instagram... It is a good way for knowing a new culture and tradition, students also need the social media to learn more and more about the language. Also a great way of intertainment. For the bad of social media of course it is a wasting time and can make children going to lose their attention and don't care about school. Social media are really dangerous on the teenagers because they going to have bullying of another teenagers and that will cause a suicide, and lose confident about their self. Another issue that social media is doing that introduce a lot of bad and impolite behavior and thoughts to our society. A lot of use of the social media will cause illness in the brain, eyes, also can like watching a lot of movies on mobil or PC and listen always to the music.

Finally, social media need a big attention to be used and the children must have an adult person to watch them on when they use this technology, every thing in this life have an good or bad effect, so we should focus more on the good side and avoid as much as we can the bad one.

I sig  
nificantly  
modernish

## Sample 05

..... Social media is a platform in which people use to communicate with each other and share their posts, pictures and videos. This technology spread all over the world and people addicted it and it effected in their life in the society. This effect of social media are a two-edged sword which means that can be good and can be not.....

..... Social media has many positive aspects which can be obvious. It used to communicate from different place all around the world. It is a good chance to know other societies culture and traditions. It used as ~~tool~~ to Educational tool. It helps to learn new skills of writing, Editing, etc. special for English for language learning they can use it to learn the language and how its pronunciation and their culture. It used as source of information or news like music, art, etc.....

..... The other side of social media are in Negative aspects. It waste time people addicted it and they started to be less personal communication, a weak family connection. Sometimes the news are wrong not true at all about people or companies, etc. It may contain unethical article which can not be good for children or older people to watch.....

W = Conclusion



## Sample 06

..... Now days, Social media has the largest use by all  
 the ages of people in society specially Facebook. This over use  
 make it benefit in same aspects and in other hands...  
 For example, In the following lines, we will be discuss  
 the advantages and disadvantages aspects of social media.  
 There are many points social media is benifites.  
 Firstly, Social media is an easy way of communication  
 between people in the world. although those people form  
 different countries and they are away. Secondly, it became  
 the main sources of all students in any levels to take the  
 information. In addition, this tools shows us all new  
 news in any fields such political, economy and culture movement  
 by movement. In short, social media has effective role in society.  
 Although, all this benifites of social media, but it  
 has some disadvantages. First one, Social media hille all  
 the different types of interaction between people in the same  
 society or family. Above all, this tools spread a variety of  
 ethical and new traditions. In addition, behind the  
 overuse of social media appere many phenomenon such  
 as drug immigration and so forth. To sum up, social  
 media is tool we must be improve our using.  
 In conclusion, Social media stay just tool in  
 our hands. This tool have a lot advantages and  
 disadvantages we must should be organized our using.  
 The main points are not stated



## Sample 07

Social media is a website and application used for social networking. It differs from country to another but the crime is still the same.

Comp. Contributor

Generally, social media may have a good effect or a bad effect on our society. They are work is followed the news and information, the state of political, economy, or reactions, signposts, and get these the whole information and advertise it. This is the problem, because some of them advertise it as like it without addition and this is good for us "half facts". However, some of them make these facts and they reformed as they like and advertise but this is a big problem in our society. We can't distinguish the truth and facts from the wrong ones.

No clear Model

Then So we must be careful and be attention and we shouldn't believe all the news. And this what we mean by "Social media are a two-edged sword".

Not one word is short, No statement of the main facts

## Sample 08

\* The Internet Now is one of the most important part in ~~our~~ <sup>our</sup> life. ~~in other daily life~~ the majority of people are using the social Media as plat forme to share their ideas, photos and opinions such as Face book & Twitter & you tube and Instagram which is a very good for exploring the talented people and the creativity one on this plat forme. We conclude that the social Media have a good influence on the users life.

<sup>con</sup> However, that there is so many people believe that the social Media have a Negative side that may affect in a bad way on people ideas on the way of living the real life. for example the Negative messages like globalisation by delinking the culture and tradition and using the propaganda against these people like the muslims (called them by terrorist) and last and not list the religion and the war against it. We conclude that the social Media even though if it has some positive but the Negative side of it is very dangerous.

at the end the social Media has two sides the good one and the bad one but it depend on the users



## Sample 09

I think nowadays we can say that science has reached its highest levels in the evolution. So it opens to many ways for human being to be in touch with the world and give specific info in another hand. There is communication with any other person online. But as there are benefits there are bad sides draws it self to play the role of harming and losing. The main edges words of social media are following. As we spend hours in surfing and jogging, jumping from pages and another, and land in the mind the bad habits that social media pages and contain in it packages even the concentration in the screen or phone mobile can get to a serious damage, it gets the person its travel mainly to another place and cut his relationships with the neighborhood or friend. If we support what social media propose in its bad side, the person can lose the faith and his look to the future will change, if he was not smart to overcome it.

