



**Kasdi Merbah University - Ouargla**



**Faculty of Letters and Languages**

**Department of Foreign Languages**

**English Section**

**Teaching Rhetorical Canons to Enhance  
Algerian EFL Learners' Writing Performance  
The Case of Second Year License students  
Kasdi Merbah University-Ouargla**

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## **DEDICATIONS**

I dedicate this modest work, with all my love and respect, to  
my dear parents for their encouragement all the time,  
my brothers and sisters  
and my friends.

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## ABSTRACT

Common in the language classroom is that the ability to fluently and autonomously write is among the most valuable benefits students aim to gain from language study. Such an outcome, however, needs to be planned for in advance in language teaching rather than left to chance. Although teachers spend more time, efforts and energy, students still encounter difficulties when writing. This requires finding an innovative and practical strategy. This study provides a detailed account of the actual practices of writing from Algerian EFL teachers and, then, it examines the extent to which teaching rhetorical canons: invention, organization and style, can enhance EFL students' writing performance. To attain these objectives, a blend of qualitative/quantitative methods was employed. First, an interview was administered to four (4) teachers, selected by means of purposive sampling, who teach writing at English Department at Kasdi Merbah University, chosen via purposive sampling. Second, writing test, distributed in two stages, was given to thirty (30) second year students, chosen via convenience sampling, at the same department. The aim of writing test was to quantitatively measure the students' writing performance at content, organization and style levels. The qualitative analysis of the data gathered through interview show that both teachers and students encounter difficulties when approaching writing. Concerning writing test, the results obtained from pre-test were compared to the results attained from the post-test. This comparison confirms that teaching rhetorical canons can enhance EFL students' writing performance. The research findings suggest a reconsideration of the rhetorical canons in writing class

**Key Words:** Rhetorical canons, Invention, Organization, Style, EFL students, Writing Performance.

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## **General Introduction**

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## **1. Research Background**

Writing is one of the language skills; it is one of the productive skills, besides speaking, and one of the written skills, besides reading. Having an advanced level of writing ability is a predictor of future success in professional and academic situations (Weigle, 2002). Writing is a complex skill for it involves a set of sub-competencies (Brown, 2001). Thus, possibility might be that writing is a difficult skill to master and it necessitates serious attention and control over various factors (Nunan, 1989). As a matter of fact, existing literature and the practices of language teachers prove that teaching writing is a challenging task in both native and foreign language (Tribble, 1996; Raimes, 1983). In EFL context, in spite of the remarkable progress in the English learning process, writing skills still become the weakest area in the students' overall performance (Ong, 2011). It is generally held that EFL students' difficulties when writing are reasoned by different factors related to both student and teachers (Fareed, Ashraf and Bilal, 2016). A number of studies have been conducted attempting to categorize these factors into some broad domains, for example, teachers' incompetence (Haider, 2012; Mansoor, 2005; Harmer, 2008), students' lack of interest (Byrne, 1991; Harmer, 2008) methodological inappropriacy (Ahmad, Khan, Munir, et al., 2013; Javed, Juan, & Nazli, 2013; Siddiqui, 2007). Therefore, some efforts need to be done by teachers in order to maintain or improve the students' writing skill. Fostering EFL learners' written performance is assured by advances in research about the nature of writing and the way it is efficiently taught and learnt. This study on EFL writing tries to propose a solution as a way to achieve a successful performance of writing instruction and, as a consequence, to enhance learners' writing skill.

There is a general agreement that writing is a difficult skill to master in EFL context for students need to generate and organize ideas using an appropriate choice of vocabulary,

sentence, grammar, and paragraph organization in order to make their written production comprehensible (Richards & Renandya, 2002). For this reason, EFL students encounter difficulties which may be a result of inability to discover ideas, to organize thoughts, to appropriately use vocabulary, to structure and use a variety of sentences, to use correct grammar and many other aspects. Raimes (1983) thinks that finding and expressing ideas in a new language is a difficulty that EFL students do face when writing. Likewise, as concluded by Chou (2011), using few inadequate, poor and repeated ideas is a striking cause that could make writing more complicated and turn their production uninteresting. In his study, Al-Khairy (2013) arrives at a conclusion that the major problems of EFL students' written works comprise grammatical errors, the inappropriate choice of vocabulary, irregular verbs, and incorrect punctuation and spelling. Indeed, this can influence content and the purpose of the written product in negative way. Particularly, employing inappropriate structure can complicate the content of the text so that it impedes the reader to decipher its meaning (Quintero, 2008; Nik, Hamzah, & Rafidee, 2010). Ideas organization can also be an obstacle for EFL student when communicating by means of writing. Specifically, disorganized ideas can result in an incoherent text that leads to a failure to communicate even if EFL students have mastered syntactic, lexical and grammatical command over text composition (Rico, 2014). Briefly, EFL students find it difficult to accomplish a written assignment in terms of both what to write and how to write it, that is to say content, organization and style.

To attain the optimum results in writing instruction by teachers and to get effective outcomes in writing performance by students, teaching of writing skill should be innovative and practical. To achieve this objective, we suggest teaching rhetorical canons in writing class with an aim to minimize students' difficulties at writing content, organization and style levels. In other words, focusing on the Algerian university context, the present study investigates the

impact of teaching rhetorical canons of invention, arrangement and style on EFL student written performance. In addition, the study attempts to suggest a model based on the selected rhetorical canons to facilitate the task of teaching writing and assure a successful learning of writing.

## **2. Rationale of the Study**

This study is undertaken for two reasons. The first reason is supporting the orientations addressing the relevance of rhetoric in writing; whereas the second reason is to solve day-to-day problems encountering teachers and students when approaching writing in the Algerian university context.

### **2.1. Relevance of Rhetoric in Writing**

As writing is important in EFL/ESL students' academic and professional career, an increasing number of studies have been recorded attempting to investigate the nature of writing, the way it should be taught or learnt, problems encountered both teachers and students when approaching writing and find out possible suggestions to reduce difficulties and, thus, facilitate teaching and learning writing. Some scholars attribute that efficient teaching of writing requires teachers' willingness, enthusiasm, an interest in texts as a subject of study and the ability to write and "relate" to students (Clark, 2003). However, in addition to the aforementioned factors, effective writing classroom pedagogy also necessitates understanding concepts of composition (ibid). This has directed practitioners and scholars to invent pedagogical innovations in order to understand concepts of composition and the way to teach them to non-native users of English language (ibid).

To make teachers' performance more effective and students' learning more efficient, a number of intellectuals agree that the treatment should cover not only the practice but also the theory of writing, that is to say how to make principles of a theory relevant to writing

instruction (Grabe & Kaplan, 1966). In the last few years, rhetoric, the art of written and spoken communication, has become an interesting issue in human sciences (Miller, Gallagher, & Carter, 2003) including education (Heller, 1999), particularly in the teaching of writing (Lindemann & Anderson, 2001). In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the field of composition became paired with the field of rhetoric paving the way for composition studies, also known as composition and rhetoric, rhetoric and composition, writing studies, or simply composition, to emerge as a discipline that concerns with the theory and practice of teaching writing (Lauer, 2004). Particularly, the field of composition studies grew from traditional rhetorical studies as scholars began to realize that elements of rhetoric are useful in the improvement of writing and composition abilities (ibid). In fact, it draws the most relevant and useful concepts from ancient rhetoric and offers them for use in the contemporary composition classroom (ibid).

As pioneers in the field of composition studies, Corbett (1965), Dauterman (1972), Lindemann (1995), Connors (1997), Crowley and Hawhee (2004), Clark (2003) and many other works in which authors generally acknowledged that writing teachers need to be acquainted with principles of the theory of rhetoric when planning and teaching writing courses. For them, bridging rhetoric and composition aims at fostering reflection on how theory impacts practice, and, thus, enabling prospective teachers to cultivate their conception of what writing is, how it should be taught and to consider how it can be easily learnt so that to enhance learners' performance. Going in line with the many studies conducted in the field of rhetoric and composition, this study tries to address the relevance of rhetoric to the teaching of writing.

## **2.2. Solving Teaching and Learning Writing Problems**

A number of studies reported that EFL learners find difficulties when they come to write, which are obviously reflected in their written performance. Murray (1992) asserts that

though EFL students consume a long time in discovering idea, their final written production is frequently based on one idea repeated again and again because they have not sufficient ideas to write. In addition to their inability to exploring ideas, other studies demonstrate that EFL students' written performance involves errors of different types reflecting incapability to structure ideas and arrange essay sections, to use mechanics for ornamenting their writing and, hence, to finally present it in a comprehensible and decipherable way for readers (Richard & Renandya, 2002; Ibrahim & Nambiar, 2011; Mirlohi, 2012; Al Khairy, 2013; Abu Rass, 2015; Mohammed Youcef, 2017; Nasser, 2019). Accordingly, EFL students' difficulties can be categorized in three general classifications: content, arrangement and form. As such difficulties can hamper the efficiency and effectiveness of their writing which, as a consequence, does not conform to the academic conventions.

EFL students' writings should be accurate and fluent conforming to the academic conventions, especially as they are expected to be teachers and/or researchers so that they will participate in the international academic community in the future. This objective requires EFL students to possess a good command of various features of writing: content, writing process, audience, purpose, word choice, organization, mechanics, grammar and syntax (Raimes, 1983). In fact, students' learning depends on the effectiveness of the teacher's strategies (Akiri, 2013). In simple terms, the difficulties that EFL students meet when writing are partly related to students themselves and partly related to teachers' instructional practices. The present researcher is interested to discover a solution to help both teacher and learners in obtaining optimal results when approaching writing.

Taking into consideration both above-stated reasons, it appears that there is a need for a study that revisits rhetorical concepts to contribute to the existing literature on teaching EFL

writing to reduce EFL students' writing difficulties and, hence, promote their written performance.

### **3. Statement of Problem**

Writing is one of the language skills; it is difficult to approach by teacher and learners whether it is in first, second or foreign language (Nunan, 1989; Richards & Renandya, 2002) for it requires demonstrating a control of a number of variables simultaneously (Bell and Burnaby, 1984 cited in Nunan, 1989: 36). Though EFL teachers consume a long time and spend more efforts and energy to teach writing, EFL students still face difficulties and make all sorts of errors when writing. In the Algerian university context, a number of EFL students are not able to write a piece of text, and their failure comes at different levels of writing. Particularly, they fail to explore ideas, to arrange them, to use mechanics for ornamenting their writing and, hence, to finally make it comprehensible and decipherable by readers (Richard and Renandya, 2002). When writing a piece of text, the writer has to deal with various features: content, writing process, audience, purpose, word choice, organization, mechanics, grammar and syntax (Raimes, 1983). For Tribble (1996), successful writers should have knowledge of the salient four writing components: content, context, language system and writing process.

To assist students when writing and enhance their writing, EFL teachers should be creative in how to cover the majority of writing components and promote students' writing. Thus, the aim of the present study is to provide EFL teachers with innovative and practical way to facilitate teaching writing and improve EFL learners' writing performance. In other words, we propose teaching *rhetorical canons* particularly invention, arrangement and style supposing that they can enhance EFL students' writing performance focusing on both content and style and, additionally, make the task of teaching writing easier.

#### **4. Objectives of the Study**

Since writing is one of language skills that EFL learners are required to master, and since Algerian EFL learners do face difficulties in learning it, the issue of how to develop learners' writing performance is regarded as the main concern of teachers' creativity. In this research, we suggest teaching *rhetorical canons* to develop EFL students' writing. Thus, the current study attempt to achieve the following objectives:

1. To provide a detailed account of the Algerian EFL teachers' actual practices, problems they encounter when teaching writing and the procedures they employ to eliminate their students' writing difficulties when discovering ideas, selecting words, structuring sentences and using mechanics,
2. To investigate whether teaching rhetorical canons can enhance EFL learners' writing performance,
  - a. To examine whether teaching rhetorical invention can help EFL students in discovering various effective ideas on a topic,
  - b. To examine whether teaching rhetorical arrangement can assist EFL students in efficiently organizing their written work,
  - c. To examine whether teaching rhetorical style can serve EFL students in producing an appealing written work,
3. To suggest an innovative and practical model based on rhetorical canons to make the task of teaching writing easier, on the one hand, and to attain effective written production by learners, on the other.

#### **5. Research Questions**

On the basis of these objectives, the following questions are formulated:



1. How do the Algerian university EFL teachers perceive teaching writing? What are the difficulties they encounter when teaching writing? What are the difficulties that EFL students face to discover ideas, select words, structure sentences and use mechanics when writing? And what procedures do they suggest to solve their students' writing difficulties?
2. To what extent can teaching rhetorical canons enhance EFL learners' writing performance?
  - a. To what extent can teaching rhetorical invention help EFL students in discovering various effective ideas on a topic?
  - b. To what extent can teaching rhetorical arrangement assist EFL students in efficiently organizing their written work?
  - c. To what extent can teaching rhetorical style serve EFL students in producing an appealing written work?

## **6. Research Hypotheses**

We hypothesize that:

1. Teaching rhetorical canons can enhance EFL learners' writing performance.
  - a. Teaching rhetorical invention can help EFL students in discovering various effective ideas on a topic,
  - b. Teaching rhetorical arrangement can assist EFL students in organizing a piece of writing,
  - c. Teaching rhetorical style can serve EFL students in producing an appealing piece of writing.

## **7. Methodology**

### **7.1. Research Design**

The objective of this study is twofold. First, it aims at investigating the teachers' practices of teaching writing and different problems encountering both teachers and students when approaching writing, and then the effect of teaching *rhetorical canons* on EFL students' writing performance. To attain these two aims, the present study consists of two types of research: exploratory and experimental. Though the former is used to elicit the qualitative data through structured interview, the latter is conducted to extract quantitative data from a test (Dörnyei, 2007); both types of research are complementary. As this study composes of two types of research designs, the adoption of mixed methods is more advantageous to merge the data of both designs to meet the optimal results. According to Dörnyei (2007), a mixed methods research can help the investigator: "(a) to achieve a fuller understanding of a target phenomenon and (b) to verify one set of findings against the other." The mixed method is thoroughly described in a section devoted to methodology. In fact, the selection of the two research designs and the adoption of mixed methods are explained in details in the section devoted to methodology.

### **7.2. Participants**

The participants involved in this study belong to two different categories: Algerian EFL university students and university teachers. Quasi-experimental design requires non-probability sampling. Particularly, the participants are selected by means of convenience sampling. The first participant category includes second year students at the English Department, Kasdi Merbah Ouargla University (KMOU). The participants are selected due to certain reasons. First, they are adults and need no parental permission to participate in this investigation. Second, they have studied English language at least for eight years, so they

have, if not good, acceptable command of English. The second participant category consists of Algerian university teachers who teach at the English Department, Kasdi Merbah Ouargla University (KMOU).

### **7.3. Research Instruments**

To answer the research questions and verify the postulated hypotheses, two research instruments are designed: an interview for university teachers and a test, which is taken in two stages: pre-test and post-test, for EFL students. First, this qualitative method is used to understand the teacher participants' common practice of teaching writing, their perception of the different problems that EFL learners do face and the possible efforts they look for to overcome such problems. The results obtained from the interview will help the present researcher in designing the pre-test, which should suit the pedagogical aims of the lesson and the students' abilities, and to shape the intervention between the pre-test and the post-test. The interview seeks to answer question 1. The second tool of research is a test which is administered in two stages separated by an instruction intervention. The pre-test serves to set data at the starting point of the experiment, whereas post-test provides data at the end point of the experiment. To answer question 2, the results obtained from pre-test are going to be compared with the results obtained from post-test to measure whether there is an improvement in EFL learners' writing performance.

### **8. Structure of Thesis**

The present thesis consists of two sections in which six chapters explain the theoretical background of the study, its methodology, its main findings and implications. The first part in this study briefly introduces the topic of this research project and the statement of its problem, discusses the rationale, presents the research objectives, questions and hypotheses, and the

methodology dealing with research design, participants and instruments employed to gather data from them.

The first section constitutes two chapters that review literature related to the research theme with the aim to establish a conceptual framework for the study. The first chapter sketches the key definitions of writing, its status and the essentials of effective writing in EFL/ESL context. Besides, it also traces in depth different approaches to teaching writing and discusses factor affecting EFL learners' writing. Finally, it tackles the assessment of writing performance components. The second chapter is about the art of rhetoric. It starts with the evolution of rhetoric and rhetorical canons. Subsequently, it provides a thorough overview of the three selected rhetorical canons: invention, arrangement and style. As a final point, it describes the position of rhetorical canons in EFL writing class.

The practical section of this study encompasses four chapters. The third chapter is devoted to the research methodology. It begins with a detailed description of the research design, and it also involves a comprehensive report of the instruments covering the respondents and the procedures of data collection and analysis. Both chapters 4 and 5 offer a statistical account of the findings of the teachers' interview and the writing test respectively. Finally, in chapter 6, the researcher has attempted to propose a model for the teaching of writing in EFL context, of which principles are derived from the findings of the interview and writing test analysis.

## **9. Definition of Terms**

**Rhetorical canons:** are “five overlapping divisions of the rhetorical process...The parts of rhetoric, as most authorities have stated, are Invention, Arrangement, Expression, Memory, and Delivery.” (Herrick, 2001)

**Invention:** For Janice Lauer (2004), invention is “strategic acts that provide the discourser with direction, multiple ideas, subject matter, arguments, insights or probably judgments, and understanding of the rhetorical situation”. (p.3)

**Arrangement:** is “the division of rhetoric concerned with the effective and orderly arrangement of the parts of a written or spoken discourse: introduction, statement of facts, confirmation, presenting the opposing views and conclusion” (Corbett, 1965).

**Style:** is defined as “the art of producing sentences and words that will make an appropriately favorable impression on readers or listeners” (Covino and Jolliffe, 1995).

**Writing performance:** It is a concept which consists of two words. Thus, to define this concept, it is necessary to clarify each part independently. Writing is defined as conventional graphic transcription of symbols (Rogers, 2000) to externalize one’s thought (Krest and Carle, 1999). Performance is considered by Chomsky (1965) as “the actual use of language in concrete situations”. Accordingly, in this study, writing performance refers the concrete realization of language by means of writing.

## CHAPTER ONE

### Teaching Writing in Second Language Context

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## **Introduction**

The teaching of English involves four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing, which students should master to become proficient users of this target language. In educational settings, writing is the basis upon which students' achievement, learning and intelligence are judged. However, comparing to the other language skills, and since teaching and learning writing seems to be a challenging task when taught in native language, this aspect of language seems to be more difficult and demanding for EFL teachers and learners. This chapter begins by introducing a general overview of the nature of writing. Subsequently, it gives the status of writing in ESL/EFL academic context. Then, it gives certain reasons for teaching writing followed by a number of essentials for effective writing. It also explores the different approaches to teaching writing and discusses linguistic, cultural, educational and psychological factors that affect EFL learners' writing. Finally, since evaluation is necessary to identify students' strength and the weakness for remedial instruction, it tackles the assessment of writing performance highlighting the major writing performance components that should be measured.

### **1.1. The Nature of Writing**

Writing is generally defined as an act of putting what has been spoken in conventional graphic symbols form (Rogers, 2000). Indeed, the significance of this skill is much more than just graphic symbols. It is the externalization rather a visual representation of thought process. Scholars believe that there exists a close relationship between writing and critical thinking which they are thought to be developed together (Krest and Carle, 1999; White, 1987). Moreover, Nunan (2003) considers this aspect of language itself as a process of thinking to explore ideas, arranging them into larger units. Flower and Hayes explicate writing as a "set of

distinctive thinking processes" (1981: 366). Similarly, White and Arndt(1991; in Ouskourt, 2008) see that:

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

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

On her part, Emig (1977) maintains that during writing one can experience high cognitive functions (such as analysis and synthesis) because during the writing process, the writer tries to invent ideas, organize them. Furthermore, the writing skill is a mental process which focuses not only on exploring and putting together ideas, but also it includes thinking how to express them in a correct way (Chastain, 1988). Writing is a powerful thinking tool.

People put conventional graphic symbols each of which stands for an idea or a concept for communicative purpose. Particularly, writing is a sophisticated means of communication linked directly to people's roles in society. In this concern, Crystal(1995) voices that: "Most obviously writing is a way of communication uses a system of visual marks made on some kind of surface"(p. 257).Likewise, the act of writing is a measure of literacy since it offers people more alternatives to communicate within the surrounding social context. For Tribble (1996), to be deprived from the opportunity of writing means "to be excluded from a wide range of social roles, including those which the majority of people in industrialized societies associate with power and prestige" (p. 12). This statement indicates that writing can develop a new set of cognitive and social relations. Fluent and effective communication takes place when the receiver properly understands the sender. In this concern, Brooks, (1960) articulates



that:“writing is much more than an orthography symbolization of speech, it is more importantly a purposeful selection and organization of expression”(p.167).

Writing is one of the language macro-skills, which requires the writer’s physical as well as mental effort; it is classified with the productive ones. If communication through speaking is naturally acquired for people except who have speech defects, writing needs to be formally learned and practiced through experience (Raimes, 1983; White, 1981). Put differently, the ability to write is not naturally or simply acquired; it is usually taught or culturally transmitted as a set of practices in formal institutions, or other environments settings where consciousness, effort and time are required (Ouskourt, 2008).Writing is a complex activity (Collins & Gentner, 1980; Nunan, 1991) because it involves sub-skills and includes different types of knowledge.

One can say that writing is a visual/graphic representation of ideas for communicative purpose, requiring writing knowledge and conventions in order to appropriately arrange the different structures so as to convey the intended message in a successful and a comprehensible manner. Besides, it is a thinking process where a number of mental operations come to play, a language skill including sub-skills and conventions, and an ability that is formally learnt necessitating much time, conscious and mental effort.

## **1.2. Writing in ESL/EFL Context**

Writing is the most difficult and complex macro-skill, compared to the other skills, in first, second or foreign language situation (Kroll, 1990; Nunan, 1989). As English language becomes language for international communication in different domains, the ability to write effectively in English is gaining an increasingly important value. In the sweeping history of ESL/EFL teaching, though writing is a very important mode of expression, it had been given a secondary role and it had been neglected in favor of the spoken mode. Later, the ability to

write effectively has received an increasing interest in teaching instruction, and writing has occupied a prominent role in ESL/EFL curriculum for certain reasons (Richards, 1990). First, Weigle (2002) states that the aim of learning writing is to take part in social activities beyond school and/or to pursue careers that involve extensive writing. Second, this skill is used in education either as evidence of successful learning or as a means of learning (Richards, 1990). Accordingly, writing needs special attention as it is an essential qualification that all ESL/EFL learners need to master for future academic and professional success of university students (Kern, 2000).

At the university level, students are required to develop appropriate and effective writing ability in the course of their educational progress. Abdulkareem (2013) confirms that writing has a fundamental impact on university students' progress in learning English language. In fact, it is said that writing is of two types either institutional or personal (Davies and Widdowson, 1974). Institutional writing is the type of writing undertaken in a professional or academic institution including university. Thus, ESL/EFL students are claimed to be requiring further instruction in writing to possess most of the linguistic features and conventions to make their writings more effective and sound academic. However, academic writing is a difficult skill to be achieved especially in a second and foreign language. Mohan and Lo (1985) confirm that many of ESL learners find academic writing problematic. In this concern, Richards (1990) articulates that learning academic write is a difficult and lengthy process and it can cause anxiety and frustration in many learners. Consequently, inquiries as to the difficult task of teaching and learning academic writing and the way it should be taught do always arise.

### 1.3. Essentials of Effective Writing

The ability to write in first, second or foreign language is required for personal, educational and professional reasons. From a pedagogical point of view, at the university level, EFL writing is used as a tool for learning and the majority of the university work is done by the means of writing. In university context, this basic skill of language requires some criteria of acceptability relative to its different components. In this sense, Badger and White (2000) elucidate that: “Writing involves knowledge about language, knowledge of the context in which writing happens and especially the purpose and skill in using language” (p. 157-158). For Bell and Burnaby (1984; cited in Nunan, 1989: 36), the act of writing is a complex cognitive activity in which one needs to show control of a number of variables, simultaneously. The variables of writing are content, organization, vocabulary, vocabulary, syntax, mechanics, purpose, audience, and process of writing (Raimes, 1983).

The first component of writing is *content*. This component constitutes the ideas expressed in the written product. Content should be clear, logical, original and relevant (ibid). It also should be organized and well-structured in systematic manner to form coherent format where “even short pieces of writing have regular, predictable patterns of organization” (Swales & Feak, 2004, p. 12). To express the ideas, writers make use of different tools: vocabulary, grammar, syntax and mechanics.

*Vocabulary* is the material of language (Wilkins, 1972), through which the ideal content is represented. The writer should select words relevant to the theme. Another important component of writing is *grammar*. It is defined as a structure of language in which words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in a language (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). For Thornbury (1999, p. 01) states that: “Grammar is the study of what forms or structures are possible in language”. To discuss the salient role of grammar, Wilkins (1972)

declares that “Without grammar very little can be conveyed. Because vocabulary are some isolated parts. If you only have vocabulary but no grammar, the vocabulary is like the yellow leaves out of the trunk, they are lifeless” (p. 111-112). For him, grammar is the law which gives the language an organized system. Accordingly, grammar is the bone (skeleton) without which the written body of language can't stand. Therefore, grammar makes writing product more comprehensible, readable, relevant and logical for the readers.

Vocabulary and grammar are necessary but insufficient, yet writer still needs one more component which is syntax. This latter refers to the grouping of words within a sentence on the basis of grammatical rules. Written product can be easily understood if the sentences are constructed according to the rules of syntax. Susana (2007) perceives syntax complexity as an ability to produce writings in which the ideas and the large chunks of information combine together with the use of subordinate and embedded subordinate clauses. Though syntax complexity is one of the difficult elements of writing, it is the key of successful writings (Lu, 2011; Crowhurst, 1980)

Despite specifying content, using organization tool including vocabulary, grammar, syntax, a piece of writing yet calls for extra significant devices for arranging and managing ideas. These devices are labeled mechanics. This type of conventions is a part of language, and hence writing. The use of mechanics can result in good quality piece of writing, and facilitate comprehension for the readers. Mechanics involves indentation, punctuation, spelling, handwriting, etc. Indentation shows starting points of new paragraphs. Though their role is underestimated, punctuation marks are of great importance because:

Among other things, they indicate pauses and sentence boundaries and also help to eliminate ambiguity. A well-punctuated [piece of writing] should make your

work easier to read and understand and will therefore help it make a more favourable impression on your readers. (Murray & Hughes, 2008, p. 185)

Spelling is another important aspect of a piece of writing for a correct spelling can grant one's work credibility. Furthermore, it is a factor of assessment for many teachers when evaluating students' productions.

Before starting to write a piece, it is important to consider other components: audience, purpose and process (Raimes, 1983; Richards et al, 2002). Audience refers to the readers (Raimes, 1983), either individual or group, whom the writer intends to address. Purpose means the reason for writing (ibid). Audience has a great impact on text aspects including purpose (Clark, 2003). In particular, if audience is familiar with the content knowledge, the purpose is a mere demonstration of knowledge and expertise and, in consequence, the writer should not provide much background information; but if audience knows less than the writer, then the purpose is instructional and, then, writer should provide a detailed and an understandable content. Concerning process, Richards et al (2002) argue that successful writers are those who plan what they are going to write. Defining writing as a process and stating the different activities involved in this process, Hedge (2000) stated:

It involves a number of activities: setting goals, generating ideas, organizing information, selecting appropriate language, making a draft , reading and reviewing it , then revising and editing . It involves a complex process which is neither easy nor spontaneous for many second language writers. (p. 124)

A skillful writer should set the purpose, identify his audience and plan his writing all of which, undoubtedly, are helpful in exploring ideas that are organized and arranged into complete, correct and meaningful sentences employing different tools: grammar, syntax and mechanics which make written product more manageable and readable. In EFL context, at university level, writing skill becomes most challenging task for the majority of students because there are provided no clear instruction or practical use of writing components. As the aforementioned components are the key factors of effective, cohesive and coherent writing, university students should receive a sufficient knowledge about writing components within academic framework.

#### **1.4. Reasons for Teaching Writing**

Generally speaking, people are born with ability to acquire their first language, simply through exposure. This is accepted for speaking but not for writing. Speaking is naturally acquired as a result of being exposed to it, whereas writing has to be consciously learned (Harmer, 2004) either in first, second or foreign language. Accordingly, the major reason for teaching writing is that this skill requires tutoring. In effect, many scholars stress their viewpoints as to writing, and provide different classifications of personal, academic and/or professional reasons for teaching writing.

Raimes (1983) suggests a list of practical reasons for writing; these reasons are to keep records, to learn, communicate with the second part (i.e. readers), express ideas, or explore subjects. Lindsay and Knight (2006) broadened the list of the basic reasons of writing skill by adding two more motives – entertaining and examining.

Teaching writing is viewed from different angles and, as a consequence, the list of reasons is expanded to include more reasons. Harmer (1998) emphasizes the necessity of teaching writing to native and non-native speakers and provides more reasons which are

summarized in four aims: reinforcement, language development, learning style and most importantly writing as a skill.

- **Reinforcement:** language is definitely acquired in its oral/aural form; writing is helpful for learners to use new items of language in their writing. Therefore, the importance of writing lies in reinforcing learners' understanding how language works out in its written version and facilitates the process of acquiring new vocabulary
- **Language Development:** writing is a thinking tool as learners try to explore ideas when they come to construct a piece of text. This mental activity is a part of the ongoing learning process. As a result, the reason for teaching writing is that it is an important tool for critical thinking and for language development.
- **Learning Style:** for Moore (1994; in Daisey, 2009), writing provides one with an ability that helps him learn. Besides, Cumming (1995) states:

The main importance of writing in that level is that it helps students to learn. Writing new words and structures help students to remember them; and as writing is done more slowly and carefully than speaking, written practice helps to focus students attention on what they are learning. (p. 148)

Precisely, unlike the temporality of speaking, the permanence of writing makes the task of learning easier and focused as it offers learners the sufficient time during the reception and the effective production of language.

- **Writing as a Skill:** clearly, as we have previously said, the primary reason for teaching writing is that it is the language skill which requires a formal setting. In language classroom, though speaking is the mainly used language skill, there are some

tasks such as reports, summarize and research papers that only through writing. Each of these written tasks requires certain writing conventions. Certainly, as they make efforts to learn pronunciation in the approved manner to be fluent speakers, they also need to learn some of the writing conventions to boost their writing (Harmer, 1998).

Harmer's reasons dealt with writing in an academic context. He provides how writing can facilitate language acquisition/learning and develop language and thinking abilities. Influenced by harmer's ideas, Kern (2000) accentuates the necessity of writing for academic language learning, and provides a broader classification of reasons for teaching writing, which are stated below:

- Designing meaning through writing offers learners an opportunity to develop their ability to think explicitly about expressing and organizing their thoughts and feelings in ways that are well-matched to the readers' expectations.
- Writing develops learners' communicative ability as they write to make their thoughts understandable to others who may not share similar backgrounds.
- When writing, learners explicitly manipulate forms to create and re-shape meaning.
- Writing gives learners an opportunity to test hypothesis about the new language and to broaden their communicative potential in the language as when writing they try out different words, syntactic structures, styles and organizational patterns, considering the effects of such manipulations on meaning.
- When writing, learners have much time to process meaning.
- When writing, learners have time to think; writing is preferable at the early stage of study for it is easier and less anxiety than speaking,
- Writing enables students to take the time they need to get their message across in a form they find acceptable.



- Writing allows language learners' use to go beyond functional communication, making it possible to create imagined world of their own design (Kern, 2000).

Supporting Harmer's (1998) views, Leki (2003) admits the significance of writing for personal, academic and future professional life. For this reason, she insists on teachers to inform their students of the significance of writing in different areas right from the beginning:

Our students need to be convinced of the importance of writing by reading in their writing text book or hearing in the first day of the writing class a litany of claims about how important writing already is to them in their daily lives (to write grocery lists, notes to friends and family, letters of complaint to landlords, e-mail messages) and how important writing will certainly be eventually to do such things as take an exam in a management course, write a biology lab report, work as an engineer, and participate in democracy by writing letters to the editor or to elected representatives. (Leki, 2003, p. 318)

He (ibid) provides a broader classification, in which she represents writing and the necessity for teaching it into personal, academic, professional and intellectual reasons, summarized as follows:

- Writing is personally fulfilling.
- Writing helps students to learn disciplinary content.
- Students will have to do a great deal of writing in other courses at university.
- In the work world, employers demand good writing skills.
- In a democracy, writing is a powerful tool for justice (Leki, 2003, p. 318-326).

After having giving some reasons for teaching writing, it is safe to say that writing is beneficial for one's present and future personal, academic and professional success. Thus, teachers should introduce the significance role writing has initially.

### **1.5. Approaches to Teaching Writing**

Though writing had been neglected at the expense of speaking, it writing has witnessed an important and noticeable shift and, as a consequence, it takes its own place in language teaching/learning curricula (Halpern, 1984). However, unlike speaking skill, writing cannot be acquired naturally, rather it has to be consciously taught and learnt by doing, practicing or improving. Furthermore, learners have different writing needs which depend on their language stage and the purpose of their writing. Accordingly, a great number of approaches and methods of teaching have proposed in order to decide on the most suitable way to handle the writing task. In the course of last two decades, four prominent methodologists: Raimes (1983), Byrne (1988), Tribble (1996) and Harmer (2001) introduce different classifications each of which includes key approaches to teaching writing. Some approaches from these classifications are overlapping as their principal attitudes and methods are either same or mostly very similar. Indeed, none of these approaches can be measured as ideal because they have all proved to work in one situation or another. The Table 1 shows different classifications and approaches introduced by the four selected authors. Approaches that take the same color are overlapping, but only the approaches in the bold print are analyzed further on.

**Table 1. Classifications of approaches to teaching writing**

<b>Raimes (1983)</b>	<b>Byrne (1988)</b>	<b>Tribble (1996)</b>	<b>Harmer (2001)</b>
<b>Controlled-to-Free Approach</b>	Focus on Accuracy	Text-Based Approach	Process Approach
<b>Free-Writing Approach</b>	Focus on Fluency	Process Approach	Genre Approach
<b>Paragraph-Pattern Approach</b>	Focus on Text	<b>Genre Approach</b>	<b>Creative Writing</b>
<b>Grammar-Syntax-Organization Approach</b>	Focus on Purpose		Cooperative Writing
<b>Communicative Approach</b>			
<b>Process Approach2</b>			

### 1.5.1. Controlled-to-Free Approach

Controlled-to-free approach is introduced by Raimes (1983). Besides, Byrne (1988) and Tribble (1996) present the same principles but under different titles, respectively: Focus on accuracy and Text-based Approach (see Table 1). Controlled-to-free approach is based on audio-lingual approach which dominated second language learning in the 50's and the early of 60's (ibid). As speaking was given more importance, writing was just viewed as a reinforcement of "what students learned to say" (Rivers, 1968, p. 51) as well as a support system for learning grammar, vocabulary and syntax (Raimes, 1983). Controlled-to-free approach in writing is sequential; that is, students are first trained on single sentences and, then, only after having practiced this level, they copy, manipulate or change paragraphs (ibid). In this paradigm, material is selected and provided by the teacher and students work on strictly prescribed operations (ibid). Since writing is controlled, students do avoid many errors, which make the teacher's work of correcting quick and easy. Furthermore, students are controlled in the beginning, but once they have a higher level of proficiency in writing they

are allowed to attempt free compositions (ibid). This approach stresses three areas: grammar, syntax, and mechanics, emphasizing accuracy instead of fluency and originality (ibid).

Byrne's Focus on Accuracy stresses using step-by-step activities to control over making errors and to eliminate them from the written work. Initially, students are not allowed to use their own ideas, rather they are prescribed to work on exercises in which they combine, manipulate and model. At later stages, this approach gradually reduces amount of control so that student get freer (Byrne, 1988). Similarly, Tribble (1996) focuses on form using authoritative texts for imitating, modelling and adapting to eliminate errors.

### **1.5.2. Free-Writing Approach**

Free-writing approach is also introduced by Raimes (1983); which shares the same principles with Byrne' (1988) s Focus on Fluency. In the Free-writing approach, students are free to write on given topics or topics of their interest in order to motivate students and make them feel engaged in the writing process. Unlike the previous approach which focuses on accuracy and form, free- writing approach emphasizes fluency and content (i.e. ideas and originality), but grammatical accuracy, organization and other components gradually go after ideas are put down on a page. In this approach, activities are a 'quick write'<sup>1</sup> type, in which students write about a given or any topic to practice their writing skills and creativity. Free-writing exercises take short time, from five to ten minutes, with only minimal correction of errors. Teachers do not correct free- writing errors, rather they evaluate ideas expressed by students who, alternatively, might volunteer to read what they wrote aloud in the classroom. Though students can subsequently use some valuable ideas in their real writing assignment, free- writing certainly contains a lot of waste (Scrivener, 2005). The key principles of Byrne' (1988) s *Focus on Fluency* are getting ideas on the paper, feeling actual writing, expressing

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<sup>1</sup>Also known as 'fast writing' according to White and Arndt (1991, p. 46) or Scrivener (2005, p. 198).

own thoughts and the like. For Byrne (1988), students' incapability to write is caused by the fact that: "many students write badly because they do not write enough". To solve such problem, he suggests that writing about something personal, like keeping a diary, could help (ibid).

### **1.5.3. Paragraph-Pattern Approach**

Paragraph- Pattern Approach is another approach suggested by Raimes (1983). Having the same principles in mind, this approach is reflected in Byrne (1988). This approach is based on the idea that language construction or organization differs across cultures. Therefore, Raimes (1983) introduces Paragraph-Pattern Approach shifting focus from accuracy of grammar and fluency of ideas to organization in order to teach students how English features are organized in a piece of writing. In Paragraph- pattern activities, students work with paragraphs – they copy them, analyze and imitate model ones. In addition, such exercises can include putting scrambled sentences in right order, identifying general and specific information, choosing a suitable topic sentence for the paragraph, and the like (ibid). Byrne' (1988) s Focus on Text enables students to go beyond single sentence, rather to organize and construct paragraph.

### **1.5.4. Grammar-Syntax-Organization Approach**

Seeing that teaching writing as separate skills does not lead to the expected results, teachers emphasize the need of a unique approach to work simultaneously on the three components: grammar, syntax or organization, all at once (Raimes, 1983). Thus, writing tasks based on this approach help students to deal with grammar and syntax paying attention to organization as well (ibid). What distinguishes this approach from those previously revealed in details is that grammar-syntax-organization approach links one more important aspect to the form and message- the purpose of writing (ibid).

### **1.5.5. Communicative Approach**

Writing is communicative; there is a need for a communicative methodology to teach writing. As a result, Raimes (1983) introduces communicative approach that is reflected in Byrne's *Focus on Purpose*, in which students can engage as writers in real life. In addition, in his approach Raimes (1983) puts stress on purpose and audience. The latter feature has a crucial role as the reader (in classroom reader would be the teacher, classmates, or alternatively somebody outside the class) provides an authentic feedback or response to the writer. In fact, reader' feedback can take different forms: questions, exchanging letters, emails or messages, but without any correction of the text. In Byrne's approach, having a purpose and audience are two vital factors that should never be neglected when practicing writing as they motivate students to write (ibid).

Though the aforesaid approaches to teaching writing are labeled differently, they all mirror the different aspects of whole perception that writing is a product and, in the case of some approaches, a communicative act. Specifically, approaches considering writing as a product, which consists of several elements including grammar, syntax, organization, etc. stress that teaching and developing of writing is the sum of teaching of each element. On the other hand, approaches view writing a communicative act; they add further components for example purpose to make writing a motivating activity, and audience to adjust the written product to the target people. However, students need to know how to write.

### **1.5.6. The Process Approach**

In the mid 1970s, after deficiencies noted on writing -as-product approaches which treat writing as linear activity, which make it difficult for writer to create a perfect piece of writing in the first draft, paved the way for a new conceptualization of the teaching of writing.

Specifically, teaching writing has moved from focusing on textual features to what writers do as they write; thus, they ask themselves: How do I write this? How do I get started? (Coffin et al., 2003; Raimes, 1983; Weir, 1993; Yan, 2005). This new paradigm to teaching writing is called process approach. Originally, when writing took part in psychology studies, process approach is the thinking outcome of the cognitive psychologists whose objective is to give a clear interpretation to the mental structures that determine that writing as behavior (Clark, 2008).

In the process approach, writing is a non-linear activity; it entails stages<sup>2</sup> namely planning, drafting, editing and final draft that writers undergo to reach the final product (Harmer, 2004). In this concern, Hedge (2005) also holds that:

The process of composition is not a linear one, moving from planning to compose to revising and editing. It would be more accurate to characterize writing as recursive activity in which the writer moves backwards and forwards between drafting and revising, with stages of re-planning in between.(p. 52)

Hyland (2003) describes stages of process approach: planning, drafting, revising and editing as “recursive, interactive, and potentially simultaneous” (p. 11) associated with feedback from peers and teachers throughout the different stages. Stages of the writing process can occur in various orders at different points; some stages may be helpful and others may not be required in any given writing task (Coffin et al., 2003). Thus, it is possible for writers to undergo through the same stages included in process approaches (ibid).

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<sup>2</sup>Stages differ in terms of labeling, number and ordering among different models suggested by several authors such Harmer, (2007a); Hedge (2000); Krashen (1984, as cited in Richards & Renandya, 2002, p. 315); Tribble, (1996); White and Arndt, (1991);etc.

Practically, process approach proves its indisputable advantages. First, this approach views writing as an act of discovery of new ideas, new language forms, creation of meaning and new abilities, with the main aim to arrive at the best product possible (Kim, 2006; Raimes, 1983; White & Arndt, 1991). Process-focused approach is also enabling as its aim is to engage student writers and stimulate them about the creative process of originating their texts, as explained in White and Arndt' (1991) s words:

As we see it, the goal of this approach is to nurture the skills with which writers work out their own solutions to the problems they set themselves, with which they shape their raw material into a coherent message, and with which they work towards an acceptable and appropriate form for expressing it. (p. 5)

One other major advantage of the process approach is that it stresses student writers' autonomous production as it is based on personal freedom, self-expression and learner responsibility (Hyland, 2003). Additionally, it emphasizes teacher's role when teaching writing; that is why it is the mostly used approach by teachers of writing (ibid). Instructor's main role is to foster writing and to develop the learners' meta-cognitive awareness and their capacity to reflect on the strategies they employ when generating, drafting and refining ideas (ibid) leaving matters of form to be dealt with in later stages(Badger and White, 2000). In process-oriented approach, teachers should generate viable strategies in order to make students aware of how to get started and to start thinking and producing ideas. Those strategies are "Finding the topics, generating ideas and information, focusing, and planning structure and procedure" (Silva, 1993, as cited in Sadek, 2007, p. 232). To achieve this objective, teacher can employ various teaching strategies such as "teacher-student conferences, problem-based assignments, journal writing, group discussions, or portfolio



assessments in their class” (Hyland, 2003). Another advantage is that this approach enhances motivation and develops positive attitudes towards writing to create collaborative workshop in which students have sufficient time and minimal interference to work through their composing process (Silva, 1993, as cited in Sadek, 2007).

Though the process approach has been mostly used, it is not without its critics by a number of scholars such Furneaux (1999) and Grabe and Kaplan (1996) as, in addition to several weaknesses, it could not shed light on writing as a social activity or on the role of language and texts in communication.

### **1.5.7. The Genre Approach**

Both of the previous approaches consider writing either as a product or process. They have been subjected to objections for ignoring the effect of social context on written text. Writing is a cultural activity (Kaplan, 1966). Additionally, the aim of writing is to achieve a successful communication which is bound up with one’s detection of the purpose of a text (Tribble, 1996). This paved the way for introducing “*genre approach*” a new paradigm in the field of teaching writing. The main objective of genre approach is to highlight that all writing takes place in social context with a reflection to audience and purpose (Clark, 2003; Hyon, 1996). In writing class, genre approach can help students to explore how social and cultural context decides on the purpose of a text and the overall structure of a text in terms of language elements and rhetorical features (Hammond and Derewianka, 2001; Hyon, 1996; Yan, 2005).

For Swales (as cited in Tribble, 1996, p. 46) “A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes”. Teaching or learning writing through genre approach can remove students’ feeling of isolation and encourage them to participate in the activities of meaning exchange and negotiation with their peers and teacher. This approach also emphasizes the chief role of writer-reader

interaction on a piece of writing (Reid, 1995). Genre approach makes possible for a student writer to produce texts which fulfill the readers' expectations in regard to grammar, organization, and content. Besides, it draws attention to teachers' role that is authoritativeness rather than authoritarian (Rothery, 1996) providing students with systematic guidance and careful support to gain control of written genres through various activities.

Rothery (ibid) suggests a model in which he presents the stages through which teaching and learning writing is carried systematically through three consecutive stages: (1) modelling, (2) joint construction of text and (3) independent construction of text. Firkins, Forey, and Sengupta (2007) explicate how writing genre instruction goes in each stage. In the first stage, teacher should select a type of genre writing which is discussed and modeled with students who are directed and situated in order to know and understand the function of the text, the communicative purpose of the text. Second stage consists of activities which allow students, with teacher guidance, to do something more practical and operational, but modifying and manipulating the text model given. By having prior understanding and experiences of stage one and stage two, the third stage focuses on students' autonomous production. In a nutshell, the advantage of teaching writing through genre approach is to help the student write in different situations for various purposes and audiences.

#### **1.5.8. Hybridized approach**

Throughout the brief description of the different orientations of teaching writing one can realize the writing skill is approached in various ways each of which pinpoints a single facet of writing. Teachers of writing become perplexed about the mystification created by the multitude of approaches to teaching writing. Raimes (1983) affirms the possibility of overlapping the above-stated approaches. As a result, some scholars suggested hybrid paradigms in which teacher can incorporate insights from the existing ones to bridge their

gaps. The primary attempt involves the integration of binary approaches, for example, the *process-product approach* (Dyer, 1996; Hasan & Akhand, 2010) and the process-genre approach (Badger & White, 2000). Other scholars call for broadening the hybridization of approaches and attain a wider all-encompassing attitude which does not give priority or importance to a certain element of writing at the expense of others. In view of that, Tribble (1996) states:

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

Accordingly, successful writers should be equipped with knowledge of writing, incorporating four components: (1) content, (2) context, (3) language system and (4) writing process. Hyland (2003) rejects the idea of limiting teaching writing to develop cognitive and technical abilities, mastering a system of rules or improving a set of composing and revising skills. In addition to the four components which constitute writing proficiency, he adds a fifth component, which is genre and he emphasizes the importance of all five kinds of knowledge (ibid). However, a good teacher should be creative and teaching writing is a challenge the responsibilities of which demands a creative teacher in how to teach writing focusing on the five types of knowledge.

### **1.6. Factors Affecting EFL Learners’ Writing**

There is a general consensus that writing is a complex activity and, hence, learning to write in a language is a difficult task, whether in L1, L2 or FL. It is reported by Brookes and

Grundy (2009) that "it must be worth asking precisely what is difficult about writing and, especially, about writing in a second language" (p.11). Accordingly, in EFL context, teachers spend great effort and more time to develop learners' writing and help them to achieve an acceptable written performance, but the majority of EFL learners are unable to structure a cohesive and coherent piece of writing as they encounter difficulties at different levels: vocabulary, grammar, syntax, etc. when they come to write. The majority of researchers in second/foreign language learning attribute these problems and difficulties mainly to linguistic factor. If truth to be told, this is not sufficient because problems and difficulties, which block EFL learners' writing in English, are ascribed to more than one specific factor which could be linguistic, cultural, educational, psychological, or a combination of all of these factors.

### **1.6.1. Linguistic Factors**

Plentiful studies especially carried out by Arab researchers to investigate the different areas of difficulties that student encounter while writing in English have linguistic orientation. Researchers have mainly focused on problems relevant to grammar, morphology, and syntax, etc. To start, Salamah (1981) conduct a study from contrastive analysis perspective, in which he discovers that most of EFL Arab learners' writing problems can be attributed to morphological differences between English and Arabic. Correspondingly, El- Shimy (1982) also carried out a research in which he assigns the writing difficulties of Arab learners to the morphological and syntactic differences between Arabic and English. Particularly, the results of his investigation indicates that Arab learners of English encounter difficulties in areas such as proper use of tenses, the use of copula (to be), the use of passive voice and negation, etc. when generating English sentences. Moreover, Doushaq and Sawaf (1988) examine the problems encountered by Arab students when writing focusing on the way they use English

phrasal verbs. They arrive at a conclusion that Arab learners do not use phrasal verbs; rather they are more likely to use main verbs because they do not have an equivalent in Arabic. The previously mentioned studies, in addition to many others, seem to have scrutinized the systematic problems emerged from a linguistic comparison between Arabic and English, which Arab learners do meet when performing written tasks. These studies have recommended that the main solution to overcome linguistic-oriented difficulties that appear in EFL learners' writing is to raise their awareness of the linguistic differences between English and Arabic. Additionally, researchers in this domain advocate teaching writing through product-approach as the best solution to eliminate linguistic-oriented problems.

### **1.6.2. Cultural Factors**

As product-oriented concept of writing loses its credibility, the process oriented approach emerged at the beginning of the 1980s but a new way had to be established within which writing problems could be solved. Particularly, in response to the need for solving the non-linguistic troubles of writing, a new mode of interest appeared among researchers as well as teachers concerning the cultural differences exist between languages, which are viewed as another reason behind the problems in non-native speakers' writing (Doushaq, 1983; Kaplan, 1966,1988a, 1988b; Soter, 1988). For Kaplan (1966), "writing is a cultural phenomenon". Accordingly, Studies focusing on the cultural dimension of the writing have shown that EFL/ESL learners meet problems in adjusting to the cultural sphere of the target language they are learning. In his study on English letter writing, Doushaq (1983) found that Arabic speaking students learning English as a foreign language at Jordan University significantly transmit cultural aspects from their native language in their English writing. He arrives at a conclusion that EFL learners are unable to produce a well-organized and coherent letter in English. He attributes this phenomenon to the fact that letter writing techniques could be

culture bound and, thus, EFL learners are unaware of differences existing at the level of writing letters between both English and Arabic languages. Another research conducted by Soter (1988) who investigates narrative writing by grade-6 Arab students. The findings of his study reveal that Arabic speaking learners of English use a high percentage of coordinating conjunctions instead of subordinating conjunctions in their writing as they are influenced by their mother tongue, Arabic language, which is based on coordination whereas English language is based on subordination. Generally speaking, this fact is justified by the cultural differences existing between Arabic and English. In nutshell, disassociating cultural elements from the process of writing may lead to the appearance of serious problems in EFL/ESL writing.

### **1.6.3. Educational Factors**

The implementation of different educational policies at schools and universities may affect teaching and learning systems. Particularly, the majority of Arabic countries adopt Arabization Policy in education, which, as a result, may derive a negative attitude towards the general standard of teaching/learning foreign languages, especially English language. In Algeria, the issue of education policies is the most serious problem (Berger, 2002). Before 1962, due to the French colonization, French language was imposed as the official language, but Arabic language, though it is the indigenous one, was banned from use in official contexts. After the independence of Algeria till now, education system has witnessed three different reforms, which are based on Arabization policy to eradicate the French colonization presence, each of which has a great influence on language education policies. By adopting Arabization policy, Classical Arabic was declared the only official language in all domains mainly educational sector (Mostari, 2004; Benrabe, 2007). However, several problems have been raised as Algerian education has admitted to be failed for the Arabic monolingual

system. Undoubtedly, these changes in Algerian education policies affect the status of modern languages: French and English. First, as French language is entrenched in the Algerian society and cannot be totally neglected, it is reintroduced as the first mandatory foreign language. Second, though it is the lingua franca in the world, English language is apprehended as the second foreign language in Algeria. Accordingly, among the many studies carried out in the Arab world, Rezig' (2011) s investigation shows that the adopted educational policies in preparatory education has negative impacts on English language learning in higher education. Other researchers interested in examining the relationship between the adopted educational policies and English language learning reveal that teacher-centred policy has negative impacts mainly on Arab learners' English writing (Doushaq and Makhzoumy,1989; Dudley-Evans, 1984; Kharma,1985a).

Consequently, one can draw a conclusion that educational policy and the process of teaching writing can directly or indirectly affect Arab learners' writing. Thus, there is a need to reassess educational factors including educational policy in order to upgrade the Arab learners' standard of writing.

#### **1.6.4. Psychological Factors**

Psychological factors are also important and influential elements as they give a great impact on students' second/foreign language acquisition. Referring to this phenomenon, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.47) explain that “learning a language is an emotional experience, and the feelings that the learning process evokes will have a crucial bearing on the success or failure of learning”. This indicates the close relationship between learners' emotions and learning process; the way learners perceive learning writing can negatively or positively be effective for the learning process. For Byrne (1991), writing difficulties are

related to three types of problems: Psychological, linguistic, and cognitive problems. Indeed, it is obviously that psychological factors can also influence the process of writing as well. A number of studies conducted dealing with different psychological factors which may hinder EFL learners' writing.

Motivation is a psychological factor referring to the desire of students in writing and learning writing. In fact, the interest in the psychological conceptualization of motivation to writing has originated recently; it is started officially at the end of the 1970s. Motivation is a key factor of success and achievement as it can positively or negatively affect EFL learners' written performance. Moreover, motivation can make the mission of approaching writing easier and more pleasant for both learners as well as teachers. In this concern, Harmer (2006a) accentuates this point claiming that:

People involved in language teaching often say that students who really want to learn will succeed whatever circumstances in which they study. They succeed despite using methods which experts consider unsatisfactory. In the phase of such a phenomenon, it seems reasonable to suggest that the motivation that students bring to class is the biggest simple factor affecting their success". (Harmer, 2006a, p. 3)

As there are many hidden forces which demotivate learners to attain certain writing level (Harmer, 2006a), "there are two questions that language skill teachers frequently pose to writing. First, why are students so often not motivated to write? Second, how can their motivation to write be increased?" (Boscolo and Hidi, 2008, p. 7). Dornyei (2005) suggests a solution claiming that "It is one thing to initially whet the student's appetite with appropriate



motivational techniques” (p. 80). This means that it is the duty of the teacher to encourage the students to write by making writing stimulating and enjoyable, and to expose them to attractive topics and determines the objective of writing such topics.

Another psychological factor which may affect EFL learners’ writing is anxiety. This latter is a natural feeling of fear which sometimes cannot be controlled (Javed et al., 2013). Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) seems to be occurred in the learning process. Harmer (2006a) considers anxiety very dangerous to writing, and he explains the causes behind students’ fear when writing, in detailed way. First, lack of practicing English language can increase students’ fear. Second, having nothing to say is also another obstacle of the majority of students. Finally, the majority of students give priority to speaking in English, so they are not interested in the writing activity. For Harmer (2006a), anxiety can result in negative consequences in writing. Anxiety can be the cause of chronic worry and negative thoughts that prevent students from doing their best. In other words, as anxiety is directed inward, it evokes self-doubt and hesitation in students who write with less confidence and effectively. To promote self confidence in students, Harmer (ibid) declares that teachers should build and foster the “writing habit”.

### **1.7. Assessment of Writing Performance**

After teaching writing, an assessment should be done by means of gathering evidences from student’s writing performance over a period of time to measure their learning, understanding and practicing writing aspects. In fact, since writing probably seems the most complex and difficult language skill, the assessment of this feature of language is also no simple task (Brown, 2001). However, in order to objectively assess and consistently score students’ writing production, the teacher should determine objective or criterion of writing is going to be assessed, and, then, he should specify the types of activities appropriate for the

accomplishment of the assessment task (ibid). To achieve the optimal results, writing genre, types of writing and micro- and macro-skills should be taken into consideration when designing assessment tasks to measure students' writing performance (ibid). There had been still a lot of controversy among teachers as to how students' writing assignments should be assessed.

Traditionally, a student's writing performance was judged in a norm-referenced approach that is comparing student' work with the performance of others. Over the past few decades, norm-referenced method has replaced by criterion-referenced procedures in which the quality of each written essay is judged in its own right on the basis of certain criteria. According to Hyland (2003), such an approach takes a variety of forms and falls into three main categories: holistic, primary trait and analytic scoring rubrics. These three approaches to evaluating writing differ in their impact, discriminatory power, inter-rater reliability, the degree of bias, and the cost-effectiveness—in terms of time, effort and money (Kuo, 2007). The choice of one approach to assess writing is based on the extent to which it “represents, implicitly or explicitly, the theoretical basis upon which [a] test is founded” (Weigle, 2002, p. 109).

Holistic assessment is an approach which views writing as a single entity of which the inherent qualities are captured by a single overall scale (Weigle, 2002; White, 1985; Wiseman, 2012). Wiseman (2012) states that one of the advantages of holistic scoring rubrics and method in scoring secondary school students' essays is its time and cost effective. Though this scoring type is suitable for large-scale assessment of written performance, especially for decisions concerning placement (Cumming, 1990; Hamp-Lyons, 1990; Reid, 1993), it masks the differences across the sub-skills within each score and (Brown, 2001), thus, it cannot provide specific evidence of where and how much additional writing instruction is required

(Becker, 2011). Table illustrates a sample rubric for a holistically-scored essay can be found in Hyland (2003, p. 228).

**Table 2. Sample rubric for a Holistically-Scored essay** (adopted from Hyland, 2003, p. 228).

Grade	Characteristics
A	The main idea is stated clearly and the essay is well organized and coherent. Excellent choice of vocabulary and very few grammatical errors. Good spelling and punctuation.
B	The main idea is fairly clear and the essay is moderately well organized and relatively coherent. The vocabulary is good and only minor grammar errors. A few spelling and punctuation errors.
C	The main idea is indicated but not clearly. The essay is not very well organized and is somewhat lacking in coherence. Vocabulary is average. There are some major and minor grammatical errors together with a number of spelling and punctuation mistakes
D	The main idea is hard to identify or unrelated to the development. The essay is poorly organized and relatively incoherent. The use of vocabulary is weak and grammatical errors appear frequently. There are also frequent spelling and punctuation errors.
E	The main idea is missing and the essay is poorly organized and generally incoherent. The use of vocabulary is very weak and grammatical errors appear very frequently. There are many spelling and punctuation errors.

The second way to assessing writing performance is primary-trait method. This latter determines a primary feature in the writing task which will then be scored. Hyland (2003) declare that primary-trait scoring share aspects with holistic scoring in that in primary-trait scoring one score is assigned to the criteria intended for scoring. However, it differs from holistic scoring in that the criteria intended for scoring a piece of writing are sharpened and narrowed to just one feature relevant to the writing task in question (ibid) as primary-trait assessment focuses on “how well students can write within a narrowly defined range of discourse” (Weigle, 2002, p.110). This method can help the evaluator to focus on and to give

a score to only specific feature of performance required to fulfill the given task or tasks and goes into detail in that particular aspect (Ayhan and Türkyılmaz, 2015). Additionally, it allows both writer and the assessor to concentrate on the principal function of the text and thus it can provide some potential feedback (Brown, 2001). Primary-trait approach is also of shortcomings. It is time consuming since it is not possible to respond to everything at once (Nodoushan, 2014). Another limitation of this assessment method is its lack of generalization. This limits the scoring system in that it can only be practically used in courses where teachers need to judge learners' command of specific writing skills rather than more general improvement (Hyland, 2003).

Analytic scoring is the third method to assessing writing performance; it is an alternative suggested in response to the inherent flaw in holistic scoring: that features of good writing should not be collapsed into one single score. This approach involves “the separation of the various features of a composition into components for scoring purposes” (Wiseman, 2012, p. 60). The idea behind analytic evaluation is that writing quality is not a holistic unit; rather, it is composed of certain separate features. Accordingly, analytic scoring procedures are used by raters to judge a written text in terms of the features of good writing which are classified into certain separate categories each of which must be independently given a score. Thus, though it is very time consuming compared with holistic method (McNamara, 1996), it encourages teachers to pay close attention to all specific features of writing quality and, as a consequence, to achieve about a test taker's writing performance more detailed information (Ghalib and Al-Hattami, 2015) that can assist teachers to discriminate the weak and strong aspect in students' writing performance (Hamp-Lyons, 1995; Crehan, 1997) and prioritize specific aspects (Cohen, 1994). Writing teachers who implement analytic assessment will be able to identify weaknesses in students' writings which can then be followed up by remedial

instructions (Nodoushan, 2007b). Hence, many researchers have identified analytic scoring as a scoring rubric that has higher discriminating power and it is often used for placement and diagnostic purposes (Ghalib & A-Hattami, 2015). Hyland (2003) affirms that analytic rubric also provides a clear framework for feedback, recast, and revision. Comparing to the other two approaches, Brown (2001) declares that “classroom evaluation of learning is best served through analytic scoring” (P. 243). Similarly, Stansfield & Ross (1988) assert that writing performance should be better measured in analytical manner for it reduces teacher bias and increases the value, accuracy and reliability of assessment.

Based on the basic premise that analytic approach assists teachers of writing to thoroughly, efficiently and easily assess their students’ performance, a number of scholars have made efforts to determine the writing performance categories that should be assessed. To start with, For Jacobs et al (1981), teachers ought to measure their students’ writing quality focusing on the main five traits each of which is provided with its sub-traits. They give each a different weight in the scoring scale they designed: content (30 points), organization (20 points), vocabulary (20 points), language use (25 points), and mechanics (5 points), of which the total is 100 points (ibid). Table 3 summarizes the main five traits and their sub-traits in Jacobs et al (1981). Keeping the same number of traits using different labels, Brown and Baily (1984) agree on evaluating five major categories of writing. The five categories are organization, logical development of ideas, grammar, punctuation/spelling/mechanics, and style and quality of expression. For further details as to evaluating writing at the five levels, they design an analytic scoring scale in which they associate a description of the five different levels in each category, ranging from “unacceptable” to “excellent” (ibid). According to Brown (2001), assessing writing performance involves six major traits; they are:

**Content:** it includes thesis statement, related ideas, development of ideas, and development of ideas through personal experience, illustration, facts, and opinions;

**Organization:** it includes the effectiveness of introduction, logical sequence of ideas, conclusion and appropriate length;

**Discourse:** it includes topic sentences, paragraph unity, transitions, discourse markers, cohesion, rhetorical conventions, reference, fluency, economy, variation;

**Syntax:** it includes the sentence structure, sentence variation and sentence opening;

**Vocabulary:** it includes precise, appropriate, relevant and variety of vocabulary;

**Mechanics:** it includes spelling, punctuation, and citation of references, neatness and appearance.

Though scholars are different as to the labeling and to some extent the number of categories, they have a general consensus that measuring writing performance should cover the following major components: content, organization, vocabulary, language use (syntax) and mechanics.

**Table 3. Composition for Scoring Writing (Jacobs et al. 1981)**

Score	Over-weight	Level	Criteria
<b>Content</b>	30	30-27	<b>EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD:</b> knowledgeable, substantive, thorough development of ideas, relevant to assigned topic
		26-22	<b>GOOD TO AVERAGE:</b> some knowledge of subject, adequate range, limited development of ideas, mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail
		21-17	<b>FAIR TO POOR:</b> limited knowledge of subject, little substance, inadequate development of ideas
		16-13	<b>VERY POOR:</b> does not show knowledge of subject, non-substantive, not pertinent, or not enough to evaluate
<b>Organization</b>	20	20-18	<b>EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD:</b> fluent expression, ideas clearly stated/supported, succinct, well-organized, logical sequencing, cohesive
		17-14	<b>GOOD TO AVERAGE:</b> somewhat choppy, loosely organized but main ideas stand out, limited support, logical but incomplete sequencing
		13-10	<b>FAIR TO POOR:</b> non-fluent, ideas confused or disconnected, lacks logical sequencing and development
		09-07	<b>VERY POOR:</b> does not communicate, no organization, not enough to Evaluate
<b>Vocabulary</b>	20	20-18	<b>EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD:</b> sophisticated range, effective word/idiom choice and usage, word form mastery, appropriate register
		17-14	<b>GOOD TO AVERAGE:</b> adequate range, occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage but meaning not obscured
		13-10	<b>FAIR TO POOR:</b> limited range, frequent errors of word/idiom, choice, usage, meaning confused or obscured
		09-07	<b>VERY POOR:</b> essentially translation, little knowledge of English Vocabulary
<b>Language Use</b>	25	25-22	<b>EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD:</b> effective complex constructions, few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, preposition
		21-18	<b>GOOD TO AVERAGE:</b> effective but simple construction, minor problems in complex constructions, several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, preposition but meaning seldom obscured
		17-11	<b>FAIR TO POOR:</b> major problems in simple/complex constructions, frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, preposition and/or fragment, run-ons, deletions, meaning confused or obscured.
		10-05	<b>VERY POOR:</b> virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules, dominated by errors, does not communicate, or not enough to evaluate
<b>Mechanics</b>	05	05	<b>EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD:</b> demonstrate mastery of convention, few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing
		04	<b>GOOD TO AVERAGE:</b> occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing but meaning obscured
		03	<b>FAIR TO POOR:</b> frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing, poor handwriting, meaning confused or obscured
		02	<b>VERY POOR:</b> no mastery of conventions, dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing, handwriting illegible, or not enough to evaluate

## **Conclusion**

The emphasis in this chapter was on the nature of writing with a brief description of writing within ESL/EFL context. It involves a review of the essentials that result in effective writing. Also, a brief account of reasons for teaching writing was accounted. Owing to the importance of writing skill in ESL/EFL context, several teaching approaches are proposed, each of which focus on a certain aspect of writing. Throughout the years, different theories have offered direction on how to teach writing. In this chapter, four classifications, selected to four authors, were presented in details, followed by the hybridized approach as a solution to fill the gap of using one rigid approach. Then, as learners' writing performance should be evaluated, issues about assessing writing are discussed. However, ESL/EFL writing is affected by linguistic, cultural, educational and psychological factors. As writing is the most complex skill, it appears that teaching writing is a challenging task in L1, L2 and, mostly, FL as it requires different types of knowledge. As point of fact, since teaching and learning writing is a complex and challenging task, the assessment of writing as also no simple task. However, evaluation of writing is required to determine the students' drawbacks so that teacher can appropriately introduce remedial instruction. As writing is systematically taught, the quality of writing is better rated analytically by dividing students' writing performance into components: content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics. Finally, it is worthwhile to point out that developing EFL students' writing is the duty of teachers who should be creative in what and how to implement when teaching writing to cover all writing components and, as a consequence, to attain the optimal results in teaching writing.



## CHAPTER TWO

### The Art of Rhetoric and the Rhetorical Canons

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## **Introduction**

In most discussions about rhetoric, five canons take part, because they present efficient and effective oration in rhetoric. They are invention, arrangement, style, memory and delivery. These five canons have served both generative and analytical purposes for all rhetorical works. As the history is hardly definitive, one may ask about the practical value of rhetorical canons. This chapter is meant to offer a global overview of selected rhetorical canons: invention, arrangement and style. It starts with a brief historical overview of rhetorical canons highlighting the different changes that they have undergone throughout the history. It also deals with invention canon by introducing some definitions, some traditional and modern approaches of rhetorical invention and providing in details the constituents of rhetorical invention: rhetorical situation, three appeals of persuasion and aids for invention. Besides, it discusses rhetorical arrangement. After defining arrangement and identifying different models suggested by some authors, the parts of rhetorical oration including introduction, statements of facts, division, confirmation, refutation of the proofs, conclusion are thoroughly explicated. Rhetorical style, its levels and the features of good style are elucidated in this section. Most importantly, it puts special emphasis on the application of rhetorical canons in writing class especially in EFL context.

### **2.1. The Evolution of Rhetorical Canons**

Rhetoric is the art of public speaking, and, currently, the art of communication (Kennedy, 2009). Its origin dated back to earlier ages. Many historians credit Athens, a small Greece city, as the birth place of rhetoric which was used for political issues. Then, it had been expanded to reach different places, and its repertoire extended to involve further aspects throughout the history. The study of rhetoric in ancient Greece was, like much philosophical and scientific thought, largely descriptive; as Corbett (1965) notes, “Rhetoric, like grammar or

logic or poetics, is not an *a priori* science. Aristotle did not sit in his cubicle and dream up a set of principles for convincing other men. Rather, he observed the practice of effective orators, analyzed their strategies, and from that observation and analysis codified a body of precepts to guide others in the exercise of the persuasive art” (p. 30).

Rhetoric had taken different orientations offered by Plato, Aristotle, Quintilian and Cicero (Dauterman, 1972). For Plato, rhetoric was viewed from a theoretical perspective as a discursive art that can fascinate and mislead the soul (ibid). According to his definition that rhetoric is the faculty of discovering the possible means of persuasion in reference to any subject whatever, Aristotle's rhetoric was both philosophic and pragmatic (ibid). Cicero considered rhetoric from a structural approach and said that rhetoric is an art consisting of five departments or canons. Last but not least, Quintilian was a famous rhetorician in the antiquity; he brought a pragmatic-ethical dimension to rhetoric in his definition that rhetoric is the art of speaking well and in particular “the good man speaking well”(ibid).

One of the major elements of rhetorical theory is its five canons: invention, arrangement, style, memory and delivery. They have a similarly mysterious origin story. There is some mention that steps similar to the canons found in Aristotle's *Rhetoric*, but the oldest explicit record of them appears in Roman rhetoric, particularly, in Cicero's writing: *Rhetorical Ad Herrenium, De Inventio and De Orator* in which he treats rhetoric as a structural system. To illustrate, Dauterman (ibid) articulates “Although the author of *Ad Herrenium* did not originate the five-fold division, he elaborates upon each with great thoroughness”. Corbett (1965) also suggests that: “By the time Cicero came to write his treatises on rhetoric, the study of rhetoric was divided, mainly for pedagogical convenience, into five parts: inventio, dispositio, elocutio, memoria, and pronuntiatio” (p. 22). Since their

introduction, they had been used by rhetoricians and rhetors as a consistent approach to enable students produce persuasive speech. In this concern, Bizzell and Herzberg (2001) voices that:

The speaker is supposed to produce a discourse by proceeding stepwise through the stages. Although the speaker's specific choices in each stage of the process depend on the occasion for his (or, rarely, her) speech, the five-part process is taken to be appropriate for composing any kind of speech. All of the parts are needed to ensure a full range of appeals. (p. 4)

Throughout the history, scholars have been different as to the value and the use of five rhetorical canons. Some rhetoricians, for instance the Sophists, gave importance to style canons at the expense of truth (Crowley and Hawhee, 1943). Others emphasize the significance of truth, so style should be employed to enhance rational argument and there by make wisdom persuasive (Dauterman, 1972). As for the use of canons, primarily, it was neither for analyzing text nor speeches; they were used for persuasive purpose (Bizzell and Herzberg, 2001). After rhetoric extended its scope, it has been associated with studies on human communication. Consequently, the use of five rhetorical canons began to shift from persuasion in order to produce efficient spoken and written piece of discourse (Corbett, 1965). This chapter is organized to include three canons: invention, arrangement and style; they are our concern in this study.

## **2.2. Invention**

### **2.2.1. Defining Invention**

Invention is an English equivalent of "*inventio*" in Latin and "*heuresis*" in Greek. In the archaic sense, invention means the act of finding or discovery (Dauterman, 1972). In the classical rhetoric, invention is system by, and the first step in, which the rhetor could find his

arguments for a particular rhetorical situation (Corbett, 1965; Dauterman, 1972; Lauer, 2004) and the other four canons namely arrangement, style, delivery and memory rely on their interrelationship with invention.

*In Rhetorica Ad Herennium*, attributed to, Cicero describes invention the most important and the most difficult. Precisely, invention is difficult because it requires a rhetor to exert a great deal of time and effort not only trying to think of the type of resources that might be helpful to defend a claim but also trying to find them (Corbett, 1965). It is an important canon as it offers a rhetor the resources and knowledge which gives his speech its substance and value. Without invention, what a rhetor does is to repeat the same statement over and over again.

Theorists differ over the nature of rhetorical invention whether it is restricted only to exploratory activity or it also concerns the initiation of discourse (Lauer, 2004). On the one hand, some rhetoricians agree that rhetorical invention is an act of finding and generating proofs. In this view, Covino and Jolliffe (1995) describe rhetorical invention as “the act of generating an effective material for a particular rhetorical situation” (p. 22). Equally, M.B. Hope explains that invention is the technical term of finding arguments with a view to the proof of truth; it belongs to the rhetorical process (Cited in Lauer, 2004). On the other hand, other thinkers are totally against defining rhetorical invention as an act of generating arguments because invent means discovering that is not known but rhetors often do not generate *new* material, they simply call it forth from memory (Covino and Jolliffe, 1995; Francis Bacon, *Advancement of Learning*, p. 58, as Cited in Lauer, 2004)

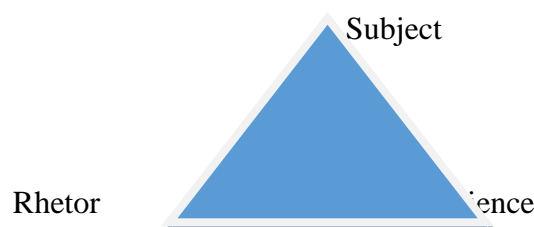
### **2.2.2. The Constituents of Rhetorical Invention**

Invention is one part of rhetoric; it concerns finding the possible means by which proofs and arguments can be discovered (Crowley and Hawhee; 1943). It supplies rhetors

with sets of instructions that help them to find arguments appropriate for a given rhetorical situation. Therefore, invention is the systematic discovery of rhetorical practices. This latter, in the Greek and Roman traditions, are often but not always arguments. Thus, Greek and Roman scholars, as Aristotle, Cicero and Quintilian, devoted a considerable attention to promote the discipline of rhetorical invention. In other words, to put in the hand of rhetors different means for discovering proofs and arguments, rhetoricians divided the province of invention into various components.

### 2.2.2.1. Rhetorical situation

Rhetoric is situational and, thus, the presence of rhetorical discourse obviously indicates the presence of a Rhetorical Situation (Bitzer, 1968). In other words, rhetoric is the art of finding and generating arguments in a given *situation*; the circumstance in which arguments are presented is called Rhetorical Situation (henceforth RS). Though RS had been presented originally by Bitzer (ibid) in his theory of RS which constitutes an effort to “revive the notion of rhetorical situation, to provide at least the outline of an adequate conception of it, and to establish it as a controlling and fundamental concern of rhetorical theory”, the concept of RS is ancient, discussed implicitly in early treatises, including Aristotle's *Rhetoric* and Cicero's *De Oratore*. Aristotle presented RS in the form of triangle to suggest the interdependent relationships among its three elements: rhetor, subject and audience (Crowley & Hawhee, 2004; Lauer, 2004). Figure 1 illustrates Aristotle's view.



**Figure 1. Aristotle's Rhetorical Situation**

In his theory, Bitzer (1968) defines RS as “A complex of persons, events, objects, and relations presenting an actual or potential exigence which can be completely or partially removed if discourse, introduced into the situation, can so constrain human decision or action as to bring about the significant modification of the exigence” (p.3). From him, the creation or presentation of discourse is preceded by the identification of rhetorical situation which entails three key elements: exigence, audience constraints.

#### **2.2.2.2. Exigence:**

Bitzer (ibid) utters that exigence is “An imperfection marked by urgency; it is a defect, an obstacle, something waiting to be done, a thing which is other than it should be (p.7). Put it simply, exigence refers to a problem existing in the world carrying with it both a sense of urgency and a promise that a change is going to be accomplished in the RS. In a RS, there can be existed numerous exigences, but not all of them are rhetorical. Specifically, an exigence is not rhetorical when it cannot be modified by human interaction, such as a natural disaster or death, but a rhetorical one is when it can be positively modified by discourse.

#### **2.2.2.3. Audience:**

For Bitzer (ibid), “audience consists only of those persons who are capable of being influenced by discourse and of being mediators of change” (p. 8). Rhetorical audience is those persons whose decisions and actions are influenced by the end of rhetorical discourse, and they must be capable of serving as mediator of the change which the discourse functions to produce.

#### **2.2.2.4. Constraints:**

Constraints consist of persons, events, objects, and relations as parts of the situation because they have power to limit decisions and action needed to modify the exigence. When



the orator enters the situation, his discourse includes various constraints from different standard sources given by the situation including beliefs, attitudes, documents, facts, traditions, images, interests, motives and the like; and it also provides additional important constraints such as his personal character, his logical proofs, and his style. In fact, Bitzer' (ibid) idea as to constraints is based on Aristotle's types of proofs. Particularly, Bitzer (ibid) proposes two classes of constraints: (1) those originated or managed by the rhetor and his method, and (2) those other constraints, in the situation, which may be operative. If the first type refers to Aristotle's artistic proofs, the second one denotes inartistic (non-artistic) proofs.

Exigence, audience, constraints are three constituents that offer everything relevant in a rhetorical situation. After entering the situation, the rhetor creates and presents discourse; both he and his speech are additional constituents. Bitzer (ibid) states that RS is important and that all rhetors should consider it because it is present in all pieces of communication. To demonstrate, as "Rhetorical discourse comes into existence as a response to a situation" (ibid, p.4), rhetorical situation can determine the type of discourse. In this sense, Devitt (1989) declares that "rhetorical situation calls for an appropriate response in discourse. As speakers and writer respond to the situation, they use certain discourse characteristics: a particular type of organization, a certain amount and type of detail, a level of formality, a syntactic style" (p. 85).

### **2.2.3. Three Appeals**

Aristotle suggested two types of proofs: non-artistic and artistic (Corbett, 1965). Non-artistic proofs, also known non-technical, are not supplied by the rhetor efforts, but they are existed beforehand (van et al., 1996). For him, non-artistic proofs do not belong to the art of rhetoric rather they are extrinsic, they are brought from outside the art. In this case, this kind of arguments does not require invention; an orator had merely to use them. Aristotle termed

five kinds of non-artistic proofs: laws, witnesses, contracts, tortures, oaths in nowadays it stands for things like data, facts, testimony and statistics (ibid). By artistic arguments are meant those that may be discovered through rhetorical invention; they fell under the province of rhetoric that's why they are describes intrinsic (Burke, 2014; van et al., 1996).For Aristotle, artistic proofs can take three forms: proofs found in the issue itself (logos), proofs based on the rhetor's character and reputation (ethos), and proofs that appeal to the emotions (pathos)(*Rhetoric* I i 2, cited in Crowley & Hawhee, 2004; Kennedy, 2009).

### **2.2.3.1. Logos**

Logos, its plural is Logoi, is a Greek word which has two explanations. On the one hand, it was first used in science to mean logic, rationality or reason. Later, this sense is carried to English words such as logic, for example, when we say “Be logical,” we mean be rational when thinking. However, this Greek word appears again in English words such as ideology and psychology, as a suffix “logy” having the meaning “words about” or, more loosely, “study of” (Crowley & Hawhee, 2004). On the other hand, it was adapted in rhetoric to have the meaning “voice” or “speech” (Covino and Jollife, 1995; Crowley & Hawhee, 2004; Kennedy, 2007). Aristotle was the first who tackled the idea of logos in rhetoric. In his rhetoric, logos is one type of the “*pistis*<sup>3</sup>” or proof (Covino and Jollife, 1995) based on logical conclusions coming from assumptions which are further derived from a collection of solid facts and statistical data to persuade audience; it is thought it would bring long lasting impact on the memories of the audience. Furthermore, he invented two types of reasoning that are special to rhetoric: example and enthymeme both of which constitute logos representing two opposite directions of reasoning: induction and deduction, respectively.

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<sup>3</sup>Its plural is Pisteis

### 2.2.3.1.1. Example

Example is described, in Aristotle's words, as a "*paradeigma*" ("model") (Crowley & Hawhee, 2004). Accordingly, a rhetorical example refers to any particular that can be fitted under the heading of a class and that represents the distinctive features of that class, for instance, tiger is described as a big cat because it shares the distinctive features of class "cat". For Quintilian, an example adduces "some past action real or assumed which may serve to persuade the audience of the truth of the point which we are trying to make" (V xi 6)(Crowley & Hawhee, 2004). In this case, for instance, one wants to convince someone else to do something, he can take him back to a past occurrence which he thought it has common points with the present occurrence.

Example, according to Aristotle, is the inductive aspect of logos and the rhetorical equivalent of induction in scientific reasoning (Aristotle. *Rhet.* I.2, 1357b 26–30, trans. Kennedy, 2007). Inductive Reasoning proceeds from particulars to the universals, and it makes inferences from *verifiable phenomena* (Corbett, 1965). Accordingly, rhetorical example carries on from gathering analogous facts, which come in the form of particular premises<sup>4</sup>, in order to generalize a conclusion. To demonstrate, Aristotle supplied this example of inductive reasoning:

Particular premise: If the skilled pilot is the best pilot

Particular premise: and if the skilled charioteer the best charioteer

Conclusion: then the skilled person is the best person in any particular sphere.

For Piazza (2011), though rhetorical example is less persuasive, it has some persuasive force. In scientific inductive reasoning, the persuasive force lies in the number of examples,

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<sup>4</sup>A premise is the beginning statement or proposition of all kind of reasoning

and, therefore, one should possess many examples that are randomly selected in order to narrow the inductive leap and to increase probability (Corbett, 1965); whereas, in rhetorical induction, however, the persuasive force is not in the quantity but in the quality on examples (Corbett, 1965). For that reason, rhetoricians are not obliged to give a complete enumeration of particulars since having only three or four strong and vivid examples can help them to obtain a persuasive discourse exchange or a persuasive speech if delivered optimally (Piazza, 2011).

The evaluation of generalization in terms of validity and truth<sup>5</sup> of the generalization will be in direct proportion to the *number* of pertinent particulars studied (Corbett, 1965). Generalization can be more reliable if a number of particulars are studied and, as a result, there is less of an “inductive leap”. Piazza (2011) mentions that Aristotle made a clear distinction between rhetorical examples and the particulars used in inductive reasoning. This difference is reflected in the end of induction, particularly generalization (Crowley & Hawhee, 2004). Specifically, when using rhetorical examples, a rhetor has no interest in generalizing about all occurrences; rather he reasons by means of examples to compare instances from part to part, or like to like, or like to unlike, or unknown to known and not from a particular to a generalization as he can do in scientific induction reasoning (Aristotle. *Rhet.* I.2, 1357b 26–30, trans. Kennedy, 2007).

Examples take different forms; they can be historical, fictional or analogies (Corbett, 1965; Crowley & Hawhee, 2004). For Aristotle, successful examples may be those are drawn from history as they depict real things that exist or have existed, that happen or have happened. They can be drawn through two procedures either brief or extended. The brief historical example means explaining briefly each stance within the example; the extended

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<sup>5</sup>Validity refers the methods used to arrive at conclusion, and truth stands for the accuracy of premises.

historical example means giving as many vivid details as possible to each instance (Corbett, 1965). This can evoke the audience's memory of the incident and thus to induce their sympathy with the rhetor's argument (ibid). However, since people respond to the specificity of examples, the brief argument from example works especially when the examples selected seem to squarely represent the class (ibid).

Aristotle also pointed out that successful examples can also be fictional examples. This latter refers to descriptions of events that are only imagined to have happened in the past, present, or future. Fictional examples involve fables and analogies. A rhetor can extract fables from literature or film, or compose his stories for illustrative purposes. They are most effective if a rhetor draws morals or generalizations from them by connecting the lessons taught by a fable with the point of his argument. Additionally, fabulous examples work best if they are drawn from narratives which are drawn familiar and esteemed by the audience. The use of fables is easier than historical examples because they may be invented when no historical parallels are available that fit the rhetor's case.

Example can also be analogous whereby two hypothetical situations are placed the one besides the other for the purposes of comparison. Analogous example can be simple where a rhetor simply compares two or more things or events, or complex analogies wherein two examples exhibit a similar relation among their elements. In *De Inventione*, Cicero gives an example of complex analogical reasoning telling a story about an ancient rhetor named Aspasia who used a series of complex analogies to convince a couple to be satisfied with their marriage. In these complex analogies, he makes a comparison between the couple and their neighboring couple in terms of life luxuries.

### 2.2.3.1.2. Enthymeme

Enthymeme<sup>6</sup> is another type of rhetorical proof. It is defined as “an argument that is expressible as a categorical syllogism but that is missing a premise or a conclusion” (Hurley, 2003, p. 289). It is the deductive aspect of logos moving from the general to the particular (Corbett, 1965). Enthymeme is the rhetoric equivalent of the syllogism used in dialectic and science<sup>7</sup>, but there exist some differences in terms of the number of propositions, the degree of certainty and the kind of materials used. Modern scholars describe the enthymeme as a truncated syllogism. Cope (1867) voices that the idea of truncated syllogism is drawn from Aristotle’s statement that “The enthymeme must consist of few propositions, fewer often than those which make up normal syllogism” and that it is “drawn from few premises and often less than those of the primary syllogism” (*Rhetoric*, I, 2).

In fact, the implicit premise is understood between the speaker and the audience since they belong to the same society and share the same knowledge; the enthymemes are communal entities specific to the society in which they are spoken, written, or shown; its construction is cooperative process wherein the audience supply the missing part and give it the full meaning (Covino and Jolliffe, 1995). On the contrary, Braet (1999) announces that this viewpoint about enthymeme is post-Aristotelian, and that an enthymeme, according to Aristotle, may contain an unexpressed premise, but this is not necessarily so. However, in enthymeme, conclusion often has the relation of “thus it follows that,” which can be expressed by “therefore” depending on the relationship between major and minor premises which can take one among two forms that are charted as follows:

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<sup>6</sup>The etymology of the word enthymeme comes from Greek “*thymos*” that is meant “spirit,” the capacity whereby people think and feel.

<sup>7</sup> Dialectic and science, with rhetoric, are logical methods developed by Aristotle to help people argue their thinking through complex issues.

a) Y (minor premise) is an example of X (major premise).

Therefore, it follows that Z.

b) Y (minor premise) is a reason for X (major premise).

Therefore, it follows that Z.

In fact, sometimes, an enthymematic pattern of an argument begins with its conclusion, then, the pattern is presented as follows:

Because Z, X and Y.

Here is an example of enthymeme: He must be a socialist because he favors a graduated income-tax. In this statement, the conclusion “He is a socialist” is deduced from an expressed premise “he favors a graduated income-tax”, and the implied premise “Any person who favors a graduated income-tax is a socialist”.

In his *Prior Analytics* (Bk. II, Ch. 27), Aristotle explicates that the essential difference between enthymeme and syllogism differ in terms of the degree of certainty of premises in that syllogism makes a necessary and irresistible conclusion from universally true premises but an enthymeme leads to a tentative conclusion from probable premises. In other words, unlike syllogism must show internal validity to meet truth conditions in the relationship between the three elements of an argument – the major premise, the minor premise and the conclusion, the rhetorical enthymeme is much “looser”. The difference between syllogism and enthymeme can be illustrated in the following examples:

The major premise: “All men are mortal”

The minor premise: “Socrates is a man”

Conclusion: “Socrates too will die”.

The major premise states universal truth whereas the minor premise gives a truth that can be unmistakably verified. As both premises present truth, the conclusion is infallible.

Accordingly, this example is a syllogism. On the basis of the previous one, we suppose this another illustration:

The minor premise: John hasn't studied

Conclusion: John will fail his examination

This example is an enthymeme in the sense of a truncated syllogism and a deductive argument based on probable premises. It entails a minor premise "John hasn't studied" of which truth can be verified. The major premise is a rhetorical probability; the probable premise is located in the unexpressed proposition which reports that "Anyone who doesn't study will fail his examination." This proposition is not universally true because it happen that those who do not study usually fail their examinations, but it is probable that those who do not study will fail. As a consequence, that probability is sufficient to convince us that John's name on the Dean's list of failures.

Enthymemes are made up of *probabilities*, *signs* and *maxim* (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004; Kennedy, 2007). Probabilities are premises which predict something about human behavior. Generally speaking, rhetoric is based on probabilities (Quandhal, 1986) that make the essential distinction between enthymemes and syllogisms, in Aristotle's view. In rhetoric, probable proposition lack certainty because human behavior in general is predictable to some extent, and, thus, they are not reliable as certainties; in science and dialectics probabilities have high amount of certainty (Corbett, 1965). Despite the fact that Aristotle, Plato, Quintilian and the Sophists were dissimilar as to the acceptability of probabilities, probable premises are suitable for use in rhetoric because they are statements about the probable conduct of human beings (Quandhal, 1986).

The premises of an enthymeme can also constructed by signs. This latter stands for the physical facts or real events that are inevitably or usually associated before or simultaneously



with some other state of affairs; a sign is not a cause, but it is merely an indication that something has happened, is happening, or will happen (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). For example, if someone has a fever, this is a sign that he is ill. Essentially, a sign has a *kairotic* element that is to say the same sign has totally different indications in two different periods of time or places (ibid). In other words, the sense that a thing has now may be different from the sense it has in other period, and what is acceptable in place may not be in another. Depending on whether it is or isn't connected to the inferred state of affairs, a sign can be infallible or fallible (Corbett, 1965; Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). Specifically, a sign is infallible if it invariably and exclusively accompanies the state of affairs, but fallible if does not. To say an infallible sign when smoke always accompanies fire, and, thus, smelling smoke signifies the existence of fire in someplace, but we cannot infallibly conclude that fast breathing is a sign of having a fever since it can be connected with other physical conditions than having a fever. More to the point, if infallible sign-based conclusion is not open to challenge, conclusion built upon a fallible sign will always be open to challenge or refutation. Note that fallible signs are like analogies: they never prove, but they can persuade.

The material of enthymeme can also be a maxim. This latter are short and pithy statements that express truths or rules of conduct as commonly accepted by culture and used to justify a variety of beliefs and actions (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). Maxims can take the form of proverbs or clichés (ibid). They can be drawn from different sources: common wisdom of the people, poetry or history, etc. and they can be found in dictionaries of proverbs or collections of quotations. The rhetorical force of maxims lies in their commonness. Since they are commonly held, they seem to be true. Aristotle noted that maxims are especially persuasive to audiences who like to hear their beliefs confirmed. Thus, the speaker should know which maxims speak to the unique culture of the audience and fit to the situation and

the argument. He also mentions that maxims can be one of the premises or conclusions of an enthymeme. Here is an enthymeme where in the maxim “Better late than never”<sup>8</sup> is employed as its conclusion:

Last year Mr. Bush finally conceded that global warming existed. This year he conceded that human beings were to blame, and the damage was going to be severe. At this rate, next year he'll start to champion policies that will begin to put a dent in climate change—such basic steps as higher gas-mileage standards for American cars and trucks, more research into renewable energy, and tougher enforcement of the Clean Air Act instead of Mr. Bush's attempts to weaken it. *Better late than never*. But for an administration that views energy conservation as nothing more than a personal virtue, you probably shouldn't count on it. (“Get Used to It: President's New Philosophy on Global Warming,” *The Record*, June 4, 2002, L12)

Both example and enthymeme are two elements of logos. If the former stands for the inductive aspect, the latter presents the deductive aspect of logos. After the introduction of the logico-dialectical apparatus, mainly syllogism, into the field of rhetoric, enthymeme gained a key position in rhetoric (Piazza, 2011). Accordingly, Aristotle gives preference of enthymemes to examples as a kind of proof, no doubt because enthymemes share common elements with syllogism (Braet, 1999; Piazza, 2011). However, he mentions in his book that a rhetor should use examples if no enthymemes are available to a rhetor; enthymemes also do produce conviction (II xx 9)(Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). In addition, he recommended, in

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<sup>8</sup>It is a proverb which implies that doing something too late is better than never doing it at all.

the case enthymemes are available, a rhetor can employ examples to support the enthymemes (ibid).

### **2.2.3.2. Ethos**

Ethos, a Greek term, is one of the rhetorical artistic proofs (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). The earliest systematic treatment of ethos is in the rhetoric of Aristotle; he defines this term as “an ability for doing *good*”. In Roman rhetoric, Cicero occasionally used the term “*persona*” which means “mask” referring to ethos, but Quintilian simply borrowed the Greek term (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). Influenced by Aristotle’s viewpoint, most modern scholars use the word character referring to ethos. Crowley and Hawhee (ibid) deal with this matter and say that rhetor can invent a *character* suitable to an occasion. Burke (2014) observes that “ethos is concerned with *character*”. In the same way, Watson (1988) confirms that ethical proof is based on rhetor’s *credibility* and *characters* associated with his speech for securing persuasion. Modern scholars use “*subject*” and “*self*” as a synonym of ethos (Brahnam, 2012).

To establish credibility, ethos is divided into into three parts: good sense [*phronēsis*], good moral [*aretē*] and goodwill [*eunoia*] (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004) all of which can enhance the persuasiveness and perception of truth of the message (Watson 1988).. Good sense refers to rhetor’s ability to assure that he knows what he discusses, to use specialized language and to use evidences, knowledge of the topic to support their claims (ibid). Good moral means the perception of the rhetor’s characters: trustworthy, truthful, responsible, etc (ibid). The last element, good will is when rhetor makes an effort to connect with the audience and has a sense of caring for what is right for the audience (ibid).

For Aristotle, ethos is a “hidden persuader” because it is not as visible as logos or pathos<sup>9</sup> (Burke, 2014; Corbett, 1965), but it is an unavoidable component of all discourse (Brahnam, 2012). Ethos has a unique role as a substantial method for persuading an audience; the importance of ethical persuasion was set forth by Aristotle (Murphy and Katula, 1995), which has been further supported and investigated by modern scholars of rhetoric (Weresh, 2012). In his report, Aristotle expressed:

It is not true, as some writers assume in their treatises on rhetoric, that the personal goodness revealed by the speaker contributes nothing to his power of persuasion; on the contrary, his character may almost be called the *most effective means of persuasion he possesses*. (Aristotle, *supra* note 1, at Book I, Part II, Paragraph III (emphasis added), cited in McCormack, 2014.)

Scholars such as Plato, Quintilian and Cicero do agree with Aristotle that ethos plays a crucial role, but they disagree with him in terms of their perception of the concept of *ethos* whether it is a linguistic phenomenon or whether it is reflective of a rhetor’s character (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). On the one hand, Aristotle stated that ethos must be attained from speech for the reason that a rhetor develops ethos through the text itself (Wisse, 1989). Similarly, Barrett (1991) also maintains that ethos is embodied in the words a rhetor uses. On the other hand, Plato, Cicero, and Quintilian perceive ethos as internal and, thus, a rhetor must possess *ethos* before he starts his speech. They consider that rhetor’s reputation is a method for producing belief because the way a speaker lives offers the best evidence of the truth and

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<sup>9</sup>It is the third type of rhetorical proof.

goodness of that person's words (Welch, 1990). Moreover, they stress that rhetor must actually be: educated, honorable, skilled speaker and good person (cited in Shin, 2004).

In rhetoric, there exist two kinds of ethical proof: invented or situated; this division is made on the basic distinction made by Aristotle in terms of proofs whether intrinsic or extrinsic (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). The examination of these two facets of ethical proof can help in understanding the complexities of ethos. First, invented ethos is the dramatization of the rhetor's character that can be created or invented in a particular situation through his language (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004) to persuade *large* audience (Sierra and Eymen, 2012). Aristotle was a proponent of invented ethos; his interest is not to cultivate the character of the rhetor, but to discover how the rhetor can convince his audience to trust what he has to say (Brahman, 2012). It is portrayed as dynamic tool for rhetors as it helps them to establish credibility on the spot as Brahnam (ibid) utters that:

Invented ethos is bound to a single instance of speaking in public and involves the immediate revelation of character, a momentary portrayal that may or may not honestly represent the speaker's true character and that may be intended more as the object of sport or as a rhetorical exercise. (p. 14)

Second, situated ethos, an alternative view of ethos, is advocated by classical scholars Cicero and Quintilian who gave more importance to real good character and reputation, than the structure or the content speech, which are formed over the course of time (Brahnam, 2012). This kind of ethos is the servant of the real and appropriate for rhetors that enjoy a good reputation which is the best evidence of the truth and goodness to engender belief and to establish credibility with audience (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004; Welch, 1990). A rhetor would hold a high level of ethos if he lives honorably and seemed to be operating

within the best interests of his community. Unlike invented ethos that rhetors can use when composing for large audience, situated ethos can be deployed when the audience is relatively small (Sierra and Eymen, 2012).

Discussion on invented and situated ethos was debatable among scholars. Regardless of whether ethos is situated or invented, the development of ethos is vital both on individual and collective levels (Kamara, 2011). Furthermore, Burke (2014) states that they are not separated, rather they operate on a cline. For example, the more effective your invented ethos is, the stronger your situated ethos might become in the long run, and vice versa.

### **2.2.3.3. Pathos**

Pathos, a Greek term, is the third mode of persuasion in rhetoric; it focuses on the emotional appeal. As a means of the intrinsic proof, it enables rhetors to make an appeal to arouse emotions of the audience (Lanham, 1967 p. 74). The term pathos had been associated with words “suffering” and “experience” in the ancient Greek thought. In the fifth century BCE, it was employed by Plato and Aristotle to discuss the emotions in general. In spite of this, Aristotle seems to be the first rhetorician to provide a systematic description of pathos. Currently, many English words such as sympathy, empathy and even the adjective pathetic are borrowed from pathos, but their meanings are different from the meaning of the words pathos. In consequence, pathos offers the foundation of the theory of emotion on which the majority of modern discussions are adopted from Aristotle’s treatises on rhetoric (Yazici, 2015).

For Aristotle, pathos is the rhetor’s appeal to his audience’s sense of emotions in order to achieve an effective persuasion. Wisse (1989) defines pathos as “the arousing of emotions in the audience” (p.70). Aristotle characterizes emotions as the state of mind that greatly affects the audiences’ decisions (Covino and Jolliffe, 1995, Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). Put

it simply, human thinking, judgment or reaction are reasonably accompanied by many sorts of emotion, for example, anger, pity, fear, and other such things and their opposites. Aristotle and Cicero distinguish emotions from appetites such as pain and pleasure, and values including justice and goodness (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). Though emotions are reasonably aroused by a certain reason as a response to certain event, they cannot be controlled. In this sense, Corbett (1971) illustrates:

We cannot will ourselves into being angry against someone.

On the other hand, our intellectual faculties, reason and memory are under the direct control of our will. We can, by an act of the will, force ourselves to recall historical facts, to engage in calculation, to analyse a whole, or to synthesize parts... We arouse emotion by contemplating the object that stirs the emotion. So if we seek to arouse the anger of an audience, we must describe a person or a situation of a sort that will make the audience angry. (p. 100)(Cited in Shin, S.W, 2004)

Murthy and Ghosal (2014) describe emotions as powerful motivators to stimulate audiences to accept or refuse the claims of the rhetor. Similarly, Crowley and Hawhee (2004) tackle this issue and say that emotions have heuristic potential as they can lead people to reason or to react when necessary. Aristotle deal with the relation between emotions and spatial and temporal proximity in that people who live in the same community may share or communicate similar kinds of emotional responses, but this may not be true across wide cultural differences (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004; Kennedy, 1991). Pathos helps the rhetor to be connected emotionally with his audiences, and he incites their emotions either for or

against the represented ideas or propositions or call to action or to change their assessment of reality or to see the world in new ways in the right circumstance “kairos” (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004; Covino and Jolliffe, 1995). In rhetoric theory, it is due to pathos a great importance is given to the notion of audience (Burke, 2016) seeing that the audience has a crucial role in determining the meaning (Covino and Jolliffe, 1995). Thus, the audience is a chief element to the success of pathos.

Pathos is called a double edged blade that has to be carefully used. The aim of pathos is to arouse the emotions of audience, but emotion can be positive or negative. That’s why Richard M Weaver, a modern rhetorician, maintains that pathos is a God’s term as well as a Devil’s term. Accordingly, a rhetor should use pathos intelligently; otherwise it may bring impact on the minds of the audience. To achieve this goal, Aristotle suggests three criteria for rhetors to easily understand how emotions are aroused or quelled (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). First, rhetor must understand the state of mind of people whether they are angry, joyful, or indignant; second, he must be familiar with who can stimulate these emotions in them; third, he must understand for what reasons people become emotional.

*Pathos* is one of three modes of persuasion in rhetoric; the other two are *ethos* and *logos*. It is believed that pathos is closely related to logos and ethos, and, thus, it contributes to both of them. Pathos also contributes significantly to how the audience perceives logical arguments. He stated that effective persuasion is partly based on the correspondence of rhetor’s logos to the audience’s pathos. Walker (2000) believes that pathos has power over logos for the reason that emotion (pathos) will determine how the mind perceives and interprets any logical arguments presented to it. Aristotle describes pathos as working in conjunction with constructing the rhetor’s ethos (Aristotle, 1991). *Pathos* is joined to an honorable *ethos* because a rhetor of goodwill seeks to evoke the same in the audience. He



utters that if the rhetor has done little wrong, the addressed audience is more apt, or feels more inclined, to agree with him. The basis of pathos is built by Plato, Aristotle. Subsequently, Cicero and Quintilian emphasized the effective utilization of *pathos* in winning over judges to honorable and true decisions (Olbricht, 2001). Through the centuries, however, unlike logos and ethos which are allotted a significant consideration, emotional appeal, pathos, is drawn a little attention by rhetoricians.

Logos, ethos and pathos are three appeals in rhetoric. Logos is the appeal by reason, ethos concerns the character, but pathos provokes audience's emotions. However, Covino and Jolliffe (1995) explained that "just as *ethos* moves an audience by activating their faith in the credibility of the rhetor and *pathos* stimulates their feelings and seeks a change in their attitudes and actions, so *logos*, accompanied by the other two appeals, mobilizes the powers of reasoning" (p. 17).

#### **2.2.4. Topics**

The term "Topics" is derived from "*topoi/tópoi*", a Greek term, which is translated in Latin term "*loci*" (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). According to Aristotle, topics refer to the different places (Pullman, 1994) that an orator could be expected to consult when constructing arguments or proofs (Kennedy, 2009). For him, topics are "spaces in an art" where the rhetor may search "the available means of persuasion" (Kennedy, 2007), whereas Quintilian (1903) treats them as "the secret places where arguments reside, and from which they must be drawn forth" (V x 20). Modern scholars describe topics as "search formulas" of arguments (Kienpointner, 1997) as "stock arguments" (Miller, 2000), as "general lines of arguments" (Tindale, 2007), as "investigative guides, catalogues of arguments or methods of developing types of discourse" (Lauer, 2004), as machines "for making premises" (Brunschwig, 1967), as

argumentative matrices (Rubinelli, 2009). Simply, topics are aids which a rhetor can consult to discover proofs to develop the subject under discussion.

The concept “*topoi*” was first mentioned in the rhetoric of Aristotle whose intention of using topics was in philosophical or logical disputations; “topics” was closely tied to his theories of dialectical and scientific demonstration (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). Consequently, Aristotle's own treatises on logical method “made his Topics out of date” (Miller, 1987). In the fifth century, sophists re-examined Aristotle's discussion of topics, and, then, they detached topical system from Aristotle’s logic and gave them a life of their own (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). Sophistic topics are structural and they have pedagogical orientation unlike Aristotle’s topical system which is more theoretical. However, the clearest statement of this topical system is found in Cicero's *Topics*, whose topical system is based on Sophistic topics (ibid).

Since the era of Aristotle, rhetoric provides rhetors with a list of aids to invention, which are grouped into two general heads: common topics and special topics. Modern rhetoricians like Kennedy (2007) and Miller (2000) note that Aristotle himself never defines these terms. These two terms are labeled differently in the words of Cicero: intrinsic and extrinsic, respectively.

#### **2.2.4.1. Common Topics**

The common topics, “*Koinoi topos*<sup>10</sup>” in Greek term, are aids belonging most properly to rhetoric because they represent universal modes of human reasoning and yield arguments on virtually any subject (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004; Brake, 1965; Grimaldi, 1972). Common topics are strategies that are useful in various rhetorical situations because they do not discuss any particular class of things; rather, they are useful for discussing anything whatever (Clark,

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<sup>10</sup>Its plural is “*Topoi*”

2003). Cicero describes intrinsic topics as “inherent in the very nature of the subject which is under discussion” (ii 8). For some scholars, such as Crowley and Hawhee (2004), common topics are existed in the structure of language or in the issues that concerned the community, and they are labeled *common* topics because they are available to everyone (cited in Clark, 2003). Cicero was interested in intrinsic topics because they are considered as a means of arranging of discourse; hence, they can be classified under the head of the second canon, arrangement, which we will discuss subsequently.

Aristotle suggested common topics listed in three kinds: conjecture (Past/future fact), degree (greater/lesser) and possibility (possible and impossible) for a rhetor to resort when discussing virtually any subject (Burke, 2016); Aristotle apparently developed the category of common topics in order to prove his argument that rhetoric is a universal art of investigation. Aristotle’s common topics are re-examined by Sophists whose topics are discussed by Cicero in some detail. Some of Cicero’s topics resemble those listed in Aristotle's *Topics* and *Rhetoric*. He proposed four kinds of intrinsic topics from which arguments can be derived: the whole (generalization or classification), the parts (division), the meaning (definition), and the relationship (similarity/difference, cause/effect, antecedents/consequents, and the like). Cicero’s list of topics was expanded on by Corbett (1965) in his work *Classical Rhetoric for the Modern Student*. Later, it has been rectified by Corbett and Connors (1999) in their work *Classical Rhetoric for the Modern Student* (Cited in Burke, 2016), who name five distinct categories with a number of subcategories by which a rhetor tend to define, to compare, to find relationships among ideas and arguments, as can be seen in the Table 5.