On the other hand, social media can be truly useful for people to reach the highest level in education or cultural mind. It proposes a many peaceful side that many scientists professors advice people to, far away from all effects that damage the mind and wasting time. In many cases even the health is responsible in harming eyes from long concentration and the feeling tired from the lack of sleep. So we must avoid all these bad habits and follow the good sides. Sometimes we rush in many things in our life that can destroy our physical life or even mentally so we must put a programme to rule this technology and don't let it be a big part of our life lives.

negative incorrect

## Appendix 07: Students WD Production in the

### Post-test

#### Sample 01

def Social Media is a collection of forms and tools that allow users to share a content, their experiences. So Cui, Media  
it is include facebook, twitter, Snap, Youtube, ...  
+ for example facebook is a popular free social networking  
website that allow users to create profile, upload photo, ...  
+ Social media impact importance on education to develop  
the language and the skills. The social media become  
very important today because it helps the people  
to express their creativity thoughts and to communicate between  
ther specially the English language students because it help  
them to practice their language and to copy  
exchange their cultural studies.  
+ Social media allow the people to discuss the issues either  
economic or political in facebook or twitter or ...  
but also there are negative uses of social media  
but it is not a lot. the frequent use of social media  
lead to lose a lot of time. So we should regulate  
the uses of it to avoid this wasting of time.  
Finally, social media is an effective tool and  
today we need it for many reasons.

### Sample 03

There are many people use social media...  
mondays, because everyone has the internet in at  
home. So social media is collection and platform  
services that allows the users to watch for news of  
our countries and it has many applications like  
like: facebook, skype and twitter. These application  
allows the users to communicate with each other.  
So, what are advantages and disadvantages of  
social media?

There many advantages of social media. First,  
can be learn and developed your language from  
communicate with other people from other country.  
Second, can be read news news about our country  
by using that application of social media. Third  
one, can be learn communicate with other without  
to be same locations.

On Other hand, there are many disadvantages  
of social media. Firstly, it wastes  
of time and money because you if you addicted for  
social media like facebook for example you will don't go any  
place and you don't have time. Secondly, social  
media is a cause to addiction. You will don't forget  
to pray.

In short, social media has advantages and  
disadvantages point. if you use that in positive point  
you will see social media is positive. And if you  
use that in negative point you will see social  
media is negative.

Rep



## Sample 04

sword" (10 pts)

..... The technological advance in different fields of life has brought  
..... what called social media to refer to all communication tools.....  
..... Social media has putten its trace on its users lives in both sides  
..... Positively or negatively.....  
..... Social media has helped the mankind in various ways.....  
..... Firstly, social media has made the world a small village, where  
..... people can still communicate with each other in spite of.....  
..... long distance, as a result to the social media, the connection  
..... between family, friends and long distance relatives became.....  
..... much easier. Secondly, it serves the educational purposes and  
..... aspects by helping the students in the different stages to  
..... enhance their educational level, and it provides scientific  
..... articles, it also helps high education learners and researchers  
..... to approach and satisfy scientific researchers. Finally, social  
..... media keeps you updated about what it's new in the world.....  
..... Social media has proved its positivity through the usage.....  
..... The impact of social media did not stop at that point only.....  
..... First, social media can be waste of time and it can cause  
..... addiction to its users and that by sitting for hours.....  
..... in front of its tools can cause a serious health issues.  
..... Such health attacks low blood pressure. Secondly, as result of  
..... of the vastness of social media a lot of emotional and physical  
..... damages can happen such as the cyber bullying which could be  
..... a serious psychological problems leading to suicide  
..... or death. Finally, the inappropriate sites and the online  
..... piracy and piracy invasion and all the tracking and stealing  
..... through internet due to the dark side of the misuse of  
..... social media also could lead to a political, governmental  
..... national, international issues.....  
..... The misuse of social media and its different tools can  
..... damage the individual's life.....  
..... To conclude, social media has impacted the mankind  
..... life whether positive effect or negative one, therefore, the media.....  
..... simple usage is better and it should be used for good purposes  
..... and at the necessity time.....  
.....