**Table 4. Corbett & Connors's expanded list of common topics of invention (1999)**

Topic	Sub-topic
Definition	Genus/ species/ division
	Etymology
	Definition
	Description
	Example
	Synonym
Comparison	Similarity
	Difference
	Degree
Circumstance	Cause/effect
	Timing
Relationship	Contraries
	Exclusion
Testimony	Statistics
	Maxims
	Laws
	Precedents
	Personal example
	Historical example
	Authoritative quotes

Definition is a way of unfolding properly what is enfolded in a subject being examined. The rhetorical function of using this common topic is to ascertain the specific issue to be discussed. A rhetor can develop his definition or quote definitions from dictionary. However, a definition should be correct and precise, and it should agree with a rhetor's notions. The rhetorical force of the topic of definition can take different forms: genus/species/division, etymology, definition, description, example and synonym. The second common topic is comparison; it is another tendency for rhetors to define things. Comparison is meant bringing two or more things together to study them in terms of similarities,

differences and/or degrees. Circumstance is another common topic by which a rhetor attempt to draw conclusions on future facts or events by referring to events in the past (cause/effect) or to deal with actions in the past, the present or the future (timing). Relationship is also a common topic in which a rhetor puts two or more things in a relationship to one another in order to understand how something was produced. Relationships can either be described in terms of contraries or exclusion. The last common topic is testimony. This latter helps a rhetor to know what have people who possess some authority on a certain state of affair said about a person, object or an event, etc. Under the general head of testimony, a rhetor can use seven sub-topics: statistics, maxims, law, precedents, personal example, historical example and authoritative quotes. Unlike the previously mentioned common topics where a rhetor derives his material from the nature of the question under discussion, in testimony, in contrast, he derives his material from external sources.

#### **2.2.4.2. Special topics**

The term “special topics”, “*idioti topoi*” in Greek term, refers to extrinsic topics in Cicero’s topical system (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). It includes the more particular lines of argument that one could resort to when discussing some particular subject (Corbett, 1965). Similarly, Cicero defines extrinsic topics as “arguments from external circumstances,” which can be “removed and widely separated from the subject” and “depend principally on authority” (ii 8; iv 24) (Cited in Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). If common topics are useful for discussing anything whatever, the special topics, in contrast, deal with specific arts and sciences (ibid). Specifically, the special topics yield arguments specific to different areas of knowledge and forums of discussion. Thus, special topics are placed outside the province of rhetoric and within the other subjects the orator must know--politics, history, literature, and so forth (Kennedy, 2007).

Aristotle set out three kinds of “special” topics; they are also known as the three “genres” of rhetoric, and they all have different emphasis (Burke, 2016). The special topics are deliberative, forensic and epideictic each of which pertains to a certain domain of persuasive discourse that are, respectively, political rhetoric, judicial rhetoric and ceremonial rhetoric<sup>11</sup>. First, deliberative oratory puts emphasis on an event in the future tackling what is good or beneficial for the people or for a state/country so that the rhetor urges and exhorts people to act or think differently about a specific future matter. Second, forensic oratory focuses on events in the past, i.e. who did what to whom and when, where and why. In this case, a rhetor indicates what is just or unjust and he accuses or defends in relation to a specific past event. Third, epideictic oratory concentrates on events primarily in the present, but it also draws on the past and projects into the future, discussing different key themes based on honour or dishonour, and expanded on by highlighting episodes of virtue or vice. This can be summarized in Table 6.

**Table 5: Corbett & Connors’s expanded list of special topics of invention (1999)**

Topic	Sub-topic
Judicial	Justice (right)
	Injustice (wrong)
Deliberative	Good
	Unworthy
	Advantageous
	Disadvantageous
Ceremonial	Virtue (noble)
	Vice (base)

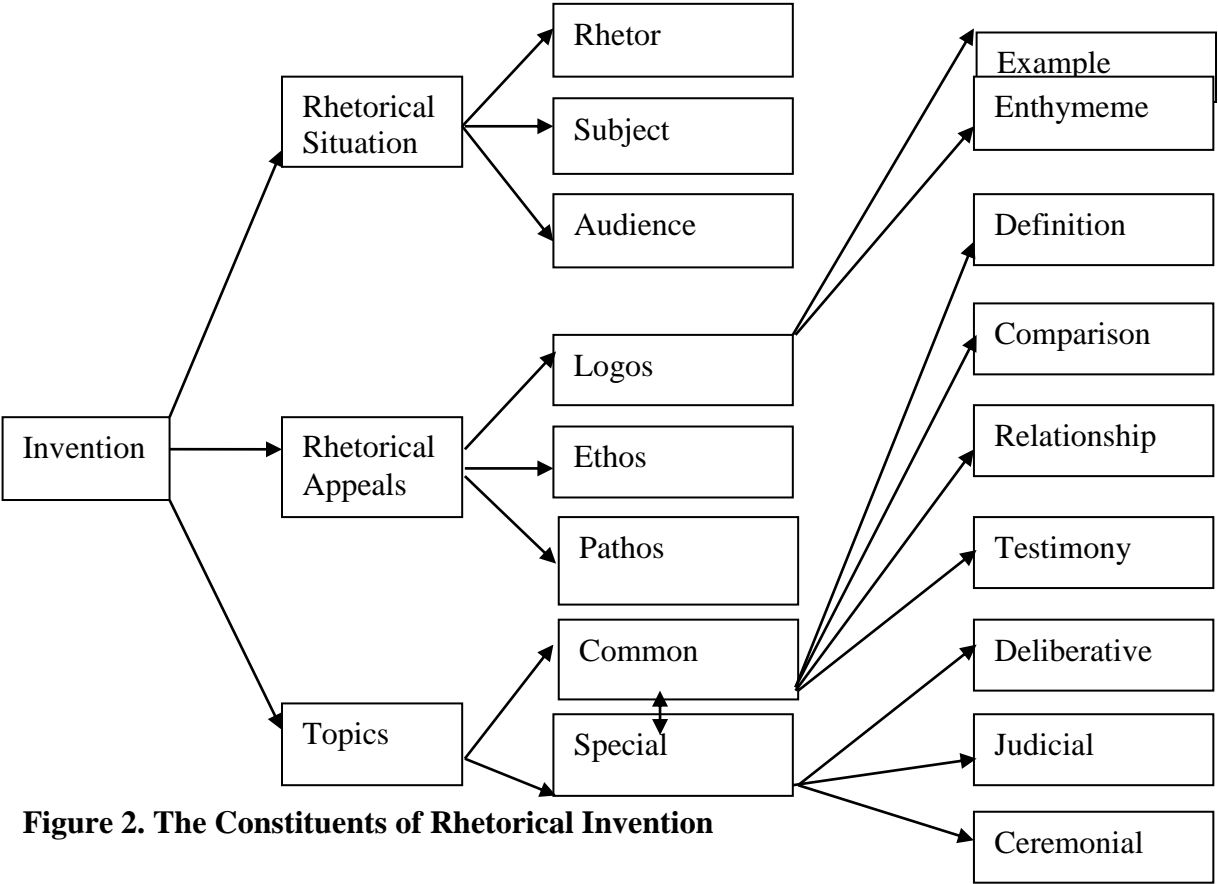
In contrast to common topics which properly belong to rhetoric, special topics are related to other disciplines such as law, history, ethics, politics and science. Common topics are available to everyone, because they are inherent in the nature of rhetoric, rhetors are

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<sup>11</sup>In which a rhetor can praise or castigate an individual or institution.

expected to have different sources for finding ideas. To achieve this goal, Cicero and Quintilian claimed that a broad liberal education was the best background for an orator. Moreover, rhetoricians suggest that, when trying to invent special topics, a rhetor can consult external aids as they can provide him with data for a specific case. External aids can be biography, concordances and books of quotations, periodical indexes, handbooks, dictionaries, atlases, encyclopedias, bibliographies and/or the internet.

Common topics are aids to invention, which yield modes of argumentation on virtually any subject. Special topics are also aids to invention, but they provide arguments specific to the field under discussion. In a point of fact, once a rhetor decides on one kind of special topics, he then detects which kind of common topics he has to use. In other words, common topics are applicable to all three forms of special topics. The following Figure 14 summarizes the constituents of rhetorical invention.



**Figure 2. The Constituents of Rhetorical Invention**

## **2.3. Arrangement**

### **2.3.1. Definition of arrangement**

Arrangement, also called disposition, referring to the terms “*taxis*” in Greek and “*dispositio*” in Latin, is the second canon in rhetoric. In “*On Invention*”, Cicero expresses that “Arrangement (*dispositio*) is the distribution of arguments thus discovered in the proper order”. For Covino and Jolliffe (1995), arrangement “is the art of ordering the material in a text so that it is most appropriate for the needs of the audience and the purpose the text is designed to accomplish” (p. 22). Similarly, Kennedy (2009) views arrangement as “the organization of speech into parts” (p. 5). In ancient rhetoric, arrangement is typically a formal system of organization that delineates each part of a rhetorical oration. In modern rhetoric, this term has broadened to include ordering of the proofs at large scale. Arrangement concerns the selection and ordering of the discrete elements for producing more effective discourse, after the arguments are generated through the heuristics and external and internal aids of invention (Burke, 2016; Corbett, 1965).

For classical rhetoricians, arrangement has no certain convention that the orators are bound to follow; rather it is determined by the rhetorical situation (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). Thus arrangement can be varied from one rhetorical situation to the other. In this context, Doug Brent (1997) suggests that in classical rhetoric, “arrangement is determined more by the context, the audience, the rhetorical purpose—the cluster of exigencies that rhetoricians refer to as *kairos*—than by a ‘logical’ progression of propositions” (n.p) (cited in Eyman, 2015)

### **2.3.2. Models for Arrangement**

All rhetors do agree that in most conventional situations a rhetorical oration must have a beginning, a middle, and an end. Different models for arrangement have been suggested for



rhetors to classify their ideas, but these plans differ in terms of the number of parts, as some of them are overlapped, depending on the rhetorical situation. Since ancient time, discussions on arrangement have often presupposed a static classificatory system. First, Corax divided an oration into five parts: prooemium<sup>12</sup>(introduction), narrative, arguments, subsidiary remarks, and peroration, “*peroratio*”<sup>13</sup>(conclusion) (Dauterman, 1972). Focusing on the simplicity of the expression, Aristotle mentioned in his third book “*rhetoric*” that a discourse only has two main parts which are narrative (statement of facts) and proof. For some scholars, these two main parts: narrative and proof, present only the mid body of discourse which necessitates prologue and epilogue. Accordingly, Dauterman (ibid) utters that Aristotle recognized four divisions of a speech: exordium (introduction), narrative, proof, and peroration. Similarly, Aristotle states that there should be at least four components: an *exordium*, an introduction (*prooimion*), an advanced thesis (*prothesis*), proofs (*pisteis*) and a conclusion (*epilogos*) in an oration (Enos, 2001).

In the fifth century, the sophists dealt with arrangement as one unit with invention; they suggested that a discourse contains many sections the need of which to perform certain tasks depends on the situation (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). For the sophists, the rhetors should be taught the four parts of discourse: prooemium(introduction), narration (statement of the issue), proof, and conclusion. Other sophistic scholars like Theodorus and Licymnius advised other sorts of divisions of discourse: narrative, additional narrative, preliminary narrative, refutation and additional refutation (ibid). They also discuss the appropriate topics that can be used in each part of discourse (ibid). In addition to rejecting the unification of

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<sup>12</sup> A Greek term, meant “before the song”

<sup>13</sup>A Latin term, consisting two parts: “per” is a suffix with a meaning of “finishing off”, and “Oratio” meant discourse

invention and arrangement made by the Sophists, Aristotle describes their elaboration of arrangement as fancy and the divisions are “empty and silly”.

Roman rhetoricians, such as Cicero and Quintilian, refined their organizational schemes even further (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). They advocate similar models of six parts: “an exordium<sup>14</sup>, or introduction; a *narratio*, or statement of the issue; a *partitio*, or division of the issue into its constituent parts; *confirmatio*, where the rhetor's strongest arguments are made; *refutatio*, where arguments that can damage a rhetor's case are anticipated and refuted; and a *peroratio*, or conclusion” (ibid, p. 259). In his plan for arrangement, Cicero embraces the sophistic habit of discussing the apt topics within each part (*De Inventione, Rhetorica and Herrenium*).

In contrast with those of classical rhetoric, most modern pronouncements on arrangement appear ordinary. Contemporary rhetoricians substitute the four-to six-part organization in the simplistic three-part arrangement of introduction, body and conclusion (Dauterman, 1972). They maintain the beginning and the ending part of the discourse, but they entail the four elements of discourse: statement of the issue, division of the issue, confirmation, refutation, under a general head “body” wherein they have frequently recommended a climactic order for argumentation as well as other methods of development for exposition. Though modern pronouncement on arrangement contributes to the lore of rhetoric, in practice it gives a little to promoting the organizational skills of the novice rhetor.

### **2.3.3. Parts of Rhetorical Oration**

We have seen some different plans for arrangement when producing rhetorical oration. These plans involve either four, five or six parts. In classical Roman, it is believed that a rigid sequence of arrangement which consists of introduction, statement of fact, division, proof,

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<sup>14</sup> A Latin term, meant “beginning a web”, its plural is exordia

refutation, and conclusion; Cicero' and Quintilian's model. While this plan for arrangement might appear to be highly rigid and flexible, it has been practiced by rhetoricians and rhetors. Thus, in this study, we will introduce the six parts: exordium, narratio, divisio, confirmatio, refutatio, and peroratio, which certainly figure in both expository and argumentative oration. In fact, each section of oration has its own function and characteristics (Kennedy, 2009).

### **2.3.3.1. Introduction**

Introduction is also labeled *exordium* and *prooemium* (ibid). It is the first part in rhetorical oration, wherein the issue is supposed to be presented. It is thought, for ancient scholars, that introductions have other functions than simply presenting the issue (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). The rhetor can also state the purpose of his speech in the introduction. Additionally, in book III of the *Rhetoric*, Aristotle contended that the main purpose of the introduction was "to make clear what is the end (*ethos*) of the discourse" (1415a). By the same token, Cicero asserts that in the introduction the rhetor must deploy ethical appeals and establishes credibility (Burke, 2016). Therefore, by the introduction a rhetor can lead the audience and render them attentive and amenable to his arguments, as Quintilian wrote that "the sole purpose of the exordium is to prepare our audience in such a way that they will be disposed to lend a ready ear to the rest of our speech" (IV i 5). An abrupt an immediate entry into the body of the rhetorical oration would confuse the audience.

Introduction should be dignified, serious, and clear and connected to the issues or situation (Kennedy, 2009). He also advises his students about the futility of composing the exordium first: "It does not follow that everything which is to be said first must be studied first; for the reason that, if you wish the first part of the discourse to have a close agreement and connection with the main statement of the case, you must derive it from the matters which are to be discussed afterward" (I xiv19). Put it in other words, the introduction is

recommended to be the last part prepared in a discourse since a rhetor can't introduce arguments that haven't yet been composed; a rhetor can consider whether to include an exordium after he composes at least the narrative and the confirmation.

The introduction is not necessary in every discourse; rather the presentation of introduction depends upon the rhetorical situation (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004; Kennedy, 2009). In fact, some rhetorical situation requires a specific introduction. There are various types of introductions each of which depends on the audiences' interest of the subject and how much they know about the subject and their attitudes towards it. Whately (1836) invented five kinds of introductions for authors to arouse the interest of the issue. The five kinds of introductions are as follows:

- Introduction Inquisitive to show that the subject is important, curious, or interesting.
- Introduction Paradoxical to show that although the points is trying to be established seem improbable, audience must after all be admitted.
- Introduction Corrective-to show that the subject has been neglected, misunderstood, or misrepresented.
- Introduction Preparatory to explain an unusual mode of developing the subject; or to forestall some misconception of the purpose; or to apologize for some deficiencies.
- Introduction Narrative-to rouse interest in the subject by adopting the anecdotal lead-in.

Other types of introductions are proposed in terms of audience whether they are accepting, hostile or indifferent towards the issue (Burke, 2016; Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). Cicero suggests five cases of audience: *honorable audience* gives an immediate support the issue; *difficult audience* is unsympathetic to rhetor and/or to issues; *mean audience* regards the rhetor or the issue as unimportant or uninteresting; *ambiguous audience* is unsure about what is at issue; or issue is partly honorable and partly difficult; *obscure audience* finds the

issue at hand too difficult to understand, because either they are uninformed or because the issue itself is complex (Burke, 2016; Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). This variety of audiences requires different types of exordia. To this end, Cicero recommended two general sorts of exordiums: introduction and insinuation. For him, if the former “directly and in plain language makes the audience well-disposed, receptive and attentive”, the latter “unobtrusively steals into the mind of audiences” (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004 p. 261). Cicero pointed out that in rhetorical situation where the audience is honorable a rhetor needs neither introduction nor insinuation as the he is respected, the issue is not controversial, and the audience is interested and attentive. If the audience is difficult, the rhetor uses insinuation because the audience is hostile to a rhetor or to her position. In cases where audience is mean, ambiguous and obscure, a rhetor should use introductions in order to convince them about the importance of his position towards the issue, to clarify what is ambiguous in the issue or state his case in plain language and briefly and explain the points to be discussed, respectively, since here the audience is not hostile but only confused or uninformed.

Exordium plays a crucial role in rhetorical situation, but not all rhetorical situations necessitate an exordium. There are different types of exordiums, but the rhetor should assess the situation to figure out whether to use an exordium and which type: introduction or an insinuation taking into consideration the category of audience.

### **2.3.3.2. Statements of Facts**

Statement of facts, also known narrative, is the English translation of the Latin word “*narratio*” (Corbett, 1965). It is the second part of rhetorical oration. The statement of facts is a part of discourse in which a rhetor states his issue (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). In the case where a rhetor may not be satisfied with a simple statement, for certain reasons, he can give the audience some background or history about the issue so that they can understand why it is

important to them (ibid). Cicero declares that the statement of fact “could contain an account of the reasons why an issue is being disputed; a digression to attack the opposition, amuse the audience, or amplify their understanding of the case by comparisons; and/or a true-seeming fiction that is analogous to the case, drawn either from history or literature or created by the rhetor” (cited in Crowley and Hawhee, 2004, p. 267). Besides, rhetor may insert vivid historical or fictional examples to the narrative, but the examples should be relevant to the issue. That is to say, they should be analogous to the facts of the case. For Burke (2016), the focus in narrative might be on a definition or on values or on describing what must be done. However, this part of discourse has a function to supply substantial background of information necessary for the audience to understand the context and the history of the issue and for what reasons it is disputed so that to make the rhetorical oration logically accepted.

There was a room for dispute among Cicero and Quintilian as to the inclusion or exclusion of the statement of facts (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). Expressly, Cicero agrees that statement of facts can be omitted if the audiences are familiar with the issue or the issue had been already mentioned by a rhetor, and it cannot be mentioned at all at the beginning of the discourse if the subject is unpopular or if the audience were hostile to the rhetor's point of view. Quintilian totally was dissimilar with Cicero's opinion that statement of facts is worthless or dishonorable for the reason that audience should be suspicious of discourse whose orator makes no statement of his position on the issue at hand, and he replies that “Nothing can be more easy, except perhaps to throw up the case altogether” (IV ii 66). Corbett (1965) discusses the use of the statement of the case in the three genres of rhetoric. The statement of facts is frequent in the forensic oration since its province is the past and, thus, there is usually a set of facts or details to be recited but before they can be proved or refuted. It seems unnecessary part in deliberative oratory where no facts to be declaimed since

it deals with the future arguing about things that must be done, rather than things that have been done. In deliberative and ceremonial oration, the rhetor too often needs narrative to recite past events as a basis for his recommendations about the future. However, if the rhetor decides to use narrative, he must state it briefly, clearly and simply in ways that favors his position; whereas Quintilian recommends that this part of the discourse would also be lucid and plausible. In addition, a narrative should have some logic to it, i.e. it must be chronological (backwards or forwards) or proceed from particular to general or from general to particular, from the familiar to the less familiar.

### **2.3.3.3. Division**

Division, also known as partition, is the English translation of “*Divisio*” and “*partitio*”. It is the third and the shortest part of rhetorical discourse wherein a rhetor transforms his general fact statements into more specific arguments (Crowley and Hawhee, 1943). Partition is of great importance as Quintilian argues that partition “not only makes our arguments clearer by isolating the points from the crowd in which they would otherwise be lost and placing them before the eyes of the judge, but relieves his attention by assigning a definite limit to certain parts of our speech, just as our fatigue upon a journey is relieved by reading the distances on the milestones which we pass” (IV v 22-23) (cited in Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). In particular, partition has two functions (ibid). First, it can specify the issues in dispute, for instance to say: “in my speech I will address three issues”. Second, it can list the arguments to be used in the order they will appear. Partition is very helpful to the audiences to decide whether to follow the rest of the oration. Furthermore, the uses of partition carry out the ethical effect of making rhetors seem intelligent and well disposed toward an audience. Ancient scholars are in agreement that division, like a narrative, ought to be clear and brief.

#### **2.3.3.4. Confirmation**

Confirmation, derived from the Latin word “*confirmatio*” (Burke, 2016), known also proof, is a part of oration, where the rhetor present, whether to explain or to persuade, in logical manner the main material he has gathered in the process of invention (Corbett, 1965; Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). If the previous two parts: narrative and division, are viewed as preliminaries, confirmation is regarded as the central and necessary section in every oration (Corbett, 1965). In this part, a rhetor may encounter a problem as to the arrangement of ideas which comes first and which comes last. Undoubtedly, some arguments are strong and others come weak. Quintilian recommends rhetors to select and order their *pisteis* by treating firstly the stronger ones singly and at more length and to group together the weakest arguments if they must be used (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). Furthermore, Aristotle advised that the stronger arguments should be located at the beginning and at the end while weaker ones should be positioned in the middle (Burke, 2016) in order to increase the effectiveness of the rhetorical oration.

#### **2.3.3.5. Refutation**

Refutation, stemmed from Latin concept “*refutatio*” (Burke, 2016), is a section in a discourse where the speaker highlights the weakness of the argument that has previously been established (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). It might seem counterproductive, but it is important for the reason for two reasons (Safitri, 2014). First, it offers the orator a chance to give his preemptive answer toward opposing argument within the audiences’ mind so that it prevents any assumptions to grow on their head. Secondly, it can arouse the rhetor’s ethos and make the speech more effective in that showing weakness of the arguments give the impression that he is well-balanced, fair-minded and realistic and, as a consequence, he easily gains the audience’s trust and sympathy. In simple terms, the rhetor should anticipate the counter



arguments that might damage his *ethos* or his case if the audience accepts them, but these should be fewer in number than his arguments and be dealt with more briefly.

According to Corbett (1965), the rhetor can refute by means of rational, emotional or ethical appealing. To refute by appeal to reason, the rhetor has two general ways either by proving the contradictory of a proposition or demolishing the arguments by which the proposition is supported. In fact, rhetors are faced with the challenge of refuting *contrary* propositions more than the convenience of contradictorily opposed arguments. In such case, they must eliminate the arguments supporting the contrary assertion. They can do this logically by making use of evidence and testimony to deny the truth of one of the premises of to reject the inference drawn from the premises as to say: "I admit the idea, but I deny that it leads to such a consequence." Sometimes, the rhetor has to deal with probabilities, which cannot be demolished by means of strict logic. In that situation, he must exploit enthymemes and examples which, at least, do have persuasive value, if they do not refute the opposition conclusively. In spite of these ways, Corbett (*ibid*) acknowledges that proving a contradictory proposition is regarded the most forceful kind of refutation due to its rational nature in that the truth of one of a pair of contradictory propositions automatically proves that the other proposition is false. Additionally, the rhetor can refute by means of emotional appealing, but he should first measure the nature of his audience, whether homogeneeneous or heterogeneeneous, because an inappropriate use emotional appeal could render refutation ineffectual and reduce confidence in the previously established proof. He also gives the rhetors an advice when they address a large heterogeneous audience to estimate which emotional appeals are likely to succeed with the major portion of the audience. The rhetor can also make refutation through ethical appeal which must pervade all parts of the discourse, and which is important for effective oration as Aristotle said "it is more fitting for a good man to

display himself as an honest fellow than as a subtle reasoner” (*Rhetoric*, III, 17). In point of fact, if the rhetor’s arguments are weak, he can carry on his oration by using ethical appeal exerted either by his image or by the tone of his oration.

### **2.3.3.6. Conclusion**

Conclusion, referring to the Greek term “*epilogos*” and the Latin terms “*peroratio*” and “*recapitulatio*”, is the last section where the rhetor ends his rhetorical discourse (Corbett, 1965). Peroratio aims to sum up or recapitulate the arguments as forcefully and as remarkable as possible. Aristotle, Cicero and Quintilian suggest that conclusion has four things to do (Corbett, 1965; Crowley and Hawhee, 2004; Burke, 2016). First, they teach that in the conclusion the rhetor ought to implicitly or explicitly restate or enumerate the facts and arguments in summary way, and the summary should be brief, clear and proportionate in order to not damage the effectiveness of the oration. Peroration can come in different forms. In *De Inventio*<sup>15</sup>, Cicero puts forward a number of figures of summary:

- *Accumulatio*: blending together summary and climax or, simply, bringing together various points made throughout discourse and presenting them again in a forceful, climactic way.
- *Anacephalaeosis* (*complexio*): recapitulation of the facts.
- *Epanodos*: he tend to recapitulation the chief terms of arguments, returning to the main theme or providing additional details for items mentioned previously after digression
- *Epiphonema*: using an epigrammatic summary which gathers into a pithy sentence.
- *Symperasma* is a brief summary of the foregoing.

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<sup>15</sup>Translated by H.M. Hubbell. Loeb Classical Library, 1949.

- Synathroesmus: is the collection of many words and expressions either as synonymia(having similar meaning), congeries (having different meaning) or accumulatio (scattered) throughout a discourse.

Second, conclusion has the function to amplify the force of the points he made in the previous section and to diminish the force of the points made by the opposition. Amplification and extenuation are two rhetoric devices that the rhetor can use to describe his points and the opponents' points, correspondingly (Corbett, 1965). Specifically, amplification is the process by which the rhetor accentuates the points he made, its objective, to remind the audience of importance and superiority of his points, but he draws on extenuation to assert that the points made by the opponent are insignificant, weak, or inferior (ibid).

The third function of the conclusion is to inspire through one's character. In other words, it enhances the rhetor's ethos by disposing the audience favorably toward himself (Corbett, 1965; Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). The inclusion of ethical appeals in the peroration generally is to arouse pity or sympathy for the rhetor and his case so that he leaves his audience with a positive impression.

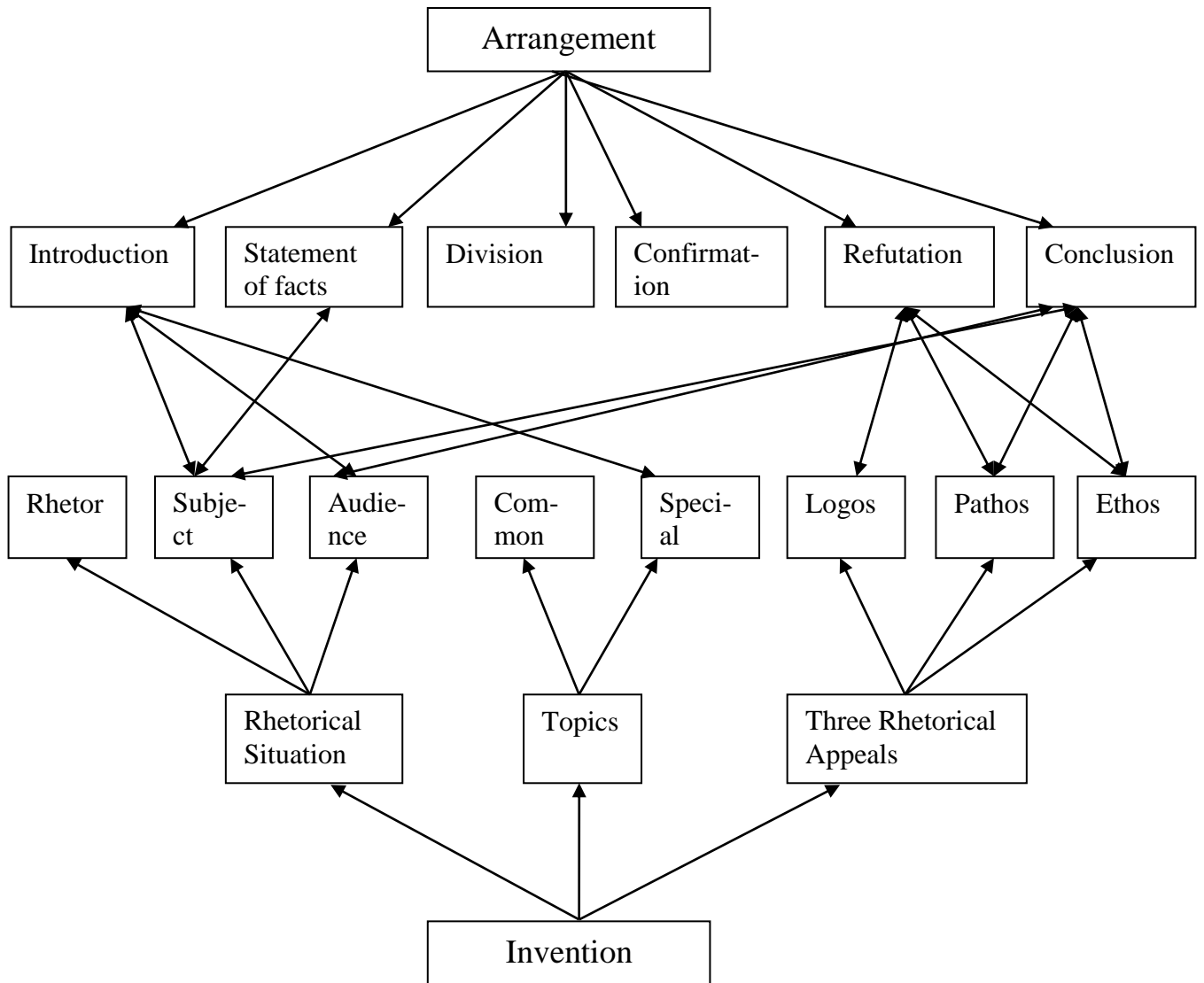
The last thing the conclusion has to do is to arouse appropriate emotions in the audience. Aristotle says that a good speech should be able to lead both logical and emotional of the audience (Safitri, 2014). Similarly, Quintilian utters that the life and the soul of life are found in the power of emotions, and, accordingly, he describes peroration as affect us as it deploys the appropriate emotion in the audience (VI, ii, 7) (cited in Corbett, 1965). Thus, a rhetor should put ethical appeal in his conclusion in order to easily cast his opponents, i.e. those who disagree with his arguments, in a negative light by exciting indignation in an audience. More to the point, it is better for the rhetor to arouse hostility against his opponent in the conclusion rather than in the introduction (ibid). This can be easier just after he

demolishes his arguments. What is more, injecting some emotions in the conclusion can make it memorable (ibid).

In his *On Rhetoric*<sup>16</sup>, Aristotle suggested these myriad ways that maybe done in the conclusion, but peroration must contain at least one of these four things. Since invention and arrangement are interrelated, selecting the appropriate way to end the conclusion is dictated by the rhetorical situation: the type of the subject, the kind of audience and other constituents of rhetorical invention such three appeals and special and common topics. The subsequent figure outlines all of the above-mentioned parts of discourse and the elements of rhetorical invention that should be take into consideration in every part.

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<sup>16</sup>Translated by Thomas Hobbes in 1681



**Figure 3. The Interconnection of Arrangement' and Invention's Parts**

## 2.4. Style

### 2.4.1. Defining style

Style, the English rendering for the Greek term *lexis*, which carried out the notion of “words” or “thought”, and Latin term *eloquutio*, which denotes “speaking out”, is the third section of rhetorical oration (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). Defining the term style is not an easy task because it is a linguistic, a rhetorical, and a philosophical concept(Gage, 1980). Though style has been viewed in a variety of ways working in different areas, “it is possible

to be satisfied with a definition of style on one of these levels” (ibid, p. 615). In this study, style is studied in fields within and related to rhetoric and composition.

#### **2.4.1.1. Style as Form and Meaning**

Style is the bridge between form and meaning (Gunderson, 2010). Cardinal Newman treats style as “thinking out into language” (Corbett, 1965, p. 384). By the same token, Kennedy (2009) considers style a “deliberate process of casting subject into language” (p. 5). That is to say, style is the transcription of thinking into words in written or spoken medium. In ancient rhetoric, style is meant putting thoughts, collected by means of inventional strategies, into words to be spoken out (ibid). Lord Chesterfield sees style as the dress of thoughts (cited in Corbett, 1965). The first impression that one has from the word “dress”, is that style stands for the form of ideas. Additionally, style alters the form of an idea, but not the idea itself (Brian, 2015). Responding to this definition, John Henry Newman expresses that “Thought and speech are inseparable from each other” (cited in Corbett, 1965, p. 385). By thought he means style, and speech refers to matter. Newman’s view stresses the reciprocal relationship that exists between matter and style that is used only for decoration using rhetorical devices, manipulating the length and types of sentences and choice of words. Other scholars argue that style alters not only the form but it alters the meaning because, as Clark (2003) insists, the “expression often helps to form meaning, and . . . the possibilities of expression influence the possibilities of meaning” (p.45). Regardless the fact that style modifies form or meaning of the ideas, there is a general consensus that the impact of style is on audience (Brian, 2015).

#### **2.4.1.2. Style as Eloquence**

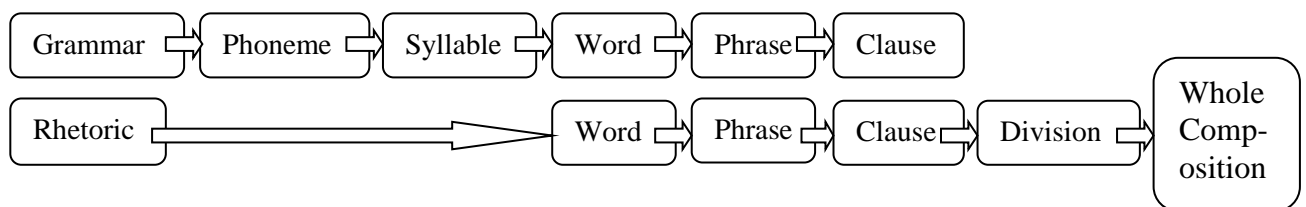
The term “*eloquence*” is understood to be the equivalent of the term style (Albrecht, 2003; Brian, 2015), and for Cicero it is another word for rhetoric (Covino and Jolliffe, 1995). Mastering a range of styles leads an eloquent work. Style as eloquence may imply emotional

value and sensation (Brian, 2015). Cicero and Quintilian perceive eloquence as the chief end of all orations. They define three main styles for different rhetorical situations: plain style is for teaching, middle style is used for pleasing and grand style for moving; the three styles will be discussed in details later. For them, eloquence often stands for the grand style (ibid). On the contrary, Aristotle posits that an eloquent style is the plain style which is the most appropriate for the transparency and the directness of truth. Rhetoricians, who have the view of style as form and meaning, also tend to place a great deal of importance on the term “eloquence” (ibid). Nowadays, eloquence has not given an importance, as it had given before, for it is associated with ornament and literary texts (ibid). This decision might be taken on the basic definition that style is a deviation from the norms. However, eloquent style in academic context does not sound like in literature context, as the rhetor can draw on aspects of style to obtain a balance between the goals of analysis and knowledge production on the one hand, and emotional engagement on the other (ibid).

#### **2.4.1.3. Style as Grammar**

Style and grammar have approximately always been discussed with regard to one another. Though Aristotle was the first Western rhetorician to tackle grammatical correctness systematically, a number of classical rhetoricians did elevate style (ibid). He defined grammar as appropriate words in appropriate place. Actually, grammar is a component of style given that style is not only appropriateness, but also it is correctness. Aristotle believes that proper grammar entails appropriateness which itself facilitates clarity. Cicero and Quintilian also do agree that grammar is a precondition of eloquence. This means that one should have a grammatical competence in order to produce a good oration. On the contrary, “having a ‘good grammar’ does not invariably produce ‘good rhetoric’ ” (Corbett, 1965, p. 386). That is to say, grammar is technically a part of style, but it is not the whole of style.

Rhetoric and grammar seem to be two areas having different objectives; grammar concerns with correctness and rhetoric with effectiveness (ibid). On the one hand, grammar preoccupied with how language works so that it tutors students to know the way to use smaller units to form words, to use words such as conjunctions, verbs, nouns, etc; to make agreement in gender agreement and in number and appropriate syntax. Thus, grammatical aspect of style comprises the reduplication of parts of speech, nominal, adjectival, verbal and adverbial style, use of interjection, demonstrative and vocative, syntactic innovation in number and gender formation, change at sentence order, addition, deletion and rearrangements etc. But constructing discourse requires students to learn larger units: paragraph, division and organization, which are not included in grammar. On the other hand, in rhetoric, the smallest unit is a word. However, they can overlap in the areas of the word, the phrase, and the clause. This can be shown in Figure 14.



**Figure 4. The Overlapping Units between Grammar and Rhetoric** Adapted from “Classical Rhetoric for the Modern Student,” by Edward Corbett, 1965

The interest in grammar as a subordinate element of style revived in the nineteenth century when colleges start teaching it in the service in style (Brian, 2015). These approaches are classified, by Patrick Hartwell, under the general heading “stylistic grammar”. These approaches are based on the terminology of descriptive grammar, or linguistics, to help apprentices promote knowledge of language as a rhetorical tool. In his analysis, Noguchi (1991) proves that grammar choices affect writing style. Accordingly, grammar introduces a



number of the possible *correct* expressions in language from which the best *choice* is selected for it is effective.

#### **2.4.1.4. Style as Means of Persuasion**

Style is viewed more than simply a vehicle for expressing and decorating words or ideas; rather it is employed to achieve a certain effect (Kennedy, 2009). Aristotle considers style as one of the available means of persuasion, by which a rhetor arouses the appropriate emotional response in the audience, and establishes his proper ethical image (Corbett, 1965). Thus, he defines style as the art of forming effective sentences to make wisdom persuasive (Dauterman, 1972) and make an appropriately favourable impression on receivers (Covino and Jolliffe, 1995). Style refers to strategic language choice to embellish an oration to produce an effective discourse be capable to persuade and guide the audience.

In nutshell, we opt for some of the major modes of thought on style in fields of rhetoric and composition, though several other definitions in different domains do exist. In the aforementioned definitions, each theorist or author views style in a slightly different manner highlighting one or more constituent elements.

#### **2.4.2. Style, invention and arrangement: separated or Complementary**

The term style that we know today may have a loan from the work of Aristotle. Since antiquity, there has been a room for dispute among scholars as to the relationship between style, invention and arrangement for style is to ornament only (Gage, 1980). The separation between these three canons seems to be in Isocrates' speech Against the Sophists (section 16), written about 390 B.C (Kennedy, 2009). Then, this separation appeared again in Aristotle's writings. According to Thomas Cole, "sharp isolation of style and arrangement as a subject for independent treatment is probably an Aristotelian innovation" (Brian, 2015, p. 28). This is theorized to be the result of the way he treated language. He handles language as stable, and

he also emphasizes the clarity and plainness of language; therefore, style is a matter of plain (that connotes simple and literal language) speaking rather than ornament (ibid). He proposes sterilizing and reducing style to the simplest possible medium so as to not interfere in philosophical pursuits of truth, ethics, and justice. Another important point, in *On Rhetoric*, Aristotle distinguishes rhetorical language from poetic language; if the former is teachable, the latter is a gift. That is to say, style and invention are two independent parts of rhetoric.

By contrast, the sophists denied Aristotle's opinion on the role of style in rhetoric (Dauterman, 1972). Gorgias maintains that language could never be objective or transparent just as it always carries the particular worldview of a rhetor with it. Brian (2015) vows "the sophists conceived of style as generative rather than ornamental" (p.22). This implies that style concerns inventing ideas and not merely expressing them to an audience. In fact, it is thought that the Sophists such as Gorgias were the first to recognize the inventive potentials of style. Moreover, as they elevated style as a significant rhetorical tool (Crowley and Hawhee, 1965) and they encouraged their students to develop a wide repertoire of rhetorical devices to enhance their persuasiveness with different audiences.

In Roman rhetoric, mainly in the works of Cicero and Quintilian, style becomes an end unto itself, offered a central concern of rhetoric more than mere decoration of words after fact, and, thus, it had given a large portion of the field of rhetoric (Brian, 2015). In *De Oratore*, Cicero denies separating style from content because one cannot exist without the other. Fantham (1988) describes Cicero's notion of style as purposeful rather than decorative. For him, the ideal orator is who treats eloquence as the expression of wisdom in a way that is pleasing and interesting to an audience (Brian, 2015; Dauterman, 1972). As he was Cicero's intellectual heir, Quintilian also agrees with this viewpoint.

Arrangement also was discussed in terms of its relation with invention and style. Arrangement and invention are two complementary parts of the same process (Maccroskey, 1968). This thought is expressed in other words by Kennedy (2009) saying that “rhetoricians found it difficult to separate discussion of arrangement from the discussion of invention and often merged the two into an account of the inventional features of each art of speech” (p. 5). Though it is classified the second part of rhetoric, arrangement is of great importance because arguments can be worthless if they are disorganized even each of the arguments is strong.

Style refers to the unique manner in which the rhetor produces a discourse making the transition between different items gathered through invention and then structured through arrangement to guide his audience. In other words, if invention addresses what is to be said; style addresses how this will be said or delivered (Corbett, 1965). Thus, style is an essential, rather organic (Covino and Jolliffe, 1995), component in rhetoric; it is not only the editing stage or the complement of invention rather it is inventive since these decisions of style become part of the process of discovering and shaping arguments.

### **2.4.3. Levels of style**

Once ideas are invented, they must be thought into language in order to be delivered to the audiences. In fact, rhetoric begins as and remains art of oral communication, classical rhetoricians commonly treated style under two main heads: choice of diction and the structure of sentences (Corbett, 1965; Fahnestock, 2011; Kennedy, 2009). Furthermore, rhetoric has been adapted to written communication which became an important province of rhetoric; rhetoricians consider another level of style which is paragraphing (Fahnestock, 2011).

#### **2.4.3.1. Diction**

Corbett (1965) expresses that a good style is the result of using a rich vocabulary. The term “vocabulary” stands for the word lexicon which is derived from the Greek word “*lexis*”

that refers to the words of language. A number of scholars state that the Greek word “lexis” includes not only single words but also lexical chunks and phrases composing of two or more words, as they convey a particular meaning the way individual words do. For this reason, vocabulary is considered, more than mere words, as a knowledge as Stahl (2005) puts “Vocabulary knowledge is knowledge; the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world” (p. 95). Lexis plays an important role because “lexis is the core or heart of language” (p. 89), Lewis (1993) argues. Lexicon is given great magnitude even at the expense of grammar, which is considered the backbone of every language, as Wilkins (1972) wrote that “while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (p. 111-112) For rhetoricians, a skillful rhetor is who makes wise choices among many words. When selecting words, orators should take into account three criteria: purity, propriety and precision. These three descriptions are the alternative general heading of many other observations made about diction, such as that diction should be “natural”, “vigorous”, “concrete”, “graceful”, “harmonious”, etc.

Purity of diction can be explained as the intelligibility and acceptability of words and lexical chunks chosen by the rhetor to his audience. In George Campbell’s words, purity of diction means “good usage” of words (Corbett, 1965). He suggests three related norms for words to be clear; words must be in reputable use employing modes of speech that are authorized by the majority of celebrated rhetors and the best source of such guidance is a reference work, dictionaries, which can be of real help to him, because they are prepared by people who had a good taste in language to start with and refined their taste with a close study of actual usage; in national use avoiding dialectical words, technical words, coinages, and foreign words; in present use exploiting words and idioms that belong to the audience’s generation so that they can be understood.

Another criterion for choosing words is appropriateness. The term “appropriateness” denotes having two elements one of which would be made appropriate to the second. Appropriate diction means selecting words suitable to the elements of rhetorical situation including subject matter, purpose, the occasion, and the audience. Note that unlike purity of diction which concerns with denotations of words; (i.e. dictionary meanings and verbal symbols), appropriateness of diction considers connotations of words, that is to say the emotional and tonal qualities associated with the words, for they have a great value in rhetorical oration for they arouse and promote emotional appeal of a discourse. In fact, sensitivity to the connotations of words cannot be taught; it must be learned. Thus, he should possess a sense of appropriateness which he can acquire through the experience of living in a society and of education.

Precision is the third criterion that a rhetor should consider when decide on words. The word *precision* is stemmed from the Latin verb “*praecidere*” meaning “to cut off”, and, accordingly, precise diction is a word that signifies neither more nor less than we intend to say. It can be better explained by its opposite, word can be imprecise if does express too little or too much than what is intended to be said. Additionally, a word is imprecise if it communicates one’s idea too generally. Like purity of diction, precision of diction concerns with denotations of words; (i.e. dictionary meanings and verbal symbols).

#### **2.4.3.2. Sentence**

Sentence is considered a larger level of style in both spoken and written oration. Excellent style is reflected in one’s variety of patterns and the length of sentences (Corbett, 1965; Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). A sentence is a syntactical unit wherein a stretch of words are essentially put to say something (Corbett, 1965; Laufer and Nation, 1999). In ancient rhetoric, a sentence was labeled a period derived from the Greek word “*periodos*” that is

meant “a way around” (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). The term “*periodos*” is equivalent to complete, punctuated, sentence starting with a capital letter and ending with full stop, question mark or exclamation mark (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). Rhetoricians and grammarians believe that the general meaning conveyed through the sentence is the result of the *lexical content* (the meaning) of the words and the *grammatical rules* that govern words put together in patterns (Payne, 1969).

In ancient rhetoric, skillful orators are those who have a good command of grammar and vary the sentence patterns they make use. Grammarians put in the hand of rhetors several syntactical patterns from which they select what serves the rhetorical situation. Each sentence pattern consists of a main part and it may involve other branches that are depended on the main one (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). If the main part of a period is meaningful all by itself, the other member is not usually true. Ancient rhetoricians identify two types of dependent clauses: colon and comma (ibid). For Quintilian, a colon (Latin *membrum*, “part”) is an expression that is rhythmically complete but it has no meaning if detached from the rest of the sentence; whereas comma (Latin *articulus*, “part jointed on”) is a word or an expression which lacks rhythmical completeness or a portion of a colon. They do refer to subordinate clauses and phrases, respectively (ibid).

Ancient rhetors made use of colons and commas to produce sentences. In ancient rhetoric, sentences are of two types: loose or periodic (Corbett, 1965; Christensen, 2001; Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). They refer to simple, compound, complex and compound-complex, as they are called in traditional grammar; the ancients did not use this terminology, however. For Fahnestock (2011), the distinction between *periodic* and *loose* sentences “begins with Aristotle, who described types of sentences on the basis of how 'tight' or how 'open' they sounded”. Loose sentence begins with the main clauses followed by the modifiers

(Christensen, 2001). It reduces the amount of syntactical information because its main part comes in the beginning (Turner, 2001). It is used when the orator finds nothing to say about his subject. If a rhetor uses loose sentences, his style might most accurately be called paratactic (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). This kind of style is recommended to be used in informal situations as it is simple and observes the logical word order of a language.

Periodic sentence “describes a long sentence that consists of a number of elements, often *balanced* or *antithetical*, and existing in perfectly clear syntactic relationship to one another” (Lanham, 1991). Periodic sentence has an opposite structure to the previous type; it is based on suspended syntax and its main clause comes in the end preceded by the modifiers (Lanham, 1991; Murphy and Katula, 1995; Turner, 2001) which are called “anticipatory constituents” (Leech and Short, 1981). This latter brings an element of suspense into the syntax of the sentence-structure, and they cannot be interpreted in isolation (*ibid*). They obtain a meaning only by the elucidation of the major constituent (Leech and Short, 1981; Turner, 2001). For this reason, speakers and writers prefer loose sentences for being easier for audience and orators than periodic sentences (Christensen, 2001). The rhetor’s style becomes periodic if he employs periodic sentences. Periodic style is appropriate to the formal occasions, as sentences are carefully constructed and satisfactorily “rounded off”. The difference between loose sentence and periodic sentence is illustrated in these two examples:

1. The truth is *that they have suffered through negligence*. (Loose Sentence)

Major Constituent *Anticipatory Constituent*

2. *That they have suffered through negligence* is the truth. (Periodic Sentence)

*Anticipatory Constituent*

Major Constituent

In addition to the structure, the *length* of the sentence has a rhetorical function too, and it can lead to some valid generalizations about a man's style (Corbett, 1965). It is mentioned that

traditional rhetors experience some remarkable variations in sentence-length, while modern rhetors' style is characterized by short sentences. Notwithstanding, the length of sentences is determined by the rhetorical situation, precisely the kind of audience.

It is advantageous for rhetors to possess a grammatical competence and to have a good command of different sentence patterns in terms of structure, function, length and many other aspects, but a rhetor should also have a rhetorical competence; the ability to make a choice from the available possibilities as appropriate and suitable to the rhetorical situation (ibid). On the other hand, whatever changes he makes for rhetorical effect must be conventional with the existing options of the language (ibid).

#### **2.4.3.3. Paragraphing**

Paragraphing is another level of style; it stands for the typographical devices that are applicable only to the written oration particularly unit of thought larger than thought conveyed by a single sentence (Corbett, 1965). Paragraphing includes capitalization, punctuation, indentation, italics, hyphenation, quotations and many other devices (ibid). If capitalization and punctuation show the beginning and the ending of smaller units- sentences, indentation is a sign of the opening of the larger unit- paragraph; italics presents the important information, etc. The purpose of paragraphing is a way of making visible to the reader the stages in the writer's thinking. It is beneficial in the production of an efficient and organized discourse and in the readability of text by giving the reader a rest and enables him to correctly understand the meaning. The best way to stress the importance of typographical devices is expose the reader to a passage with no typographical device. Paragraphing is determined by the rhetorical situation as Blakesley and Hoogeveen (2008) utter:

“In short, the rhetorical situation should always guide your use of paragraphing. When you understand paragraph conventions,



your audience and purpose, your rhetorical situation, and your writing's subject matter, you will be in the best position to decide how to use paragraphs strategically and effectively to teach, delight, or persuade with your writing”.

#### **2.4.4. Features of Good Style**

Style is defined as the art of framing effective oration. To measure whether oration is effective or less effective, ancient rhetoricians proposed several qualities ought to be included in a list of stylistic excellences. The disciple of Aristotle, Theophrastus (with his colleague Demetrius in other references) organized on the concept of the four virtues “*aretai*” of good quality style, which are described later as the norms of style (Kennedy, 2009). For him, a good style is supposed to manifest correctness, clearness, appropriateness, and ornament (Brian, 2015; Crowley and Hawhee, 2004; Dauterman, 1972). It is said that Theophrastus’ work on the virtues of style was lost. The Romans, particularly Cicero and Quintilian, inherited and expanded his work adding their own spin. They taught the virtues to their students.

##### **2.4.4.1. Correctness**

Correctness, stands for “*hellenismos*” in Greek and “*latinitas*” in Latin, is when the style conforms to the grammatical and syntactic rules and norms of one’s language. For Aristotle, the employment of good grammar results in not only correctness but also clarity so that it makes the discourse clear and understandable. Additionally, as Aristotle defines grammar “the appropriate words to the appropriate places”, correctness prevents ambiguity and confusion resulted from inappropriate use of language. Thus, it is important to obtain the effective means of communication. In ancient rhetoric, correctness, and sometimes clarity-a virtue of style- as well, was taught by grammarians and students of literature in elementary

school teachers. The conventions or correctness are largely resulted from the usage of good schooling, and, therefore, correctness can so indicate that the rhetor is well-educated person understands the nuances of language, and pays attention to details, and he has a good *ethos*.

#### **2.4.4.2. Clarity**

Clarity is the English word for the Greek “*sapheneia*”, which is sometimes translated "lucidity" derived from Latin term “*lucere*”. Clarity means presenting the meaning in clearly way through language; it is closely related to correctness. As we have seen before, for ancient rhetoricians particularly, Gorgias, language is capable to transfer meaning clearly, if it is simple, intelligible and understandable by the side of audiences to not lose the track of the idea. Clarity may perhaps be understood in terms of its opposite: clarity implies a lack of ambiguity (*ambiguitas, amphibologia*) and the absence of obscurity (*obscuritas*). In this concern, Quintilian describes various aspects that can reduce clarity and bring about ambiguity and obscurity. The rhetor should not use obsolete words that are no longer in popular use, technical language (jargon) which is made use by specialists in a profession or discipline, new words (neologism) as they are unfamiliar to the audience and colloquial words for they are culturally based. Clarity is meant the extent to which one’s discourse is clear and appeals to the understanding of the audience. To achieve this objective, he also advises rhetors to implement rhetorical strategies and figures that render oration more orderly and clearly. For instance, the rhetor can utilize repetition to remind and/or keep the ideas in addresses’ mind. Besides, rhetors who are obliged to not be clear are able to resort some circumlocution, in Greek “*periphrasis*” means “speaking around”, a more roundabout means of reference. In short, clarity can be achieved by clear and familiar diction and straightforward arrangement of words and ideas.

#### 2.4.4.3. Appropriateness

Appropriateness is probably stemmed from the Greek rhetorical notion “*to prepon*” and Latin word “*decorum*”, meaning the propriety and the fitness of the message to a given audience in a given situation. It is also assumed that appropriateness is descended from Gorgias’s notion of *kairos* which connotes the right moment to speak and the moment when listeners are ready to hear. In Cicero’s words, propriety is “what is fitting and agreeable to an occasion or person; it is important often in actions as well as in words, in the expression of the face, in gesture and in gait” (xxii, 74). Furthermore, he sustains that this feature of style is the most important for effective rhetoric when he wrote that “the universal rule, in oratory as in life, is to consider propriety” (*Orator* xxi 71). The interest of appropriateness did not start by the time of Cicero, rather it is returned even to Plato, who was unconvinced by the value of rhetoric who stresses the significance of using an appropriate style. In his “*Phaedrus*”, he wrote:

A knowledge of the times for speaking and for keeping silence, and has also distinguished the favorable occasions (*kairos*) for brief speech or pitiful speech or intensity and all the classes of speech which he has learned, then, and not till then, will his art be fully and completely finished. (p. 272-273)

For him, considering *kairos* can be of assistance for rhetor to make decisions about an appropriate style. As style is proper to the rhetorical situation, it differs from one situation to another. In other words, rhetorical situation’s standards, which have been laid down by their culture, dictate the appropriateness. For this reason, ancient rhetors suggested three levels of styles: plain style, the middle style, and the grand style; they are previously mentioned. Though style is invented by the Greeks when comparing and contrasting three works Nestor,

Menelaus, and Odysseus, Cicero is considered the first rhetorician to expand the Greeks' system of style, in *De Oratore* (3.177). This system also further appeared and developed by Quintilian who fully shaped this system (Brian, 2015).

First, plain style is for teaching so that the rhetor should employ clear and precise language, in the way prescribed by Aristotle (Brian, 2015; Burke, 2016). Modern rhetoricians see the plain style the most appropriate style for academic writing for it is direct and transparent (Brian, 2015). Second, middle style is used for pleasing, but it is also appropriate for instructing and persuading (Burke, 2016). It permits using a recognizable discourse with some degree of ornamentation in order to emphasize points for an audience (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). The last level of style is the grand, also labeled high, style. The grand style is devoted to serious subjects, for moving, so it should be used properly otherwise it could make the oration overwrought or contrived (Brian, 2015). Unlike plain style and middle style, the grand version can only be sustained for a short period (*ibid*). This level of style authorizes utilizing all rhetorical devices to amplify discourse (Brian, 2015; Burke, 2016; Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). Each of these styles fits certain context. If grand style is certainly suitable for ceremonial functions like weddings, funerals, and inaugurations, plain style is appropriate when clarity is the main goal dictated by the occasion, whereas the middle style is appropriate for almost any discourse that will be published. However, rhetor should select the level of style that is appropriate to his *ethos*, his subject matter, his audience, and the occasion.

#### **2.4.4.4. Ornament**

Ornament is a process of stylizing an oration using decorative devices and figures. In ancient rhetoric, this process is described by terms, in Latin, "*amplificatio*" and, in Greek, "*auxesis*" under which rhetoricians discussed uses of language that were unusual or extraordinary. For ancient rhetoricians, in particular classical and renaissance, ornamentation

was not at all superficial. In other words, as the word “*ornare*” denotes to equip, fit out and supply, ornamentation means the equipment of one’s thought with verbal expression appropriate for accomplishing his intention. Additionally, studying and using rhetorical devices can enlarge rhetor’s linguistic repertoire and, as a result, having them at hand whenever their use is appropriate to occasion, subject, audience, and *ethos*. Furthermore, a careful deployment of ornament can bring and aid clarity and, consequently, enhances persuasion as it increases audiences’ attention, readiness and pleasure to believe what they are exposed to.

As a matter of fact, ancient rhetoricians, Greeks and Romans, catalogued a list of ornamenting devices. Since their introduction, the number, names, and groupings of these ornaments have been the most variable aspect of rhetoric; they have been organized in a variety of different ways by Cicero in *Ad Herennium*, Quintilian, Abraham Fraunce (1588), E. W Bullinger (1898), Lee A. Sonnino(1968), Richard Lanham(1991)in order to make sense of them and to learn their various qualities. Ancient rhetoricians labeled these devices figures “*figurae*”, and they specified two types: figures of thought and figures of speech, although the demarcation between them is not always clear (Burke, 2016).

The Roman rhetoricians clarify them. In the *Ad Herennium*, Cicero distinguishes two independent sorts of ornaments: a figure, which is divided into two sub-categories: figures of diction (Latin *figurae verborum*), figures of thought (*figurae sententiarum*), and tropes “*tropi*”(Crowley and Hawhee, 2004). For him, “it is a figure of diction if the adornment is comprised in the fine polish of the language itself. A figure of thought derives a certain distinction from the idea, not from the words” (Cicero, 1954, 275 cited in Fahnestock, 1999), whereas tropes transfer or twist a word from its original meaning (Fahnestock, 1999).The *Ad*

Herennium is considered the most important and influential rhetorical manual, and it became a reference for many successors, chiefly Quintilian, from antiquity through the seventeenth century for it is the earlier record of the ornamenting system (Conley 1990, p.33; Vickers 1988, p. 216). Later, though he keeps the same categories in the *Ad Herennium*, Quintilian makes some additions in Books VIII and IX of his *Institutio Oratoria* (Fahnestock, 1999). He places a clear distinction between tropes and figures focusing mainly on figures to deal with inherited confusion. Moreover, he rearranges the categories of figures making an important change in the hierarchical relationship (*ibid*).

Due to the ancient scholars' endlessly arguing over the definitions and distinctions among these three sorts of ornament, confusion has grown when ancient rhetoric has matured (*ibid*). In spite of this, a number of modern scholars try to shed light on figures in order to decipher this mystification. Corbett (1965) and Crowley and Hawhee (2004) use the word "*figure*" as a generic term referring to any artful deviation as to form or meaning. Then, they divide figures into two classes: schemes and tropes, in Greek "*schema*" and "*tropein*" respectively. In fact, both divisions contain transference, but they differ in the element be changed. Precisely, schemes imply a departure from the ordinary pattern or arrangement of words and tropes involve a deviation from the ordinary and principal signification of a word. In a different way, schemes are syntactic in function and tropes have a semantic function. Though various kinds of categories of figures are formulated over the history of rhetoric, the two broad categories "schemes and tropes" has remained the simplest and the useful starting point.

Corbett (1965) identifies two divisions of schemes: schemes of words and schemes of constructions. First, schemes of words concern only words; they are formed by either inserting or subtracting a letter or a syllable at the beginning, middle, or end of a word, or by

exchanging sounds. They are also known as orthographical schemes because they comprise changes in the spelling or sound of words. Schemes of words can be mainly implemented in poetry in order to accommodate the rhyme or the rhythm of a line of verse; they rarely occur in prose. Schemes of words are summarized in Table 7.

**Table 6. Schemes of Words** Adapted from “Classical Rhetoric for the Modern Student,” by Edward Corbett, 1965

Schemes of words	Definition
Prosthesis	adding a syllable in front of word-e.g. beloved for loved
Epenthesis	adding a syllable in the middle of word-e.g. visitating for visiting
Proparalepsis	adding a syllable at the end of word-e.g. climature for climate
Aphaeresis	subtracting a syllable from the beginning of word-e.g. 'neath for beneath
Syncope	subtracting a syllable from the middle of word-e.g. prosperous for prosperous
Apocope	subtracting a syllable from the end of word-e.g. even for evening
Metathesis	transposition of letters in a word-e.g. elapse for clasp
Antisthecon	change of sound-e.g. wrang for wrong

Second, schemes of constructions involve an artful departure at sentential level; they are about not the words but the order of words in a stretch of language. They are categorized into schemes of balance, schemes of inversion, schemes of omission and schemes of repetition. First, schemes of balance are parallelism and antithesis. Second, schemes of inversion involve anastrophe, parenthesis and apposition. Third, schemes of omission are ellipsis and asyndeton. Last but not least, schemes of repetition are based on the repetition of consonant or vowel sounds (alliteration and assonance), words, phrases or clauses (anaphora,

epistrophe, epanalepes is anadiplosis climax, antimetabole and polyptoton). These different types of schemes are defined and exemplified in Table 8.

**Table 7. Schemes of construction** Adapted from “Classical Rhetoric for the Modern Student,” by Edward Corbett, 1965

Category	Schemes	Definition	Example
Balance	Parallelism	Parallelism can be described as similarity in terms of grammar and length of structure in a pair or series of related words, phrases, or clauses. This schemes can be isocolon (a series of structures) or tricolon (three structures) if the elements are in parallel in structure and length including the number of words and syllables.	He tried to make the law equitable, precise, and comprehensive. To contain the enemy forces, to reinforce his own depleted resources, to inspire the sagging morale of his troops, and to re-assess the general strategy of the campaign-these were his objectives when he took command.
	Antithesis	antithesis is the juxtaposition of contrasting ideas, often in parallel structure	Many things difficult to design prove easy to perform.
Inversion	Anastrophe	Anastrophe is the inversion of the natural or usual word order to secure emphasis and gain attention	With folly no man is willing to confess himself very intimately acquainted.-Dr. Johnson
	Parenthesis	Parenthesis signifies the inclusion of some verbal unit in a position that interrupts the normal syntactical flow of the sentence	He tried—who could do more?—to restrain the fury of the mob. The extraordinary number of bills passed during that session (312 of them) did not speak well of the Congressmen's capacity for deliberation.
	Apposition	Opposition is placing side by side two coordinate elements, the second of which explains or modifies the first	John Morgan, the president of the Sons of the Republic, could not be reached by phone.
Omission	Ellipsis	ellipsis which is a deliberate	And he to England shall along



		omission of words that can be understood by the reader from context and grammar	with <i>you</i> .- <i>Hamlet</i> , III, iii, 4
	Asyndeton	<i>Asyndeton</i> (1) is also one among schemes of omission; it denotes a deliberate omission of conjunctions between parallel or related clauses. Its opposite scheme is <i>polysyndeton</i> (2) that designates a deliberate use of many conjunctions.	(1) They may have it in well-doing, they may have it in learning, they may have it even in criticism.-Matthew Arnold. (2) This semester I am taking English and history and biology and mathematics and sociology and physical education.
Repetition	Alliteration	It is the repetition of initial or medial consonants in two or more adjacent words.	The moan of doves in immemorial elms And murmuring of innumerable bees,-Tennyson, <i>The Princess</i>
	Assonance	it repeats similar vowel sounds, preceded and followed by different consonants, in the stressed syllables of adjacent words.	An old, mad, blind, despised, and dying king- Princes, the dregs of their dull race, who flow Through public scorn-mud from a muddy spring- -Shelley, « Sonnet: England in 1819 »
	Anaphora	Repetition of the same word or group of words at the beginnings of successive clauses.	We shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing- grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the streets, we shall fight in the hills.- Winston Churchill
	Epistrophe	Epistrophe is the repetition of the same word or group of words at the ends of successive clauses.	After a war that everyone was proud of, we concluded a peace that nobody was proud of.-Walter Bagehot
	Epanalepsis	Epanalepsis is the repetition at the end of a clause of the word that occurred at the beginning of the clause.	Blood hath bought blood, and blows have answer'd blows: Strength match'd with strength, and power confronted power.

			-Shakespeare, <i>King John</i> , II, i, 329-30
	Anadiplosis	Anadiplosis is the repetition of the last word of one clause at the beginning of the following clause.	Labor and care are rewarded with success, success produces confidence, confidence relaxes industry, and negligence ruins the reputation which diligence had raised.-Dr. Johnson, <i>Rambler</i> No. 21
	Climax	Climax is the arrangement of words or clauses in an order of increasing importance.	Let a man acknowledge obligations to his family, his country, and his God.
	Antimetabole	Antimetabole is the repetition of words, in successive clauses, in reverse grammatical order.	Mankind must put an end to war-or war will put an end to mankind.- John F. Kennedy, United Nations Speech, 1961
	Polyptoton	Polyptoton is the repetition of words derived from the same root.	Not as a call to <i>battle</i> , though <i>embattled</i> we are.-John F. Kennedy, Inaugural Address

Tropes are an artful deviation from the ordinary or principal signification of a word. In the *Rhetorica Ad Herennium*, Cicero listed ten tropes, but the list has been changed throughout the history as some figures are included and others are excluded and classified as schemes (Fahnestock, 1999). In *Classical Rhetoric for the Modern Student*, while Corbett (1965) mentions fourteen tropes. Later, this list of tropes had been revised and rectified to include thirteen tropes (Corbett and Connor, 1999). These tropes are summarized and joined with illustrations in Table 9.

**Table 8. List of Tropes** Adapted from “Classical Rhetoric for the Modern Student,” by Edward Corbett, 1965

Trope	Definition	Example
Metaphor	Metaphor is an implied comparison between two things of unlike nature.	On the final examination, several students went down in flames.
Simile	Simile is an explicit comparison between two things of unlike nature.	Silence settled down over the audience like a block of granite.
Synechdoche	Synechdoche is a figure of speech where a part stands for the whole (1), a genus for species (2) and a matter from what is made from it (3).	(1)weapon for sword (2)hands for helpers (3)silver for money
Puns	Pun is a generic name for those figures which make a play on words. Puns can be antanaclasis(1) when a word is repeated in two different senses, paronomasia (2) when words are alike in sound but different in meaning or syllepsis(3) in a case a word is understood differently in relation to other words.	(1)Learn a <i>craft</i> so that when you grow older you will not have to earn your living by <i>craft</i> . (2)It was a <i>foul</i> act to steal my <i>fowl</i> . (3)Dost sometimes counsel <i>take-and</i> sometimes <i>tea</i> .- AlexanderPope
Anthimeria	Anthimeria refers to the substitution of one part of speech for another.	“I’ll <i>unhair</i> thy head.”(William Shakespeare, <i>Antony and Celopatra II</i> )
Periphrasis	Periphrasis is also known as anonomasia; it is the substitution of a descriptive word or phrase for a proper name.	When his swagger is exhausted, he drives into erotic poetry or sentimental uxoriousness. And the <i>Tennysonian King Arthur</i> posing at <i>Guinevere</i> becomes <i>Don Quixote</i> grovelling before <i>Dulcinea</i> .G.B. Shaw
Personification	Personification means investing human qualities in abstractions or inanimate objects.	The very stones cry out for revenge.
Hyperbole	Hyperbole signifies to the use of exaggerated terms for emphasis or heightened effect.	It's really ironical ... I have gray hair. I really do. The one side of my head-the right side-is full of millions of gray hairs.- HoldenCaulfield in <i>Catcher in the Rye</i>

Litotes	Litotes is the deliberating use of understatement, not to deceive someone but to enhance the impressiveness of what we say.	Last week I saw a woman flayed, and you will hardly believe how much it altered her appearance for the worse.- Jonathan Swift, <i>A Tale of a Tub</i>
Rhetorical Question	Rhetorical Question, also known as erotema, denotes asking a question not for an answer but for the purpose of asserting or denying something indirectly.	Wasn't the cult of James a revealing symbol and symbol of an age and society which wanted to dwell like him in some false world of false art and false culture?-Maxwell Geismar, <i>Henry James and His Cult</i>
Irony	Irony implies the use of a word to convey a meaning opposite to the literal meaning of the word.	For Brutus is an <i>honourable</i> man; So are they all, all <i>honourable</i> men.-Shakespeare, <i>Julius Caesar</i> , III, ii, 88-9
Onomatopoeia	Onomatopoeia connotes the use of words whose sound echoes the sense.	Tis not enough no harshness gives offense, The sound must seem an echo to the sense: Soft is the strain when Zephyr gently blows, And the smooth stream in smoother numbers flows; But when loud surges lash the sounding shore, The hoarse, rough verse should like the torrent roar: -Pope, <i>Essay on Criticism</i> , II, 364-73
Oxymoron	Oxymoron: Juxtaposing two ordinarily contradictory terms.	<i>sweet pain, cheerful pessimist, conspicuous by his absence, cruel kindness,</i>

These two types of figures are applicable not only to art subjects, for example literature, but also to science. The shift that rhetoric made from oral to include even written communication leads scholars to turn their eyes to examine the rhetoric of scientific truth claims in different disciplines: sociology, psychology, mathematic, etc (Bazerman et al,

2005). The starting of this field was declared by the appearance of two books with nearly identical titles: Laurence J. Prelli's *A Rhetoric of Science* (1989) and Alan G. Gross's *The Rhetoric of Science* (1990). In his *Rhetoric of Science*, Gross (1990) proves that science is a rhetorical endeavor; whereas, Prelli (1989) experiences rhetoric within scientific texts and he examines a number of scientific texts in terms of the role of rhetorical invention, the rhetorical concept of stasis (or the joining point of arguments), and topoi (or lines of argument). Subsequently, Fahnestock (1999) researches the role of rhetorical figures in scientific texts, such as antithesis, incremental series, and repetition, which serve as forms of thought as well as expression.

#### **2.4.5. Rhetorical Canons in Writing Class**

Though classical rhetoric was concerned primarily with oral communication, it has presently become interested in written communication (Clark, 2003). Particularly, since rhetoric is the art of communication, and writing is also a means of exchanging ideas, the scope of rhetoric has been broadened to include not only speaking but also writing effectively and persuasively. A number of works such as Clark (2003), Corbett (1971), Crowley and Hawhee (2004), Kinneavy (1971) and Lynn (2010) have endeavored studying the connection and the relevance of rhetorical theory to writing creating an association between these two subjects, which paved the way for the emergence of a new disciplinary field which is called Composition and Rhetoric; it is also known composition studies, rhetoric and composition and new rhetoric.

Rhetoric and Composition is a positive discipline that tends to bring up elements of classical rhetoric to writing to enable communicators to construct their argument and clearly and efficiently share their ideas. Subsequently, due to the growing interest of rhetoric and its significant contribution to composition studies which has earned greater esteem as an

academic discipline, writing pedagogy has witnessed a radical transformation over thirty years (Lynn, 2010). As a consequence, rhetoric is considerably appreciated in the context of teaching writing, and it has developed into a cornerstone of writing courses and curricula and a dynamic field for scholarly research in writing (Clark, 2003). For this reason, rhetorical canons constitute a positive approach that is suggested for anyone who is serious about practicing writing (ibid). In this sense, Young, Becker, and Pike (1970) praise the fusion of rhetoric with the activity of the writer because they consider “mastering rhetoric means not only mastering a theory of how and why one communicates, but mastering the process of communication as well” (p. 9). In the same way, Corbett points out that rhetoric:

Represents a positive approach to the problems of writing. Students have too often been inhibited in their writing by the negative approach to composition—don’t do this, beware of that . . . it can provide the student with a set of procedures and criteria that can guide him in making strategic decisions in the composition process. (1971, 42-43)

One of the main elements of rhetorical theory is the five canons: invention, arrangement, style, memory and delivery. “In the classical education, students studied the five parts, or canons, of rhetoric--invention, arrangement, style, memory, and delivery” (Nelson, 2011) because classical rhetoricians were aware of how much thought and preparation go into during the fabrication of a seemingly effortless speech, they originally envisioned these five canons as “the five logical steps in the process of producing a persuasive discourse” (Burke, 2014, p. 21). By the five canons, rhetors became able to invent ideas, organize them and to express themselves correctly and effectively (Clark, 2003). As to the contemporary application of the rhetorical canons, “English language arts educators tend to focus on three of

the five--invention, arrangement, style--often using the term *prewriting* for invention and *organization* for arrangement” (Nelson, 2011) which they have been revisited rhetorical canons and adapt them in composition classroom to illuminate writing pedagogy proffering teachers with a consistent approach to facilitate teaching practices of writing and to enhance EFL students’ writing performance (Clark, 2003; Corbett, 1971; Crowley and Hawhee, 2004; Kinneavy, 1971; Kessler, 2005; Lynn, 2010).

Invention has been central to rhetorical theory and practice (Lauer, 2004). It refers to the strategic act of generating and constructing ideas (ibid). It is the rhetorical part that deals with the most visible parts of a rhetorical performance for it addresses the content of communication (ibid). Besides, it concerns with the process of creation, as the most often invisible, by which a writer produced the content of their communication (ibid). It is described as the pre-writing stage (Clark, 2003) which is viewed, by Rohman and Wlecke (1964), as the “initial and crucial stage of the writing process”. For other scholars, the acts of invention often occur intensely in the early phases of writing but can continue throughout the composing process (Lauer, 2004). Invention and writing are interrelated because writing is defined as inventional (Emig, 1977; Murray, 1985) and invention is viewed as pre-writing stage (Clark, 2003). This rhetorical department has both theoretical and practical importance for writing theory and the learning and the teaching of writing.

In writing class, students often encounter problems with finding subjects, generating ideas on these subjects and developing effective invention strategies (Lauer, 2004). Murray (1985) also assumes that students find difficulties in the prewriting stage as to selecting topic, to deciding which information they want to include and determining how to organize the information. In order to help students think for themselves and enrich their writing with a variety of ideas, it is very advantageous to introduce them to rhetorical invention for it can

offer them a guidance that consists of all the necessary elements of pre-writing stage. Explicitly, it provides students with directions to exploring subject they are going to be writing about, different strategies to actively explore rational and appropriate ideas and arguments, instructions about the initiation of writing so that to know how to begin their essays and to frame insights, and opportunity to examine the writing situation which can influence the suitability of ideas to the audience.

Arrangement has also been given a great importance in rhetorical theory for it assists the rhetors in selecting, organizing and ordering their written communication on large scale (Burke, 1950; Lynn, 2010); Burke (1950) summarized the classical position on arrangement as “rhetorical form in the large”. In composition studies, arrangement primarily was not given the same attention payed to invention and style (Hunley, 2007). Later, compositionists have constantly addressed arrangement and its teaching in writing class at length because they become certain that there is no composition without arrangement for this latter is complementary to both content and style (Lynn, 2010), and it is related to the purpose, the genre, the mode of discourse and rhetorical situation in general (Crowley and Hawhee, Hunley, 2007). In this concern, in his book *Teaching Expository Writing*, Irscher (1979) succinctly articulates the effects of teaching of structure; he declares that “the job of teaching structure is ... to help students realize how they can perceive and create the patterns of their own thoughts” (p.105, cited in Lynn, 2010, p.131). On the basis of this premise, rhetorical arrangement is advantageous for students’ success in creating effective texts.

Arrangement is intimately linked to the type or the genre of the text (Burke, 1953) of which each type specifies certain writing conventions that writers are expected to respect (Lynn, 2010). For this reason, students need to learn conventions and organizational strategies of writing each genre. The explicit teaching of rhetorical arrangement helps students



understand types of genre and each genre's structural properties. Moreover, it also provides students with essential organizational skills that will transform their scattered notes into a coherent whole by proper understanding of the type of text being fashioned, and, then, assembling the correct and required parts, which reflect the purpose of writing, and sequencing them in the correct order to show the beginning, the middle, and the end of their writing drafts to be clearly experienced by the audience (Dauterman, 1972; Lynn, 2010).

Style refers to the act of ornamenting a discourse, at three levels: vocabulary, sentence structure and paragraphing. This department of rhetoric has a significant role in rhetoric because its function traditionally has been to present ideas with beauty, force, and clarity (Dauterman, 1972) to make discourse readable and memorable (Hunley, 2007). Style had been primarily neglected in modern composition studies, and the other classical canons, like invention and arrangement, have certainly not languished in style's absence (Butler, 2008). In her pioneering work, "Style: The Hidden Agenda in Composition Classes or One Reader's Confession," Ronald (2006) admits that although she feels she does not actually teach style, she has been "still rewarding and punishing [her] students for their writing styles. such claim have brought about the publication of a number of collections insisting on the revitalization of the style canon, discussing the concerns of style and its implications for the teaching of writing and the necessity of its urgent incorporated in the current writing pedagogy as it provides writers with style's potential benefits, an salient feature in excellent written production (Daiker, Kerek, and Morenberg,1979; Lanham, 1974; Love and Payne, 1969; Milic, 1995; Steinmann, 1967; Winterowd, 1975; Young, Becker, and Pike, 1970). To illustrate, Hunley (2007) asserts that style gives writing its power as he describes "writing that lacks style, like a sword that hasn't been sharpened, is dull, dull, dull."Moreover, Butler suggests "that the availability of a reservoir of stylistic features would offer valuable help to

writers, teachers, and students at all stages of the writing process” (p. 18). Francis Christensen lectured that “no one can teach composition, or evaluate the compositions of the students he teaches, without acting upon some assumptions about style” (cited in Kreuter, 2009).

For Corbett (1971), teaching style to students makes their choice of words and sentence structure usually under such heads as correctness, purity, simplicity, clearness, appropriateness, ornateness. Likewise, Dauterman (1972) views that implementation of style in writing curricula is centered on the significant hallmarks, such as clarity, simplicity, appropriateness and correctness, which enhance students’ rational arguments and thereby produce a wisdom essay. In his appealing book, *An Alternate Style*, Weathers (1980) dealt with the advantages of teaching students style. For him, style gives students “options in all areas of vocabulary, usage, sentence forms, dictional levels, paragraph types, and ways of organizing material into whole compositions” (p.5, cited in Lynn, 2010). By using the different options of style, the writer can influentially position or even manipulate their readers (Ronald, 2006). Style is connected to the purpose and the context of writing. In particular, in his famous essay in 1965, “Theories of Style and Their Implications for the Teaching of Composition,” the linguist Louis Milic enunciates that style is beneficial for students to learn how to adorn pre-existing ideas appropriately for a particular audience in a given time and place.

The idea of incorporating the rhetorical canons in writing pedagogy comes to facilitate EFL teachers’ practices of writing. For effective writing in EFL/ ESL classroom, teachers used to employ three approaches: product, process and genre when teaching writing. Product approach is based on the idea that learning to write involves understanding and appropriate usage of vocabulary, syntax, and cohesive device (cited in Badger and White, 2000: 153-154). Its main goal is to reach the writing accuracy. Process approach means undergoing a piece of

writing through a number of stages: planning, drafting, editing to reach the final draft loaded of ideas, meanings and language forms (Harmer, 2004; Kim, 2006; Raimes, 1983; White & Arndt, 1991). Based on the basic premise that writing is a contextualized activity, genre approach comes to help instructors to stimulate students produce real communicative functions when writing, and to write in different situations for various purposes and audiences. However, EFL teachers often limit themselves to use one rigid approach among product, process, Genre approaches, but it probably make the task of teaching writing such difficult and deficient that unable to involve all requirements of writing (Raimes, 1983). To solve this problem, rhetorical canons have been revisited to assist teachers in writing class. In this concern, Phillips (1991) declares that the five departments of rhetoric “represent a legitimate taxonomy of processes. Instructors can situate their pedagogical strategies in each of the Canons”. Rhetorical canons can also aid teachers to understand writing not only as product and process but also as a genre for the reason that, according to Covino (2001), the purpose of rhetorical pedagogy is “encouraging writing that is not restricted to self-expression . . . or the formulaic obedience to rules, but instead keeps in view the skills and contingencies that attend a variety of situations and circumstances” (p.37). Similarly, Kessler (2005) uses the term post-process composition referring to rhetorical pedagogy which she explains as the writers’ means for discovery and meaning making while requiring the writing conventions appropriate for a particular audience and purpose.

## **Conclusion**

The emphasis in this chapter was on defining rhetoric and discussing in details the selected three canons. Rhetoric is the art of spoken and written communication in different disciplines; it has five departments among which three are selected in this study. It is worthwhile to point out that rhetorical invention is the starting step for all rhetors. It enables

rhetors to examine the elements of the rhetorical situation for further considerations concerning discovering proofs and deciding on aids for inventing arguments. Then, the different sections that constitute every oration are charted, and they are presented in logical order. Furthermore, it tackles style canon at diction, sentence and paragraphing levels to fabricate correct, clear, appropriate and ornamental oration. In order to produce a well-organized, an efficient, an appealing ornamentation, rhetor should be acquainted with knowledge of arrangement and style. In fact, the three canons are relevant to rhetorical situation which determines the kind of arguments, aids for inventing arguments, the way of arranging arguments and ornamenting an oration. Though the rhetorical canons were designed to enhance rhetor's public speaking, they are adapted in writing and composition as they can instruct students what should and guarantee for them the skills required for successful written communication.

## CHAPTER THREE

### Research Methodology and Design

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## **Introduction**

The aim of the present study is to examine the impact of teaching rhetorical canons, particularly invention, arrangement and style, on the EFL students' writing performance. To attain this objective, the previous two chapters briefly review the research literature providing the study with the main theoretical lines relevant to the issue under examination. The current chapter is devoted to the research design and methodology employed in this work. In the beginning, it gives an overall account of the research design adopted in this study. Then, it presents in details the research instruments and the purpose for which they are exploited for the collection of data. It also provides a general description of the sampling strategy and background information of the two participant categories. Besides, it includes the procedures used to analyze the data collected by both research instruments from both types of participant.

### **3.1. Research Design**

This study aims at investigating (a) the teachers' practices of teaching writing and different problems encountering both teachers and students when approaching writing, and then (b) the effect of teaching *rhetorical canons* on EFL students' writing performance. To attain these two aims, the present study consists of two types of research: exploratory and experimental, respectively. Though the former is used to elicit the qualitative data through structured interview, the latter is conducted to extract quantitative data from a test (Dörnyei, 2007); both types of research are complementary.

Exploratory research can be conducted when a new phenomenon or a problem is broad and/or is not clearly defined yet (Yin, 1994). It has the goal of exploring the research questions, understanding what is happening, assessing phenomenon in a new light, clarifying concepts, gathering explanations, gaining new insight, eliminating impractical ideas, but it

does not intend to offer final and conclusive solutions to existing problems (ibid). Additionally, an exploratory research may build up hypotheses, but it does not seek to test them (Darabi, 2007). Since this type of studies usually makes use of a number of samples that may not adequately represent the target population, the findings of exploratory research cannot be generalized to a wider population (ibid). However, it is characterized by its flexibility, adaptability to change and effectiveness in laying the groundwork that will lead to future studies (Aaker et. al. 2007). For exploratory research is also qualitative (ibid), it can be carried out through survey, focus group, case studies and many other qualitative methods (Dörnyei, 2007). In the present study, exploratory side is accomplished through a structured interview, which is considered a qualitative method (Dörnyei, 2007), to obtain in-depth and rich data on the first objective.

As this study examines a causal relationship between *rhetorical canons*, as a cause, and EFL students' writing, as an effect, the present study belongs to classroom research with an experiment which investigates the effect of teaching *rhetorical canons* on EFL students' written production. To illustrate, Smith (1991) claims that the experimental approach is the only method that directly concerns itself with causality (cited in Cohen et al, 2007). Experimental research is of different types. This study adopts a quasi-experimental design for two reasons. First, quasi-experiment is widely used in the empirical studies conducted in educational settings (Cohen et al, 2007). Second, it is the appropriate design for conducting studies in more natural settings (ibid). Quasi-experiment comes in several forms (ibid). In this study, a selection is opted for the pre-experimental designs choosing the one group pretest-post-test design. Specifically, this design helps the researcher to test the intended aspect of the participants in two stages before and after the intervention to extract quantitative data as. The one group pretest-post-test design can be summarized as follows:

As previously stated, this study sets two investigating objectives: (1) to provide a detailed account of the practices of teaching writing focusing on both content and style in the Algerian university context; (2) to investigate whether teaching rhetorical canons can enhance EFL learners' writing performance. Since the research objectives necessitate two types of research and different types of methods for data collection, this study adopts a mixed methods approach. This latter is defined as an approach with an attempt to incorporate both types of data: qualitative and quantitative in one or more stages of the research process (Dörnyei, 2007). According to Dörnyei (ibid), a mixed-methods research can help the investigator: "(a) to achieve a fuller understanding of a target phenomenon and (b) to verify one set of findings against the other" (p. 164). The first objective of this research requires information from EFL teachers concerning their attitudes, beliefs and opinions on teaching practices of writing. To attain this aim, a qualitative tool seems to be more appropriate. The second objective necessitates the collection of textual data from EFL learner in two phases of which the results are to be compared in order to quantify the extent to which their writing performance is enhanced after receiving the intervention input. For this objective, a quantitative tool fits the purpose. The outcome of both first and second objective helps to achieve the third suggested objective of this research.

Based on Creswell's earlier work on mixed-methods research designs, Creswell and Clark (2007) develop four types: triangulation, embedded, explanatory and exploratory associated with variants: timing, weighting, mix and theorizing, which help in shaping the procedures of a mixed methods study. Among the four types of mixed methods research, a selection is opted for triangulation which refers to the use of a multiple methodologies in one research (Denzin, 1978, cited in Flick 2004: 179). This design of mixed methods research



enables the researcher “to obtain different but complementary data on the same topic” (Morse, 1991, p: 122, cited in Creswell, 2006) or as Neuman (2006) said, can assist researchers to explore a viewpoint from multiple perspectives so that to best recognize the research problem. It also allows for confident interpretation of the findings and strengthens the researcher’s conclusion (Litosseliti, 2010), and it is considered as an effective strategy to guarantee research validity (Dörnyei, 2007) though it requires much effort and expertise and it may create confusion if the qualitative and quantitative data do not agree (Creswell, 2006). Denzin (1978) named four differing types of triangulation as a means for validation: triangulation of data, investigator triangulation, triangulation of theories and methodological triangulation. In this study, methodological triangulation design is selected as two different types of research methods are employed to obtain data in the pursuit of aforementioned objectives.

### **3.2. Research Instruments**

Research methods are an essential part of any research project as they determine its success, validity and reliability. In the current study, to answer the research questions and verify the postulated hypotheses, two research instruments are designed: an interview and a test. Both of these data collection methods have dissimilar purposes and are delivered to the two different groups of participants. The first research tool is an interview addressed to EFL university teachers of writing. The second instrument is a writing test delivered to EFL student participants to elicit their written essays which constitute the text corpus for this study. Both methods used for collecting data are explained in details in this section.

#### **3.2.1. Interview**

The interview is the first instrument utilized to collect data for the present study. According to Kvale (1996: 174) an interview is “a conversation, whose purpose is to gather descriptions of the [life-world] of the interviewee”. Similarly, Cohen et al (2007: 29)

articulates that interview is “a valuable method for exploring the construction and negotiation of meanings in a natural setting” based on question using multi-sensory channels: verbal, non-verbal, spoken and heard (ibid). In a similar vein, Dörnyei (2007) defines an interview as an adequate way of collecting qualitative data as it is applicable in various situations covering a variety of topics. According to Mackey and Gass (2005), qualitative research is briefly defined as a research that is based on descriptive data that does not make (regular) use of statistical procedures. In fact, an interview is different from everyday conversation because it is a constructed to serve a specific purpose rather than naturally occurring situation to elicit in-depth information (Cohen et al, 2007), through which a phenomenon could be interpreted in terms of the meanings interviewees bring to it (Schostak, 2006 cited in Alshenqeeti, 2014). In this concern, Dörnyei (2007) explains that a good qualitative interview has two key features: “(a) it flows naturally, and (b) it is rich in detail” (p. 140).

This qualitative method is most commonly used by researchers (Cohen et al, 2007). Compared to questionnaires, Kvale (1996) considers an interview more powerful because it assists researchers to elicit detailed data and to investigate the participants’ views in greater depth. In addition, an interview enables to actively engage interviewees in the research process and express their own opinions, thoughts and feelings using their own words (Berg, 2007: 96). As a consequence, interview aids to the interviewer and interviewee to exchange question and answer turns around a given topic introduced by the researcher (Cohen et al, 2007). That is to say, it creates free interaction between both parts so that opportunities of description, clarification and discovery are maximized.

As a distinctive research technique, interview can be used to serve three purposes: (1) it can be as the research principle means for collecting data related directly to the research objectives; (2) it can be used to test or suggest new hypotheses, or to explain a relationship

between variables; (3) it can be used in conjunction with other methods either for supporting, for validation or for following the results (ibid). In this study, the interview has another function which is understanding the teachers' practice of teaching writing, the perception of the different problems that EFL learners do face and the possible efforts used to overcome such problems, and it is used in conjunction with another quantitative method. The results obtained from the interview will help the present researcher in designing the pre-test, which should suit the pedagogical aims of the lesson and the students' abilities, and to shape the intervention between the two phases of the written test.

#### **3.2.1.1. Respondents to the Interview**

The interview is administered to EFL teachers who are members in the Department of English at Kasdi Merbah University and who have taught writing at university. The number of participants in this study is (04) four teachers. They are selected by purposive sampling strategy. This latter is a non-random technique which involves identifying and selecting individuals or groups of individuals that are especially knowledgeable about or experienced with a phenomenon of interest (Cresswell & Clark, 2011). Accordingly, this strategy is confined to specific types of people who are deliberately selected to provide the desired information, and who conform to some criteria set by the researcher. The criteria are: teaching writing; teaching 2<sup>nd</sup> year Licence students, and teaching in the department of Kasdi Merbah University of Ouargla. Despite the fact that purposive sampling, as a non-probability method, is not free from bias and that interpretation of results is limited to the population under study, purposive sampling can provide reliable and robust data (Bernard, 2002).

#### **3.2.1.2. Description of the Interview**

Since an interview is constructed rather than naturally occurring, scholars of research methodology distinguish different types of interviews: structured interview (Lincoln and

Guba, 1985), informal conversational interviews, interview guide approaches, standardized open-ended interviews, closed quantitative interviews (Patton, 1980), semi-structured interview and group interviews (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992), exploratory interviews (Oppenheim, 1992). These interviews are classified into many categories in accordance to the degree of structure in the process, the openness of purpose, the extent to which they are exploratory or hypothesis-testing, whether they seek description or interpretation, or whether they are largely cognitive-focused or emotion-focused (Kvale, 1996, cited in Cohen et al., 2007) and whether they are single or multiple interview sessions (Dornyei, 2007). Based on the degree of structuring, interviews can be divided into three types: structured interviews, semi-structured interviews, and unstructured interviews (Fontana & Frey, 2005).

The Structured interview, for Patton (1980), is a type of interview in which “the exact wording and sequence of questions are determined in advance. All interviewees are asked the same basic questions in the same order” (cited in Cohen et al., 2007). In this type of interview, the researcher pre-prepares the list of standardized questions to be covered in the same order with every interviewee; this can make the interview procedure to be easier and, thus, it generates reliable results and is quick to execute (Rugg and Petre, 2007). Second, the unstructured interview is described as an open situation which allows for the interviewers freedom because the researcher has the entire control over the content, sequence and wording of the interview (Kerlinger, 1970, cited in Cohen et al, 2007) and greater flexibility for it allows for the researcher to spontaneously generate questions in a natural flow of an interaction (Patton, 2002). This type of interview, the researcher is not required to have a detailed interview guide (Dornyei, 2007), but the interview cannot be started without detailed knowledge and preparation, if the researcher hopes to achieve deep insights into the exploring experience (Patton, 2002). The researcher will keep in mind the study’s purpose and the

general scope of the issues that he or she would like to discuss in the interview (Fife, 2005). Though the unstructured interview is useful for investigators who seek to deeply explore the phenomenon under question (Dornyei, 2007), it may pose problems of controlling the degree of guidance of questions and statements proposed during the conversation, analyzing the data gathered by unstructured interviews (Patton, 2002) and the internal comparability of results due to their flexibility (Khothari, 2004). The third type of interviews, semi-structured interview, comes in between the two previously mentioned extremes: the structured and the unstructured interviews (Rugg and Petre, 2007). To clarify, the researcher should have some predetermined questions, but he should also leave some space for following up interesting topics when they arise.

In this study, a structured interview is opted for. It can help the researcher to obtain from the respondents different and complete answers to the same structure of questions on the topic addressed and, thus, it can increase the quantitative comparability of responses and can facilitate organizing and analyzing the results attained (Patton, 1980, cited in Cohen et al. 2007). To achieve a comprehensive picture of the teaching practices of writing, difficulties encountering teachers when teaching and learners when learning writing in the Algerian university context, the researcher employs open-ended questions which are thematically arranged into five sections:

- **Section One:** it includes one question (Q1) the aim of which is to extract from the participants general information about their experiences in teaching EFL writing at university context.
- **Section Two:** it includes five questions (from Q2 – Q6). They are about the syllabus devoted to teaching writing. The elements of the syllabus which seem to

be important are its divisions and possible adaptations of syllabus content, the time, approaches and materials used to instruct writing.

- **Section Three:** it includes four questions (from Q7 to Q11) that deal with the activities used by teachers and the challenges encountering them when teaching writing. It is thought that the selection of the type of activities, the strategies and the topics employed when practicing writing activities are of great importance. However, teachers may encounter challenges related to teachers themselves, students, time, material and/ or administration, which may influence their preferences concerning time scheduled, approach implemented, material selected and the type of activities, and the strategies and the topics employed when teaching writing.
- **Section Four:** it includes twelve questions (from Q12 to Q22); they are about difficulties encountering students when writing. During the process of writing, students face troubles in different writing aspects: content, topic development, structuring discourse parts, selecting words, structuring sentences, use of grammar, use of writing mechanics such as punctuation marks, capitalization and spelling. However, students may frequently face difficulties in some writing aspects more than others. In fact, the difficulties that students encounter when writing come from different sources.
- **Section Five:** it includes three questions (from Q23 to Q25) aiming at discovering the possible solutions that teachers use to overcome their students' writing problems, the workable suggestions that teachers propose to help students reach the expected level of competence in writing and the supplementary ideas that might be important to the issues under examination.

### **3.2.1.3. Procedures of Data Analysis**

The interview is a qualitative method used to obtain non-numeric data, and the analysis of which requires the use of adequate and appropriate procedures. In this study, data analysis of the interview is conducted through the following three-step procedure:

#### **3.2.1.3.1. Stage One: Transcription**

The answers elicited from the respondents through the interview were transcribed into Standard English orthography.

#### **3.2.1.3.2. Stage Two: Selection of Data Analysis Method**

Several methods are available to analyze qualitative data. The most commonly used data analysis methods are content analysis, narrative analysis, discourse analysis and grounded theory; each of which is required in certain analysis case. In this research, since the researcher is interested in the interview content, content analysis was opted for to analyze responses from interviewees. This method of data analysis is defined as a research method for the data interpretation through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

#### **3.2.1.3.3. Stage Three: Data Analysis of Content**

Content analysis is dependent on creating labels or codes in order to develop data into meaningful categories to be easily analyzed and interpreted. Therefore, after the transcription of the interviewees' responses into Standard English orthography, the answers were subjected to coding. Stemler (2001) discusses two approaches to the coding of data: emergent coding, where codes are drawn from the text, and a priori coding, where codes are created beforehand and applied to the text. In the current study, emergent coding is selected for the present researcher uses words and short phrases derived from within the text to represent themes or ideas. In fact, content analysis is conducted using grounded theory for certain rationales. First,

it enables the researcher to read textual database (such as a corpus of field notes) and discover or label variables and find their interrelationships. Second, grounded theory facilitates the analysis of text which allows the researcher to find the answers within; theory is developed from the data rather than imposed upon it (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Glaser (1978) made reference to two types of coding: “open coding” and “selective coding”, while Strauss and Corbin (1990), in their re-formulation of grounded theory, added “axial coding”. Strauss and Corbin (1998) arrange the three stages to this coding process as follows:

- **Open coding:** It involves applying codes that are derived from the text; they are known as emergent codes. It is the initial organization of raw data to try to make sense of it. Glaser (1978) makes clear the way coding might be done; he suggests that it should be done line by line. Similarly, Corbin and Strauss (1990) encourage researchers to code “conceptually similar events/ actions/ interactions” (p.12).The transcripts of interviews are explored line by line in the open coding and then compared reporting similarities and differences to divide the data into thematic chunks using words, phrases, sentences.
- **Axial coding:** It is a set of procedures that make connections between categories by proposing ‘coding paradigm’ which involve paying attention to conditions, contexts, action/interactional strategies, and consequences (Strauss and Corbin 1990).In other words, it includes interconnecting and linking the categories of codes “to their subcategories to form more precise and complete explanations” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p.24), that is to say, it allows data to be related systematically in complex ways with combination of density and precision (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). In this study, the sub-categories codes produced in the first stage are interconnected and thematically classified into main categories.



- **Selective Coding:** According to Strauss & Corbin (1998), it focuses on most important categories which “are organized around a central explanatory concept” (p.161) until an "analytic gestalt" (p.144) allows the emergence of the theory that in turn explains the subject of investigation. The present researcher identifies the various categories of codes and, after discovering similarities and differences, selectively classifies them under the core themes that have been identified.

### 3.2.2. Writing Test

There are many types of methods to assess students' performance. Each method is useful for certain measurement tasks or goals and less appropriate for others. In the case of writing, Rahn et al. (1995) distinguish two main types of assessment methods: selected responses and constructed responses. The former includes multiple-choice, matching and true-false tests, whereas the latter is divided into two further types: open-ended questions and essays, problem-based examinations or scenarios (ibid). Though selected-response tests had been the preferred technique for measuring student performance for many decades, it is currently considered a detrimental method to measure writing ability. During the past few years, constructed-response assessment methods have gained popularity as tools for classroom writing assessment. Moreover, since open-ended questions require short written answers that might be a word, phrase, and one or two sentences making very limited cognitive demands, they cannot serve contexts which necessitate higher levels of understanding and performance. On the other hand, essays are familiar to most educators; they are so lengthy written responses that researchers can score in terms of content and/or conventions.

In the present study, a test is the second tool employed. Among the many research methods, test is considered a powerful means for collecting quantitative data (Cohen et al., 2007). In second language acquisition studies, test helps researcher to gather data from the

participants on subject's ability or knowledge of second language in different fields including vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, metalinguistic awareness and general proficiency (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989). Based on the research design opted in this study, the test is administered in two phases: pre-test and post-test. Pre-test serves to set data at the starting point of the experiment by measuring students' pre-existing knowledge on a certain topic and to evaluate their readiness for the intervention (Gronlund and Linn, 1990, cited in Cohen et al., 2007, p.418). In this study, pre-test is used to measure the participants' writing performance before the teaching sessions, whereas post-test provides data at the end point of the experiment for it examines the degree to which the participants' written performance is developed after the intervention. In this study, the pre-and post-test are used to answer the second research question. The results obtained from both tests help the present researcher to investigate the extent to which teaching rhetorical canons can enhance EFL students' writing performance.

Test takes several forms, but the selection of a test type is determined by the principle of *fitness for purpose* i.e. the purposes, objectives and content of the test should be appropriate to the specific needs of the researcher in a specific situation (Cohen et al., 2007). Accordingly, among the many forms of tests, the open essay test is opted for in this study. An essay is an open form for testing, which permits for the participants to integrate, apply and synthesize knowledge, and to easily show the ability for expression and self-expression (ibid). Consequently, this can boost their efforts to give ultimate learning outcomes that are based on a higher order and divergent cognitive processes (ibid). Furthermore, since an open essay offers the students an opportunity to draw on larger and a variety of contextualized chunks of language in their writing performance, it facilitates for the researcher to assess the students' writing production in terms of content and writing conventions so that he can easily evaluate

in depth their capabilities of interpreting objective, collecting material, and sorting material at different levels.

### **3.2.2.1. Respondents to the Writing Test**

The writing test is administered to the student participants, whose number is thirty (30). They are enrolled in second year licence degree at Department of English language at Kasdi Merbah Ouargla University (KMOU). The student participants are selected for certain reasons. First, they are adults and need no parental permission to participate in this investigation. Second, they have studied English language at least for eight years so that they possess at least initial skills which enable them to communicate through English language. The participants are selected by means of non-probability sampling design; it is a sampling technique where the participants are gathered in a process that does not give all of the population equal chances of being selected (Cohen et al, 2007). Non-probability sampling simply represents itself, and, thus, it does not represent the wider population (ibid). Therefore, the results obtained cannot be generalized to the entire population. Non-probability sample comes in several forms (Cohen et al, 2007) among which convenience sampling is opted for in this study. Convenience sampling is simply a technique where the participants are selected for they are available and accessible to the researcher (ibid). Though convenience sampling often suffers from a number of biases, and lacks external validity, it is cost- and time-effective technique (Saumure & Given, 2008) and it may improve internal validity (Shuttle worth, 2009).

### **3.2.2.2. Description of the Test**

The test employed in the present work comprises a writing task that involves the production of two essays on two different topics by each of the participants. In both pre- and post-test, the length of the essays ranges approximately between 250 and 300 words. In fact,

the two writing tests are designed by the researcher in a way that fits the research objectives and enhances the validity of this measuring device by ensuring that it tests what it is supposed to test (Dörnyei, 2007), and they are distributed in two stages separated by training program.

Designing training program requires a pre-assessment which can be conducted through a wide variety of techniques such as test, questionnaire, interview, case study, etc. that are at the disposal of the researcher. In the present study, the researcher carried out an interview which was administered to teachers to assess the context of teaching and learning writing so as to obtain information about the teaching practices of writing and difficulties encountering EFL students when writing and, then, designed the training program the content of which is extracted from the subject matter dealt with in the first and second chapters. This latter was presented in three sessions scheduled in three different weeks. In other words, the participants had one training session per week. Each session is divided into two practice parts: guided and free. If the first practice part is guided by the teacher, the second one is free so that the participants carry out what they were trained in the first part but the teacher can assist them if it is necessary. Each of the three training sessions was planned to attain certain objective which, with the other training sessions' objectives, partially serves to accomplish the general objective of this study.

- **Session one:** concerns with writing content; it aims at enabling the participants transform a subject into proposition and decide on different sources to invent ideas of different categories, which are related to the theme they are writing about.
- **Session two:** is connected with writing organization; it aims at enabling the participants select the pertinent and cogent ideas and decide on the appropriate methods to properly arrange ideas and make correlations between them and the mode of discourse using the appropriate methods.

- **Session three:** is about writing style; it aims at enabling the participants express the selected ideas using a variety of vocabulary, employing different forms of sentences and appropriately applying paragraphing devices in their writing pieces.

### **3.2.2.3. Procedures of Data Analysis**

Each of the 30 participant students writes two essays, so the text corpus yields 60 essays. They are collected and, then, given codes for each participant's two essays. Each code consists of two letters, either PR referring to pre-test or PO designating post-test, and a number from one (1) to thirty (30) to make their recognition possible. For example, the code (PR 1) stands for the pre-test essay of the first participant, and the code (PO 1) refers to his/her post-test essay. The text corpus obtained from both pre-test and post-test is analyzed according to a three stage procedure.

#### **3.2.2.3.1. Stage One: Writing Content**

The focus in this stage is on the content of the participants' writing production. Thus, it involves the identification of all ideas employed in the corpora dealing with two features: number and relevance. The purpose of this stage is to independently examine the participants' writing content by computing the number of the ideas and measuring the extent to which they are relevant to the theme in each participants' first and second written productions which are, then, compared to evaluate any difference.

#### **3.2.2.3.2. Stage Two: Writing Organization**

This stage is about the participants' writing organization which is approached at two levels: large and small. At larger level, it involves the presence and effectiveness of the three discourse parts: introduction, development and conclusion. At small level, it includes classification, the logical sequencing and arrangement of ideas in the discourse parts. Table outlines the levels of the participants' writing organization analysis. The purpose of this stage

is to investigate the participants' writing organization in pre-test and post-test and then to compare them to determine any variation between the two phases.

**Table 9. Features of the participants' writing organization analysis**

<b>Levels</b>	<b>Features</b>
<b>Large</b>	The presence of the three discourse parts: introduction, development and conclusion  The effectiveness of the introduction, development and conclusion
<b>Small</b>	The classification of ideas  The arrangement of ideas in the discourse parts

### **3.2.2.3.3. Stage Three: Writing Style**

This stage is about the participants' writing style; it entails three dimensions: vocabulary, syntax and paragraphing each of which is divided into further traits. Vocabulary is examined in terms of relevance and variety; whereas, syntax includes the sentence variation in terms of structure, length and opening. Paragraphing devices are also considered, they entail writing mechanics such as spelling, punctuation. The purpose of the third stage is to assess the participants' writing style at three mentioned levels in pre-test and post-test and then compare the obtained results to determine any variation between the two phases. Table delineates the levels of the participants' writing style analysis.