## Sample 05

### sword" (10 pts)

.....The wide spread of the Internet is getting more and more famous in the whole globe, and the use of it may be influential at many levels whether positively or negatively. It is considered as a serious phenomenon within the new digital generation, and the irregular use of it may destroy and leads us to the wrong path, especially the social media like Facebook, Twitter and Instagram. So its advantages and disadvantages will be discussed.

stating the main stand issue

Then's objective

.....Social media is a very important helpful tool nowadays. First of all, it is the first destination and source in which teachers and students find most of their research relevant the study. Also, learners learners may rely on it to enhance and develop their levels, for example they can add a pen friends who are natives in the language learned and make conversations to increase the listening skills. Besides, it allows us to get involved with all this new technologies. Finally, it allows us to share our experiences and exchange knowledge with a new people and to get their feedbacks so that we can be apart of the society. Despite of all its positive sides it has many negative ones.

making a point

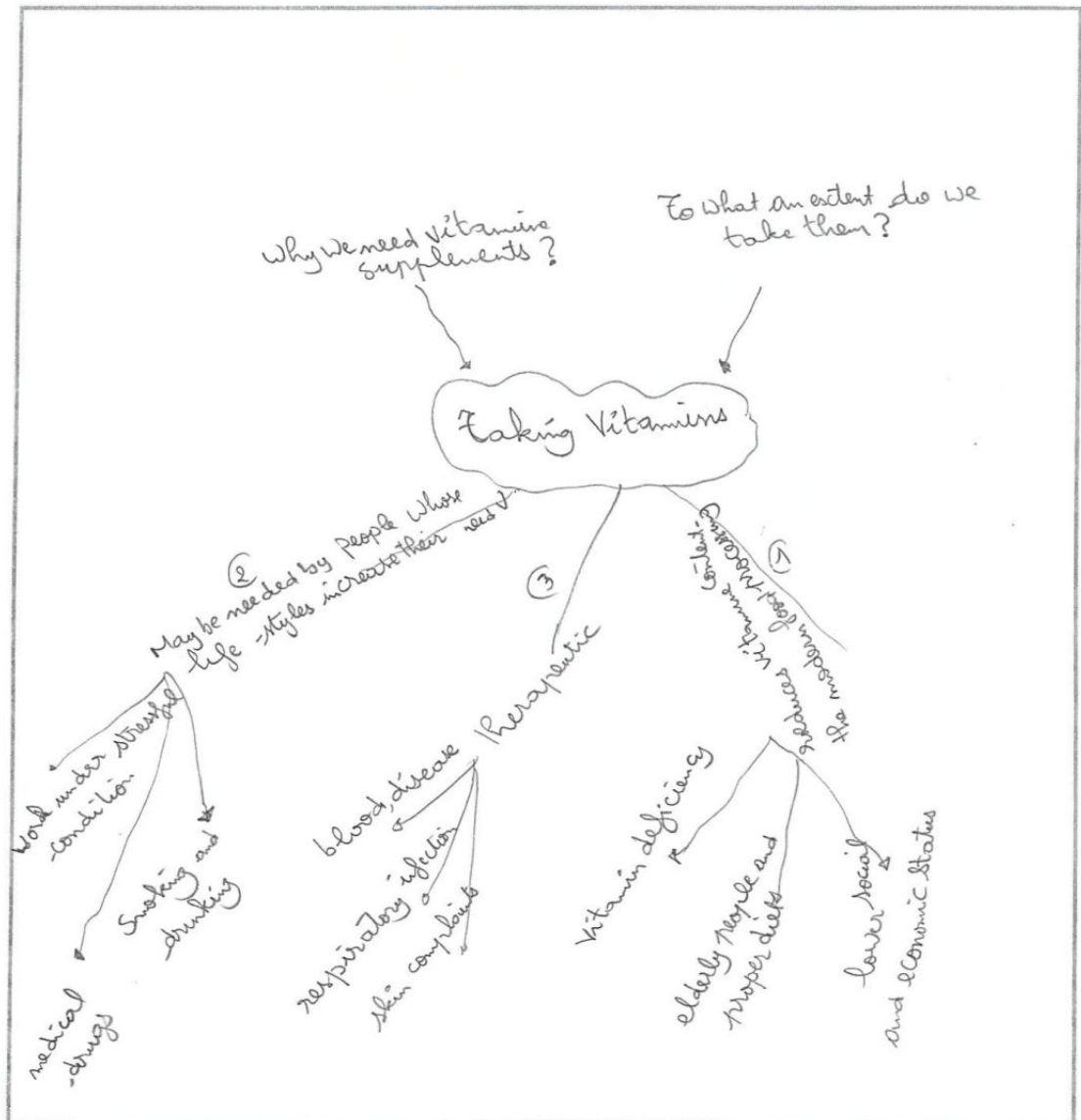
.....The bad consequences of this phenomenon are various. Firstly, it encourages the virtual life so that we leave the reality and we get attached to people we may not get together with someday. So we live always in another imaginary world. Also, it may be the reason of some psychological illnesses like loneliness. Besides, it teaches violence and it causes problems within the families, in addition to all of that it is considered as very poor orientation to waste time.