**Table 10. Features of the participants' writing style analysis**

Levels	Dimensions
Vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Variety</li></ul>
Syntax	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Sentence variation:<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>▪ Structure</li><li>▪ Length</li><li>▪ Opening</li></ul></li></ul>
Paragraphing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Spelling</li></ul>
Devices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Punctuation</li></ul>

### **Conclusion**

This chapter supplies the methodological framework employed by the researcher in order to investigate the research questions the present study is meant to answer, the objectives to obtain and the hypotheses to test. It presents a detailed description of the research designs opted for by the researcher. Further, it explains thoroughly the research instruments used to attain data from the participants and the rationale behind selecting both instruments. Additionally, in-depth information is supplied about the respondents of each research instrument and the data analysis procedures of both the test and interview instruments.

## CHAPTER FOUR:

### Data Analysis and Findings of Interview

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## **Introduction**

The first objective of this study is to provide a detailed account of the Algerian EFL teachers' actual practices, problems they encounter when teaching writing and the procedures they employ to eliminate their students' writing difficulties when discovering ideas, selecting words, structuring sentences and using mechanics. To attain this objective, the present researcher conducted an interview, as a research instrument, to collect data from the interviewees. This chapter presents the analysis of the data obtained from the first data collection phase and, then, classified into a set of manageable categories. The findings are described and interpreted to answer the first research question in order to draw on conclusions.

### **4.1. Results**

Since the researcher is concerned with the interview content, content analysis was elected to analyze responses from interviewees. The selected method to analyze data obtained from the interview permits the data interpretation through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Therefore, the findings of the interview are thematically displayed in the following sections. The participants' replies to these questions are analyzed in logical order as they are asked.

#### **4.1.1. Section One**

This section aims at collecting background information focusing on education degree, teacher category, years of experience, modules and levels taught from the writing teachers who participated as interviewees in the study. Their responses to question one (1) are displayed in Table.

**Q1.** Can you describe your general background as an EFL teacher at university? (Focusing on Education degree, Teacher category, Years of experience, Modules and Levels taught)

**Table 11. The Participants' General Background**

	Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3	Participant 4
Education degree	Ph D	Ph D	Magistère	Magistère
teacher category	MCB	MCA	Assistant teacher B	Assistant teacher B
years of experience	Three years	more than ten years	more than ten years	Four years
Modules taught	written expression and linguistics	writing, oral, British literature, cultural studies, stylistics, education methodology, and didactics	British and American civilization, written expression, study skills and literature	writing, grammar, oral
Levels taught	First, second and third year License	First, second, third, first and second year master.	First and second year license degree and first year master.	First and second year license

Interest in the present research has been given to teachers who had or have taught written expression to second year license students in particular. According to the results displayed in the Table, the participants are teachers who have different categories; two teachers have PhD, and the other two teachers hold Magistère. Additionally, though they belong to the same university, they have different categories. The first teacher participant is MCB, while the second is MCA and the rest two participants are assistant teachers particularly category B. Concerning the teaching experience, they have a respectable experience ranging between 3 and 10 years in teaching at university context. Besides, it seems that the participants have taught different modules, and they also share an experience in teaching writing. The results also reveal that the participants cover different levels varying

between license and master in their teaching career, but all of them have taught second year level.

#### 4.1.2. Section Two

Section two comprises five questions (2-6) about syllabus devoted to teaching writing focusing on time, divisions, proceeding of syllabus, the adaptation of syllabus content, the approaches and the types of material used to teach writing.

**Q2.** Can you describe syllabus and time constraints when teaching writing to 2<sup>nd</sup> year students?

**Table 12. Syllabus and Time Constraints in Teaching Writing**

Main Category	Sub-category
Syllabus	- First Semester: The minor structures of essay - Second Semester: essay writing
Time	- Three sessions per week (four hours and half): ✓ Input session ✓ Output sessions - Time is insufficient

Information about difficulties especially concerning syllabus and time that teachers face when teaching writing is of great importance. According to the results shown in Table, the participants agreed that the divisions of the syllabus devoted to teaching writing to second are well balanced between first and second semesters. Participants state:

*“Concerning the syllabus, it is some way well balanced syllabus.”(Participant 3)*

*“I think for the divisions of the syllabus are in some way good.”(Participant 4)*

As for the time constraints, second year license students are taught writing for three sessions per week corresponding to four hours and half, but the four interviewed teachers disagreed as to the amount of time allotted to instructing writing. If the second and the fourth

participants showed positive attitudes towards the amount of sessions per week, the first and the third participants said that three sessions are insufficient because it cannot neither deal with all the syllabus content nor help learners improve their writing ability; the participant declare:

*“Regarding time constraints, the students have three sessions corresponding to four hours and half per week. Really, it is insufficient.”(Participant 1)*

*“Concerning time, it is three sessions per week, but it is not enough to expose them the different concepts of writing then to practice writing.”(Participant 3)*

Regarding the results displayed in the table, it seems that teachers divide the three sessions devoted to teaching writing into two parts: theoretical and practical. In other words, they expose students to concepts of writing in one part, and then they ask them to practice what they had been taught in the first theoretical part. The division of sessions into theoretical and practical sessions depends on each of the four participants and the lesson and its length. Teacher participants sometimes assign a whole session to theory and the remaining sessions to practice, or, in some cases, they divide the one session into theory and practice. Participants mention:

*“They are divided between theoretical and practical sessions.”(Participant 1)*

*“Concerning time, it is enough; one session is for input and two sessions for output.” (Participant 4)*

**Q3.** How do you proceed when teaching writing to 2<sup>nd</sup> year students? (Between first and second semesters)

**Table 13. The Proceeding of Writing Syllabus between Two Semesters**

Sub-category	Descriptions
First Semester: The minor structures of essay	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Sentence variation</li><li>- Wordiness</li><li>- Exactness</li><li>- Outline</li><li>- Writing a paragraph</li><li>✓ Introduction</li><li>✓ Conclusion</li><li>✓ Essay body</li></ul>
Second Semester: essay writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Whole essay writing</li><li>- Types of essays</li></ul>

There is a general agreement among the four instructors that syllabus specified to teaching writing to second year consists of two main axes each of which is used for whole semester. Participant 3 comments:

*“For the divisions of the syllabus, it is divided into two main parts.”*

In the first semester, students are taught the basics of writing a paragraph including wordiness, exactness, sentence variation and they move to writing paragraphs and then writing each one of the essay parts independently: introduction, conclusion and finally outlining and writing body of essay. Participants declared:

*“In the first semester, we try to give them just the basics of writing, for example: the sentence variation, word selection, how to write an introduction and conclusion how to outline and write the essay body.” (Participant 3)*

*“In the first semester we teach them certain elements necessary to be taken into consideration in writing.” (Participant 4)*

In the second semester, students start to combine the parts to write the entire essay, and then they are exposed to different patterns of essays: descriptive, argumentative, etc. Participant 1 explains:

*“In the second semester of the second year, they study the different patterns of essays whether narrative, descriptive, argumentative and other types used in college writing.”*

**Q4.** Do you usually adapt syllabus content to the needs of 2<sup>nd</sup> year students?

**Table 14. Teachers’ Attitudes towards Adapting Syllabus Content to 2<sup>nd</sup> Year Students**

Category	Sub-category
Adapting syllabus content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Students’ needs</li> <li>- Time constraints</li> </ul>

As indicated in the table above, teachers adapt the syllabus content to the needs of second year students. They see adapting the syllabus content to the needs of their students important and required in some cases when they find it impossible to move forward in certain syllabus element that is not comprehensible by their students. Thus, they view that it is their duty to make, by themselves, the content relevant to the students’ requirements using different kinds of adaptations including adding extra information, adding certain elements or changing the placement of particular elements in the syllabus. Concerning the importance of adapting syllabus content and the different ways of adaptations, participant 1 replies:

*“Yes, of course, it is required and it is important to adapt the syllabus content to the needs of the students... for me as a teacher I can add information or go backward or onward in the syllabus respecting the time.”*

In the same way, participant 4 responds:

*“So we cannot go forward directly without making sure that our students comprehend everything.”*

The adaptation of content analysis should take into consideration not only the needs of students but also two other aspects: teacher and time. For the teacher achieves the optimal results by the adaptation he makes, the duty of the teacher is not only to finish the syllabus in

the intended time other than also to make his efforts to ensure that students grasp what they are taught; he is one side in the classroom. Participant 2 articulates:

*“Surely, because inside the classroom we have two sides: the students and the teacher.”*

Time is another factor that teachers consider when adjusting the syllabus content to the needs of their students. That is to say, they add or change the position of syllabus components with respecting time. Participant 1 utters:

*“So, for me as a teacher I can add information or go backward or onward in the syllabus respecting the time.”*

**Q5.** What among the following approaches do you use when teaching writing to the 2<sup>nd</sup> year students? And why?

a) Product

b) Process

c) Genre

**Table 15. Approaches to Teaching Written Expression**

Category	Sub-category
Approaches to teaching writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The implementation of the three approaches               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ The independent use of approaches</li> <li>✓ The eclectic approach</li> </ul> </li> <li>- Considerations when selecting approaches               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Students’ diversity</li> <li>✓ Lesson/objectives/activities</li> <li>✓ Teaching contexts</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

The findings shown in the table above reveal that teachers implement the three approaches: product, process and genre in their classrooms when teaching writing. Concerning the use of approaches, it can be through two different ways either independently or at the same time. Specifically, interviewees use each approach in different stage or use eclectic approach by choosing among the different principles of the three approaches to be employed in one teaching situation. Participant 1 emphasizes this idea:

*“Actually, now we are in the time of eclecticism, so we cannot really adhere to one approach. So I usually use the three*

*approaches sometimes in three different stages and sometimes in one stage by selecting from each approach what are beneficial for my students.”*

Whether the approaches are used independently or simultaneously, teachers suggest some reasons behind their making use and selecting of approaches. Participants have a general consensus that the use of different approaches is required for the fact that the classroom composes of different students, which means different ways of learning and different needs.

*“I like variety because I think variety makes life, makes also teaching. So I use different teaching methods all the times, different writing models in teaching by the way, because I believe that we have what we call it individual differences within any class. So, I have a classroom variety; I have different learners, different needs. Some of them need something, others need something else.”*  
(Participant 2)

The lesson itself, the objectives that teachers are determined to achieve by the end of the lesson and the designed activities constitute also another reason that calls for using one or more approaches. In this matter, participants claims:

*“We have also to select the approach according the lecture and the activities.”* (Participant 3)

*“I elect each one of these approaches in certain period depending on what I’m going to teach, the objectives I want to achieve.”*  
(Participant 4)

**Q6.** Can you describe the kind of materials you use when teaching writing?

**Table 16. The Types of Materials Used by Teachers in Writing Classroom**

Category	Sub-category
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Handouts</li> <li>- overhead projector</li> <li>- power point presentations</li> <li>- pen and white board</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Traditional classroom based on the use of handouts</li> <li>- The lack of technical tools</li> <li>- The use of non-authentic materials due to students’ regression</li> <li>- Teachers’ safety in handouts more than technical tools</li> </ul>



This question inquires about types of teaching materials that writing teachers use in the classrooms. As indicated in the table above, though some interviewed teachers revealed their preference to the variation of teaching materials between the printed and technical forms such as handouts, overhead projector, power point presentations, pen and white board, they describe their classrooms as traditional because of the frequent use of handouts in which teachers feel save due to the lack of technological tools and the technical troubles that may occur when using them, as a results of, as participant 4 asserts, the nature of module of writing which obliges using the printed documents and handouts and, as participant 2 declares, the lack of technical tools in certain cases. For participant 1, as students are not advanced, teachers do not employ the authentic materials as they appear in the original source, but they are adapted to the comprehension level of the students and the objectives of the lesson.

#### **4.1.3. Sections Three**

Section three contains four questions (7-10). The questions are on activities to teaching writing including types and strategies utilized for the classroom assignments, the kind of topics employed in writing activities and the different challenges, concerning teacher themselves, students, time, material, administration, that may happen in teaching writing.

**Q7.**What are the types of activities you use when teaching writing?

**Table 17. The Types of Activities Used in Writing Classroom**

Category	Sub-categories
Learning and writing practice stage	Learning stage - Analytical activities: students' analysis of different patterns of written texts to recognize the structure - Practical activities: encouraging student to imitate and practice the analyzed written texts using their written production Writing practice stage - Guided activities: Teacher guidance in the initial stage of practice - Free activities: Freedom of students in the end stage of practice
Situation	- Classroom activities: practicing writing in classroom for three sessions - Home activities: extending writing activities beyond the classroom
Students' patterns of interaction	- Individuals - Pairs - Groups

According to the participants' answers to question 7, they make use of different types of activities which are varied depending on certain factors: students' learning and writing practice stage, situation of activities and the students' patterns of interaction. Concerning the learning stage, teachers expose students to two types of activities: analytical and practical. Since students cannot produce their output without receiving an input, they should be introduced by teachers to writing concepts and structures which then students try to realize through an analysis of different patterns of written texts. After students experience the writing concepts and recognize the text structures in the written text models they are exposed to, they move to another stage which is imitating and practicing the patterns they analyzed but using their own written production. As to writing practice, in the initial stage of writing practice students are guided by the teacher, but later, particularly in the advanced stages, they become freer. In this respect, participants clarify:

*“The first one we usually start with is analytical, so we analyze model texts based on the objectives of the lesson. So, if the objectives of the lesson are to introduce students to introductory paragraphs, we analyze how a particular essay’s introduction is written or how a particular type of introduction is written. So we start by analysis and then we do semi-controlled exercises by asking students to complete the general statements and then I give them the thesis statement or I give the general statements and then we identify the thesis statements. Simply, I mean they have a part and they have to complete the other parts of the exercises.”(Participant 1)*

*“Sometimes, I give a text with some reading questions so that they can underline and highlight the necessary points. This is in case I would like my students to know about the structure of text under discussion. Sometimes, I give them just a question, and I ask them to write about it an essay.” (Participant 2)*

*“Concerning the activities done in the class, I usually guide them in the beginning but later on they get freer.”(Participant 3)*

*“For example in the first practical session I give them activities and I guide them, but in the second practical session I do give them free activities but I intervene only when it is necessary.” (Participant 4)*

Teachers also vary the activities according the situation: classroom and home. Specifically, teachers give the students writing activities to practice within the classroom so that students seek the help of their teachers when necessary, but since time is not enough as conferred by the participants, except participant 3 who seems satisfied, teachers extend the writing activities beyond the classroom to be done at home so that students are given more chances to exercise writing. In connection to this idea, participants assert:

*“The last type is class and home works in which students are asked to produce what they have practice what they have seen before.” (Participant 1)*

*“So, some activities are done in the classroom, while others are done at home due to the insufficiency of time devoted to teaching writing.” (Participant 3)*

*“And we do some activities that should be finished in classroom, and in other times I give them home assignments to practice writing more. This is in case we don’t have more time to practice writing in classroom, but they need to come to the classroom and present them.” (Participant 4)*

Regarding the last category, instructors change the activities they design as to the students' patterns of interaction; they assign activities to be done by students either as individuals or pairs and groups in order to increase the amount of their writing practice, that is to say to offer learners more opportunities to practice what they have been exposed to meaningfully. Participant 3 accents this idea:

*“I try to vary them to be done individually, in pairs or groups to increase their writing practice. .”*

**Q8.** What among these strategies you use for the classroom activities and assignments?

- a) Encourage students to generate many ideas to enrich their writing content
- b) Encourage students to make logical connections between their ideas and organize them into paragraphs
- c) Encourage students to properly select words and to correctly structure sentences in order to accurately and efficiently express their ideas

**Table 18. The Strategies Used for the Classroom Activities and Assignments**

Category	Sub-categories
Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Finding ideas is required to start writing</li> <li>- Students lack ideas in their writing pieces</li> <li>- Brainstorming strategies and reading are useful in generating ideas</li> </ul>
Organization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Organization is also required in writing</li> <li>- Organization is complementary with content</li> </ul>
Style	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Style is a salient writing component</li> <li>- Style is complementary with content and organization</li> <li>- Style concerns with vocabulary, syntax and paragraphing devices</li> </ul>

The results displayed in the above table show that all the interviewed teachers have the same opinion as to the use of the three strategies in the writing activities and assignments in the classroom as these strategies are complementary and serve in the production of a qualified

writing piece; they use them in different phases starting with discovering, organizing and then ornamenting ideas. To answer this question, participants exclaim:

*“We focus on A, B and C.” (Participant 1)*

*“In fact, I use all the strategies that you have mentioned.” (Participant 2)*

*“I really focus on the three strategies but in different stages so that to give priority to one strategy than the others.” (Participant 3)*

*“Of course I focus on A, B and c. why? Because content, organization and style are three complementary components of writing. We cannot focus on one component and neglect the others.” (Participant 4)*

It seems also that the teachers are in agreement on the view that students cannot start writing without having ideas. Put it simply, they give an importance and a priority to the content which is considered the initial element in writing because it is “the what to say” should precede “the how to say”. Additionally, they maintain that the lack of ideas is noticeable in their students’ writing performance, and they suggest some solutions such as brainstorming strategies and reading for the purpose to help their students generate ideas and hence to enrich their writing content. In their words, participants explicate:

*“So, we encourage students to generate ideas.” (Participant 1)*

*“Sometimes, I see that my students don’t know how to brainstorm to discover ideas to start writing, so here I have to encourage them to find ideas by giving them some strategies to brainstorm and to read.” (Participant 2)*

*“I encourage my students to find ideas first.” (Participant 3)*

Additionally, the instructors expressed their view on the importance of writing organization. After finding ideas, students should organize them in order to make their writing meaningful, convincing and readable. They are also in agreement on the complementary role of organization to content in written production.

*“We encourage students to generate ideas and to express logical connections between ideas.” (Participant 1)*

*“I encourage my students to find ideas first, then how to logically organize these ideas.” (Participant 3)*

*“Ideas will not be convincing if they are disorganized and incorrectly expressed.” (Participant 4)*

The interviewees are of the same mind that the last strategy they use for classroom activities and assignments is encouraging students to take into account the significance of expressing their ideas accurately and efficiently so that they work on their writing style by a proper word selection, correct sentence structure and well positioned paragraphing devices. Moreover, they believe that style is complementary with content and organization because “the what to say” has sense only if it is appropriately said. Participant 4 stresses this view:

*“Ideas will not be convincing if they are disorganized and appropriately expressed.”*

**Q9.**What kinds of topics are employed when approaching writing? (Suggested by teacher/ or selected by students)

**Table 19. Kind of Topics Employed in Writing Classroom**

Category	Sub-category
Kind of topics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Social issues</li> <li>- Common scientific issues</li> <li>- Personal/everyday life/ university experiences</li> </ul>
Selection of topics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Topics are selected mainly by teachers</li> <li>- Topics are selected sometimes by students</li> <li>- Topic are selected depending on the types essay types</li> </ul>

As Table demonstrates, all the interviewed instructors use a variety of topics which are selected from social issues, scientific issues, and personal, everyday life and university experiences. Teachers elect such previously mentioned common issues and experiences because the aim of teaching writing is to enable students write so it is illogical to ask students write about difficult or unknown topics in which they don’t have a respectable amount of ideas to start writing. In their words:

*“Concerning the types of topics, they include social problems, personal experiences, etc. because students may have some idea on such themes so that they can write.”(Participant 1)*

*“Concerning the type of topics, we usually select from our common experiences in daily life, society, university, etc. in which students they have many ideas to say because we want them to write so we should avoid difficult themes in which students they lack ideas.”(Participant 3)*

The above table also presents information as to the selection of topics. The results report that topics are mainly selected by teachers, and they sometimes give their students chance to write on topics from their own choice but with teachers’ guidance when necessary as learners are not able to find themes to write about. In this issue, teachers affirm:

*“The topics are usually selected by the teacher, but in very few cases students are asked to write about topics from their own choice.” (Participant 1)*

*“In the beginning of my career, I used to give my students chance to write about topics from their own choice. To be honest I was somehow satisfied, but I feel that my students do themselves the task because some of them were lost in selecting a topic. So, for this reason, I started giving them some themes, and they have to select just one to write about.” (Participant 2)*

*“Sometimes I suggest and sometime I give them an opportunity to suggest though they, as I feel, are not able to find a topic.” (Participant 3)*

*“I like democratic classroom. I sometimes suggest topics, but I also give the chance to my students to select their own topics but I guide them when they find it difficult to select.” (Participant 4)*

**Q10.**Can you describe the kind of challenges you encounter in teaching are writing skill?

(challenges concerning teacher, students, time, material, administration.

**Table 20. The Kind of Challenges in Teaching Writing Skill**

Category	Sub-category
Teacher challenges	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Teachers' lack of experience (novice teachers)</li><li>- Teachers' tiredness and boring due to the whole day working</li></ul>
Student challenges	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Students' different abilities: high, low and in-between achievers.</li><li>- Students' lack of knowledge to write in their essays.</li><li>- Students' lack of reading to gain knowledge</li><li>- Students' lack of motivation and interest</li><li>- Students' reluctance to write</li></ul>
Time challenges	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- The insufficiency of time</li></ul>
Material challenges	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Lack of material especially the technical tools</li><li>- The frequent use of handouts</li><li>- The adaptation of materials to the different abilities of students.</li><li>- The preparation of a variety of activities to cope with the needs of the different levels of students.</li></ul>

This table displays the teachers' responses as to the different challenges which make the task of teaching writing difficult. These challenges are of different sources; they are related to teachers themselves, students, time and materials. It seems that the four participants have no administrative difficulties. As for the teacher, lack of experience, in case of novice teachers, and working the whole day are two main challenges that teachers meet in writing class; these two beliefs are stressed by participants 1 and 2.

Concerning student, teachers mentioned four types of challenges. In the first place, the diversity of students denotes different learning abilities and ways that make difficulties for educators in knowing on which group they should focus and, for this reason, the teaching methods, techniques, materials and activities they should vary. This idea is clarified:

*“In teaching writing skill, the most challenging part is dealing with students of different abilities and hence adapting the materials that*



*I use to the needs of different levels of students especially for me as novice teacher though I try to do my best. Another challenge is the preparation of a variety of activities to cope with the needs of the different levels of students. (Participant 1)*

*“Yes, we do face many challenges at different levels. Let’s start with students who are of different levels may be because they are taught by different teachers in the first year and this can be obvious in the session when I’m explaining, I find them they are not familiar and they always find excuses that we were not taught by the same teacher.”(Participant 3)*

Though the interviewed instructors already expressed that having a respectable amount of knowledge is important and required before starting to write, participant 4 answered that his students lack ideas which he theorized to be the result of the lack of reading; a salient activity and source of knowledge. In his words:

*“For me as a teacher, the most challenge I encounter is the students’ lack of knowledge to write in their essays. They always start with definition and repeat it again and again because they don’t have background about the topic they are going to write about even though they know how to write. This is because of the lack of reading; they don’t read.”*

Another student challenge that educators face when teaching writing is the lack of motivation and interest. In other words, this connotes that both motivation and the interest play a vital role in the learner’s writing achievement. In fact, lack of motivation and interest increase the students’ reluctance to write. This can be the consequence of certain factors such as teachers’ tiredness and boring due to the whole day working as participant 2 reveals:

*“I think everything. We, as teachers, feel tired, bored because we teach for the whole day. This makes the students more reluctant to write or sometimes less motivated and interested though we give and do for them more.”*

However, participant 3 explained that learners become motivated only when they know that their writing will be assessed and given a mark. In addition, the insufficiency of time

constitutes another confront that tutors face when instructing writing. In this concern, participants elucidate:

*“Concerning the time, it is not enough because our goal as teachers is to enhance our students’ writing and speaking, and all the other modules are done in written or oral medium.”*  
(Participant 2)

*“Concerning time, as I told you time is in not enough; three sessions per week are not enough to teach and practice writing.”*  
(Participant 3)

This question partially inquires about the challenges of materials encountering teachers in writing class. As indicated in the table, the teachers shed light on the idea that writing class lacks materials especially the technical tools and, as a consequence, that they frequently rely on handouts. Additionally, they face difficulties in adapting materials and preparing a variety of activities to handle the students’ different learning abilities and needs. The participants tackle these issues in the following extracts:

*“Another challenge is the preparation of a variety of activities to cope with the needs of the different levels of students.”* (Participant 1)

*“Concerning material, there is lack in the teaching materials especially in the case of writing because mostly we rely on just handouts and very rarely data show, but I try always to find an alternative.”* (Participant 3)

#### **4.1.4. Section Four**

The fourth section comprises twelve questions (11-22). In this section, we expected the teachers to provide us with some information about the difficulties encountering EFL students when writing at different levels: content, structure of essay’s larger parts, topic development, vocabulary, sentence structure, grammatical, punctuation, capitalization and spelling problems. The interviewees’ responses are presented below from table to table:

**Q11.**Can you describe your second year students’ writing performance?

In this question, the interviewees are asked to describe in general their students' writing performance. They have a general consensus that though second year students are taught the basics of writing in first year and the beginning of the second year, except few members who have an acceptable or excellent writing, the majority of students still produce unacceptable written pieces, because, in the words of participant 4, they see writing as difficult activity.

**Q12.**Can you describe the problems that your students encounter when generating ideas?

**Table 21. Students' Problems in Generating Ideas**

Category	Sub-category
Writing content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The production of irrelevant ideas</li> <li>- The lack of sentence variation</li> <li>- The lack of sentence clarity</li> <li>- The lack of sentence originality</li> <li>- The lack of background knowledge</li> <li>- Students' lack of generating ideas skill</li> </ul>

This question had been asked in order to attain more details about students' writing content. The table below represents the participants' answers. The teachers are agreed that students' writing performance is not acceptable and not developed yet because, according to participant3, though they consume a long time in the act of discovering ideas, they are still unable to producing relevant, various, clear and original ideas. This idea is accentuated by participants:

*"They specially have problems with all of them." (Participant 1)*

*"By the way till nowadays, I can see this. I can see that my students face difficulties related not only to the language in itself, but it is all about generating ideas." (Participant 2)*

Participant 4 interprets the students' inability to generate relevant, various, clear and original ideas as the result of the lack having background knowledge which is in turn resulted

due to the lack of reading, whereas participant 3 viewed the deficiency in writing content is caused by the lack of generating ideas skill.

**Q13.**Can you describe the difficulties that your students find when structuring their essays' larger parts? (Introduction, development, conclusion).

**Table 22. Students' Difficulties in Structuring Essays' Larger Parts**

Category	Sub-category
Essay's structuring of larger parts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The misplacement and misclassification of ideas in the essay's larger parts</li> <li>- The lack of content</li> <li>- The lack of strategies of writing introduction, development and conclusion</li> </ul>

The interview responses to question 13 include two main difficulties as to structuring the three essay sections, which teachers meet in their students' writing production. They seemed to be agreed that students are not able to place and classify their ideas in the essay's parts. The participants gave two reasons for the previously mentioned problem. First, they were also of the same opinion that one of these two reasons concerns with the students' lack of content so that they repeat the same discovered ideas or few ideas in the introduction, development and conclusion. Participants describe:

*"I found their difficulties concern the very few ideas they have."*  
(Participant 1)

*"They have problems in finding ideas to say about the topic, and if they find one or two ideas they don't know how to organize them."*  
(Participant 4)

*"Because students don't have a lot of ideas to say, they use the same ideas in the introduction, development and even the conclusion. So, I cannot identify whether I'm reading introduction, development or conclusion."* (Participant 3)

Second, students find troubles in structuring the ideas they invent in the larger units of their essays because they lack the strategies of writing introduction, development and conclusion, which can make their writing systematic. Participants highlight this point:

*They face problems in organizing ideas as they lack control over the organization of ideas; they don't know how to logically organize ideas in the three different sections of the essay. I mean which ideas come in the introduction, which ideas come in the body and which ideas come in the conclusion. (Participant 2)*

*"Students find difficulties in writing introduction, development and conclusion. Really, they don't know how to organize their ideas in these three parts. To write introduction, development or a conclusion, there are strategies that should be respected. Because students don't have a lot of ideas to say, they use the same ideas in the introduction, development and even the conclusion. So, I cannot identify whether I'm reading introduction, development or conclusion." (Participant 3)*

**Q14.** How can describe your students' problems concerning the topic development in their paragraphs?

**Table 23. Students' Problems of the Topic Development in the Paragraphs**

Category	Sub-category
Topic development in writing essay	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The lack of vocabulary</li> <li>- The lack of supporting sentences</li> <li>- The irrelevance of supporting ideas to the thesis statement</li> <li>- Lack of reading</li> <li>- Lack of critical thinking skills</li> <li>- The absence of outlining/planning</li> </ul>

Topic development is one among the aspects of writing that are judged by the teachers for it is the most important for successful writing and it comes on the top list of their preferences. The table above introduces the participants' replies as to the students' difficulties in topic development, which, according to the participant, are reflected in some factors. To start with, since students lack vocabulary, they cannot expand their topics. Participant 1 expresses this in his words:

*"The first is the lack of vocabulary; they don't have enough vocabulary to express themselves."*

Next, the instructors are of the same opinion that students are not capable to develop the topic for they frequently rely on the topic sentences but they are deficient in the supporting

sentences which, in case they are employed, are irrelevant to the thesis statement. Participant 4 pronounces:

*“They usually write just the topic sentence, but they cannot develop it using supporting sentences.”*

*“Because they fail to write the topic sentence, they cannot develop it well. If they develop it, I also cannot find any relationship between the supporting sentences and their thesis statement. Really, they have problem concerning linking the topic sentence with the supporting ideas.”*

The participants justify the students’ difficulties in topic development which is justified by two reasons: (1) the lack of critical thinking skills which are important in developing the topic they are writing about; (2) the absence of outlining which can make their writing more systematic and organized. In this respect, participants accentuate:

*I mean their thinking is very limited; they don’t think creatively, and they don’t think critically. (Participant 1)*

*Yes, as I have already said, they face problems because they don’t those critical thinking skills which are important in developing the topic they are writing about. (Participant 2)*

*Here, students before they start writing their essays, they need to outline it. That’s why I always remind them that planning is very important in writing essay. For those who start with planning first, they succeed later on in writing essays and they succeed even in developing the topic end particularly every topic sentence. Whereas the other, they cannot; they write only the topic sentence without using supporting sentences to develop the topic. (Participant 3)*

**Q15.** Can you describe the vocabulary that your students employ in their writing? (Whether repeated or varied, reflecting the purpose of writing)

**Table 24. Vocabulary in Students’ Writing**

Category	Sub-category
Vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The absence of vocabulary variety</li> <li>- The frequent use of the common words</li> <li>- The presence of wordiness</li> <li>- The incorrect writing of new words</li> </ul>

The responses of the teacher participants to Q 15 indicate that the students' writing lacks vocabulary variety due to the frequent use of common words which go back to their career at middle and secondary schools or their everyday life. Participants stress this idea:

*“Yes, most of it, it is not varied. They use common words repeated again and again in all of their writing pieces. Most of it, it is brought with them from secondary school.” (Participant 1)*

*“Most of the time I see that they use the same words that are frequently can be used in daily life not only in the writing piece of one student but also all of them.”(Participant 4)*

Participant 3 discussed the result of lacking vocabulary variety in student's writing; it leads to wordiness and this can make one's writing piece uninteresting to the reader. Moreover, teachers encourage their students to discover and use new words, but students find difficulties in writing the new word which are written in wrong way. In this issue, participant 2 highlights:

*“A good student who varies his vocabulary when writing, but other students use the same words in most of time. That's why I ask students to look for new words not to show off that they know this unique with technical terms that no one knows about. No, what do we need is the common language, common words that we have in English. Just try to use them in different sentences. That's why I ask my students to try use new words. I'm not looking for something new or technical terms, but I just look for new words all the times. This means that they are reading; they are learning and acquiring new words.”*

**Q 16.** Do your students encounter problems to structure sentences when writing? (Length, structure and opening)

**Table 25. Students' Sentence structuring Problems**

Category	Sub-category
Sentence structure problems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The overuse of short sentences</li> <li>- The overuse of simple sentences (Choppy writing style)</li> <li>- The use of incorrect long sentences</li> <li>- The absence of necessary features of complete sentence:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Capital letter</li> <li>➤ Full stop</li> </ul> </li> <li>- The presence of run-on sentences and comma splices</li> <li>- The overuse of subject cluster opening               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Noun</li> <li>➤ Pronoun</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

As Table demonstrates, the interviewed teachers of writing agree that students' writing lacks sentence variation because they have sentence structuring problems. They acclaim that students overuse short and simple sentences which make their writing style choppy. This idea is clarified by participants:

*"They overuse too short sentences." (Participant 1)*

*"They mostly rely on short and simple sentences... I can say simply they make what is called choppy writing style." (Participant 3)*

Long sentences can be found in their writing, but they are employed incorrectly as they lack the necessary features of complete sentence: capital letter and full stop, and the inappropriate placing of comma so that their sentences are varied between run-on and comma splice sentences. In their words:

*"They overuse too short sentences starting with subject cluster and full of run-ons, comma splices, and sometimes if I ask them to write one paragraph, they write it starting a capital letter till the end using no even one punctuation mark. So, they write the whole paragraph as one sentence." (Participant 1)*

*"They may be afraid to make mistakes, but mistakes are existed even they use short and simple sentences. For example, they make run-on sentences and comma splices." (Participant3)*



*“There is no clear type of sentence. They start their paragraphs with a capital letter and finish it with a full stop and sometimes with no punctuation mark.” (Participant 4)*

In addition, according to the teachers’ answers, it seems that students begin their sentences with the same opening form which is subject cluster, particularly they employ two main forms to open their sentences: nouns and pronouns. This is discussed by participants:

*“They mostly rely on short and simple sentences which always start with a noun and/or pronoun.” (Participant 3)*

*“Concerning the beginning of their sentences I really see just noun and pronoun.” (Participant 4)*

Q17. Can you describe the grammatical difficulties can be found in your students’ writing?

**Table 26. Grammatical Difficulties in Students’ Writing**

Category	Sub-category
Grammatical difficulties	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The subject-verb agreement</li> <li>- The misuse of articles</li> <li>- The use and selection of appropriate tense</li> <li>- The order of words: adverbs, adjectives, nouns, etc.</li> <li>- Types of grammatical errors               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Omission</li> <li>✓ Addition</li> <li>✓ Deletion</li> <li>✓ Misformation</li> <li>✓ Misordering</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

In response to Question 9, the interviewees reveal that despite the importance of grammar, which is taught to serve all of the other modules, students still encounter grammatical difficulties and make different grammatical errors when writing. Teachers elucidate that students don’t make concordance between subject and verb, and this implies that subject-verb agreement rules are problematic for EFL students. According to their replies, it seems that there is a lot of potential confusion surrounding article choice and use,

and this is regularly manifested in their students' writing assignments. In addition, they exclaim that their learners fail to select the appropriate tense and use it in a correct form. Moreover, they make grammatical errors when ordering words in English sentences ; they don't know how to order adverbs, adjectives and nouns. Participant 4 claims :

*"They have grammatical problems in the use of tenses, articles, subject-verb agreement, the order of adverbs, adjectives and nouns, etc."*

The interviewees' answers assert that students' grammatical errors can take different types: omission, addition, deletion, misformation and misordering. In this respect, some clarify:

*"As for the subject-verb difficulties, sometimes students add an item that should not be present for example putting "ed" to indicate the simple past form of the irregular verbs, putting "s" to show the present simple of verb with pronouns such as I, they, we, and you, or double the subject using noun and pronoun at the same time."* (Participant 1)

*"Really, they do face troubles as to subject-verb agreement, verb conjugation. I see that sometimes they add and sometimes they omit items."* (Participant 2)

*"A lot of grammatical mistakes from different types can be found in students' writing. I can give as an example the use of tenses; they get confused in using tenses even the simple present sometimes they forget to put the "s" in the place where it should be put, or to put the "s" in the place where it should not be put. They also are confused when to use present, past and future, etc. sometimes, I find verb normally conjugated in the continuous form, but I do find only the stem with "ing" but there is no conjugated form of the auxiliary verb "to be"."* (Participant 3)

**Q18.** Can you describe punctuation problems in your students' written production?

**Table 27. Punctuation Problems in Students' Written Production**

Category	Sub-category
Punctuation Problems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- The lack of awareness of punctuation rules and its importance</li><li>- The use of punctuation marks<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>✓ The lack of punctuation marks</li><li>✓ The misuse of punctuation marks</li><li>✓ The overuse of punctuation marks</li></ul></li></ul>

The results presented in the above table show the teachers' opinions about punctuation problems in their students' written production. For the participants, though students are taught the basics of writing including punctuation marks, they are still aware of the punctuation rules, but they are unaware of the importance of the punctuation marks in enhancing not only their writing but also in the meaning they tend to transmit through their written communication. Participant 3 discusses this point :

*If I ask them directly about the rule of positioning punctuation marks they do know, but they don't use them in their writing and they don't know the importance of these tools in enhancing their written communication.*

As to the use of punctuation marks, teachers mention three cases. First, lack of punctuation denotes using no punctuation mark when writing. In her words:

*"Or they write a whole essay without even one punctuation mark. Really, I don't know where the beginning and the end of every sentence. Really, it is a catastrophe; it is a big problem for a second year student to neglect and to not give an importance to such significant feature of writing. Normally, they are taught punctuation marks in first year, and they need to use them now in second year in their writing. Unfortunately, they don't use them."*  
(Participant 2)

Second, misuse of punctuation means using punctuation marks, but they are placed in inappropriate place such as the incorrect uses of the comma which results in run-on sentences and comma splices. Third, the overuse of punctuation indicates put a mark in necessary and unnecessary place for example the excessive use of comma which is sometimes put in the

place of the other punctuation marks. According to the teachers' responses, it seems that students usually have problems or confusion in using comma ; they overuse it. Participants explain:

*“If their writing contains punctuation marks, they misuse or overuse them though they, some of them, know the rules and the position of every punctuation mark.” (Participant 2)*  
*“I can see only full stops in their writing, and misused commas.” (Participant 3)*

**Q19.** Can you give a description of capitalization problems in your students' writings?

**Table 28. Capitalization Problems in EFL Students' Writings**

Category	Sub-category
Capitalization problems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The lack of capitalization in the beginning of sentences</li> <li>- The lack of capitalization of proper nouns and names</li> <li>- Reason of capitalization problems               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Frequent use of social networking tools</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

The table above presents the teachers' views about the capitalization problems in their students' writing. It appears that there is a general consensus among the interviewees that students meet difficulties in using capitalization to show the beginning of their sentences and this is theorized to be the result of the lack of using the punctuation marks especially those, mainly full stop, are employed to signal the end of the sentences. Additionally, they consider all nouns used in their written pieces as the same case because they don't make a differentiation between the proper nouns and the common ones. This capitalization problem can make students' writing difficult to understand. Participant 1 emphasizes:

*“They do have capitalization problems because they write without punctuation so they don't recognize the beginnings of a new sentence and this can make it difficult for me as a teacher to understand the meaning, and sometimes they don't care whether a noun is common or proper so that it should or shouldn't be capitalized.”*

Participant 2 deals with the reason behind students' capitalization problems; she accentuates:

*“I think this is due to the frequent use of social media networks. Students get the habit to write all the time using their cell phones in Facebook, Instagram and Twitter without using capitalization.”*

**Q20.** Can you give a description of spelling problems in your students' writing performance?

**Table 29. Spelling Problems in Students' Writing Performance**

Category	Sub-category
spelling problems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Types of spelling problems               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Wrong spelling of common and new words</li> <li>✓ Confusing sounds and letters</li> <li>✓ The omission of silent letters</li> </ul> </li> <li>- Reasons of spelling problems               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ The lack of focus</li> <li>✓ The lack of practicing writing</li> <li>✓ The lack of reading</li> <li>✓ The lack of using dictionaries</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

The teachers' answers concerning the students' spelling problems, as displayed in Table, entail three aspects. They proclaim that students make spelling errors appearing not only in the case of the new and difficult words but also the familiar words. Participant1 affirms :

*“Yes, there are spelling problems when writing whether new and difficult words and even the common words.”*

Another spelling problem that students encounter when writing is confusing sounds and consonants that share some phonic features. Participant 3 tackles this problem:

*“Concerning spelling problems, yes, there are a lot for example to write “b” and “p” each of which in the place of the other, writing one consonant in the case of doubled consonant and many other sounds.”*

In English language, it can be found a number of words which contain letters that are written but not pronounced. The interviewees also attribute students' spelling problems to the silent letters which constitute one of the major spelling difficulties encountered by foreign learners of English language. That is to say, EFL students omit silent letters when writing as they are not pronounced.

*“Another problem concerning spelling, students write words but in the silent letters are always missed; they don't write the silent letters.” (Participant 2)*

*“They find problems in the silent letters which in most cases they are not written at all.” (Participant 3)*

*“They are not able to write words with silent letter; these words are always written as they spell them.” (Participant 4)*

Additionally, participants discuss some possible causes to which they attach the student' spelling problems. They consider spelling errors that learners make are the result of the lack of focus when they come to write. They also suggest the lack of practicing writing as reason behind students' spelling difficulties because the spelling errors cover not only the new and difficult words but also the familiar ones. Another cause of spelling problems is the lack of reading which is viewed as a key strategy which can help students to be exposed to huge number of words and can improve their spelling competence level. Participant 1 clarifies:

*“This is because of the lack of focus, but also because of the lack of practice not only writing but also reading which is a key element when we talk about enhancing writing.”*

On the other hand, participant 3 considers the lack of using dictionaries to check the correct form of difficult and new words as one of the reasons that cause spelling problems ; she maintains :

*“This is because students are lazy; they don't want to use dictionaries to be sure of how the new word should be written. That's why I always tell them try to use the dictionary to check the*

*correct form of every new word you encounter. Unfortunately, they don't use it though they have electronic dictionaries in their cell phones."*

**Q21.** Can you determine the aspects of writing in which they frequently find difficulties?

Teachers' responses to question 21 demonstrate that students find difficulties in all writing aspects, and these writing difficulties are transformed into errors which are appeared in students' writing. In fact, the interviewees don't give superiority to one difficulty more the other because all of the writing aspects are complementary in the production of an excellent writing piece.

**Q22.** According to you, what are the main sources behind the difficulties that your students encounter when writing?

**Table 30. The Reasons of Students Writing Difficulties**

Category	Sub-category
The sources of writing difficulties	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The complexity of writing skill</li> <li>- The lack of English language proficiency</li> <li>- The misapplication of rules</li> <li>- The lack of practicing writing inside and outside of the classroom</li> <li>- The lack of reading</li> <li>- The lack of motivation</li> </ul>

The table above displays the teachers' answers as to the main sources behind students' writing difficulties. They suggested some reasons which they believe the causes making writing a difficult activity for students. The first reason concerns the complexity of writing skill for it consists of many components some of which students may lack completely, some of which they may have only partially mastered. In order to be competent in writing, one should master and respect all the components and conventions of writing skill. In this sense, participant 2 states:

*“Writing has many aspects the students need to respect. These conventions are spelling, punctuation, capitalization, etc.”*

The second source of students’ writing difficulties is the lack of English language proficiency. They consider the *lack of English language competence* as one of the most significant barriers to the development of students in writing. That is to say, one’s writing becomes poor if he is deficient in English language so that he is unable to correctly apply its rules at the level of words, sentences and other English language elements and even to accurately apply the English writing conventions. Participant 1 reveals:

*“May be due to the lack of competence. They have very limited competence in the foreign language including vocabulary, grammar, and misapplication of rules. Sometimes they do know the rule, but they don’t know how to use it correctly.”*

According to the teachers, students’ writing problems are also caused by the lack of practicing writing inside the classroom due to the insufficiency of time allocated to teaching writing, and outside of the classroom as well. Participants handled this issue:

*“Another source is the lack of practice whether inside or outside the classroom.” (Participant 1)*

*“The lack of practicing writing whether inside or outside of the classroom. As I told you inside the classroom the times is not enough, but they work only if they know that the assignment will be marked.” (Participant 3)*

*“The lack of practicing writing; they are trained to write only in the module of writing but not in the rest modules.” (Participant 4)*

Besides, the findings in the above table show that the lack of exposure to reading is another source of students’ writing difficulties, and this reflects their lack of interest in reading. This latter is a receptive skill which teachers believe it can assist students to possess a topic-related knowledge, vocabulary, different forms of sentence structure and writing conventions so that they can write well. Participant 3 argues :



*“To enhance writing reading is the main solution. Students don’t read; this is another reason behind the difficulties that students encounter when writing.”*

Last but not least, the interviewees profess that the lack of internal and external motivation is a potential challenge faced by learners when they come to practice writing. In other words, when learners are not motivated, they produce unacceptable writing performance. One source of external motivation is finding a context in which students gain opportunities to practice writing. Participant 2 declares that students don’t have many occasions to write comparing with the other skills : speaking and listening. However, according to participant 3, though they lack motivation, students become obliged to write because they know that their writing will be formally evaluated and graded.

#### **4.1.5. Section Five**

This is the last section of the interview; it contains three questions (23-15) which aim at gathering from teachers facts about possible solutions they use to prevent the challenges encountering them when teaching writing and, thus, to improve their students’ writing performance, their suggestions that can lead students to reach the expected level of competence in writing and some complementary views they suppose relevant to the topic under discussion. Their responses to the questions are displayed in tables.

**Q23.** Can you describe what solutions do you use to prevent the challenges encountering you as a teacher, and to improve your students’ writing performance?

**Table 31. Solutions to Prevent Challenges Encountering Teachers and Students**

Main Category	Sub-category
Challenges encountering Teacher Student	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The well preparation of lectures</li> <li>- The variation of teaching methods</li> <li>- The arrangement of extra- and remedial sessions</li> <li>- The employment and the variation of technical tools/ materials to raise students' motivation</li> <li>- The variation of activities               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ To cope with students' different levels</li> <li>✓ To offer students more opportunities to practice writing</li> </ul> </li> <li>- The engagement of students in reading assignments               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ to develop their English language competence</li> <li>✓ to enrich their knowledge-related-topic</li> <li>✓ to enhance their writing</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

In response to question 23, the teachers suggest a number of effective solutions that are workable by the side of teacher and students as well. To start with, participant3 considers the well preparation of lectures a main solution. Participant 2 proposes two ideas. First, since the classroom consists of different learners of different learning levels and ways, the teacher should vary teaching methods or use an eclectic method to overcome challenges encountering teachers of writing. Second, since the time allocated to teaching writing in the classroom is not sufficient, the arrangement of extra- and remedial sessions is a focal decision to be made by teachers.

To improve the context and boost up the results of teaching writing, teachers support the idea of varying teaching materials, according to participant 3, and employing technical tools, according to participant 2, in order to increase their students' motivation. In the same context, both participants 1 and 3 recommend the variation of classroom activities and home

assignments in order to cope with students' different learning levels and to offer them more opportunities to practice writing.

Finally, there is a consensus among the interviewees that they engage their students in reading assignments for they are beneficial to and complementary with writing assignment. They believe that reading can enrich their knowledge with different facts about different topics, eliminate their English language deficiencies and, thus, enhance students' English language competence by enriching their vocabulary, syntax for they are exposed to different forms of sentence structures and writing mechanics so that they achieve accuracy and fluency in their writing.

**Q24.** According to you, how do you think students can reach the expected level of competence in writing?

**Table 32. Teachers' Suggestions for Students to Develop their Writing Competence**

Category	Sub-category
Teachers' suggestions for students to develop their writing	- Reading - Practicing writing

To respond question 24, the instructors offer two main suggestions for students to reach the expected level of competence in writing. To begin with, the interviewed members suggest reading as a powerful pedagogical activity that can improve students' writing because it offers them an opportunity for them to be exposed to a variety of vocabulary, correct spelling, different forms of sentences and writing mechanics. Moreover, it can enrich their knowledge and gain different ideas about different topics so that they can improve their writing content. However, in order to reach this aim, they need to select what they need to read, develop reading strategies and analytical skills to analyze the written texts in terms of diction, sentence structures and other writing conventions.

Based the key principle that the more one practices writing, the more writing is developed, they also put forth that constant practice of writing can enhance writing. The achievement of this objective requires students to create more chances for themselves to practice writing.

**Q25.** Thank you for your assistance and for the significant information you provide, are there any additions you want to supply before we end the interview?

To end with, only one interviewee, participant 4, supplies his viewpoint about the requirement of developing writing skill for three reasons : its importance in itself, its serve to the other modules, and its significant role to the one's future professional career.

## **4.2. Discussion and Interpretations of the Interview Findings**

The main aim of this study is to investigate the extent to which teaching rhetorical canons can enhance EFL students' writing performance. The achievement of this objective requires information about the context of teaching writing, particularly the attitudes and opinions of teachers about the practice of teaching writing, problems encountering them when instructing writing and difficulties facing students when approaching writing. This kind of information is obtained through an interview which comprises of five sections each of which accomplishes a chief theme, and serves to answer the first question. The findings of the interview are discussed yielding the following interpretations in terms of two main axes.

### **4.2.1. Teaching Writing Practice**

Teaching writing cannot be detached from its general framework which consists of several components: teacher experience, syllabus, time, and methodology including approaches and materials used when teaching writing, and students. In fact, these components can influence the practice of instructing writing. To start with, according to the findings of th interview, the teachers instructing writing are all qualified; they have different levels of

experience ranging between sufficient to considerable in teaching writing despite their dissimilar orientations. The participants explain in details the conformity of syllabus content to the requirements and needs of second year level, and the proper balance of syllabus divisions between the first and second semesters. Specifically, in the first semester, students are taught the basics of excellent sentence structure moving to writing paragraph, introduction and conclusion, whereas in the second semester, they are expected to write different types of essays. According to the findings, syllabus adaptation is possible when necessary taking into consideration other factors such students' needs and comprehension level, time, etc. However, despite the conventionality of syllabus to second year students' needs, the interview findings affirm that syllabus may not be completed in the two semesters due to time constraints. Such data indicate that three sessions per week are not sufficient to instruct writing. To compensate for this lacuna, teachers employ extra-sessions and extend writing practice to the outside of the classroom.

Concerning methodology, as shown in the results, it is appeared that writing instructors prefer being eclectic when teaching writing, and they implement different principles from a variety of teaching methods to cope with the diversity of learners, their needs and their learning ways taking into consideration the type and the objectives of a lesson taught. Moreover, the variety of students requires to put into practice several types of teaching materials. However, the findings of the interview reveal that though teachers favours the use of different tools when teaching writing, their classrooms lack teaching materials, and they are limited to the frequent use of adapted documents which make their classrooms to be more traditional. To overcome this problem, teachers attempt to vary in the classroom activities and the strategies they use for the classroom assignments to cover different aspects of writing including ideas, organization and style., and they encourage their students to write about

different topics drawn from their personal and academic life and experience, social issues, etc. which are given by teacher and/or selected by students.

Though teachers make their efforts when teaching writing, they still encounter difficulties related not only to the teaching side but also to the learning side, particularly to the students themselves. The findings demonstrate that the size of the class is one of the challenges the teachers meet in writing class. That is to say, the number of students in classroom obliges teacher to use different teaching methods, select a variety of materials, vary the activities, etc. but they don't succeed in providing some teaching elements in most cases.

#### **4.2.2. Students' Writing Difficulties**

According to Harmer (2007), the most remarkable difficulty in writing lies not only in generating and arranging ideas, but also in rendering them into readable text. In this study, generally speaking, the interview results demonstrate that teachers are not satisfied with their students' writing performance because they make errors of different types reflecting the difficulties they encounter when writing. To begin with, through the interview responses, teachers provide substantial facts on their students' writing content which is described as poor and unacceptable due to the lack of knowledge on the topic. In other words, they acclaim that, except a small number of students who succeed in explaining the subject in an acceptable way, the majority of them use one or two ideas which are repeated many times ; they are unable to develop the topic they write about. Due to the lack of thoughts, students cannot classify the few ideas they discover in the three larger parts : introduction, development and conclusion. The findings of the interview endorse that students use the same ideas in the essay parts ; this makes it difficult for teachers to distinguish the three essay sections as students use the same ideas in the three parts and they ignore the strategies of writing introduction, development and conclusion.

The teachers' responses in the interview approve the students' writing difficulties at sentential level. Concerning vocabulary, teachers report that students don't vary words rather they improperly use the same and the common words which are brought up from their middle and secondary school career. Besides, students are deficient in sentence structure and variation. That is to say, they fail to construct a sentence, and a number of their sentences are run-on sentences and comma splices empty of punctuation marks and capitalizations and full of spelling errors. This make difficult for teachers to distinguish the beginning from the end of every sentence. According to the interview results, it seems that the learners don't have sufficient knowledge of grammar, that is the skeleton of every language, including the logical order of the parts of speech, subject-verb agreement and many other problems appearing in their writing. Furthermore, they frequently rely on short and simple sentences starting with subject cluster; this renders their writing style to be choppy. Since they utilize an inappropriate structure which complicates the content and comprehension of the text, their writing becomes boring for their readers.

#### **4.2.3. Reasons of Students' Writing Difficulties**

One among the objectives of conducting the interview is to explore the reasons behind students' writing difficulties. The findings of the interview affirm that students meet difficulties when they come to write because of some reasons clarified by teachers. First, they believe that the complexity of writing skill causes the writing problems among EFL learners. In order to write, students need to master several writing sub-skills: content, writing mechanics, sentence structure, selection of vocabulary, spelling, organization, grammar, coherence, etc. (Raimes, 1983) each of which has certain rules. Thus, students find it difficult to apply these various rules. Additionally, from teachers' perspective, the interview results demonstrate that students don't have a good command of English language when composing,

and thus they usually think in Arabic the features of which appear in their writing performance. This practice of writing can restrain the acquisition and the use of English language because of their transference of structures and vocabulary from their first language when using foreign in an incorrect way. In fact, English language proficiency can provide students with a linguistic competence so that they can think and accurately and fluently write in English.

Writing ability is not naturally acquired, but it is usually learned and improved through practice and experience throughout the time. For this reason, it is commonly believed that motivation is a crucial factor which leads to success and achievement in the learning process (Harmer, 2016). Through this interview, it is validated that the students' lack of enthusiasm helps in their failure to appreciate writing skill and increase their reluctance to write which is evaluated as underdeveloped performance. Due to the lack of both motivation and English language competence, students face another obstacle that hinders their writing ability; it is the lack of practice of writing whether inside or outside of the classroom. According to the teachers, students don't make their efforts to create further chances for more writing practice.

Finally, the findings of the interview corroborate that students fail to write because they also don't have ideas to say. In fact, teachers give the lack of reading as a reason for the learners' poor writing content. It is proved that reading can enrich one's knowledge. To illustrate, Vaughn and Bos (2003) defines reading activity "as the process of interacting with text to construct with meaning by combining the author's information with reader's background knowledge" (p.312). Moreover, reading is an activity which enables readers to interact with the text at diction, syntax and other elements to arrive at appropriate interpretation. Thus, this activity can enrich one's writing style as well. In this concern, Johnson (2008) explains the benefits of reading in the improvement of writing style; he:



*“believes that the relationship between these two skills is that reading helps learners become better writer, by making them in contact with the rules of grammar, consequently they develop the language structure, grammar and increase their vocabulary; hence, reading in the writing classroom is understood as the appropriate input for the acquisition of writing skill since it is believed that reading passages will somehow function as primary model for which writing skill can be learned, or at least inferred.”*

*(P. 07)*

#### **4.2.4. Teachers’ Solutions to Eliminate Students’ Writing Difficulties**

For Hedge (2005), “successful writing goes beyond producing clear and accurate sentences since learners must be aided to write and express their ideas in the most appropriate and creative way” (P. 95). This implies that poor writing skills originate from two factors: the teacher and the learner. On the basis of this idea, the teachers provide some solutions they used to employ in order to enhance their teaching methodology so that to arrive at satisfactorily teaching practices and to eliminate their students’ writing skill.

Through interview responses, since the classroom is of different learners and, thus, different learning ways, teachers are aware of the requirements of class diversity. In addition to the well preparation of lectures, it seems that writing instructors prefer to use eclectic approach to teach writing, which enables them to select from different approaches principles what suit the prerequisites of teaching situation. They also need to vary in the teaching materials they employ when teaching writing class. To compensate for the insufficiency of time of teaching writing, they arrange extra- sessions for offering students more chance to practice writing and for remedial purposes as well.

As a matter of fact, no teacher instruct in the same way under the same conditions, each teacher has his own methodology. However, teachers can be a source of demotivation. So, the teacher is considered to be the first one who should help his students to increase their motivation. To attain this goal, teachers should employ and vary teaching materials to raise students' motivation. In fact, materials help to stimulate and foster writing practices by both teachers and students (Brown, 1995). As a matter of fact, materials can also bring systematic description of technique and activities to be exploited in the classroom (Brown, 1995). In other words, the variation in the teaching materials leads to the variation of activities. This can guarantee more opportunities for students to practice writing.

As a matter of fact, the lack of English language competence leads students to borrow from their mother tongue linguistic elements and rules which are appeared in their written production in English language. Thus, the teachers' responses in the interview show that the greater the learners are exposed to read printed texts, over time, the more their writing abilities will be developed at two levels: English language proficiency and knowledge. Since writing and reading share the same linguistic features as they belong to the same written medium, reading assignments offer students an opportunity to be exposed to written language which can improve their English language competence so that they are able to write using the appropriate conventions, grammar, appropriate tone and voice, the writing process, a range of vocabulary, sentence structures and verb tenses, etc. This can enhance their writing style. Besides, writing can enrich students' knowledge-related-topic because one starts writing when he records and gathers the ideas he knows about the topic. This knowledge can be attained through engaging in reading assignments. Therefore, teachers should engage their students in reading assignments for the purpose boost up their writing.

#### **4.2.5. Teachers' Suggestions for Students to Improve Their Writing**

Since excellent writing is important for students' present academic and future professional career, developing this skill is required. For this reason, according to the results of the interview, teachers do agree on two main suggestions for students to reach the expected level in writing competence. To begin with, teachers advise students to read a lot because writing can be developed by reading. Specifically, writing is a language skill which is classified with the other skills into groups on the basis of some parameters. That is to say, skills are interrelated, and one can use one skill to develop the other skills. Based on the basic principle that the input should come before the output, in order to produce, teachers expose their students to a receptive skill. If listening can develop speaking, reading can improve writing. To explicate the relationship between writing and reading, Reynolds et al. (2007) maintain that:

*Without question, reading and writing go hand in hand, and for good reason— they are the basic elements of proficiency. [...] Reading [...] is the ability to decode the symbols automatically in order to derive linguistic meaning, and writing is the automatic production of symbols to express linguistic meaning. “(357)*

The second suggestion given by teachers is the frequent practice of writing. Writing is a skill which can be learned and developed with experience and practice. In other words, the lack of practice can prevent the development of one's writing. The lack of writing practice that may further compound difficulties with writing can be caused by the diminution of students' motivation and their attitude towards writing as time-consuming. However, due to the insufficiency of classroom time, teachers arrange extra-sessions and extend writing

practice to the outside of classroom. Moreover, they advice their students to find and/or create more opportunities to practice writing.

## **Conclusion**

This section concerns with the thorough investigation of the Algerian EFL teachers' actual practices, problems they encounter when teaching writing and the procedures they employ to eliminate their students' writing difficulties when discovering ideas, vocabulary, structuring sentences and using mechanics. The aim of this section is to gather supplementary data for conducting the second section of the research application. The findings yielded from the analysis of the teachers' interview demonstrate that the writing instructors face problems at different levels: insufficiency time, class size and lack of material related to teaching context. On the other hand, it also reveal that, when they come to write, students also meet difficulties covering different features of writing: content, ideas organization, topic development, sentence structure and variation, vocabulary, spelling, grammar, writing mechanics, which happen because of a number of reasons such as the lack of English language competence, interest, practice and reading. Additionally, teachers know their students' weaknesses and are aware of their precious role in improving their learners' writing ability through the use of different teaching methods, strategies, materials, the variation of activities and many other solutions. Finally, they offer them two main suggestions: reading and writing, both of which can assist them to reach the expected writing competence. Despite that teachers make their efforts to enhance their practice of teaching writing in order to upgrade their students' writing performance, students still face difficulties when writing.

## CHAPTER FIVE :

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## **Introduction**

As indicated in Chapter 3, designated to the research methodology, writing test was constructed and conducted to attain the second and the main objective of this study. It was distributed in two different stages: pre-test and post-test, to measure the participants' writing performance before and after the intervention. Therefore, in the present chapter, and after an independent quantitative presentation of each stage of the writing test, at three levels: content, organization and style, a comparison between the two phases was conducted to explicitly examine the effectiveness of teaching the rhetorical canons to EFL students. In fact, the measurement of writing test was accomplished by means of some specific statistical procedures: descriptive statistics, to identify the pre-test and post-test's scores, and then sample paired T test to compare the mean score of the two tests, so that the present researcher can make appropriate interpretations and, then, draw on conclusions.

### **5.3. Results**

The findings of the writing test are displayed and explained in three main aspects: content, organization and style. In the first aspect, content, the researcher is concerned with the number of ideas and their relevance to the topic. Concerning the second aspect, the focus is at two levels: smaller and larger. At smaller level, the analysis covers the classification and the arrangement of ideas; whereas, at larger level, the concern is measuring the presence of introduction and conclusion, and examining the effectiveness of the three discourse parts in terms of the macrostructures of each section. The last aspect is style in which three features are studied; they are: the relevance and the variation of vocabulary, variation of syntax in terms of structure, length and opening and writing mechanics including spelling and punctuation. The presentation of results starts with the pre-test and, then, the post-test followed by paired samples t test based on the comparison between pre-test and post test.



### 5.3.1. Results of Pre-test

The participants' pre-test (from 1 to 30) are gathered and analyzed to measure their writing performance before the intervention.

#### 5.3.1.1. Writing Content

The ideas which appeared in the pre-test essays (from 1 to 30) were analyzed in terms of number and relevance. The analysis of the data yielded the following results in Table 33 and Table 34.

##### 5.3.1.1.1. The Number of Ideas

**Table 33. The Number of Ideas in Participants' Writing (Pre-Test)**

	<b>N</b>	<b>Sum</b>	<b>Mini- mum</b>	<b>Maxi- mum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Std Error Mean</b>	<b>Variance</b>
<b>The number of ideas</b>	30	106	2	6	3.5333	1.2794	0.2336	1.6368

According to the descriptive statistics displayed in Table 33, the total number of ideas produces by the thirty (30) participants to develop a topic is 106 ideas with a mean of 3.53. Though development differs from one topic to the other, it seems that participants' writing lacks ideas, and this can make it less appealing. The standard deviation (SD=1.2794) is smaller than the mean value, but larger than its normal value (0-1). This explains that there is a variability of number of ideas among individuals.

### 5.3.1.1.2. The Relevance of Ideas

**Table 34. The Relevance of Ideas (Pre-Test)**

	N	Sum	Mini- mum	Maxi- mum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	Variance
<b>The relevant ideas</b>	30	77	1	5	2.5667	0.9714	0.1774	0.9437
<b>The irrelevant ideas</b>	30	30	0	2	1.0333	0.7649	0.1397	0.5851

The table 34 shows the statistical findings about the relevance of ideas in the participants' writing production. According the results in the table, it seems that the writing performance of students comprises both relevant and irrelevant ideas. However, the number of the relevant ideas, occupying 77 with a mean of 2.56, is greater than the number of the irrelevant ideas that is only 30 with a mean of 1.03. To interpret these results, this small number of thoughts implies that the participants lack of either knowledge about the theme or interest towards the topic. As shown in the table, in both items, the standard deviation value (SD= 0.9714, 0.7649) is smaller than the average of the data set and regulated between its normal rate. This indicates that standard deviation value represents data where the results are very close in value to the mean.

### 5.3.1.2. Writing Organization

The participants' pre-test essays (from 1 to 30) were analyzed in terms of larger and small sections so that to focus on the presence and the effectiveness of the essays' larger parts and the classification of ideas and their arrangement in the larger sections. The analysis of the data generates the following results in tables from 35 to 38.

### 5.3.1.2.1. The Presence of Introduction and Conclusion

**Table 35. The Presence of the Essays' Introduction and Conclusion (Pre-Test)**

<b>Essay Sections</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Sum</b>	<b>Mini- mum</b>	<b>Maxi- mum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Std Error Mean</b>	<b>Variance</b>
<b>Introduction</b>	30	6	0	1	0.2	0.4068	0.0743	0.1655
<b>Conclusion</b>	30	8	0	1	0.2667	0.4498	0.0821	0.2023

Table 35 displays statistics about whether introduction and/ or conclusion are included in the participants' writing pieces. According to the finding shown in the table, it seems that out of the whole number of the participants only 6, with a mean 0.2, who initiate their writing with introduction section. On the other hand, only 8 participants end their writing with a conclusion; it corresponds to a mean 0.2667. These results prove that the participants may lack knowledge about writing introductions and conclusions. Additionally, they lack awareness about the extent to which the presence of introductions and conclusions can enhance the quality and, as a consequence, the comprehension of the essay and the grade awarded to it. In both cases, the standard deviation value (SD= 0.4068, 0.4498) is greater than the mean of the data set. This high standard deviation indicates greater variability in data points, and higher dispersion from the mean.

### 5.3.1.2.2. The Efficiency of the Essays' Larger Sections

**Table 36. The effectiveness of the essays' larger sections (Pre-Test)**

Essays' larger sections	The Sub-Components	N	Sum	Mini-mum	Maxi-mum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	Variance
Introduction	Opening Statement	30	6	0	1	0.2	0.4068	0.0743	0.1655
	Thesis Statement	30	5	0	1	0.1667	0.379	0.0692	0.1437
	Plan	30	4	0	1	0.1333	0.3457	0.0631	0.1195
Development	Independent sections	30	21	0	1	0.7	0.4661	0.0851	0.2172
	Mixed Ideas	30	9	0	1	0.3	0.4661	0.0851	0.2172
Conclusion	Restating the Main Idea	30	4	0	1	0.1333	0.3457	0.0631	0.1195
	Summarizing the Main Points	30	8	0	1	0.2667	0.4498	0.0821	0.2023
	Closing Statement	30	7	0	1	0.2333	0.4302	0.0785	0.1851

Table 36 shows results concerning the efficiency of the larger sections including introduction, development and conclusion in the participants' written productions. To start with introduction section, it consists of three main parts: opening statement, thesis statement and plan. However, as it can be noticed in the table, only 6 participants put a beginning division in their writing pieces. Regarding the mean 0.2, it seems that the introductory statement appeared in the introduction of six participants. Contrarily, if thesis statement employed in two participants writings, the third sub-component, plan, used in only one participant's introduction. The results indicate that the participants are not able to write a good

introduction and they ignore the necessary elements of this sub-component of the introduction. Second, as to the development, it should correspond with the nature of the theme; in case of advantage/disadvantage essay, ideas should be separated in two independent portions. The findings reveal that, from the entire number, 21 participants place their ideas into two independent sections; one assigned to only advantages and the other allocated for the disadvantages. In contrast, 9 participants rely on a mixed one paragraph in which they blend both types of ideas: advantages and disadvantages. Finally, a conclusion is also based on three elements. That is to say, the writer is supposed to declare his conclusion in three sub-components: restating the main idea, summarizing the main points and closing statement; following that order. In spite of this, the results illustrated in the table above show that the main idea is restated only in the writing pieces of four students matching up to a mean 0.1333. Additionally, findings demonstrate that only eight participants, matching a mean 0.2667, employ the second sub-component of conclusion, which is briefly summarizing the main points discussed in the development; whereas, only 7 participants, with mean 0.2333, end their conclusions with a closing statement. These findings drawn from pre-test as to the effectiveness of larger units in the student writers' essays make evident that the participants are not capable to write an acceptable conclusion and that they are unaware of the elemental constituents of a conclusion. In all items, it appears that the grades of the standard deviation are higher than the mean, due to the variance of the data points, excluding the case of the independent sections, in development paragraph, where the SD equates 0.4661 which is less than the mean value standing for the non-variability of the data points.

### 5.3.1.2.3. The Classification of Ideas

**Table 37. The Types of Ideas in the Participants' Essays (Pre-Test)**

	<b>N</b>	<b>Sum</b>	<b>Mini- mum</b>	<b>Max- mum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Std Error Mean</b>	<b>Variance</b>
<b>Definition</b>	30	50	1	2	1.6667	0.4795	0.0875	0.2299
<b>Comparison</b>	30	14	0	1	0.4667	0.5074	1.0926	0.2575
<b>Circumstance</b>	30	33	0	2	1.0667	0.6397	0.1168	0.4092
<b>Relationship</b>	30	3	0	1	0.1	0.3051	0.0557	0.0931
<b>Testimony</b>	30	6	0	1	0.2	0.4842	0.0884	0.2345

Table 37 gives a quantitative description as to the classification of ideas produced by the participants. As can be seen in this table, the participants employ different categories of ideas. Out of total number of one hundred and six (106), fifty (50) ideas with mean 1.66 are definitions. Comparisons are also existed in their writing for they occupy 14 ideas with mean 0.46. Another idea classification appeared in the writers' performance is circumstance. This category constitutes thirty three (33) ideas with a mean 1.06. The fourth classification composes of those ideas showing relationships; relationships are only three (3) out of 106 ideas corresponding to a mean 0.1. The last category can be seen in participants' written production is testimony. This latter is apparent in only three (6) ideas with mean 0.2 in the total ideas of the participants. Though the five categories are employed, students' writing is characterized by the over use of definitions giving a little importance to the other types. In case of comparison, relationship and testimony, the standard deviation values are greater than the mean due to the variability of the points of the data set; whereas, the standard deviations

(SD= 0.4795, 0.6397) are lower than the average, but it is acceptable for they demonstrates the less variability among the scores of data set.

#### 5.3.1.2.4. Sequencing of Ideas in the Three Sections of Essays

**Table 38. The Arrangement of Idea in the Three Sections of Essays (Pre-Test)**

Types of Ideas	Essays' Sections	N	Sum	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	Variance
<b>Definition</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	30	25	0	1	0.8333	0.7466	0.1363	0.5575
	<b>Development</b>	30	13	0	1	0.4333	0.5683	0.1038	0.323
	<b>Conclusion</b>	30	12	0	1	0.4	0.5632	0.1028	0.3172
<b>Circumstance</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	30	04	0	1	0.1333	0.3457	0.0631	0.1195
	<b>Development</b>	30	22	0	1	0.7333	0.9072	0.1656	0.823
	<b>Conclusion</b>	30	07	0	1	0.2333	0.504	0.092	0.254
<b>Comparison</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	30	03	0	1	0.1	0.3051	0.0557	0.0931
	<b>Development</b>	30	08	0	1	0.2667	0.4498	0.0821	0.2023
	<b>Conclusion</b>	30	03	0	1	0.1	0.3051	0.0557	0.0931
<b>Testimony</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	30	1	0	1	0.0333	0.1826	0.0333	0.0333
	<b>Development</b>	30	3	0	1	0.1	0.3051	0.0557	0.0931
	<b>Conclusion</b>	30	2	0	1	0.0667	0.2537	0.0463	0.0644
<b>Relationship</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<b>Development</b>	30	3	0	1	0.1	0.3051	0.0557	0.0931
	<b>Conclusion</b>	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 38 introduces statistics about the arrangement of ideas: definition, comparison, circumstance, relationship and testimony, in the three larger sections of the participants' written essays. They are ordered according to their frequent occurrence in the writing productions from the highest to the lowest position. According to the results presented in the table above, it seems that the participants distribute their different ideas in the three parts of the essay. In the first position, the participants overuse definitions in their pre-tests. Definitions appear in the three sections, but it seems that 25 definitions are in the introduction (a mean rank of 0.8333); whereas, in the development, there exist 13 definitions with a mean rank of 0.4333. They are also used in conclusion; their sum is 12 corresponding to 0.4. Circumstance is ranked in the second position in terms of their employment in the participants' essays. The total number of circumstance ideas is 33 out of which 22 ideas, with a mean 0.7333, are mentioned in the development; whereas, 7 ideas of circumstances are in the conclusion, corresponding to a mean 0.2333. The remaining circumstance thoughts of which number is 4, with a mean 0.1333, are included in the beginning section of the participants' essays. In the third position, comparisons are also found in the participants' writings. Out of 14, 8 comparison ideas are stated in the development (a mean rank of 0.2667), while the remaining number of ideas is divided into two equal parts, each of which contains 3 ideas corresponding to a mean 0.1, and if one of the two equal parts is declared in the introduction, the other is declared in the conclusion. Testimony patterns, such as statistics, maxims and anecdotes, are also implemented in the participants' writings. By scrutinizing the results in the table above, it seems that testimony ideas are of small number comparing with the previously mentioned classifications. Only 6 testimony ideas are extracted from the total 30 pre-test essays. If only 1 testimony idea, with a mean 0.0333, is mentioned in the participants' introduction, 3 (a mean rank of 0.1) ideas are used in the development, and 2



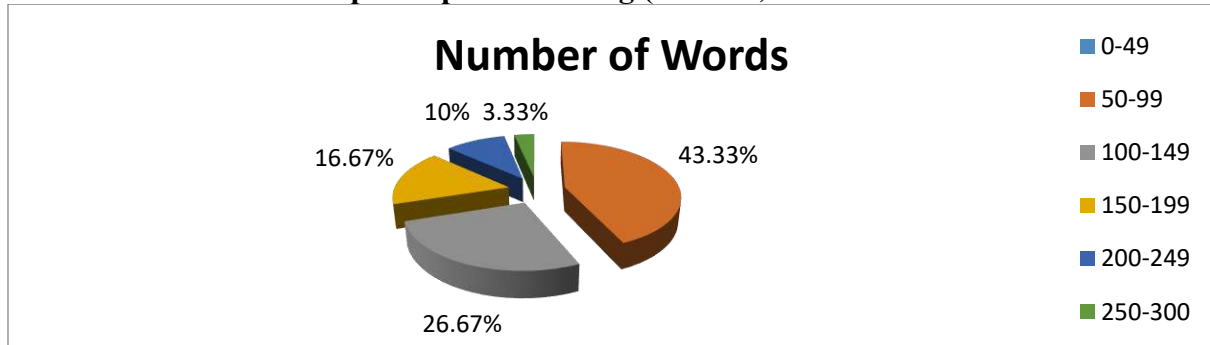
ideas (a mean rank of 0.0667) are stated in the conclusion. Finally, the participants employ relationship ideas, to express contraries and exclusion, etc. of which number is 3. They are expressed only in the development (a mean level of 0.1); there is relationship idea neither in the introduction nor in the conclusion. As shown in the table, though the participant writers use a mixture of idea patterns to develop the theme, it appears that they frequently rely on definitions. This can be interpreted by the reason of their lack of knowledge about the topic. As to the standard deviations, they are greater than the mean of the data set, and this is theorized to be due to the variability of the data points, but in case of the use of definitions in the introduction, it (SD= 0.7466) is less than the mean value (M=0.8333) because of the data points are not variant but close to the mean value. As displayed in the table, in some cases, particularly the use of relationship ideas in the introduction and the conclusion, where standard deviation equates zero (SD=0) for the results are identical and equals the mean (M=0).

#### **5.3.1.3. Style**

The participants' pre-test essays (from 1 to 30) were analyzed in terms of three levels: vocabulary, syntax and paragraphing. The analysis of the data provides the following results presented in tables from 39 to 46.

### 5.3.1.3.1. Vocabulary

#### The ratio of words in the participants' writing (Pre-test)



**Figure 5. Word Frequency in the Participants' Pre- test Essays**

Figure 8 displays the frequency of the number of words in the participants' essays. In fact, they are asked to write an essay between 250 to 300 words, but the results show that the number of the participants, who respect the suggested amount of words, is only 1 (corresponding to 03.33%); whereas, no one writes under 50 words. As shown in the figure, it seems that the majority of the participants (43.33%) do not pass one hundred (100) words. Out of the thirty, 26.67% of the participants develop their writings using from 100 to 149 words. The remaining number of participants is divided into two parts; if 16.67% of the participants exploit words from 150 to 199 in their essays, the other part, presenting 10% of the total one hundredth of the participants, expresses the topic in 200 to 249 words. These results demonstrate that the use of a small number of words is caused by the participants' lack of vocabulary and knowledge about the topic.

**Table 39. Vocabulary Variety in the Participants' Writings (Pre-Test)**

	<b>N</b>	<b>Sum</b>	<b>Mini- Mum</b>	<b>Maxi- mum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Std Error Mean</b>	<b>Variance</b>
<b>The number of the total words</b>	30	3645	56	250	121.5	54.9682	10.0358	3021.5
<b>The number of the repeated words</b>	30	792	10	43	26.4	7.0837	1.2933	50.1793

Table 39 presents statistics about the repeated words in the participants' essays. As shown in the table above, the total number of words in the thirty participants' essays is 3645 with a mean 121.5. It is also presented in the table that, out of 3645 words, 792 words (a mean rank of 26.4) are used more than one time in the thirty essays of the participants. Though they are less than the average of the data set, standard deviation values (SD= 54.9682, 7.0837) are large indicating the great variability among the data points and, thus, they are not representative.

### 5.3.1.3.2. Syntax

#### 5.3.1.3.2.1. The number of sentences

**Table 40. The Total Number of Sentences in the Participants' Writing (Pre-Test)**

	<b>N</b>	<b>Sum</b>	<b>Mini- mum</b>	<b>Maxi- mum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Std Error Mean</b>	<b>Variance</b>
<b>Number of Sentences</b>	30	252	4	16	8.3	3.2711	0.5972	4.5931

Table 40 exposes findings about the total number of sentences that the participants generate when writing. As shown in the table, the sum number of sentences in the thirty

participants' writing is 252, with a mean 8.3, which is considered a small amount in the case of university students who are supposed to write more sentences when developing a topic. In this case, this lack of sentences can be interpreted either by uninteresting topic or to the participants' carelessness to write. Concerning the standard deviation value, it equates 3.1711; even it is less than the mean value, it is large and, hence, it indicates a higher variance among the data points.

#### 5.3.1.3.2.2. Sentence Variation

**Table 41. The Types of Sentences in the Participants' Writing (Pre-Test)**

	N	Sum	Mini- mum	Maxi- mum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	Variance
<b>Simple Sentence</b>	30	136	3	6	4.5333	1.0743	0.1961	1.154
<b>Compound Sentence</b>	30	50	0	3	1.6667	0.8841	0.1614	0.7816
<b>Complex Sentence</b>	30	38	0	3	1.2667	0.7849	0.1433	0.6161
<b>Compound- Complex Sentence</b>	30	28	0	5	0.9333	1.3374	0.2442	1.7885

Table 41 presents findings of types of sentences in the participants' writing. From the results displayed in this table, it can be concluded that the participants employ the four types of sentence. Out of 252 sentences, 136 sentences are simple; corresponding to a mean 4.53. Another type appears in their writing is compound sentence. This latter reaches 50 sentences with a mean of 1.66. Complex sentences also exist in the writing productions; they are thirty eight (38) sentences matching a mean 1.26. The last type of sentences is compound-complex sentence of which the quantity is 28, and equivalents to a mean 0.93. The scores of the data set of both types of sentence: compound and complex, are nor variant and close to the mean

because the standard deviation values (SD= 0.8841, 0.7849) are in the limitation of its normal rate. Since the scores of data set of the other types: simple and compound-complex sentences are greater than the maximum value (1) of the standard deviation, the variance among the points of the data set is high. Though the four types of sentence are present in their writing pieces, it seems that simple sentence dominates their writing and appear everywhere in their essays resulting in what is called choppy and stringy sentences. This implies that the quality of their essays is immature probably due to the lack awareness of the significance of varying sentences in their written performance, the imperfect mastery of syntax knowledge and/or their inability to apply rules of sentence formation using clauses , and that they should receive adequate input from the teacher concerning types of sentence.

### 5.3.1.3.2.3. Sentence length

**Table 42. Sentence Length in Participants' writing (Pre-Test)**

	N	Sum	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	Variance
<b>Short Sentence</b>	30	162	3	9	5.4333	1.6955	0.3096	2.8747
<b>Long Sentence</b>	30	90	0	9	3	2.613	0.4771	1.0172

Table 42 introduces statistic data on the sentence length in the writing of the participants. Based on what is displayed in the table, it is perceived that the participants employ both short sentences, and long sentences. Out of 252 sentences, 162 sentences are short (a mean of 5.43); whereas, the number of long sentences is 90 which is compatible to a mean 3. Though both types of sentence in terms of length are used, it appears that short sentences are overused than the long sentences. The results entail that they are unable to write and control a long sentence. The overuse of short sentences is justified by their apprehension

of the risk of making errors and, thus, lack of clarity. This might be the result of their incomplete mastery of the basic rules of syntax in writing. Since the standard deviation values (SD= 1.6955, 2.613) are higher than 1, the rates of the data set are variant.

#### 5.3.1.3.2.4. Sentence Opening

**Table 43. The Sentence Opening in the Participants' Writing (Pre-Test)**

	<b>N</b>	<b>Sum</b>	<b>Mini- mum</b>	<b>Maxi- mum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Std Error Mean</b>	<b>Variance</b>
<b>Subject Cluster</b>	30	200	4	11	6.6667	1.7087	0.312	2.9195
<b>Sentence Openers</b>	30	52	0	6	1.7333	1.7604	0.321	1.0299

The table above demonstrates statistical results about sentence opening in the participants' writing communication. As shown in table 43, participants' sentences start with both types: subject cluster and sentence openers. The results indicate that 200 sentences, matching a mean of 6.66, begin with different forms of subject cluster; whereas, the remaining number of sentences, which is 52, scoring to the estimated mean 1.73, start with other forms that are classified under the general heading sentence openers. On the basis of these results, it can be assumed that the participants prefer and overuse subject cluster to start their sentences; than the sentence openers. For the standard deviation values (SD= 1.7087, 1.7604) are higher than the normal limit (1), the grades of the data set are variant.

### 5.3.1.3.3. Paragraphing Devices

#### 5.3.1.3.3.1. Spelling Errors

**Table 44. Spelling Errors in Participants' Writing (Pre-Test)**

	<b>N</b>	<b>Sum</b>	<b>Mini- mum</b>	<b>Maxi- mum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Std Error Mean</b>	<b>Variance</b>
<b>Spelling Errors</b>	30	277	1	12	9.2333	3.9458	0.903	5.2885
<b>Omission</b>	30	85	0	6	2.8333	2.6008	0.4748	1.3851
<b>Substitution</b>	30	66	0	8	2.2	1.9369	0.3536	0.6483
<b>Insertion</b>	30	58	1	5	1.9333	1.3629	0.2488	0.892
<b>Transposition</b>	30	68	1	6	2.2667	1.3113	0.2394	1.0989

Table 44 illustrates some information about spelling errors made by the participants. The findings in the table show that the participants' writing contains 277 misspellings with a mean 9.23. In fact, the results demonstrate that the participants' writing contains different types of spelling errors: homophones, mispronunciation, misapplication of spelling rule, misrepresentation of vowels, and misrepresentation of consonants, silent letters, double consonants and vowels, which are categorized under general titles: omission, substitution, insertion, and transposition. As shown in the table, the errors of omission, with 85 spelling errors (2.8333 as a mean) are the most frequent errors produced by the participants in the pre-test. The spelling errors of transposition occupy the second position; they are 68, corresponding to a mean 2.2667, out of 277 spelling errors. In the third place, spelling errors

of substitution are 66 matching a mean 2.2. In the last position, spelling errors of insertion are also existed in the participants' writing; the total number of spelling errors is 58 corresponding to a mean 1.9333. A data analysis revealed that the cause of the above errors was the writers' limited knowledge of English vocabulary and/or carelessness. As the standard deviation values are higher than the normal limit (1), the grades of the data set are variant.

### 5.3.1.3.3.2. Punctuation

**Table 45. Punctuation Errors in the Participants' Writing (Pre-Test)**

	N	Sum	Mini- mum	Maxi- mum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	Variance
<b>Capitalization</b>	30	116	1	8	3.8667	2.2702	3.8667	5.154
<b>Run On sentence</b>	30	37	0	4	1.2333	2.1284	0.3886	4.5299
<b>Comma Splice</b>	30	19	0	3	0.6333	0.4901	0.0894	0.2402
<b>Misuse of Semi-colon</b>	30	3	0	1	0.1	0.3051	0.0557	0.0931
<b>Misuse of Colon</b>	30	1	0	1	0.0333	0.1826	0.0333	0.0333

Table 45 illustrates the 176 punctuation errors extracted from the participants' writings. These errors cover capitalization, comma omission, misuse of comma, misuse of semi-colon, misuse of colon. As shown in the table, capitalization errors are 116 (M= 3.8667). In fact, these errors are classified in two types: proper nouns and beginning of sentence. This result demonstrates that the students lack awareness of capitalization in writing and/or understanding of the exact way of applying the capitalization rules. The statistics also present that the participants omit and misuse comma in sentences. The total number of comma



omission in the thirty essays is 37 (M=1.2333); whereas, the sum of comma misuse is 19 (M=0.6333). Omitting and/or misusing comma turn the participants' sentences in to run-on sentences and comma splice. Though it is employed in their writing, semi-colons are misused. The number of misusing semi-colon is 3 (M=0.1). The results show that there is only 1 error of misusing colon (M= 0.3333). If the rates of standard deviation on capitalization and comma omission (SD= 2.2702, 2.1284) imply the variability of the scores of the data set, the other values of the other types of punctuation errors indicate the invariance of the points of the data set for they are less than 1. The incorrectly punctuating sentences can prevent them to control over meaning and tone, and this can prevent readers to understand what is written. These punctuation difficulties are caused by the students' lack of punctuation knowledge incapability to apply punctuation when structuring sentences.

### 5.3.2. Results of Post-test

The participants' post-test (from 1 to 30) are gathered and analyzed to measure their writing performance after the intervention.

#### 5.3.2.1. Writing Content

The ideas which appeared in the post-test essays (from 1 to 30) were analyzed in terms of number and relevance. The analysis of the data yielded the following results in Table 47 and Table 48.

##### 5.3.2.1.1. The Number of Ideas

**Table 46. The number of Ideas (Post-test)**

	<b>N</b>	<b>Sum</b>	<b>Mini- mum</b>	<b>Maxi- mum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Std Error Mean</b>	<b>Variance</b>
<b>The number of ideas</b>	30	148	4	6	4.9333	1.0148	0.1853	1.0299

The descriptive statistics displayed in Table 46 are about the number of ideas in the participants' writing post-test. The findings show that the total number of ideas produced by the participants to develop a topic is 148 ideas with a mean of 4.9333. As presented in the table, the rate of standard deviation is 1.0148 which is lower than the mean (4.9333). This is evidence that the data are not variant and that they are clustered closely around the mean.

### 5.3.2.1.2. The Relevance of Ideas

**Table 47. The relevance of Ideas (Post-test)**

	<b>n</b>	<b>Sum</b>	<b>Mini- mum</b>	<b>Maxi- mum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Std Error Mean</b>	<b>Variance</b>
<b>The relevant ideas</b>	30	131	2	6	4.3667	1.0981	0.2005	1.2057
<b>The irrelevant ideas</b>	30	17	0	2	0.5667	0.6789	0.1035	0.4609

The table 47 shows the statistical findings about the relevance of ideas in the participants' post-test writing production. According to the results, it seems that the participants employ both relevant and irrelevant ideas in their writing productions. First, the number of the relevant ideas is 131 with a mean of 4.3667; whereas, the number of the irrelevant ideas that is 17 corresponding to a mean of 0.5667. As shown in the table, the standard deviation value (SD= 1.0981) is smaller than the average of the data set (M=4.3667). This indicates that standard deviation value represents data where the results are very close in value to the mean. On the other hand, as to the irrelevant ideas, the rate of the standard deviation equals 0.6789 which seems to be higher than the mean of the results. This denotes the greater variability in data points.

### 5.3.2.2. Writing Organization

The participants' thirty post-test essays (from 1 to 30) were analyzed in terms of two sections: larger section in which the focus is on the presence and the effectiveness of the essays' larger parts, and small section in which the concern is about the classification of ideas and their arrangement in the larger sections. The analysis of the data generates the following results in tables from 49 to 52.

#### 5.3.2.2.1. The Presence of Introduction and Conclusion

**Table 48. The Presence of Introduction and Conclusion (Post-test)**

	N	Sum	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	Variance
<b>Introduction</b>	30	28	0	1	0.9333	0.2537	0.0463	0.0644
<b>Conclusion</b>	30	25	0	1	0.8333	0.379	0.0692	0.1437

Table 48 demonstrates statistical data about the presence of introduction and conclusion in the participants' writing pieces. As shown in the table, it seems that, out of thirty, 28 essays start with an introduction, with a mean 0.9333. On the other hand, 25 essays are ended with a conclusion, corresponding to a mean 0.8333. In both items, the standard deviation value (SD= 0.2537, 0.379) is lower than the mean of the data set. This signifies the invariability of data points among the participants, and the less dispersion from the mean.

### 5.3.2.2.2. The Efficiency of the Essays' Larger Sections

**Table 49. The Effectiveness of The Essays' Larger Sections (Post-test)**

Larger Sections	Sub-Components	N	Sum	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	Variance
Introduction	Opening Statement	30	30	1	1	1	0	0	0
	Thesis Statement	30	26	0	1	0.8667	0.3457	0.0631	0.1195
	Plan	30	22	0	1	0.7333	0.4498	0.0821	0.2023
Development	Independent sections	30	27	0	1	0.9	0.3051	0.0557	0.0931
	Mixed Ideas	30	3	0	1	0.1	0.3051	0.0557	0.0931
Conclusion	Restating the Main Idea	30	23	0	1	0.7667	0.4302	0.0785	0.1851
	Summarizing the Main Points	30	30	1	1	1	0	0	0
	Closing Statement	30	21	0	1	0.7	0.4661	0.0851	0.2172

Table 49 presents statistical information about the extent to which the larger sections including introduction, development and conclusion in the participants' written productions are efficient. To start with the introduction as the opening section in every essay, it should consist of three main parts: opening statement, thesis statement and plan. Concerning the first element of the introduction, as it can be noticed in the table, it seems that all the participants' essays start with an opening statement of which the sum is 30 and mean equals 1. As to the second element, only 26 participants ( $M=0.8667$ ) who declare the thesis statement; whereas,

the last element of the introduction, it can be seen that 22 participants (with mean rank of 0.7333) state the plan of what they are going to discuss in the development. The standard deviation value equates 0, and it is lower than the average ( $M=1$ ) because all the scores are identical and, hence, there is no variability among the points of the data set. On the other hand, concerning the thesis statement and the plan, the rate of the standard deviation ( $SD=0.3457, 0.4498$ ) is less than the mean to which the scores are close.

The second element of the essay is the development that is structured according to the nature of the theme. As shown in the table, 27 essays ( $M=0.9$ ) include two independent paragraphs: one assigned to only advantages and the other allocated for the disadvantages. In contrast, only 3 participants, (corresponding to  $M=0.1$ ) write one paragraph in which they blend both types of ideas: advantages and disadvantages. Though they share the same value of the standard deviation ( $SD= 0.3051$ ), and since the SD seems to be less than the mean of the independent paragraphs ( $M= 0.9$ ), but greater than the mean ( $M= 0.1$ ) of mixed ideas- based paragraph, this indicates that the majority of the participants develop their ideas in two independent paragraphs.

Finally, a conclusion is the ending element in all essays; an excellent conclusion should involve three sub-components: restating the main idea, summarizing the main points and closing statement, respectively. As displayed in the table above, the main idea is restated only in 23 essays to a mean 0.7667; whereas, the second element of the conclusion, brief summarize of the main points discussed in the development, are used in all the participants' essays ( $M=1$ ). The results also demonstrate that 21 conclusions ( $M=0.7$ ) ends with a closing statement. The findings drawn from post-test as to the effectiveness of larger units in the student writers' essays make evident that though participant ignore some elements in the beginning and ending sections and refuse conforming some requirements of writing an essay,

they produce acceptable essays. Since the three standard deviations are less than the three mean values, the observed values are close to the sample mean and, thus, there is no variability.

### 5.3.2.2.3. Classification of Ideas

**Table 50. The Classification of Ideas (Post-test)**

	<b>N</b>	<b>Sum</b>	<b>Mini- mum</b>	<b>Maxi- mum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Std Error Mean</b>	<b>Variance</b>
<b>Definition</b>	30	24	0	1	0.8	0.4068	0.0743	0.1655
<b>Comparison</b>	30	22	0	1	0.7333	0.4498	0.0821	0.2023
<b>Circumstance</b>	30	40	1	2	1.3333	0.4795	0.0875	0.2299
<b>Relationship</b>	30	26	0	2	0.8667	0.5713	0.1043	0.3264
<b>Testimony</b>	30	36	0	2	1.2	0.8469	0.1546	0.7172

Table 50 displays statistics about the classification of ideas produced by the participants in their writing post-test. As illustrated in the table, the participants employ different categories of ideas of which total number is 148. Out of 148, 24 ideas, with a mean 0.4068, are definitions. Comparison occupy 22 ideas (M=0.4498). Circumstance constitutes 40 ideas (M=1.06); it seems that comparison ideas occupy the great part. Ideas showing relationships are 26 corresponding to a mean 0.8667; whereas, testimony occupy 36 ideas (M= 1.2). In all cases, the standard deviation values are lower than the mean rates. This demonstrates the less variability among the scores of data set.

#### 5.3.2.2.4. Sequencing of Ideas in the Three Sections of Essays

**Table 51. The Arrangement of Idea in the Three Sections of Essays (Post-Test)**

Types of Ideas	Essays' Sections	N	Sum	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	Variance
Definition	Introduction	30	18	0	1	0.6	0.4982	0.091	0.2482
	Development	30	04	0	1	0.1333	0.3457	0.0631	0.1195
	Conclusion	30	02	0	1	0.0666	0.2537	0.0463	0.0643
Circumstance	Introduction	30	06	0	1	0.2	0.4068	0.0743	0.1655
	Development	30	32	0	3	1.0666	1.0482	0.1914	1.0988
	Conclusion	30	02	0	1	0.0666	0.2537	0.0463	0.0643
Comparison	Introduction	30	03	0	1	0.1	0.3051	0.0557	0.0931
	Development	30	17	0	2	0.5666	0.5040	0.092	0.2540
	Conclusion	30	02	0	1	0.0666	0.2537	0.0463	0.0643
Testimony	Introduction	30	03	0	1	0.1	0.3051	0.0557	0.0931
	Development	30	31	0	4	1.0333	1.0661	0.1946	1.1367
	Conclusion	30	02	0	1	0.0666	0.2537	0.0333	0.0643
Relationship	Introduction	30	03	0	1	0.1	0.3051	0.0557	0.0931
	Development	30	23	0	2	0.7666	0.8583	0.1567	0.7367
	Conclusion	30	10	0	1	0.3333	0.4794	0.0875	0.2298

Table 51 displays quantitative information about the arrangement of ideas: definition, comparison, circumstance, relationship and testimony, which are distributed in the three larger sections of the participants' written essays. First, the number of the definitions extracted from the participants' post-test is 24 which are spread out in the three sections.

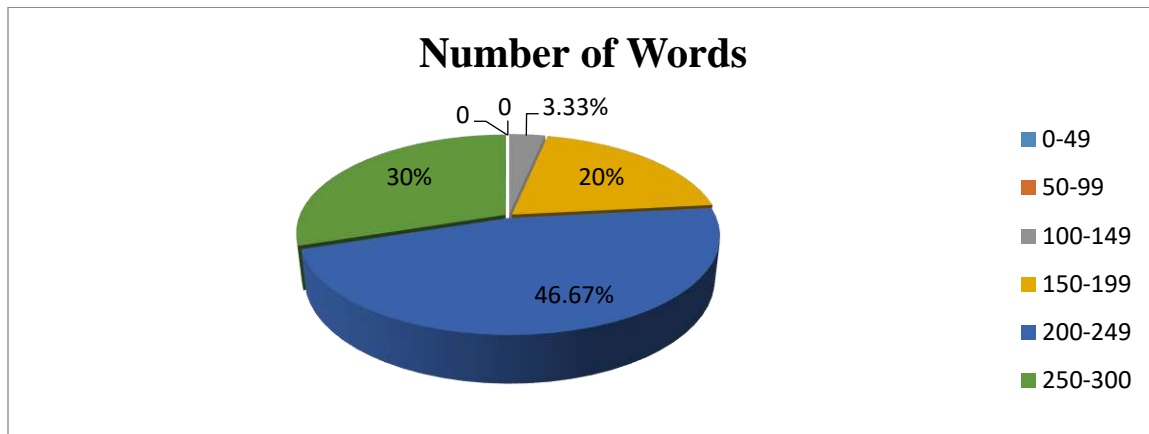
However, it seems that 18 definitions ( $M=0.6$ ) are stated in the introduction; whereas, in the development, there exist only 4 definitions with a mean rank of 0.1333, and in conclusion; there are only 2 corresponding to a mean 0.0666. Second, circumstance ideas are 40 out of which 32 ( $M= 1.0666$ ) are mentioned in the development; 6 ( $M=0.2$ ) in the introduction and 2 ( $M=0.0666$ ) in the conclusion. Third, comparisons are 22. In the introduction, there are only 3 comparison ideas corresponding to a mean 0.1. In the development, there exist 17 ideas ( $M=0.5666$ ) that show a comparison between items related to the topic; whereas, in the conclusion, there are only 2 ideas ( $M=0.0666$ ). Testimonies are also noticed in their writing; they are 36 ideas. The majority of the testimony ideas are introduced in the development (Sum= 31,  $M=1.0333$ ); whereas, the remaining 5 ideas are used in both sections: introduction (Sum=03,  $M= 0.1$ ) and conclusion (Sum= 02,  $M=0.0666$ ). Finally, the participants also employ relationship ideas; they are 26 ideas the majority of which are declared in the development (Sum=23,  $M=0.7666$ ). Relationships are also used in the introduction (Sum=03,  $M= 0.1$ ) and in the conclusion (Sum=10,  $M=0.3333$ ). Concerning standard deviation, in the majority of cases, though they are lower than the mean, the standard deviation grades are acceptable, for they are limited between 0 and 1, its normal value, and indicate the invariability of individual scores of the data set, only in two cases where the standard deviation ( $SD=1.0482, 1.0661$ ) pass the normal rate.

### **5.3.2.3. Style**

The participants' post-test essays (from 1 to 30) were examined in relation to three levels: vocabulary, syntax and paragraphing. The analysis of the data provides the following results presented in tables from 53 to 60.



### 5.3.2.3.1. Vocabulary



**Figure 6. Word Frequency in the Participants' Post- test Essays**

Figure 9 displays the number of words in the participants' post-test essays. The results show that no one of the participants writes under 100 words. As shown in the figure, it seems that the greater part (46.67%) of the participants' essays contain between 200 and 249 words. In the second position, 30% of the participants develop the topic in essays based on a number of words between 250 and 300. In the third position, 20% of the participants employ from 150 to 199 words in their written essays. Finally, the remaining number of participants (3.33%) exploits words from 100 to 149 in their essays.

**Table 52. Vocabulary Variety in the Participants' Writings (Post-Test)**

	n	Sum	Mini- mum	Maxi- mum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
<b>The number of the total words</b>	30	6867	117	292	228.9	38.953	1517.3345
<b>The number of the repeated words</b>	30	423	03	28	14.1	6.4184	41.1965

Table 52 reports quantitative information about the number of words repeated in the participants' essays. According to the results shown in the table above, the total number of words in the thirty essays (from 1 to 30) is 6867 with a mean 228.9. It is also presented in the

table that, out of 6867 words, 423 words (M= 6.1484) are used more than one time in the participants' essays.

### 5.3.2.3.2. Syntax

#### 5.3.2.3.2.1. The Number of Sentences

**Table 53. The number of sentences in the Participants' Writings (Post-test)**

	N	Sum	Mini- mum	Maxi- mum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	Variance
<b>Number of Sentences</b>	30	595	09	38	19.8333	7.0617	1.2893	49.8678

Table 53 presents statistics about the total number of sentences in the participants' writing to develop a topic. As shown in the table, the sum number of sentences in the thirty participants' writing is 595, with a mean 19.8333. Though the standard deviation (SD= 7.0617) is less than the mean, it is large than its normal value and, thus, it is not representative.

#### 5.3.2.3.2.2. Sentence Variation

**Table 54. The Types of Sentences in the Participants' Writing (Post-Test)**

	N	Sum	Mini- mum	Maxi- mum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	Variance
<b>Simple Sentence</b>	30	191	03	12	6.3667	2.2047	0.4025	4.8609
<b>Compound Sentence</b>	30	157	02	11	5.2333	2.3735	0.4333	5.6333
<b>Complex Sentence</b>	30	133	02	08	4.4333	1.7357	0.3169	3.0126
<b>Compound- Sentence      Complex</b>	30	114	01	09	3.8	2.2345	0.408	4.9931

Table 54 displays statistical data about the different types of sentences employed in the participants' writing. According to the results displayed in this table, it can be seen that the participants make use of the four types of sentence in their essays. The sum of sentences is 252 out of which 191 are sentences simple (M=6.3667), 157 are compound sentences (M=5.2333), 133 are complex sentences (M=4.4333) and 114 are compound-complex sentences (M=3.8). Despite the use of the four types of sentence in their writing pieces, simple sentence dominates their writing.

### 5.3.2.3.2.3. Sentence length

**Table 55. Sentence Length in Participants' writing (Post-Test)**

	N	Sum	Mini- mum	Maxi- mum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	Variance
<b>Short Sentence</b>	30	353	06	20	11.8	3.4978	0.6386	12.2345
<b>Long Sentence</b>	30	242	03	18	8.0667	3.8679	0.7062	14.9609

Table 55 reports statistical information on the sentence length in the participants' essays. Based on what is displayed in the table, it is perceived that the participants employ 595 sentences ranged between short and long. The number of short sentences is 353 with a mean of 11.8; whereas, the number of long sentences is 242 which corresponds to a mean of 8.0667. As shown in the table, though both types of sentence in terms of length are used, it appears that short sentences dominate the participants' essays. It seems also that the variability is high among individual scores of the data set because the standard deviations (SD=3.4978, 3.8679), though they are inferior to the mean values, are higher than the normal value.

### 5.3.2.3.2.4. Sentence Opening

**Table 56. The Sentence Opening in the Participants' Writing (Post-Test)**

	N	Sum	Mini- mum	Maxi- mum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	Variance
<b>Subject Cluster</b>	30	350	07	16	11.6667	3.0887	0.5639	9.5402
<b>Sentence openers</b>	30	245	02	18	8.1667	4.2838	0.7821	18.3506

Table 56 presents quantitative findings about sentence opening in the participants' writing. As shown in table above, participants employ sentences start with both subject cluster and sentence openers in their writing. As displayed in the table, it seems that the participants' sentences starting with subject cluster are 350 (M=11.6667); whereas, those start with different form of sentence openers are 245 (M=8.1667). These findings demonstrate that the participants' sentence is dominated by subject cluster than sentence openers. Additionally, the variance among the points of the data set seems higher for the standard deviation values (SD=3.0887, 4.2838) are larger than the normal rate.

### 5.3.2.3.3. Paragraphing Devices

#### 5.3.2.3.3.1. Spelling Errors

**Table 57. Spelling Errors in Participants' Writing (Post-Test)**

	N	Sum	Mini- mum	Maxi- mum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	Variance
<b>Spelling errors</b>	30	287	04	14	9.5667	3.3496	0.4397	5.7989
<b>Omission</b>	30	76	0	5	2.5333	0.8743	0.1596	0.7644
<b>Substitution</b>	30	73	0	4	2.4333	0.8867	0.2218	0.7862
<b>Insertion</b>	30	70	0	5	2.3333	0.9803	0.179	0.9609
<b>Transposition</b>	30	68	1	6	2.2666	0.8683	0.1585	0.754

Table 57 reports statistics about spelling errors in the participants' writing, the sum of which is 287 misspellings with a mean 9.5667 coming in different forms which are categorized under general titles: omission, substitution, insertion, and transposition.

As shown in the table, out of 287, the errors of omission are 76 spelling errors (M=2.5333), 73 are spelling errors of transposition (M= 2.4333), 70 are spelling errors of insertion (M=2.3333) and 68 are spelling errors of transposition (M=2.2666). If the standard deviation of the spelling error total number (SD= 3.3496) is large signifying the great variability among the scores of the data set, the partial values of the standard deviation of each type of the spelling error are in the limitations of the normal value and, as a consequence, the items of the data set are not variant.