consequences of social media as counter argument

.....All in all, Social media is still a good way to be more cultivated and intellectual unless we do not over use it.

making the push for social media as

## An Illustration of ' Macro-Structure Diagram of WD Interpretation





## ملخص البحث

اتخذ مصطلح التحليل الخطابى معاني مختلفة و اكتسب في الوقت الراهن مجموعة واسعة من المناهج اللغوية و الاجتماعية. تهدف هذه الدراسة الى استثمار بعض من هذه المناهج لتدريس مهارة الكتابة بطريقة أكثر فعالية.

يستند هذا البحث على حقائق واقعية كثيرا ما تلاحظ في الوسط التعليمي من خلال نتائج الطلبة. و تتمثل في مشكلة التركيز على الجانب الوظيفي للغة بشكل عام و الخطاب الكتابي بشكل خاص و إهمال جوانب أخرى. لذلك فإن إنتاج الخطاب الكتابي لطلبة اللغة الانجليزية غالبا لا يتناسب مع السياق المحيط بالنص و نمطه. و غرضه.

لمعالجة هذه النقائص تم اقتراح التحليل الخطابى كونه يتمحور أساسا على دراسة استخدام اللغة في سياق معين. و تم التركيز على المستوى التداولي أي العلاقة بين الأشكال النصية و السياق، البنيوي و الاتساقى (يتضمن الإدراج الاستبدال، اشتمالة الاشكال البديلة، الإشارة، الترادف التضاد).

و اتبع البحث المنهج الوصفي و الشبه تجريبي على عينة من طلبة سنة ثانية أنجليزية في جامعة حماة لخضر بالوادي. بلغ عددهم 82 طالب. تم إجراء استبيان الاساتذة العدد 7 و 82 طالبا، لاستكشاف الوضعية التعليمية. أما بالنسبة للتجربة فهي تشمل ثلاثة مراحل: (1) الاختبار القبلي للطلاب وتقييم مستوى الطلبة قبل التجربة ، (2) تدريس الطلبة 12 حصة، (3) إجراء اختبار البعدي، و أخيرا حساب و مقارنة النتائج حيث أظهرت النتائج بأن هناك فروق إحصائية في البيانات التي تم الحصول عليها مما يدعم فرضية أن التحليل الخطابى يساعد في تحسين مهارة الكتابة.

## Résumé

Le terme «analyse du discours» a pris des différentes significations et il a maintenant acquis un large éventail d'approches linguistiques et sociales. Cette étude vise à investir certaines de ces méthodes pour enseigner les compétences de rédaction plus efficacement.

Cette recherche est basée sur des faits souvent observés dans le milieu d'enseignement ; grâce aux résultats des étudiants. Le problème est la concentration sur l'aspect fonctionnel du langage en général et le discours écrit en particulier et de négliger d'autres aspects. Par conséquent, la production du discours écrit des étudiants en langue anglaise ne correspond souvent pas au contexte entourant le texte, son style et son but.

Pour remédier ces imperfections, l'analyse du discours a été suggérée car il s'agissait essentiellement d'une étude de l'utilisation de la langue dans un contexte particulier.

L'accent était mis sur le niveau délibératif, c'est-à-dire la relation entre les formes textuelles et le contexte structurel et de cohérence ( l'insertion - l'inclusion - la substitution- les formes alternatives – la référence - le synonyme – la contradiction )

La recherche a suivi l'approche descriptive et semi-expérimentale sur un échantillon d'étudiants en deuxième année d'anglais à l'Université de Hamma Lakhdar à Eloued. leur nombre est 82 étudiants.

Le questionnaire des enseignants a été réalisé (7 enseignants et 82 étudiants ) pour explorer la situation d'enseignement.

Quant à l'expérience, elle comporte trois étapes

- 1- Le pré-test des étudiants et l'évaluation de leur niveau avant l'expérience.
- 2- Enseigner les étudiants 12 séances.
- 3- Effectuer le post-test et enfin le calcul et la comparaison des résultats.

Les résultats ont montré qu'il existe des différences statistiques dans les données obtenues, ce qui soutient l'hypothèse que l'analyse du discours contribue à améliorer la compétence de rédaction.