#### 5.3.2.3.3.2. Punctuation

**Table 58. Punctuation Errors in the Participants' Writing (Post-Test)**

	N	Sum	Mini- mum	Maxi- mum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	Variance
<b>Capitalization</b>	30	61	0	4	2.0333	1.1592	0.2116	1.3437
<b>Run On sentence</b>	30	27	0	2	0.9	4.9295	0.8999	24.3
<b>Comma Splice</b>	30	10	0	2	0.3333	1.8257	0.3333	3.3333
<b>Misuse of Semi Colon</b>	30	1	0	1	0.0333	0.1826	0.0333	0.0333
<b>Misuse of Colon</b>	30	3	0	1	0.1	0.5477	0.0999	0.3

Table 58 reports the punctuation errors found in the participants' writings. The sum of punctuation errors is 102; they belong to different types of punctuation: capitalization,

comma, semi-colon, and colon. Out of the total number of punctuation errors, 61 errors are related to capitalization including sentence beginning and proper nouns and names. The findings also show that the participants find difficulties to apply comma in sentences; it is either omitted or misused. The total number of comma omission in the thirty essays is 27 (M=0.9); whereas, the sum of comma misuse is 10 (M=0.3333). If the former causes run-on sentences, the latter produces what is called comma splice. Another punctuation mark misused by the participants is semi-colon of which number is 1 (M= 0.3333). Colon is also misused 3 times in the total thirty essays (M=01). It seems that the data points of the three punctuation error types: capitalization, comma omission and misuse, are variable because the standard deviations (SD=1.1592, 4.9295, 1.8257) are higher than the maximum value (1) unlike the last two punctuation errors: misuse of semi-colon and colon, in which the standard deviations (SD= 0.1826, 0.5477) are in the normal value denoting the invariance of the points of the data set.

### **5.3.3. T-Test Results**

The participants' results in both pre-test and post-test were compared to determine whether there is a significant difference between the means of two test stages.

#### **5.3.3.1. Writing Content**

The participants' pre-test and post test essays (from 1 to 30) were compared in terms of number and relevance. The comparison of the data yielded the following results in Table 59 and Table 60.

**5.3.3.1.1. Number of ideas**

**Table 59. The Number of Ideas (T test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
	Test	Mean	Std Dev	N	M D	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
						Lower	Upper			
Number of ideas	Pre-test	3.5333	1.2794	30	-1.4000	0.367	2.433	7.3928	29	.00001
	Post-test	4.9333	1.0148	30						

There is strong evidence that the teaching intervention improved the students' scores because the number of ideas before and after the treatment is clearly different. To illustrate, the mean score of the pretest was 3.5333 whereas in the post test was 4.9333. The obtained results, the t-test is significant because the p-value ( $p=0.0001$ ) is less than 0.05. The t value ( $t(58)=7,3928$ ) indicates that a very small probability of this result has occurred accidentally. By observing the data set, the confidence interval, if this experiment is conducted 100 times, 95 times the true value for the difference would lie in the 95% confidence interval.

### 5.3.3.1.2. The Relevance of Ideas

**Table 60. The Relevance of Ideas (T test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
Relevance of Ideas	Test	Mean	Std Dev	N	MD	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
						Lower	Upper			
Relevant Ideas	Pre-test	2.5667	0.9714	30	-1.8000	0.8726	2.7274	8.1154	29	.00001
	Post-test	4.3667	1.0981	30						
Irrelevant Ideas	Pre-test	1.0333	0.7649	30	-0.5334	0.2785	1.0118	1.9691	29	.00001
	Post-test	1.5667	0.5667	30						

Apparently, the intervention enhanced the participants' scores through developing the relevance of ideas in their writings. In numbers, the mean score of relevant ideas after the experiment was higher (4.3667) than the mean score before the intervention (2.5667). Based on the above table, the t-test is significant because the p-value is less than 0.05. This is reported as:  $t(58) = 8.1154$  and  $p = 0.00001$ . The value of p (0.00001) is less than 0.005 indicates that a very small probability of this result has occurred accidentally. By observing the data set, the confidence interval, if we are going to conduct this experiment 100 times, 95 times the true value for the difference would lie in the 95% confidence interval. On the same scale, the treatment also worked on the irrelevant ideas in their writings. However, the results show that the mean score of the irrelevant ideas was increased after the training program



(1.5667) in comparison to the mean score of the pretest (1.0333). The t value (58) is 1.9691 and p value is 0.0001 ( $p > .05$ ), so the results are statistically significant. This can be linked to the increase of the number of ideas in the post-test than the post-test. In such case, the teacher attempts to maximize the mechanism of selecting appropriate ideas.

**5.3.3.2. Writing Organization**

The participants’ pre-test and post-test essays were compared in terms of larger and small sections so that to focus on the presence and the effectiveness of the essays’ larger parts and the classification of ideas and their arrangement in the larger sections. The analysis of the data generates the following results in tables from 62 to 68.

**5.3.3.2.1. The Presence of Introduction and Conclusion**

**Table 61. The Presence of the Essay’ Introduction and Conclusion (T test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
Larger Sections	Test	Mean	Std Dev	N	MD	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
						Lower	Upper			
Introduction	Pre-test	0.2	0.4068	30	0.733	0.43	1.0366	-8.377	29	.00001
	Post-test	0.9333	0.2537	30						
Conclusion	Pre-test	0.2667	0.4498	30	0.5666	0.1946	0.9387	6.1581	29	.00001
	Post-test	0.8333	0.379	30						

According to the descriptive statistics provided by the SPSS analysis in the table 61, the mean score the learners' use of introduction after the intervention ( $=0.9333$ ) was higher than their scores before the intervention ( $=0.2$ ). The t-test is significant because the p-value is less than 0.05. This is reported as:  $t(58) = -8.3774$  and the value of p ( $=0.00001$ ) is less than 0.005. This indicates that the teaching intervention had a statistically significant influence on the students' presentation of the introduction section in their essays. Besides, it is 95% confident that the mean difference lies between 0.43 and 1.0366. On the same line, the intervention aim was to enable them to end their essays with conclusions. The obtained results reveal that the mean score of this latter was significantly increased after the program ( $0.8333$ ) in comparison to the mean score of the pre-test ( $0.2667$ ). This implies that the experiment succeeded in changing the learners' performance and guide them toward the accurate production of essays. The t-test is significant because the p-value is less than 0.05. This is reported as:  $t(58) = 6.1581$  and the value of p ( $0.00001$ ) is less than 0.05; this indicates that the teaching intervention had a significant influence on the students' use of introduction in essays. It is 95% confident that mean difference lies between 0.1946 and 0.9387.

### 5.3.3.2.2. The Efficiency of the Essays' Larger Sections

**Table 62. The Effectiveness of the Essays' Larger Sections (T Test)**

Paired Samples Statistics											
Essays' larger sections	The Sub-sections	Test	M	Std Dev	N	MD	Paired Differences				
							95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
							Lower	Upper			
Introduction	Opening Statement	Pre-Test	0.2	0.4068	30	-0.8	0.5427	1.0573	10.770	29	.00001 p < .05
		Post-Test	1	0	30						
	Thesis Statement	Pre-Test	0.1667	0.379	30	-0.7	0.3755	1.0245	7.4731	29	.00001 p < .05
		Post-Test	0.8667	0.3457	30						
	Plan	Pre-Test	0.1333	0.3457	30	-0.6	0.2411	0.9589	5.7929	29	.00001 p < .05
		Post-Test	0.7333	0.4498	30						
Development	Independent Sections	Pre-Test	0.7	0.4661	30	-0.2	0.1524	0.5524	1.9886	29	.05625 p > .05
		Post-Test	0.9	0.3051	30						
	Mixed Ideas-Based Section	Pre-Test	0.3	0.4661	30	0.2	0.1524	0.5524	1.7202	29	.0960 p > .05
		Post-Test	0.1	0.3051	30						
Conclusion	Restating the Main Idea	Pre-Test	0.1333	0.3457	30	-0.6334	0.2842	0.9824	6.2854	29	.00001 p < .05
		Post-Test	0.7667	0.4302	30						
	Summarizing the Main Points	Pre-Test	0.2667	0.4498	30	-0.7333	0.4488	1.0178	8.9303	29	.00001 p < .05
		Post-Test	1	0	30						
	Closing Statement	Pre-Test	0.2333	0.4302	30	-0.4667	0.0655	0.8679	4.0299	29	.00001 p < .05
		Post-Test	0.7	0.4661	30						

The above table displays the learners' performance before and after the intervention to measure the effectiveness of the three elements of an essay.

The first element is the introduction. According to results, students start use opening statement after the treatment (mean=1) than before (mean=0.2) and the t value is 10.770. Additionally, students use thesis statements after the treatment (mean= 0.8667) more than before (mean=0.1667) and the t value is 7.4731. On the same line, learners seem to plan more after the treatment (mean=0.7333) than before (mean=0.1333) and the t-test is 5.7929. In all the three elements of introduction, the intervention is considered effective because the p value is less than  $p < .05$  ( $p = .00001$ ).

The second element is development. After the application of a designed program, students tend to use more independent section (mean=0.9) than before (mean=0.7) and the t-test is 1.9886. However, the p value is more than .05 ( $P = .05625$ ,  $p > .05$ ) which means that this results could be happen by chance and not due to a given stimuli. For mixed ideas-based section, students attempt to use a variety of ideas after the treatment period (mean=0.1) than before (mean=0.3) and the t-test is 1.7202. Again, the obtained results cannot be linked to the intervention because the p value is more than .05 ( $p = .0960$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

The final element is conclusion. In wrapping up an essay, students, after the treatment, restate the main idea (mean=0.7667) more than before (mean=0.1333) and the t-test is 6.2854. They also summarize the main ideas (mean=1) more than before (mean=0.2667) and the t-test is 8.9303. Students use closing statement (mean= 0.7) more than before the treatment (mean=0.2333) and the t-test value is 4.0299. In all the different stages of writing a conclusion, the p value is less than  $p < .05$  ( $p = .00001$ ) which indicates that the results cannot be achieved by accident.

Based on the analysis of the obtained data, the intervention has a significant impact the learners writing performance regarding introduction, development and conclusion.

### 5.3.3.2.3. The Classification of Ideas

**Table 63. The Types of Ideas in the Participants' Essays (T Test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
Classification of ideas	Test	Mean	Std Dev	N	MD	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
						Lower	Upper			
Definition	Pre-test	1.6667	0.4795	30	1.0667	-0.2785	1.0118	7.549	29	.00001
	Post-test	0.6	0.4068	30						
Comparison	Pre-test	0.4667	0.5074	30	-0.2666	-0.162	0.6956	2.361	29	.00001
	Post-test	0.7333	0.4498	30						
Circumstance	Pre-test	1.0667	0.6397	30	-0.2666	-0.239	0.7723	1.827	29	.00001
	Post-test	1.3333	0.4795	30						
Relationship	Pre-test	0.1	0.3051	30	-0.7667	0.357	1.1764	6.185	29	.00001
	Post-test	0.8667	0.5713	30						
Testimony	Pre-test	0.2	0.4842	30	-1	0.3433	1.5901	5.473	29	.00001
	Post-test	1.2	0.8469	30						

According to the results shown in the table above, it seems that the intervention improved the different types of ideas employed by the participants in their writing. As to the definition, the mean score of the post-test (0.6) was lower than the mean score of the pre-test (1.6667). If t value (58) =7.549 that indicates that a very small probability of this result has

occurred accidentally, the p value =.00001, which is less than 0.05, denotes the significance of the obtained results. The 95% interval confidence is between 0.2785 and 1.0118. Concerning comparison ideas, as the mean score in the post-test (M=0.7333) was higher than the mean score of the pre-test (M=0.4667), and Sig (p=0.00001) is < 0.05, it means that the result is significant. As seen above, the t value (58) is 2.361, which means that the results could not have arisen by chance. It is 95% confident that the mean difference lies between -0.1622 and 0.6956. In respect of circumstance ideas, the mean value in the post-test (M=1.333) was higher than the mean value of the pre-test (M=1.0667). The results are significant because p=0.00001 (< 0.05), and the results could not have arisen by chance since t value (58) is 1.827. It seems that the probability of the population mean value being between -0.239 and 0.7723 from the sample mean is 95%. With regard to the relationship ideas, the results show that the mean score of the post-test (M=0.8667) was higher than the mean score of the pre-test (M=0.1). Following the obtained results in the table above, the t-test is significant because the p-value (p=0.0001) is less than 0.05. The t value (58) = 6.185 indicates that a very small probability of this result has occurred accidentally. By observing the data set, the confidence interval, if this experiment is conducted 100 times, 95 times the true value for the difference would lie in the 95% confidence interval between 0.357 and 1.1764. Finally, as shown above about testimony ideas, the mean of the post-test (M=1.2) is higher than the one of the pre-test (M=0.2). The sig is 0.00001 ( $p < 0, 05$ ), which implies that there is statistically significant difference between the performances of students in the pre-test and post-test and, thus, rejects the null hypothesis. Moreover, the t value (58) is 5.473, which means that results could not have arisen by chance. It is 95% confident that the mean difference between the two tests is real and lies between 0.3433 and 1.5901. On the basis of the results presented in the table, it can be concluded that the null hypothesis is rejected whereas the alternative hypothesis is

accepted. This, then, shows that there is a real change in students' writing performance due to the teaching intervention.

#### 5.3.3.2.4. Sequencing of Ideas in the Three Sections of Essays

**Table 64. Definition Ideas in the Three Sections of Essays (T test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
The Sub-sections	Test	Mean	Std Dev	N	Mean Df	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
						Lower	Upper			
Introduction	Pre-Test	0.8333	0.7466	30	0.2333	-	0.6293	2.0414	29	.00001
	Post-Test	0.6	0.4982	30						
Development	Pre-Test	0.4333	0.5683	30	0.3	-	0.6866	2.6884	29	.00001
	Post-Test	0.1333	0.3457	30						
Conclusion	Pre-Test	0.4	0.5632	30	0.3334	-	0.687	3.2652	29	.00001
	Post-Test	0.0666	0.2537	30						

Table 64 introduces statistics about the arrangement of definition ideas in the three larger sections, of which use differs between the two stages of the writing test. To start with introduction, as shown in the table, the mean score in the post-test (M= 0.6) is lower than the mean score of the pre-test (M=0.8333); the overuse of definitions is decreased and appropriately in the three parts of discourse. Besides, since the sig (2 tailed) value is 0.00001, the results are significant at 0.05. The value  $t(58) = 2.0414$  denotes that a very small probability of this result has occurred accidentally. It is 95% confident that the mean difference is between -0.1627 and 0.6293. As to development, as the average score in the pre-test

(M=0.4333) is higher than the average of the post-test (M= 0.1333), and as the t value equals 2.6884 and p value is 0.00001, which is less than 0.05, the results are statistically significant and different before and after the three training sessions. It is 95% confident that the mean difference between the two tests is real and lies between - 0.0866 and 0.6866. Finally, in the conclusion, the mean score of using definition in the pre-test (M= 0.4) is higher than the post-test (M= 0.0666). This significant change in writing performance can be proved by the p value 0.00001 ( $p < .05$ ), and t value= 3.2652 which means that results could not have arisen by chance. It is 95% confident that the mean difference is between 0.0204 and 0.687.

**Table 65. Circumstance Ideas in the Three Sections of Essays (T test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
The Sub-sections	Test	Mean	Std Dev	N	Mean Df	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
						Lower	Upper			
Introduction	Pre-Test	0.1333	0.3457	30	-0.0667	0.3184	0.3851	-0.328	29	.4362
	Post-Test	0.2	0.4068	30						
Development	Pre-Test	0.7333	0.9072	30	-0.3333	-0.1885	0.8551	2.2133	29	.00001
	Post-Test	1.0666	1.0482	30						
Conclusion	Pre-Test	0.2333	0.504	30	-0.0333	0.1492	0.4826	1.8278	29	.3521
	Post-Test	0.0666	0.2537	30						

Table 65 introduces statistics about the arrangement of circumstance ideas in the three larger sections. As displayed in the table, though the mean score in the post-test (M= 0.2) is higher than the mean score of the pre-test (M=0.1333); the difference between the performance of the participants in the pre-test and that of the post-test is not statistically



significant at 0.05 because p value is 0.4362 and value  $t(58) = -0.3283$ . It is 95% confident that the mean difference is between 0.3184 and 0.3851. In regard to development, the results are significant and different before and after the three training program. This is demonstrated by the average score in the pre-test ( $M=0.7333$ ) is lower than the average of the post-test ( $M=1.0666$ ), and the sign (two tailed) value which is less than 0.05 ( $p=0.00001$ ). As seen above, as well, the t value is 2.2133, which means that our results could not have arisen by chance. It is 95% confident that the mean difference between the two tests is real and lies between -0.1885 and 0.6866. Concerning the third section of the essay, the overuse of comparisons in the conclusion is reduced. To illustrate, though the mean score of using comparison ideas in the pre-test ( $M=0.2333$ ) is higher than the post-test ( $M=0.0666$ ), this change in writing performance is not statistically significant because the p value .3521 ( $p > .05$ ), and t value= 3.2652 which means that results could not have arisen by chance. It is 95% confident that the mean difference is between 0.1492 and 0.4826.

**Table 66. Comparison Ideas in the Three Sections of Essays (T test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
The Sub-sections	Test	Mean	Std Dev	N	Mean Df	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
						Lower	Upper			
Introduction	Pre-Test	0.1	0.3051	30	0	-0.273	0.273	0	29	1
	Post- Test	0.1	0.3051	30		p > .05				
Development	Pre-Test	0.266	0.4498	30	-0.3	-0.1273	0.7273	3.525	29	.00143
	Post- Test	0.566	0.5040	30		p < .05				
Conclusion	Pre-Test	0.1	0.3051	30	0.034	0.2177	0.2843	-0.570	29	.57251
	Post- Test	0.066	0.2537	30		p > .05				

Table 66 introduces statistics about employing comparison ideas in the three larger sections of an essay. To start with introduction, since the mean score is the same in both test: pre-test =post-test (M= 0.1), the same number of comparison ideas are used in the introduction in both tests. To prove this equality, t value (t=0) and p value (1> 0.05) indicate that the results are not significant and there is a weak evidence against the null hypothesis, so the alternative hypothesis is rejected. It is 95% confident that the mean difference is between 0.3184 and 0.3851. In the development, the results are significant and different before and after the three training program because the average score in the pre-test (M=0.266) is lower than the average of the post-test (M= 1. 0.566), and the sign (two tailed) value which is less than 0.05 (p= 0.00143). As seen above, as well, the t value is 2.2133, which means that our

results could not have arisen by chance. It is 95% confident that the mean difference between the two tests is real and lies between -0.1885 and 0.6866. In the conclusion, the number of comparison ideas in the conclusion is reduced. To demonstrate in numbers, the mean score of using comparison ideas in the pre-test (M=0.1) is higher than the post-test (M= 0.066), this change in writing performance is not statistically significant because the p value .57251 ( $p > .05$ ), and t value= -0.5708 implies that results could not have arisen by chance. It is 95% confident that the mean difference is between 0.2177 and 0.2843.

**Table 67. Testimony Ideas in the Three Sections of Essays (T test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
The Sub-sections	Test	Mean	Std Dev	N	Mean Df	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
						Lower	Upper			
Introduction	Pre-Test	0.0333	0.1826	30	-0.0667	-0.1583	0.2916	-1.439	29	.16079 $p > .05$
	Post-Test	0.1	0.3051	30						
Development	Pre-Test	0.1	0.3051	30	-0.9333	0.2936	1.5731	5.2149	29	.00001 $p < .05$
	Post-Test	1.0333	1.0661	30						
Conclusion	Pre-Test	0.0666	0.2537	30	0	-0.227	0.227	0	29	1 $p > .05$
	Post-test	0.0666	0.2537	30						

Table 67 displays statistical data about the employment of testimony ideas in the three sections of the participants' essays. In the introduction, though the mean score in the post-test (M=0.1) is higher than that of the pre-test (0.0333), the results are not statistically significant because  $t(29) = -1.439$ ,  $p = 0.16079$  ( $P > 0.05$ ). However, it is 95% certain that the mean

difference is between -0.1583 and 0.2916. Concerning the development, the mean score of the pre-test (M=0.1) is lower than the average of the post-test (M=1.0333). Looking this up in tables gives  $t(29) = 5.2149$ ,  $p = 0.004$ ; this indicates that the results are statistically real and significant and they are not reached by means of chance; therefore, there is strong evidence that the training sessions had an impact on the participants' writing. A 95% confidence interval for the mean difference is 0.2936 and 1.5731. In the last essay section, it seems that the mean score is the same in both tests: pre-test = post-test (M= 0.1), and denotes that the same number of comparison ideas used in the conclusion in both tests. To prove this equality, t value ( $t=0$ ) and p value ( $1 > 0.05$ ) indicate that the results are not significant and, thus, there is a weak evidence against the null hypothesis, but the alternative hypothesis is rejected. It is 95% confident that the mean difference is between -0.227 and 0.227.

**Table 68. Relationship Ideas in the Three Sections of Essays (T test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
The Sub-sections	Test	Mean	Std Dev	N	Mean Df	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
						Lower	Upper			
Introduction	Pre-Test	00	00	30	-0.1	-0.093	0.293	1.79505	29	.08307 $p > .05$
	Post-Test	0.1	0.3051	30						
Development	Pre-Test	0.1	0.3051	30	-0.8666	0.1674	1.1659	5.525	29	.00001 $p < .05$
	Post-Test	0.7666	0.8583	30						
Conclusion	Pre-Test	00	00	30	-0.3333	-0.1262	0.5928	3.8078	29	.00067 $p < .05$
	Post-Test	0.3333	0.4794	30						

Table 68 reports statistics about the employment of relationship ideas in the three sections in the participants' writing essays. In the introduction, though the mean score of using relationship ideas in the post-test ( $M=0.1$ ) is higher than the pre-test ( $00$ ), the results are not statistically significant because the  $t(29) = 1.79505$ ,  $p=0.08307$  ( $p > 0.05$ ). The 95% confidence interval for the true mean difference is between  $-0.093$  and  $0.293$ . They are also employed in the development but their number is in the post-test ( $M= 0.7666$ ) more than the pre-test ( $M=0.1$ ). According to the results, it seems that t-test is significant as the p-value is less than  $0.05$ . This is reported as:  $t(29) = 5.525$ ,  $p < 0.00001$ . This result gives you the probability that the results could have occurred by chance. It is 95% certain that the mean difference is between  $0.1674$  and  $1.1659$ . As to the ending section of an essay, the mean score in the post-test ( $M=0.3333$ ) is higher than that of the pre-test ( $M=00$ ). Since Sig is  $< 0.05$ , the obtained result is significant. The t value is  $3.8078$ , which means that our results could not have arisen by chance. It is 95% confident that the mean difference is between  $- 0.1262$  and  $0.5928$ .

On the basis of all these results, the training program had a significant influence on the participants' writing so that it reduced the overuse of certain type of idea by using other types of thoughts.

### **5.3.3.3. Writing Style**

The participants' pre-test and post-test essays were compared in terms of three levels: vocabulary, syntax and paragraphing. The comparison of the data provides the following results presented in tables from 69 to 75.

### 5.3.3.3.1. Vocabulary

**Table 69. Vocabulary Variety in the Participants' Writings (T test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
Vocabulary	Test	M	Std Dev	N	Mean Df	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
						Lower	Upper			
The Number of the Total Words	Pre-test	121.5	54.9682	30	-107.1	64.784	150.015	11.814	29	.00001
	Post-test	228.9	38.953	30						
The Number of the Repeated Words	Pre-test	26.4	7.0837	30	12.3	0.6272	13.093	-4.0338	29	.00036
	Post-test	14.1	6.4184	30						

Table 69 displays statistical data about the difference in relation to vocabulary variation between the participants' pre-test and post-test essays. The results show that teaching intervention had a significant impact on the participants' writing. As shown in the table above, the mean score of the number of the total words employed by the participants in their essays increased in the post-test (M= 228.9) than the pre-test (M=121.5). The t-test is significant because the  $t= 11.8464$  and the p-value ( $P=.00001$ ) is less than 0.05. This indicates that the performance of the participants after the intervention is significantly different from their performance before the intervention, and that the results didn't occur by accident. By observing the data set, the confidence interval, it is confident that the difference lies between

64.7845 and 150.0155. In the same way, the table also introduces quantitative information about the amount of repeated words in their essays. Since the mean score decreased in the post-test (M=14.1) than the score of the pre-test (M= 26.4), and as the t value equals 3.1479 and p value (P=.00036) is less than 0.05, the participants' writing performance was significantly different before and after the three training sessions. This can be interpreted by the idea that teaching intervention made a significant improvement in the participants' writing by eliminating the number of repeated words. It is 95% confident that the mean difference lies between -0.6272 and 13.0939.

### 5.3.3.3.2. Syntax

#### 5.3.3.3.2.1. The Number of Sentences

**Table 70. The Number of Sentences in the Participants' Writing Tests (T test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
	Test	Mean	Std Dev	N	Mean Df	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig(2-tailed)
						Lower	Upper			
<b>The Number of Words</b>	<b>Pre-test</b>	8.3	3.271	30	-11.5333	6.5345	16.332	12.048	29	.00001
	<b>Post-test</b>	19.833	7.061	30						

The above table displays the descriptive statistics of the number of ideas in the participants' essays in the two conditions (pre-test and post-test). Accordingly, the mean, participants scored was higher in the post test (mean=19.8333) than the pretest (mean=8.3). Again, there appeared to be a significant difference between the tests before and after the treatment, students tend to use more sentences in their writing production. The t-test is significant because the p-value is less than 0.05. This is reported as: t= 12,048 and p

=0.0001 ( $p>0.05$ ). This indicates that a very small probability of this result occurring by chance.

### 5.3.3.3.2. Types of Sentences

**Table 71. Types of Sentences in the Participants' Essays (T test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
Types of Sentence Structure	Test	Mean	Std Dev	N	Mean Df	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
						Lower	Upper			
Simple Sentence	Pre-test	4.5333	1.0743	30	-1.8334	0.282	3.384	5.017	29	.00002
	Post-test	6.3667	2.2047	30						
Compound Sentence	Pre-test	1.6667	0.8841	30	-3.5666	1.9646	5.168	9.549	29	.00001
	Post-test	5.2333	2.3735	30						
Complex Sentence	Pre-test	1.2667	0.7849	30	-3.1666	1.9617	4.371	10.99	29	.00001
	Post-test	4.4333	1.7357	30						
Compound-Complex Sentence	Pre-test	0.9333	1.3374	30	-2.8667	1.3187	4.614	8.011	29	.00001
	Post-test	3.8	2.2345	30						

Table 71 reports statistics about types of sentences in the participants' pre- and post-tests. As shown in the table, it seems that the participants employed different types of sentences: simple, compound, complex and compound-complex. To begin with simple sentence, the mean score of the use of simple sentence in the post-test ( $M= 6.3667$ ) is higher than the pre-test ( $M= 4.5333$ ). The results are statistically significant at  $p<0.05$  because  $p$



value is 0.00001 and t value is 5.0171, which also signifies that the results are real and they could not have arisen by chance, and that, it is 95% confident, the mean difference lies between 0.282 and 3.3847. The second type is compound sentence. As shown above, the mean of the post-test (M=5.2333) is higher than the one of the pre-test (M=1.6667). These findings are significant because p value (P=.00001) is less than 0.05. There is a very small probability of this result has occurred accidentally as t value (58) is 9.5493. Thus, it is 95% confident that the mean difference lies between 1.9646 and 5.1688. The third type is complex sentences of which the mean in the post-test (M= 4.4333) is higher than that of the pre-test (M= 1.2667). It is found that t (29) = 10.994 is significant because p value (p= 0.00001) is less than 0.05. Since t value is large, there is a smaller probability that this difference occurred by chance. There is a 95% certainty that the mean difference lies between 1.9617 and 4.3716. Finally, as to compound-complex sentence, it seems that the two tests are statistically different. The mean score of the post-test (M= 3.8) is higher than the pre-test (M=0.9333). The t-test is significant as the p-value is less than 0.05. This is reported as: t (29) = 4.85, p < 0.00001. It is confident that the mean difference lies between 1.3187 and 4.614. Together this suggests demonstrates statistical differences between the two tests, which reflect the efficiency of the program of the training sessions.

### 5.3.3.3.2.3. Sentence Length

**Table 72. The Length of Sentences in the Participants' Writing Tests (T test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
Types of Sentence Opening	Test	Mean	Std Dev	N	Mean Df	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
						Lower	Upper			
Short Sentence	Pre-test	5.4333	1.6955	30	-6.3667	3.0775	8.5891	10.230	29	.00001
	Post-test	11.8	3.4978	30						
Long Sentence	Pre-test	3	2.613	30	-5.0667	2.114	8.0193	11.129	29	.00001
	Post-test	8.0667	3.8679	30						

Following the above mentioned results, subjects tend to use more short sentences in the post test (mean=11.8) than the pretest (mean=5.4333) in their writings. The t-test is significant because the p-value is less than 0.05. This is reported as:  $t = 10.2300$ , and  $p < 0.0001$ ). On the same line, participants tend to use longer sentences in the post test (mean=8.0667) than in the pretest (mean=3). The t-test ( $t=11.1291$ ) as well as the p value ( $p < 0.0001$ ) indicated that results didn't occur by accident. In fact, the intervention significantly affected the learners' use of both long and short sentences.

### 5.3.3.3.2.4. Sentence Opening

**Table 73. The Sentence Opening in the Participants' Writing Tests (T test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
Sentence Opening	Test	Mean	Std Dev	N	Mean Df	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
						Lower	Upper			
Subject Cluster	Pre-test	6.6667	1.7087	30	-4.9993	2.7955	7.2712	12.5938	29	.00001
	Post-test	11.666	3.0887	30						
Sentence openers	Pre-test	1.7333	1.7604	30	-6.4334	3.5038	9.3629	10.1520	29	.00001
	Post-test	8.1667	4.2838	30						

The obtained data showed that students could use more subject cluster in the post (mean =11.6667) more than in the pretest (mean=6.6667). The t-test (t=12.5938) and the p value (p=< .00001) is definitely less than 0.05 which indicate the significant effect of the treatment on the students writing performance. On the same scale, the research help increasing the learners' use of sentence openers as displayed in the mean score before the test ( mean=1.7333) and after the test (mean=8.1667). Additionally, the t-test (t=10.1520) and the p value (p=< .00001) is less than 0.05. This means that results are not reached by chance.

### 5.3.3.3.3. Writing Mechanics

#### 5.3.3.3.3.1. Spelling Errors

**Table 74. Spelling Errors in the Participants' Writing Tests (T test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
	Test	Mean	Std Dev	N	Mean Df	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		t value	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
						Lower	Upper			
<b>Spelling Errors</b>	<b>Pre-test</b>	9.2333	4.9458	30	-0.3334	3.4451	4.1118	-0.3056	29	0.7610
	<b>Post-test</b>	9.5667	3.3496	30						

Regarding spelling errors, the above stated data indicate that the designed treatment succeeded to decrease the learners spelling errors. The students mean score after the intervention (M= 9.5667) became higher than the pre-test (M = 9.2333). Since t-test result is (t=-0.3056) and the p value (p=0.7610) is higher than 0.05, the participants' writing performance in the post-test is not significantly different from their performance in the pre-test. As *p*-value is higher than 0.05, it is not statistically significant and it indicates strong evidence for the null hypothesis that is teaching intervention did not eliminate the participants' spelling errors. This failure can be linked to the conditions in which participants passed the post-test and/or it can be interpreted by the multiplication of the number of words.

### 5.3.3.3.2. Punctuation

**Table 75. Punctuation Errors in the Participants' Pre- and Post-Tests (T test)**

Paired Samples Statistics										
Punctuati on Errors	Test	M	Std Dev	N	Mean Df	Paired Differences				
						95% Confidence Interval		T valu e	Df	Sig(2- tailed )
						Lower	Uppe r			
Capitaliza -tion	Pre-test	3.8667	2.2702	30	1.8334	0.2405	3.492 8	3.97 7	29	.0000 1 <.05
	Post-test	2.0333	1.1592	30						
Run On sentences	Pre-test	1.2333	2.1284	30	0.3333	0.577	1.243 7	- 1.54 1	29	.1339 7 p > .05
	Post-test	0.9	4.9295	30						
Comma Splice	Pre-test	1.2333	2.1284	30	0.9	0.3812	0.981 2	1.52 58	29	.0000 1 <.05
	Post-test	0.3333	1.8257	30						
Misuse of Semi Colon	Pre-test	0.1	0.3051	30	0.0667	0.1583	0.291 6	- 1.02 6	29	.3255 8 p > .05
	Post-test	0.0333	1.8257	30						
Misuse of Colon	Pre-test	0.0333	0.1826	30	-0.0667	0.1583	0.291 6	- 1.02 6	29	.3255 8 p > .05
	Post-test	0.1	0.5477	30						

Table 75 presents statistical comparison about punctuation errors, including capitalization, run- on sentence, comma splice, misuse of semi-colon and colon, extracted from the participants' essays in both pre-test and post-test. To start with capitalization, as the

mean score in the pre-test ( $M= 3.8667$ ) decreased in the post-test ( $M= 2.0333$ ), the alternative hypothesis is admitted i.e., teaching intervention had a significant impact on the participants' writing for it eliminated their capitalization mistakes. Additionally, since p value ( $p=.00001$ ) is less than ( $<$ ) 0.05 and  $t$  (58) value equals 3.977, the results were significant and they could not have arisen by chance. By observing the confidence interval, as the participants' performance is different between the two stages of the writing test, it is 95% certain that the mean difference lies between 0.2405 and 3.4928.

On the same line, the table above introduces a comparison of the run-on sentence between the two test settings. Though the mean score in the post-test ( $M=0.9$ ) is less than the mean score in the pre-test ( $M=1.2333$ ), the results are not statistically significant and it cannot reject the null hypothesis that is teaching intervention did not eliminate the participants' run on sentences because p value ( $p=0.13397$ ) is greater than .05.

The table also shows the statistical differences between scores of pre-test and post-test in terms of comma splice in the participants' writing. It seems that the mean value in the post-test ( $M= 0.3333$ ) is lower than the pre-test ( $M= 1.2333$ ). Since  $t$  value (58) is 1.5258,  $Sig=0.00001$ , the results are not reached by chance and they reject the null hypothesis. This means that, teaching intervention had a significant impact on the participants' writing performance for it helped in reducing comma splices. It is 95% confident that the mean difference lies between 0.3812 and 0.9812.

Concerning the misuse of semi-colon, it appears that the mean score of the pre-test ( $M=0.1$ ) was higher than that of the post-test ( $M=0.0333$ ), but  $t$  (58) is -1.0269 and  $sig$  0.32558 is greater than 0.05. This means that the results do not reject the null hypothesis, i.e. teaching intervention cannot make a significant change in using semi-colon. Since there is no

statistical significance between pre-test and post-test, it is 95% confident that the mean difference lied between 0.1583 and 0.2916

Finally, as to the misuse of colon, the mean score of the post-test ( $M=0.1$ ) was higher than that of the pre-test ( $M=0.0333$ ), but the participants' writing performance in the post-test is not significantly different from their performance in the post-test because p value equals 0.32558 ( $p > .05$ ), and It is 95% confident that the mean difference lies between 0.1583 and 0.2916. This means that the results do not reject the null hypothesis, so teaching intervention cannot make a significant change in using colon.

## **5.2. Discussion and Interpretation of Writing Test Results**

The present study attempted to investigate the extent to which teaching rhetorical canons enhance EFL students' writing performance. The suggested hypothesis was as follows: teaching rhetorical canons may enhance EFL students' writing performance. After applying the two tests in due time and in relatively suitable circumstances, the data were collected and analyzed following a quantitative method. The outcome of the analysis of the two writing test phases shows noticeable and significant differences of the students' scores in both tests: pre-test and post-test. Thus, it seems to positively answer the main research question and strongly confirm and validate the stated hypotheses. In fact, teaching EFL students rhetorical canons can enhance EFL students' writing performance at three levels: content, organization and style.

To start with writing content, when writing, EFL learners are expected to communicate ideas about a certain topic. Having more knowledge on topics is of a significant role in writing product and process. This step is known a pre-writing stage. In fact, the writer's first draft comes about in the prewriting stage which most of the time takes about 85% of writer's writing time (Murray, 1985). It is at the pre-writing stage students need to

gather as much information about the topic as possible through a variety of activities such as: brainstorming, quick write, answers to questions, discussions, etc. The results obtained from the pre-test demonstrated that EFL learners encountered difficulties in writing content. In the writing content problem, it was related to difficulties in exploring and developing the relevant ideas; as a result, the ideas of their essay were sometimes unknowledgeable. In other words, they are not able to discover ideas and they are not aware how to find out aids to invent ideas. As a consequence, though it involves relevant ideas, the writing of EFL students is poor in terms of ideas and it includes irrelevant ideas. Thus, their writing becomes uninteresting and less appealing. However, after exposing them to rhetorical invention, EFL students' writing content had changed. In other words, the difference between the analysis of both pre-test and post-test showed that the learners' writing performance in terms of content improved after the training session. By comparing the post-test results to the pre-test results, the findings revealed that the number of ideas was increased in the participants' writing. They found it easy to discover ideas for they were deliberately introduced to a salient technique: suggesting fields and/or sources in which they can effortlessly bring thoughts. Additionally, if the number of the relevant ideas was increased, the number of the irrelevant ideas was decreased. This improvement can be interpreted by the efficiency of teaching EFL students rhetorical invention.

Once generating sufficient ideas about the topic, learners come to another stage which is sorting and organizing ideas. As a matter of fact, writing organization occurs at two levels: smaller and larger. At the smaller level, the theme should be explained and developed through different types of ideas: definition, comparison, circumstance, relationship and testimony. At larger level, these different types of ideas have to be appropriately arranged in the three larger sections of a discourse: introduction, development and conclusion, respecting the necessary



components of each section. Writing organization at large level requires an outline, preferably in a form of visual diagram so that to make the flow of ideas coherent. As demonstrated by the results of the pre-test, EFL students, due to the lack of knowledge about topics, were not able to organize the very small number of ideas they invented which were mostly repeated in different sections in their writing pieces. Additionally, since most of their ideas were mere definitions, the other types of ideas were rarely existed in their essays, and they were sequenced in inconsistent and inappropriate way. Moreover, most of the components of the larger sections were escaped; writing an essay without introduction and/or conclusion. However, after the training sessions, their writing had been changed. In other words, by comparing pre-test to post-test results, significant differences can be seen in the students' scores. If underdeveloped writing performance was done in the pre-test by most of students, developed writing performance was that done in the post-test. The findings of post-test confirmed that the students became able to use different types of ideas and classify them appropriately, depending on the function of ideas, in the three larger parts of the essay: introduction, development and conclusion. The findings also showed the larger sections in the participants' essays were properly declared. The improvement of the EFL students' writing organization validates the effectiveness of teaching rhetorical arrangement in the writing class.

Writing communication is not only “what to say”, but also “how to say”. That is to say, after discovering ideas, one decide on the way to efficiently present these ideas so that to make his writing appealing; simply, it is known style. This latter comes at three levels: vocabulary, syntax and paragraphing. First, a proficient writing style requires the appropriate selection of diction that reflects the purpose and the context of writing. Second, sentence variation is also an essential component of an efficient writing style; writers vary his

sentences in terms of structure, length and opening. Third, writing also necessitates another aspect known mechanics, including spelling, punctuation, capitalization, which concerns with the technical side of writing. However, the results of the pre-test revealed the immaturity of the EFL students' writing style for certain problems. To start with vocabulary, they employed few number of words of which a large number was common and repeated two times and/or more. Concerning syntax, students relied on short simple sentences giving preference to subject cluster as sentence starter. Their written production contained different types of writing mechanics errors such as spelling errors, misuse of punctuation marks and misapplication of capitalization. On the other hand, the results of the post-test showed the maturity of EFL students' writing style as a consequence of certain style indications. First, EFL learners made use of common words with a small number of repeated words. Another style indication concerning students' writing maturity was syntax variation. They utilized different types of sentence in terms of structure, length and opening by starting their sentences with subject cluster and different forms of sentence opener. Despite the improvement in vocabulary and syntax, their written production contained different types of writing mechanics errors such as spelling errors, misapplication of punctuation marks such as comma, semi-colon and colon. Comparing the results of both pre-test and post-test indicated that the participants' writing became more developed after the training session. This can be interpreted by the positive impact of teaching rhetorical style on the participants' writing style.

All in all and based on analysis of statistical results obtained from students' performance in both pre-test and post-test, after the training sessions, where they were exposed to rhetorical canons, it is obvious that the comparison of students' achievement revealed that the students had their better performance in the post-test than in the pre-test. It

can be concluded that teaching rhetorical canons made an important improvement on EFL students' writing performance.

### **Conclusion**

In this chapter, results obtained from the experiment were presented, analyzed and interpreted to answer the research questions asked earlier in the current study: to what extent teaching rhetorical canons can enhance EFL students' writing performance? It started with the analysis of pre-test results followed by the analysis of the post-test results. Then, a comparison was made between the two stages of the test to investigate in which writing test stage the EFL students perform better so that to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching rhetorical canons on their writing. The results attained from the comparison of both tests indicated that the participants performed better in the post-test than the pre-test; i.e. teaching rhetorical canons: invention, arrangement and style had a considerable influence on the students' writing.

## **CHPATER SIX:**

### **Pedagogical Implications for the Teaching of writing**

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## **Introduction**

A research in education can be viewed as a process of studying a school situation to understand and improve the quality of the educative process from different angles : educational planning, decision making, teaching and learning, curriculum development, use of instructional media, school organization, education management, etc (Boykin, 1972 ; Hensen, 1996; Johnson, 2012; McTaggart, 1997). One of the aims of this study is to suggest an innovative and practical model based on rhetorical canons to make the task of teaching writing easier, on the one hand, and to attain effective written production by learners, on the other. This study explores the actual teaching practices and the difficulties encountering students when writing in the fourth chapter and examines the extent to which teaching rhetorical canons can enhance EFL students' writing performance in the fifth chapter. This chapter seeks to synthesize and exploit the findings obtained from both the fourth and fifth chapters in a practical pattern for approaching writing beneficial for both teachers and students.

### **6.1. Pedagogical Implications of the Empirical Findings**

To achieve the research objectives, the present investigator employs two instruments: interview and writing test, from which the data collected and analyzed are instructive to the process of teaching writing and the students' writing performance from many areas. To begin, though interview is used to collect facts, as opening items, which precedes the main substance, it helps the researcher to elicit information and to gain insights in depth about attitudes and opinions, perspectives and meanings in the target situation. In the present research, the findings of the interview show that certain contextual constraints of different sorts in the teaching situation hinder the process of instructing writing. The results reported in this study have significance to all stakeholders in the domain of teaching writing including

teachers, school leaders, teacher training institutions, teacher development experts and policy makers, etc. Specifically, the findings of the present research implements many issues: time, learners variables including classroom size and motivation and materials related to the practice of teaching writing.

Undoubtly, teaching EFL students to acquire writing skill is by no means difficult task. According to Caudery (1990), “ the teaching of writing skills encompasses more than general training in the production of correct grammatical sentences or in the use of cohesive devices” (P.122). Similarly, Raimes (1983) believes that to write one needs time to decide and to toy with ideas. Though syllabus may be well organized, balanced and appropriate to the students’ needs, it cannot be covered throughout the semesters if time allocated to teaching writing is not sufficient. Additionally, since no ample reinforcement is available from environment outside the school because students are introduced to writing in English only inside of the class, high expectations placed on the writing curriculum which requires that more time be allocated to practicing writing in the class. Furthermore, the insufficiency of time obligates teachers to give the majority of classroom activities as home works. Since time allowance is an essential factor in the learning and teaching of the writing process, time constraints should be eliminated. That is to say, for any curriculum planning, sufficient time should be provided to permit students receive more exposure to writing concepts and, thus, explore and take risks in order to develop their writing. Due to the importance of writing for the sake of both its own and the other modules, the number of writing sessions should be reconsidered, and students should be given more opportunities to practice writing in the sessions of the other modules.

Concerning learners’ variables, the number of the students is another constraint that affects the teaching of the writing skill. Badger & White (2000) prove that learners have to

consume quite a long time in order to accomplish just one piece of writing in the classroom. In other words, in addition to the limited class hours, the large average class enrollment size (Between 40 to 50 students per class) seems to be another shortcoming in the higher educational system. This shortcoming turns out the teaching situation more difficult for teachers to make all students engaged in the writing course and to evaluate all of their writing performance (Blatchford et al. 2002), on the other hand, students are not given ample and equal opportunity to practice writing whether inside the classroom (Todd, 2012) and they “have less active role in interactions with their teachers and are less attentive to their teachers as well” (Bamba, 2012, as cited in Fatma, 2016). Constraints concerning class size should be reduced. Though most researches have emphasized the small to medium sizes of class, there is no consensus on to what extent a large class size affects learning achievement of EFL students. However, the class size should be reduced.

Learners’ lack of motivation is another limitation in the teaching of writing. Motivation is a crucial aspect of successful language acquisition, and it is a dynamic process subject to continuous flux (Dornyei, 2001). However, a number of Algerian students come to writing class with low motivation; they come to class only to fulfill their attendance list, and most of them seem to be passive in learning process of writing. demotivation in learning writing emerges from various sources : the insufficiency of time, the lack of practice inside and outside of the classroom, the absence of an immediate need for acquiring writing skills or the lack of fun in the content of the writing assignments (Tarnopolsky, 2000). For Dornyei (2001), though motivating EFL students is considered a complex and difficult task because it involves a multiplicity of psycho-sociological and linguistic factors (Dornyei, 2010a), motivation is variable, and, therefore, teachers can work actively to increase their students’ motivation by employing different innovative strategies, techniques and models which can

gaurantee the students' engagement in writing assignments which cope with their need and interest.

Another factor that negatively affects the practice of teaching writing is the lack of varying the teaching materials. Teaching materials play a salient role in both teaching and learning, as Garton and Graves (2014) assert: "materials are fundamental to language learning and teaching (...) but materials cannot be viewed independently of their users" (p.11). In spite of this, teachers have a conventional way in preparing materials due to the nature of writing which imposes them to mostly use documents that are adopted from the current textbooks recommended by the university or the Higher Education Ministry. These documents are designed with the assumption that all students will benefit from them to the same degree. In fact, students come to the classroom bringing with them their individual differences, varying learning styles, language proficiency levels, etc. To compensate for the students' diversity, teacher should vary the teaching materials they use in writing class in order to create different teaching ways to possibly reach all students' competence, needs and comprehension. Additionally, designing and selecting materials is the duty of teacher, but it is also a workable idea if the teacher has to discuss to the students in order to design interesting materials based on specific tasks assigned by the teacher or the type of the task itself (Widiati & Cahyono, 2006). In short, teachers should cooperate with learners in designing a variety of teaching materials.

The main aim of this study is to examine the extent to which teaching rhetorical canons can enhance EFL students' writing performance. This had been done by testing students, and the writing test was distributed into two phases separated by three training sessions. The comparison between the pre-test and post-test shows that students meet certain difficulties when writing, but these difficulties can be solved. The implications drawn from



the comparison between both tests can be described in three main axes of writing: content, organization and style.

In order to write, one requires to have first a topic and, then, to discover a certain amount of ideas to convey about the topic. Most of the students have difficulties in the first step of writing: pre-writing, where they spend a long time (85% of their time of writing) (Murray, 1985), but in the end they fail to discover few ideas about the topic. Consequently, the lack of ideas makes their writing underdeveloped and boring. Therefore; teachers should put more emphasis on the first writing step so that they should guide and stimulate their students to gather ideas to enrich their writing content by deliberately introducing them to some different techniques such as brainstorming sessions, reading about the topic and describing a picture and free writing about the topic. According to Galko (2002) “Brainstorming is to let your ideas flow without judging them” (p.10). Therefore, teachers should expose their students to brainstorming strategies as they can help them consider subject writing about and also generate ideas for their writing. When brainstorming, students can use diagrams or randomly listing ideas. This can empower students’ thinking to recall their earlier ideas as they think of new ones and to easily make connections between ideas and look at their topics again from a new perspective (Blystone, 2009). Reading is useful strategy for learners for it can make them familiar with a topic that they are going to write about (Leibensperger, 2003). Specifically, it provides students with enough information about their topic. In fact, when writing, students are jotting down ideas from what they have read. Thus, teachers should engage their students in reading assignments in the pre-writing stage through different ways: silent or aloud reading by students, aloud reading by teacher, listening to video, etc. It is also a workable idea if students are exposed to pictures related to the topic under discussion; this can help them to effortlessly invent and compile ideas. Free

writing is another useful way for gathering ideas. Students can write freely about their topic so that they generate as many ideas as possible and to write them down without worrying about appropriateness, grammar, spelling, logic, or organization (Oshima and Hogue, 1997).

After discovering ideas, one needs to appropriately organize and classify them on the basis of well prepared outline in the discourse's three larger parts: introduction, development and conclusion, to make his writing well arranged and make the flow of ideas smooth and, thus, readable so that the readers can recognize the beginning, middle and the end of their written pieces. In fact, EFL students find difficulties in identifying the relationship among ideas, regrouping them into topics and subtopics and classifying them into the three larger discourse sections. In this case, teachers' duty is to increase their students' awareness of the importance of smooth flowing of ideas in writing and enhance their writing organization. Moreover, since the proper organization of ideas into three units can make one's writing more planned and, as a consequence, can grab the readers' attention to keep continuing reading till the end of the text, writers employ various strategies to classify the ideas they have gathered by making the relevant selection and proper connections and identify relationships among them so that they cluster them under subtopics which are related to the main topic (Cameron, 2009). In relation to this point, efficient writing organization requires students to outline their ideas; it is an excellent way to put in order information. As a matter of fact, all writing has a certain type of organization which should be adjusted to a number of factors, so student writers should select the pattern of text organization depending on certain factors: type of audience, purpose of writing, etc. In view of that, teachers should emphasize to their students the significance of choosing the appropriate pattern of text organization. Additionally, students fail to correctly introduce and conclude their essays. Thus, teachers should train their

students the way to write the beginning and the end sections by providing them with different components included in both introduction and conclusion.

In addition to the “*what is said*”, writing also includes the “*how is said*”; that is to say style (Corbett, 1965). As a matter of fact, writing style is complementary with writing content (ibid). Therefore, writing style should not be neglected because it concerns with diction selection, sentence articulation and variation and paragraphing devices employment (ibid). However, students meet difficulties in their writing style at different levels: vocabulary, syntax and paragraphing.

To begin with, vocabulary is considered a central element to language communication for, according to Lewis (1993), “lexis is the core or heart of language” (p. 89) and, according to Schmitt (2000), “lexical knowledge is central to communicative competence and to the acquisition of a second language” (p.55). It is also demonstrated that vocabulary is essential to the construction of complete written sentences (Laufer and Nation, 1999). Furthermore, for Corbett (1965), an ample vocabulary can improve not only sentence structuring but also writing style. Accordingly, students who have a rich vocabulary communicate in English language fluently and easily by means of writing, unlike those who lack vocabulary. For this reason, learners should have sufficient amount of words in order to express their own ideas. Teaching vocabulary in the EFL context is challenging, but in order to enrich students’ vocabulary knowledge teachers should employ various vocabulary instruction strategies taking into consideration that, as stated by Andersson (2010), no strategy is better than another since learners are all different and therefore they also use different strategies. Teachers should engage students in reading assignments through which they can acquire knowledge of not only content but also vocabulary. Students should be also encouraged to check to every new word some synonyms and antonyms to avoid repetition.

Syntax is another level included under one general title which is writing style. Syntax concerns with sentence structure. The achievement of syntax competence enables students to manipulate a variety of sentence patterns and to compose longer texts. In this sense, Rustipa (2013a) believes that an excellent writing requires the ability to write excellent sentences and to organize them logically into paragraphs and essays. Similarly, Tufte (2007) also thinks that the efficiency of EFL students' writing style is based on the accuracy, the fluency and the variety of their syntax at different levels: structure, length, sentence opening. It seems that EFL students' writing style is still immature because of the frequent use of simple short sentences starting with subject cluster. This immature style can hamper their writing performance. Thus, teachers should raise their students' awareness of the importance of sentences variation in writing by exposing them to different types of sentences at opening, structure and length through different activities and strategies using different types of materials. A workable way, students should be trained how to give the same sentence different structures, lengths and openings so that they attain the syntax competence.

In addition to vocabulary and syntax, writing style has also to do with paragraphing devices. This latter refers to writing mechanics which can facilitate writing quantity and quality (Begeny, Schulte & Johnson, 2012) and, thus, make one's writing optimally readable and meaningful (Laksmi, 2006). Writing mechanics involve spelling, punctuation, capitalization, parts of speech, word usage and grammar (Begeny, Schulte & Johnson, 2012). These elements constitute the conventions which govern the technical aspects of writing; that's why they are called mechanics. In spite of this, EFL students still encounter troubles in writing mechanics. However, they can be eliminated.

Writing difficulties of relevance of spelling are of different reasons : many words have the same pronunciation but they are written differently and carry distinctive meanings, the

irregularities of the English spelling system (Bancha, 2013) students' less concentration due to tiredness or carelessness about the correctness of words (ibid), the ambiguity of the correspondence between the sound of a word and the way it is spelt (Harmer, 2001) and the difference between the varieties of English language (ibid). To eliminate these spelling problems, teachers should expose their students to homonyms for they can prevent and ease for reader to understand their written pieces. Additionally, they can employ dictation tasks, gather all the misspelled words in students' writings and, then, show them the correct spelling of all wrong words. In this issue, Harmer (2001) suggested extensive reading as a remedy for students to put an end to their spelling difficulties.

Punctuation is also another writing mechanics obstacle that EFL students face when writing. Like misspelling words, incorrect punctuation can change the meaning of one's writing (Caroll and Wilson, 1993). For Murray and Hughes (2008), punctuation show pauses and sentence boundaries also help the reader recognize what is written. Therefore, teachers should motivate students to pay attention to the way they punctuate, which is in most cases a problem for them, and to the importance of appropriate position of punctuation marks for the possibility of affecting the intended meaning.

Capitalization is another important part of writing mechanics according to (ibid). This element is necessarily applicable for specific words, to starting letter in a sentence and quotes (Starkey, 2004). Teachers should introduce their learner to the rules of capitalization, and they can give them sentences to capitalize the necessary words.

Grammar is also an essential element in writing, for it is the skeleton of every language. In other words, writing style necessitates one to be knowledgeable and acquainted with different parts of speech and the way they must be manipulated and ordered on the basis of

rules of grammar. On the whole, teacher ought to inform their students the importance of writing mechanics and their contribution to the delivery of the intended message.

## **6.2. The Suggested Model for Teaching Writing**

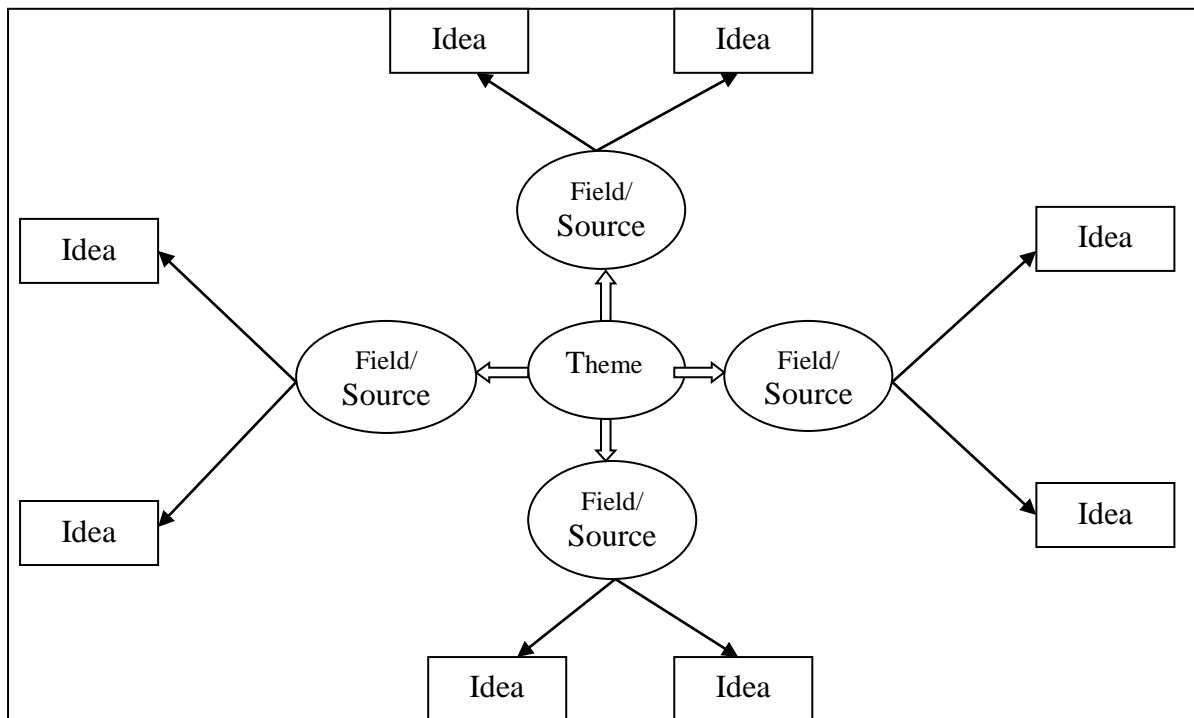
The third aim of this study is to suggest an innovative and practical model based on the selected rhetorical canons in order to make the task of approaching writing easier by both sides: teachers and learners. In other words, the suggested model is advantageous for it can facilitate teaching writing, on the one hand, and assist learners to attain effective written production, on the other. As a matter of fact, teaching writing is not an easy task for, needless to say that, it is a complex skill and, thus, it necessitates one to consider and to pay attention to various elements. Summarizing the different factors teachers have to focus on in the teaching of writing, Raimes (1983) explains the essential constituents in producing a good piece of writing: content, process, audience, purpose, word choice, organization, mechanics, grammar and syntax. For Harris (1974), the components of writing are content, grammar, form, style, and mechanics. Additionally, Heaton (1991) suggests several aspects of writing, which are categorized under five classifications: content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics. Though the number of elements of writing differs from one author to the other, all elements can be arranged under three general parts: content, organization and style. Accordingly, and on the basis of the findings of this study, the present researcher propose an inventive and workable model to teaching writing, which consists of three stages.

### **6.2.1. The Stage of Discovering Ideas**

The act of discovery refers to the one's engagement in brainstorming activities to invent ideas in order to develop a theme once it is decided on. It is pre-writing stage, and it the most important stage as D'Aoust (1986) points out:

“Pre-writing activities generate ideas, the encouragement a free flow of thoughts and help students to discover both what they want to say and how to say it on paper. In other words, pre-writing activities facilitate the planning for both the product and the process.” (P. 07)

However, it seems that it is the most difficult stage because students who don't have ideas can't start writing. On the basis of the findings of this study, the presents researcher deliberately propose a practical technique for teachers of writing to use in the classroom in order to guide and stimulate students to effortlessly gather ideas for their writing. In this strategy, students put the theme, they write about, in the central position. Then, after an appropriate realization of the theme, they can utilize different aids and suggest different fields and/or sources which they can seek to find ideas related to the theme under discussion; this can help students in the organization stage. As a matter of fact, since this writing stage is based on creative writing, students can put on papers every thought comes to their minds no matter whether the idea is relevant to the theme or syntactically correct. Next, students should analyze the content of their discovered ideas in order to make a selection of only ideas that are pertinent to the main theme. This strategy is summarized in Figure:



**Figure 5. The Stage of Discovering Ideas**

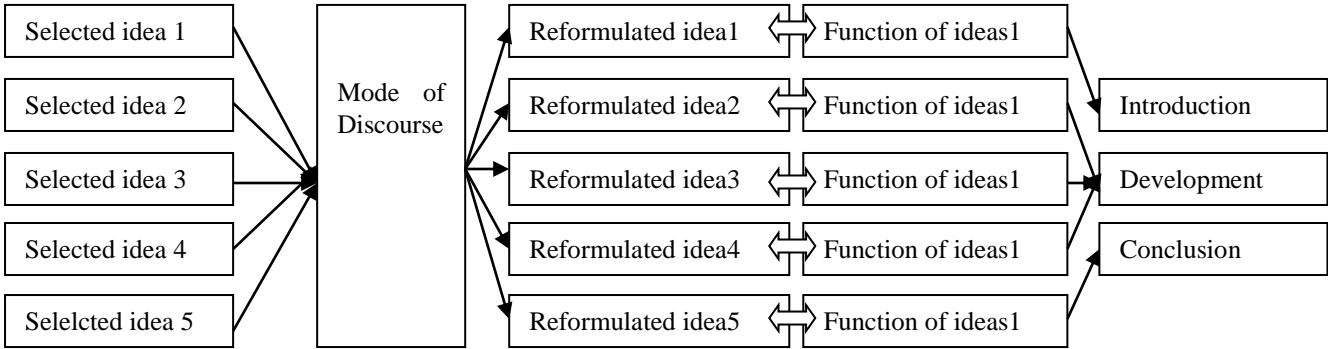
### 6.2.2. The Stage of Organizing Ideas

Organization refers to the how collected and selected ideas are presented in a piece of writing. That is say, it concerns with the arrangement of ideas in a perceptible order in the larger units of the essay. In fact, the organization of thoughts requires a well organized outline of information. This blue print can provide writers with focus and direction when writing, and can help them to ensure that the stated purpose is fulfilled. Additionally, writing organization can help make one to sense of information. Moreover, the clear and the logical writing organization and effective communication are powerfully linked between both for the sender and the receiver for the reason that the efficient flow of ideas in a piece of writing can ease for readers the interpretation of the text and remembering ideas. So, if readers are not offered the intended information in an orderly manner, they will quickly lose interest. However, students still fail to properly organize their ideas in the larger sections of the essay. In this study, the researcher provides teachers with a second technique to assist students when they come to



write so that they succeed in the arrangement of their ideas in the three parts: Introduction, development and conclusion.

For effective interaction, ideas should be clearly organized following a logical, consistent pattern; it is one of the most important decisions a writer makes concerns to structure their essays. To accomplish this task, first, writer has to select the appropriate among the many patterns depending on the nature of the topic and the objectives the writer has identified for his writing piece and that makes the most sense in helping the reader to better understand and remember the information. In short, in order to easily classify ideas in essays' divisions, students need to define their essay pattern. Since each type of essay require a certain method of topic development, students should reformulate their invented ideas according to the selected essay pattern. Subsequently, they should define the function of each sentence to know whether it should be put in the introduction, development or conclusion. This technique is demonstrated in the Figure .

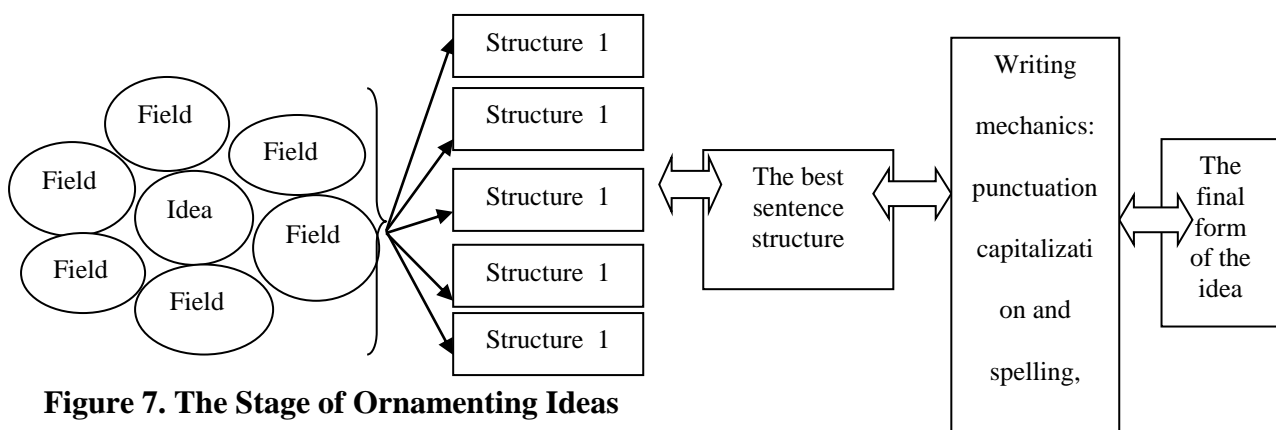


**Figure 6. The Stage Of Organizing Ideas**

**6.2.3. The stage of Ornamenting Ideas**

This stage stands for the enhancement of the ideas' style. Writing communication constitutes two sections: the “what to say” and the “how to say” concerning, respectively, the writing content and style (Corbett, 1965). No part is more important than the other because they are complementary. Therefore, after inventing and deciding the order of ideas, student

writers should ornament them. In fact, in writing, ornamentation comes at three levels: vocabulary, syntax and paragraphing. However, students writing style is immature for they use common and repeated words, incorrect sentence structure and misplaced writing mechanics as they neglect the importance of these aspects of writing. On the basis of the findings of this study, and to improve students' writing style, the present researcher suggests the third technique; it is a third stage in the strategy. In this stage, students should work on each idea independently. To avoid repetition, writers should suggest fields related to the words employed in the idea, from which students choose to construct different sentence structures among which the most excellent expressed sentence is opted for. This sentence still undergoes another step which is the revision and the placement of writing mechanics: punctuation marks, capitalization, spelling errors, etc. that prevent confusion and overlap between the sentence and words and, thus, improve the flow of sentence parts and, hence, help readers to properly read what is written if they are appropriately positioned. This technique is summarized in Figure.



**Figure 7. The Stage of Ornamenting Ideas**

### Conclusion

This study has provided an opportunity to focus attention on the teaching/learning process of writing and how it might be improved. Specifically, the significance of this study is

related to the present and future of teaching writing, to understanding problems of both sides: teachers and students, to improve the students' writing performance and to facilitate the task of teaching writing. Particularly, the main objective of this study is to teach EFL students rhetorical canons to enhance their writing performance. The findings gained from the first and second objectives permits to propose some pedagogical implications to enable teachers of writing to learn insight on how to better teach their classes writing in order to enhance the achievement of their educational goals and improve the learning process and production of writing. Additionally, the conclusion drawn from the second objective helps in the achievement of the third objective which is suggesting an innovative and practical model to teaching writing. The model, consisting of three stages, suggested in this section to teaching writing is believed to make the task of teaching writing easier, on the one hand, and to assist students to reach the efficient written production, on the other.

## **General Introduction**

The major aim in this thesis is to examine the extent to which teaching rhetorical canons: invention, arrangement and style, can enhance Algerian EFL learners' writing performance. Additionally, it endeavors to design a model so that to make the classroom practices of teaching writing easier and less demanding and, thus, to prepare students to succeed in projecting academic writing recognized by the international communities. The skill of writing is held to be a fundamental principle in EFL students' academic success. Writing is difficult for it is a complex skill that requires EFL students to master its different sub-components. However, writing in English is considered as a challenge for many EFL international university students. As a matter of fact, studies show that writing displays difficulties especially when it is projected in ESL/EFL academic context where students find troubles at different levels: content, vocabulary, syntax, mechanics, etc. when composing their essays. Their writings do sound alien with regard to writing conventions recognized in English language academic community. As a consequence, such written performance prevents EFL students, notably in the Algerian university, to efficiently participate in intellectual and academic discussions.

Enhancing Algerian EFL students' writing in order to outfit the international English academic writing necessitates an inventive and innovative instructional practice to teach writing. The present researcher has attempted to bring about a research area, namely rhetoric, to make such assumption. In other words, the researcher has suggested teaching rhetorical canons: invention, arrangement and style to boost up EFL students' writing performance and to facilitate the task of teaching writing. On account of this information, the following research questions have been formulated to guide this study:

1. How do the Algerian university EFL teachers perceive teaching writing? How do they recognize problems that EFL students do face when writing at content and form levels? And what procedures do they suggest to solve them?

2. To what extent teaching rhetorical canons can enhance EFL learners' writing performance?

a) To what extent teaching rhetorical invention can help EFL students in discovering various effective ideas on a topic?

b) To what extent teaching rhetorical arrangement can assist EFL students in efficiently organizing their written work?

c) To what extent teaching rhetorical style can serve EFL students in producing an appealing written work?

The subsequent hypotheses were deduced from the previously mentioned questions:

1. Algerian university EFL teachers may find difficulties to teach writing focusing on content and style, and to solve EFL students' writing problems.

2. Teaching rhetorical canons may enhance EFL learners' writing performance.

a) Teaching rhetorical invention can help EFL students in discovering various effective ideas on a topic,

b) Teaching rhetorical arrangement can assist EFL students in organizing written work,

c) Teaching rhetorical style can serve EFL students in producing an appealing written work.

In order to situate this study in its theoretical context, the researcher has reviewed and critically synthesized a relevant literature. In the first place, the wide-ranging studies have been thoroughly surveyed and reported to provide the researcher with profound descriptions concerning the nature, the spectrum approaches for teaching and assessing writing and the factors affecting teaching and learning writing causing difficulties that EFL teachers and students may encounter when approaching writing. Then, the research area of rhetoric has

been consulted to obtain sufficient insights on this art of communication and on its evolution throughout the history. Special emphasis has been put on the three rhetorical canons: invention, arrangement and style dealing with the different aspects of each canon and their contribution to the rhetorical oration.

To answer the above-stated questions and to verify the aforementioned hypotheses, two research tools have been used to assemble both qualitative and quantitative data. First, for collecting qualitative data, an interview has been addressed to Algerian EFL teachers to obtain information on the common teaching practices of writing, the perception of the EFL learners' writing problems and the possible efforts sought to overcome such problems. Second, a writing test has been targeted to Algerian EFL second year students; it is administered in two stages separated by training sessions. Writing test has been utilized to elicit textual data from EFL students before and after the intervention. As for the treatment of the data attained by means of writing test, EFL students' textual corpus are analyzed to arrive at an empirical account of how teaching rhetorical canons can enhance EFL students' writing performance. Finally, the researcher has opted for methodological triangulation to explore and to collect considerable data from multiple perspectives: teaching practices and learning experiences and performance of writing.

The results obtained by both research instruments used in this study are positive confirming the research hypotheses. The findings obtained from the analysis of the learners' textual data demonstrate that teaching rhetorical canons: invention, arrangement and style enhances EFL students' writing performance. This has been proved by comparing the findings of pre- test and post- test which are separated by training sessions. The results of the pre-test demonstrate that, when they come to write, students find difficulties at different levels. They repeatedly write very few ideas the majority of which are irrelevant, unclear and inappropriate

to the subject using the same words and grammatically disorganized sentences. Additionally, they are unable to classify ideas in the larger parts: introduction, development and conclusion, of discourse. The findings of the post-test reveal that students produce a variety of relevant, understandable and appropriate to the theme they are writing about using a diversity of words that are amassed in grammatically correct sentences. Furthermore, the majority of their sentences are correctly and properly arranged in the larger sections of discourse: introduction, development and conclusion.

The results obtained from the analysis of the teachers' interview responses reveal that instructors find difficulties in teaching writing due to such constraints: the insufficient time devoted to teaching writing, the length of syllabus, option for traditional materials when teaching writing because of the great number of students in classroom which is a barrier for the teacher to achieve his teaching goals when teaching writing skill, and negatively affects the assessment of students' written performance. The teachers' interview responses demonstrate that students face problems at different levels when they come to write, and these difficulties are interpreted as the effect of both linguistic and cultural factors. However, teachers try to use some solutions to prevent some of students' writing difficulties, but they mostly fail because they always influenced by the above-stated restraints.

In this thesis, by exploiting such findings, the researcher intends to address the issue of designing an appropriate model that facilitates the task of teaching and learning writing and, thus, enhances EFL students' written performance to match the writing recognized by the international academic English community. To start with, in the domain of writing, in order to improve EFL students' writing, previous researches are divided into two parts; one focuses on how to enrich writing content, the second attempts to boost writing style including vocabulary, sentence, paragraphing and organization. The researcher proposed a practical

model, consisting of three stages, of which principles are derived from three rhetorical canons, to develop EFL students' writing bringing focus on both together content and style. As it is mentioned in one of the preceding sections, EFL students' writing performance contains errors at different levels: word selection, spelling, sentence structure, punctuation, organization of essay parts; they are described either as linguistic and/or cultural errors. Through this work, the investigator of this study sought to eliminate EFL students' writing linguistic errors to culturally approximate their writing style and organization to those recognized in English native speakers' writing. University teachers mainly employ product than process approach when teaching writing giving a little, if no, attention to genre approach. Put it in other way, students are rarely given opportunities to plan, draft, revise and edit, rather they write only one draft which is corrected by the teacher who provides them with feedback as to vocabulary, syntax, grammar and mechanics. The author of this work developed a model focusing on mingling together the principles of product, genre and process approaches to make effortlessly the activity of teaching writing and, accordingly, to ease learning of writing with the intention that students be able to consider not only the linguistic structures including ideas, vocabulary, syntax, grammar and mechanics when writing but also to independently produce appropriate communicative functions certainly after their writings undergo certain steps. Generally speaking, as we initially declared, a successful writing performance requires teachers' consideration to the different factors which affect classroom practice and a solid foundation in theoretical studies of writing including first and second language. For this reason, through this work, the author of the thesis attempted to suggest an innovative model which seeks to eradicate or at least eliminate EFL students' writing difficulties, and to bring some improvement to facilitate the teaching of writing.



The present work has attempted to empirically prove that teaching rhetorical canons can enhance EFL students' writing performance. To reach this aim, the researcher has made significant efforts to attain a satisfactory level of objectivity throughout the research sections: literature review, research design, selection of research tools and data analysis and interpretation. However, the current study has some limitations; they have to be stated. First, though this study opts for quasi-experimental design, that is to say it is conducted in natural settings, it lacks external validity. In other words, as this study thoroughly reported the findings of a particular situation which is of great importance, the findings are limited to the research setting and they may not be generalized to other contexts. Another issue concerning limitations was the small size of the subject sample for it was suitable for this type of study. It is suggested that the larger the sample, the richer are the data available for various analyses. In this study, the researcher intends to tackle several components in students' textual corpus, but using a large sample involves a huge amount of work and time, beyond the scope of this thesis. Another limitation is related to students' unwillingness to provide the researcher with their written productions for the test. Though we limited the size of the sample in order to account for the case under examination from its different angles, some students show their reluctance to submit their writings whether pre-test or post-test.

In spite of these limitations, the present research work unveils a number of issues related to the invaluable contribution that rhetorical canons can bring to the field of teaching /learning writing. Explicitly, this study is expected to be of significant contribution to overcome second-year Algerian university students' writing problems and, thus, enhance their writing performance. To definitely attain this objective, the researcher made great efforts. However, though this study has accomplished the goals and answered related questions specified in the introduction, the findings and the limitations have raised some questions for

further research. The findings of this research are beneficial to all teachers who are interested in developing their students' writing performance. Thus, this study should be replicated in different contexts to confirm and generalize the results. Additionally, replication of the results may help in designing more organized and detailed methodical writing courses for university students. In addition, although the sample of the current study is reasonable, the researcher suggests further research on larger samples and on groups of more widely differing writing proficiency. This would provide more information on how to deal with and assist our students' writing. Moreover, since this study is the first of its type, and since it has investigated the impact of teaching rhetorical canons: invention, style and arrangement, without particular focus on any one of them, it is necessary to thoroughly investigate the impact of teaching each canon independently in order to make a more exact evaluation of what occurs during each stage. Finally, the focus of this study has been on teaching the selected rhetorical canon to enhance EFL students' writing performance in general without any specification to a particular writing genre. We suggest further research on teaching rhetorical canons focusing a specific writing genre, such as narrative, expository, exploratory and argumentative discourse.

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## **Appendix I: Teachers' Interview Questions**

### **Teachers' Interview**

#### **Section one: General Background**

1. Can you describe your general background as an EFL teacher at university? (Focusing on Education degree, Teacher category, Years of experience, Modules and Levels taught)

#### **Section two: Syllabus devoted to teaching writing**

2. Can you describe syllabus and time constraints when teaching writing to 2<sup>nd</sup> year students?
3. How do you proceed when teaching writing to 2<sup>nd</sup> year students? (Between first and second semesters)
4. Do you usually adapt syllabus content to the needs of 2<sup>nd</sup> year students?
5. What among the following approaches do you use when teaching writing to the 2<sup>nd</sup> year students? And why?
  - a) Product
  - b) Process
  - c) Genre
6. Can you describe the kind of materials you use when teaching writing?

#### **Sections three: Activities to teaching writing**

7. What are the types of activities you use when teaching writing?
8. What among these strategies you use for the classroom activities and assignments?
  - a) Encourage students to generate many ideas to enrich their writing content
  - b) Encourage students to make logical connections between their ideas and organize them into paragraphs
  - c) Encourage students to properly select words and to correctly structure sentences in order to accurately and efficiently express their ideas
9. What kind of topics are employed when approaching writing?(Suggested by teacher/ or selected by students)

10. Can you describe the kind of challenges you encounter in teaching are writing skill?  
(challenges concerning teacher, students, time, material, administration)

#### **Section four: Difficulties encountering EFL students when writing**

11. Can you describe your second year students' writing performance?
12. Can you describe the problems that your students encounter when generating ideas?  
(ideas: relevance, variation, clarity, originality)
13. Can you describe the difficulties that your students find when structuring their essays' larger parts? (introduction, development, conclusion)
14. How can describe your students' problems concerning the topic development in their paragraphs?
15. Can you describe the vocabulary that your students employ in their writing? (whether repeated or varied, reflecting the purpose of writing )
16. Do your students encounter problems to structure sentences when writing? (length, structure and opening)
17. Can you describe the grammatical difficulties can be found in your students' writing?
18. Can you describe punctuation problems in your students' written production?
19. Can you give a description of capitalization problems in your students' writings?
20. Can you give a description of spelling problems in your students' writing performance?
21. Can you determine the aspects of writing in which they frequently find difficulties?
22. According to you, what are the main sources behind the difficulties that your students encounter when writing?

#### **Section five: Possible solutions to overcome writing problems**

23. Can you describe what solutions do you use to prevent the challenges encountering you as a teacher, and to improve your students' writing performance?

24. According to you, how do you think students can reach the expected level of competence in writing?

25. Thank you for your assistance and for the significant information you provide, are there any additions you want to supply before we end the interview?



## Appendix II: Teacher Interview Scripts

	Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3	Participant 4
<b>Section one: General Background</b>				
26. Can you describe your general background as an EFL teacher at university? (Focusing on Education degree, Teacher category, Years of experience, Modules and Levels taught)	Well, - I have PhD in linguistics and applied linguistics from Central China Normal University. - I'm MCB teacher, and - I have two years of experience and this is the third year. - I have taught written expression and linguistics, - For 1 <sup>st</sup> , 2 <sup>nd</sup> and 3 <sup>rd</sup> year.	- Thank you - I have been teaching here at the University of Ouargla for more than ten years. - Concerning the degree, I have PhD, and I'm MCA. - Concerning the modules I have taught, they are writing, oral, British literature, cultural studies, stylistics, education methodology, and didactics. Those modules that I can remember. - Concerning the levels, I taught all levels: first, second, third, first and second year master.	- Thank you - You are welcome. - Concerning the education degree, I have Magistère. - I'm an assistant teacher category B. - I have been teaching here for more than eleven years. - Concerning modules I have taught, they are British and American civilization, written expression, study skills and literature. - I taught first and second year license degree and first year master.	- Thank you - I have Magistère - I'm an assistant teacher category B. - Before I come to teaching at the university I was a teacher at secondary school for six years, but I have been teaching at the university for four years. - I taught different modules writing, grammar, oral. - I taught writing for three years for first and second year.
<b>Section two: Syllabus devoted to teaching writing</b>				
27. Can you describe syllabus and time constraints when teaching writing to 2 <sup>nd</sup> year	Well, regarding the syllabus, it has two main axes turning around essays: how to write an essay or the structure of essays and a quick review of paragraphs first	Concerning the syllabus of second year, it is about the core activity of writing essays. Students are asked to write essays outside the classroom so they may face	Concerning the syllabus, it is some way well balanced syllabus. We start by sentence variety, wordiness, exactness, how	I think for the divisions of the syllabus are in some way good. Based on my experience in teaching second year at university level, The

<p>students?</p>	<p>and then essay writing techniques. We start first by the structure of essays and the problems that EFL students face in writing essay let's say wordiness, preciseness, connotation, denotation, word choice, etc. It's mainly focus on essays. Regarding time constraints, the students have three sessions corresponding to four hours and half per week. Really, it is insufficient. They are divided between theoretical and practical sessions. This means that in some sessions we have theoretical part and the students are introduced to concepts of writing And in other sessions we have practical part for example exercises and activities. Sometimes one session is divided into two parts.</p>	<p>difficulties later on in the exam when writing essays in one hour and half. So, sometimes I really would like to ask my students to write inside the classroom during the session and they should finish the whole essay or the entire essay during the sessions. This is why? This is just to get the habit or to learn how to write an essay in one hour and half because they have to obey the limited time of the exam which lasts for one hour and half. So if they get the habit to write an essay for three or four hours; this is wrong for them because in the day of exam they face difficulties, and they may not even finish their essays even if they are excellent students. Most of them usually write just the introduction and the first and sometimes the second unit of the essay body. That's what we call it writing</p>	<p>to write a paragraph, then we move to essay by giving them a review about the different parts of the essay. They are taught first how to write introduction, how to outline and then write the body development, and finally how to conclude their essays or how to write an introduction. In the end they are asked to write the whole essay. Concerning time, it is three sessions per week, but it is not enough to expose them the different concepts of writing then to practice writing. That's why we always give them assignments as homework.</p>	<p>whole syllabus is about how to write an essay starting from the basic elements such as wordiness, exactness and sentence variation moving to write parts of essays including introduction, development and conclusion then we pass directly to how to write an essay in different types. Concerning time, it is enough; one session is for input and two sessions for output. Usually, I present the concepts of writing in one session so that we discuss the ways and techniques how to write and organize an essay and the components of each of the three essays then we do the practice in two sessions and sometimes more than two sessions and sometimes we</p>
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		<p>fluency. At the beginning of course, teachers may face difficulties when students writing because they don't know even how to outline their essays. So the teachers need to train their students how to plan their essays before starting to write.</p>		<p>look for extra sessions to finish the syllabus in time.</p>
<p>28. How do you proceed when teaching writing to 2<sup>nd</sup> year students? (Between first and second semesters)</p>	<p>Well, in the first semester students are given the basics of paragraphs and even the patterns that we use is the logical division of ideas which is a very basic for it can cover a variety of topics, but it is at the same time a bridge between first and second year because in the first year they studied paragraphs and in the first semester of second year they study how to change and combine these paragraphs to write essays. In the second semester of the second year, they study the different patterns of essays whether narrative, descriptive,</p>	<p>The first semester is always about wordiness and a kind of revision of what they had dealt with and then we start with the basics or let's say the main elements of writing an essay including an outline, an introduction, conclusion and the one and two units of the essay body. All of these are the first things that I have to teach in the first semester. Then, when I know that they know how to write an outline, how to clearly write a thesis statement, a good introduction how to outline the body, how to write a good conclusion, and</p>	<p>For the divisions of the syllabus, it divided into two parts. Each part is for whole semester. In the first semester, we try to give them just the basics of writing, for example: the sentence variation, word selection, how to write an introduction and conclusion how to outline and write the essay body. In the second semester they are taught how to write a whole essay in different situations: descriptive, expository, process,</p>	<p>In the first semester we teach them certain elements necessary to be taken into consideration in writing. These elements are wordiness, exactness, sentence variation, etc. Then we move to know how to write a paragraph and then how to write an introduction, a conclusion and how to outline and write the body. In the second semester, we expose them to different patterns of essays and we try to imitate each pattern. Of course, in</p>

	<p>argumentative and other types used in college writing.</p>	<p>their awareness of the strategies they are going to use in writing essays, we move to the second semester in which I ask my students to write the whole essay: introduction, the body units and the conclusion.</p>	<p>argumentative, etc.</p>	<p>the first semester, we try to give them a general organization of an essay without making differences between the different types, but in the second semester we move to discover each type independently highlighting the difference and similarities between them.</p>
<p>29. Do you usually adapt syllabus content to the needs of 2<sup>nd</sup> year students?</p>	<p>Yes, of course, it is required and it is important to adapt the syllabus content to the needs of the students, but the problem that we face as teacher of writing expression is that the students are of different levels. They don't have the same aptitudes, they don't have the same vocabulary, and they don't have the same background about grammar. Sometimes when I tell them to work together, I find one laughing about the mistakes of the other because one</p>	<p>Surely, because inside the classroom we have two sides: the students and the teacher. If you think that you have course syllabus and that you have to finish in time without caring about you students, here you are not teaching, but you are doing your job like to get your salary and that's all. The idea is you are teaching, so you have to care about your students. In case they don't know how to write a good introduction, I cannot ask them to write a whole essay. If they</p>	<p>Yes, I try to adapt the syllabus but according the needs of students because they may need to study a certain element before the other. I can't teach them how to write a paragraph before teaching them how to write a grammatically correct sentence, but I have to always put in my mind that students are of different levels. So, I can make any modification</p>	<p>Yes, I do, but not always. If I feel my students find it difficult to understand something I have to go back to make things clear and to facilitate understanding what is difficult. So we cannot go forward directly without making sure that our students comprehend everything.</p>

	<p>has high level and the other one is low achiever. So, we have these problems in adapting the syllabus to the needs of high or low achievers. Another thing that we should take into consideration when adapting syllabus is time. We cannot add or change syllabus elements that take more time and so it consumes the time arranged for teaching writing and then we finish in hurry the other elements of the syllabus. So, for me as a teacher I can add information or go backward or onward in the syllabus respecting the time.</p>	<p>don't know how to outline or they don't have an idea about outlining, I have to say that it is wrong to ask them to write the whole essay and I cannot go forward as lack something. Though it may be time consuming, I have to make sure that they already get an idea or know all the things they need to know as they are the basics to start with their writing the whole essay.</p>	<p>in the syllabus that does not agree with my students' comprehension level.</p>	
<p>30. What among the following approaches do you use when teaching writing to the 2<sup>nd</sup> year students? And why? d) Product e) Process f) Genre</p>	<p>Actually, now we are in the time of eclecticism, so we cannot really adhere to one approach. So I usually use the three approaches sometimes in three different <b>stages</b> and sometimes in one stage by selecting from each approach what are beneficial for my students. In the</p>	<p>I think all of them. I like variety because I think variety makes life, makes also teaching. So I use different teaching methods all the times, different writing models in teaching by the way, because I believe that we have what we call it individual differences within</p>	<p>I use all of them because in the class we different students which mean different levels: high achievers, low achievers and in-between achievers. This also means different ways of learning. We have also to select the approach</p>	<p>Yes, I use all of them since we prepare our students to reach the academic writing. I elect each one of these approaches in certain period depending on what I'm going to teach, the objectives I want to achieve and even my</p>

	<p>first semester, we started by the process of writing, collecting ideas and what students go through when writing. Then, I genre approach. After that, I present models to the students from the genre that they are expected to be proficient in; for example: if they are expected to write well or good logical division of ideas, I give them models about introductory paragraphs, models and about body paragraphs and models about the conclusion paragraphs in that particular genre. After we finish that we move to the product approach so that the students are asked to focus on the linguistic features of their writing pieces to evaluate each other and receive feedback from the teacher.</p>	<p>any class. So, I have a classroom variety; I have different learners, different needs. Some of them need something, others need something else. So, I have to be careful and to be aware of all these methods because sometimes I see good results when I use these methods instead of using the same method or approach all the time. It will be boring to use one approach; that's why I say variety makes life. Sometimes I feel that I have to use this approach, and sometimes no. Sometimes, for one essay genre or type I use all these approaches altogether though it may get much time. So, it is their different needs and their different abilities which oblige us to vary in the methods of teaching writing.</p>	<p>according the lecture and the activities. I want to say simply that I use different approach depending on the <b>situation</b>, and I sometimes I use all of them at the same time. Sometimes we teach writing focusing on the linguistic elements so that students realize the structure of sentence, paragraph or even essay. In other times, we teach writing as process so that students pre-write, draft and revise till to reach the final draft.</p>	<p>students because I take them into consideration in every point.</p>
<p>31. Can you describe the kind of materials you use when teaching writing?</p>	<p>Well, you can say they are adapted materials. We don't often use authentic materials like short stories or</p>	<p>Well, handouts most of the time; it is a traditional way. because of the teaching context, I may use a video</p>	<p>I try to do my best to use different materials. I use handouts, overhead projector,</p>	<p>Really, I use only handouts because of the nature of the module which obliges the teachers to use</p>

	<p>texts written by native speakers. So, mostly they are adapted to the students because they are not advanced to use authentic materials with them. They also adapted materials to the objectives of a particular lesson. That's how I use materials and they include both models and instructions.</p>	<p>or an audio text, but to be honest not all the times because I don't know if we don't face as teachers some technical troubles such as the suddenly stop of electricity, this can make the lesson consumes much time. And sometimes, teachers face some difficulties in settling those technical tools. I really would like to have a classroom full of technical tools for they add technical touch in my classroom, but in reality we don't have such technical tools; they are not available. That's why we really feel save in using handouts to avoid all the aforementioned troubles. That is the main reason.</p>	<p>power point presentations, but always the selection of a certain type of material depends on the situation.</p>	<p>only documents and handouts. By the way I give them handouts mainly in the first session which is devoted to the input. I rarely give them handouts in the practical sessions rather we use pen and white board to explain.</p>
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**Sections three: Activities to teaching writing**

<p>32. What are the types of activities you use when teaching writing?</p>	<p>The types of activities we use mainly two or three types of activities. The first one we usually start with is analytical, so we analyze model texts based on the objectives of the lesson. So, if the</p>	<p>Of course we use activities of different types in classroom; they are related to the method that I use when teaching writing. Activities can be free and sometimes guided by the teacher. Sometimes, I give</p>	<p>Concerning the type of activities, we vary to cope with the different levels of students and as I told you before that the time devoted to teaching writing is not</p>	<p>Yes, I try to vary in activities. For example in the first practical session I give them activities and I guide them, but in the second practical session I do</p>
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	<p>objectives of the lesson are to introduce students to introductory paragraphs, we analyze how a particular essay's introduction is written or how a particular type of introduction is written. So we start by analysis and then we do semi-controlled exercises by asking students to complete the general statements and then I give them the thesis statement or I give the general statements and then we identify the thesis statements. Simply, I mean they have a part and they have to complete the other parts of the exercises and the last type is class and home works in which students are asked to produce what they have practice what they have seen before. So depending on the objectives of the lesson so that the students are asked to produce something in the end.</p>	<p>a text with some reading questions so that they can underline and highlight the necessary points. This is in case I would like my students to know about the structure of text under discussion. Sometimes, I give them just a question, and I ask them to write about it an essay. Sometimes, I ask them to correct each other drafts. Really, I like using a variety of activities and changing all the activities from time to time giving my students more chances to learn.</p>	<p>enough to teach the different concepts of writing and to practice writing in the classroom. So, some activities are done in the classroom, while others are done at home due to the insufficiency of time devoted to teaching writing. Concerning the activities done in the class, I usually guide them in the beginning but later on they get freer, and I try to vary them to be done individually, in pairs or groups to increase their writing practice.</p>	<p>give them free activities but I intervene only when it is necessary. And we do some activities that should be finished in classroom, and in other times I give them home assignments to practice writing more. This is in case we don't have more time to practice writing in classroom, but they need to come to the classroom and present them.</p>
33.	We focus on A,B	In fact, I use all	I really focus	Of course I



<p>hat among these strategies you use for the classroom activities and assignments?</p> <p>d) Encourage students to generate many ideas to enrich their writing content</p> <p>e) Encourage students to make logical connections between their ideas and organize them into paragraphs</p> <p>f) Encourage students to properly select words and to correctly structure sentences in order to accurately and efficiently express their ideas</p>	<p>and C. So, we encourage students to generate ideas and to express logical connections between ideas of which words should be well selected; sentences are well and correctly structured and punctuated to be meaningful because that's what is required in essay writing, because we expect that they have studied something about sentence writing previously.</p>	<p>the strategies that you have mentioned. When students face difficulties in outlining, I have to focus on teaching them how to organize their ideas to be well presented. Sometimes, I see that students face some difficulties in writing correct sentences, so here I have to focus on introducing them to activities related to language like grammar, structure of sentences. Sometimes, I see that my students don't know how to brainstorm to discover ideas to start writing, so here I have to encourage them to find ideas by giving them some strategies to brainstorm and to read.</p>	<p>on the three strategies but in different stages so that to give priority to one strategy than the others. I encourage my students to find ideas first, then how to logically organize these ideas and finally how to elaborate their sentences in terms of structure, words and punctuation.</p>	<p>focus on A, B and c. why? Because content, organization and style are three complementary components of writing. We cannot focus on one component and neglect the others. Ideas will not be convincing if they are disorganized and appropriately expressed. We focus on all of them but in different stages, for example I cannot ask my students to write an essay without making sure that they have something to say I mean some ideas to say. Then, they need to express them correctly and organize them appropriately and logically.</p>
<p>34. What kind of topics are employed when approaching</p>	<p>The topics are usually selected by the teacher, but in very few cases students are asked</p>	<p>In the beginning of my career, I used to give my students chance to write about topics</p>	<p>Sometimes I suggest and sometime I give them an opportunity to</p>	<p>I like democratic classroom. I sometimes suggest topics,</p>

<p>writing?(Suggested by teacher/ or selected by students)</p>	<p>to write about topics from their own choice. Concerning the types of topics, they include social problems, personal experiences, etc. because students may have some idea on such themes so that they can write.</p>	<p>from their own choice. To be honest I was somehow satisfied, but I feel that my students do themselves the task because some of them were lost in selecting a topic. So, for this reason, I started giving them some themes, and they have to select just one to write about.</p>	<p>suggest though they, as I feel, are not able to find a topic. Concerning the type of topics, I try to vary between scientific, social, every day experiences, etc. I mean the most frequent topic and the topics that students do have ideas about.</p>	<p>but I also give the chance to my students to select their own topics but I guide them when they find it difficult to select. Concerning the type of topics, we usually select from our common experiences in daily life, society, university, etc. in which students they have many ideas to say because we want them to write so we should avoid difficult themes in which students they lack ideas. And of course, topics selection depends on the type of the essay we are studying.</p>
<p>35. Can you describe the kind of challenges you encounter in teaching writing skill? (challenges concerning teacher, students, time, material,</p>	<p>In teaching writing skill, the most challenging part is dealing with students of different abilities and hence adapting the materials that I use to the needs of different levels of students especially for me as novice teacher</p>	<p>I think everything. We, as teachers, feel tired, bored because we teach for the whole day. This makes the students more reluctant to write or sometimes less motivated and interested though we give and do for them more.</p>	<p>Yes, we do face many challenges at different levels. Let's start with students who are of different levels may be because they are taught by different teachers in the first year and</p>	<p>For me as a teacher, the most challenge I encounter is the students' lack of knowledge to write in their essays. They always start with definition and repeat it again and again because they</p>

<p>administratio n)</p>	<p>though I try to do my best. Another challenge is the preparation of a variety of activities to cope with the needs of the different levels of students.</p>	<p>Concerning the time, it is not enough because our goal as teachers is to enhance our students' writing and speaking, and all the other modules are done in written or oral medium. Concerning the material, I have already said that I really would like to have a classroom full of technical tools.</p>	<p>this can be obvious in the session when I'm explaining, I find them they are not familiar and they always find excuses that we were not taught by the same teacher. Another problem, they don't write only if they get informed that the work will be marked. Concerning time, as I told you time is not enough; three sessions per week are not enough to teach and practice writing. Concerning material, there is lack in the teaching materials especially in the case of writing because mostly we rely on just handouts and very rarely data show, but I try always to find an alternative.</p>	<p>don't have background about the topic they are going to write about even though they know how to write. This is because of the lack of reading; they don't read.</p>
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**Section four: Difficulties encountering EFL students when writing**

<p>36. Can you describe your second year students' writing performance?</p>	<p>Generally speaking, it is pre-intermediate. It is below the average. For me I don't think it is that good or acceptable.</p>	<p>Students, let's say the majority of them face difficulties in writing; they are not able to write well structured and organized sentences, they don't have that much ideas to write. These problems are reflected in written essays, but I see good students.</p>	<p>Normally their level should be better than the first year, but they are not. If I should describe their writing performance in general, it is average. You can find some students, who are really good, but the majority really is not; I mean they are not.</p>	<p>Really, most of them they are not good. They have bad and unacceptable writing. They find writing as a hard and most challenging task to do.</p>
<p>37. Can you describe the problems that your students encounter when generating ideas? (ideas: relevance, variation, clarity, originality)</p>	<p>They specially have problems with all of them. They have problem with variation because they write only one or two ideas which are not clear and original in most cases, and they also don't have that much relevance because they produce ideas which can be described as different from the theme they are writing about.</p>	<p>Well, yes. By the way nowadays, I can see this. Before, I saw that my students face difficulties related to the language in itself, but, nowadays, it is all about generating ideas. It is all about ideas variation and clarity. So, I feel so sorry to see that university students cannot organize his ideas in correct way, and he cannot do his job in correct way or even to think in logical way. A university student cannot generate ideas and cannot think critically. Here we are talking</p>	<p>Students face problems when trying to generate ideas. We can say that they have a big problem in finding ideas. They consume a long time to find ideas, but in the end I find they use one or two ideas repeated again and again. As I told you not all of the students face this problem, but the majority of them.</p>	<p>Yes as I told you they have problems with generating ideas. They don't have background information about the topic so they will not be able to write or to start writing. I see that having background information about the topic is a key in writing. What do we give them in the classroom is just the how to write including organization, and techniques of sentence variation, etc. but the content is the duty of</p>

		about critical thinking skills because they are important for generating and discovering ideas. So, students cannot generate ideas if they do not have such skill.		students; they must have a certain amount of background information.
38. Can you describe the difficulties that your students find when structuring their essays' larger parts? (introduction, development, conclusion)	We have just studied introduction, and then we will move to body development and the conclusion, but I found their difficulties concern the very few ideas they have. I mean for example though the introduction is the very narrow, very limited, they are not creative.	Yes, they face some difficulties in organizing their ideas and stating the thesis statement which tells us about the whole essay. They cannot say all cannot say all things in one sentence. They face problems in organizing ideas as they lack control over the organization of ideas; they don't know how to logically organize ideas in the three different sections of the essay. I mean which ideas come in the introduction, which ideas come in the body and which ideas come in the conclusion. As a matter of fact, when we write we have to be systemic, but students really are not; they don't obey the strategies of writing a good	Yes, of course. Students find difficulties in writing introduction, development and conclusion. Really, they don't know how to organize their ideas in these three parts. To write introduction, development or a conclusion, there are strategies that should be respected. Students do use the same ideas in the introduction, development and even the conclusion. So, I cannot identify whether I'm reading introduction, development or conclusion. Even in the introduction	As I told they have problems in finding ideas to say about the topic, and if they find two or three ideas they don't know how to organize them. We don't find the same ideas in the introduction, development and even the conclusion. Yes, they don't know how to move from the first sentence to the last sentence. I always do find a gap between ideas because they just jump. They don't have a logical sequencing between ideas; for example I see that they jump from the more general idea to the more specific one, and between there

		introduction, development and conclusion.	for example, I cannot identify where is the introductory sentence, the thesis statement and the plan of the essay.	is a lack of ideas. Sometimes, when I read their ideas and try to see their relationship to the thesis statement, I find no relationship between the ideas and the thesis statement.
39. How can describe your students' problems concerning the topic development in their paragraphs?	Regarding the topic development, it reveals too many problems in students' writing. The first is the lack of vocabulary; they don't have enough vocabulary to express themselves and they don't read too broad in their mind. I mean their thinking is very limited; they don't think creatively, and they don't think critically. I mean they produce very simple ideas using very simple language. They don't feel that have improved from secondary school.	Yes, as I have already said, they face problems because they don't those critical thinking skills which are important in developing the topic they are writing about. I do believe that I cannot say that a good student is a hard worker. It is not a matter. What I do mean by this. I want to say that the hard worker wants to be better, that wants to see the best version of him. That student who wants to change all the time to discover more to think critically to think in logical way, to know exactly about the topic development or how to develop the topic through the three large	Yes, of course. Here, students before they start writing their essays, they need to outline it. That's why I always remind them that planning I very important in writing essay. For those who start with planning first, they succeed later on in writing essays and they succeed even in developing the topic end particularly every topic sentence. Whereas the other, they cannot; they write only the topic sentence without using supporting sentences to develop the topic.	Yes, of course. They usually write just the topic sentence, but they cannot develop it using supporting sentences. The most of their ideas are just definitions. When I ask them to write a paragraph, they always start with definition. Because they fail to write the topic sentence, they cannot develop it well. If they develop it, I also cannot find any relationship between the supporting sentences and their thesis statement. Really, they have problem concerning linking the topic sentence

		sections of the essay creating a transition between them and among the ideas within each section and making the three sections relevant and related to each other. I mean it is all about cohesion and coherence.		with the supporting ideas.
40. Can you describe the vocabulary that your students employ in their writing? (whether repeated or varied, reflecting the purpose of writing )	Yes, most of it, it is not varied. They use common words repeated again and again in all of their writing pieces. Most of it, it is brought with them from secondary school. So, very few students are able to use some new words, new vocabulary from time to time, but they are written in wrong and incorrect way. Concerning the reflection of their writing purpose, it depends on the teacher. So, if they have studied something they can apply it so that they do it on themselves like to develop their vocabulary. They don't work on this side; they expect the teacher to show them the purpose of writing and then they apply them, but they	A good student who varies his vocabulary when writing, but other students use the same words in most of time. That's why I ask students to look for new words not to show off that they know this unique with technical terms that no one knows about. No, what do we need is the common language, common words that we have in English. Just try to use them in different sentences. That's why I ask my students to try use new words. I'm not looking for something new or technical terms, but I just look for new words all the times. This means that they are reading; they are	Well. Concerning the vocabulary, the students face a big problem. Why? Because they use the same words in all of their sentences. Let's say it is wordiness which makes one's writing too boring. This is not good in their level; I mean for second year student. What I want to add is that even the common words are written incorrectly in most of time especially in the case of new words.	Most of the time I see that they use the same words that are frequently can be used in daily life not only in the writing piece of one student but also all of them. And the way they write is based on translation as if they translate from Arabic to English. They are not creative at all.

	don't vary their vocabulary on themselves.	learning and acquiring new words.		
41. Do your students encounter problems as to structuring sentences when writing? (length, structure and opening)	Yes, they have lot of problems with sentence writing including length, structure and even opening. They overuse too short sentences starting with subject cluster and full of run-ons, comma splices, and sometimes if I ask them to write one paragraph, they write it starting a capital letter till the end using no even one punctuation mark. So, they write the whole paragraph as one sentence. This is the problem of many students, but not all of them. They have also problem with sentence variety, they don't produce a variety of sentences; for example, compound, complex and compound-complex sentences are rarely found in their writing.	Nowadays, they do suffer and I see this. Really I got a big team suffering from the same thing that we have said before concerning the language exactly how to structure correct sentences; for example: grammar not just for the sake of having grammar or the session of grammar not to know about grammar because I'm sure that they know the rule. That's what I'm saying to my students; I know that you know the rule but you don't know how to use it. You know the what, but you don't know the how because if you know the how you should show that. Where? Of course in your writing. I know that they know that a sentence has different ways to open with, different structure and lengths, the rules of tenses, etc. but you need to show that.	Yes, of course. Though we had taught students in the first year types of sentences and in the first semester of the second year we are teaching them sentence variation, they still have problems as to structuring sentences. They mostly rely on short and simple sentences which always start with a noun and/or pronoun. I can say simply they make what is called choppy writing style. They may be afraid to make mistakes, but mistakes are existed even they use short and simple sentences. For example, they make run-on sentences and comma splices. Actually, it is very rarely to find students without	Sentence variation is totally absent in their writing performance. Their sentences cannot be classified as sentences at all because I cannot identify the beginning and the end of each sentence. That's why I cannot say whether their sentences are just simple, compound, complex or compound-complex sentences or short or long sentences. There is no clear type of sentence. They start their paragraphs with a capital letter and finish it with a full stop and sometimes with no punctuation mark. Concerning the beginning of their sentences I really see just noun and pronoun. Really, in order to understand the idea they



			<p>sentence structure problems. And for some students they only show off that they use long sentences, but the fact is that their sentences are not correct.</p>	<p>want to convey to me, I have to analyze the whole essay again and again. And sometimes I myself punctuate their essays to understand them.</p>
<p>42. Can you describe the grammatical difficulties can be found in your students' writing?</p>	<p>They have several problems about subject-verb agreement and the structure of sentences. As for the subject-verb difficulties, sometimes students add an item that should not be present for example putting "ed" to indicate the simple past form of the irregular verbs, putting "s" to show the present simple of verb with pronouns such as I, they, we, and you, or double the subject using noun and pronoun at the same time. Sometimes they omit an item which should be present for instance the omission of "s" when the verb is related to pronouns such as she, he and it. And sometimes they misform or misapply grammatical a rule. They still have</p>	<p>I have already answered this question previously. The majority of students think that the session of grammar is just for the sake of grammar, but the fact is that they are taught grammar to be practiced in writing and oral. Really, they do face troubles as to subject-verb agreement, verb conjugation. I see that sometimes they add and sometimes they omit. Another grammatical problem with my students is the use of definite and indefinite articles, etc. when writing. Really, it is a big problem a second year student still have grammatical problems in when writing</p>	<p>A lot of grammatical mistakes from different types can be found in students' writing. I can give as an example the use of tenses; they get confused in using tenses even the simple present sometimes they forget to put the "s" in the place where it should be put, or to put the "s" in the place where it should not be put. They also are confused when to use present, past and future, etc. sometimes, I find verb normally conjugated in the continuous form, but I do find only the stem with</p>	<p>Yes, of course. There are always and a lot of. They make different types of grammatical mistakes let say addition, omission and sometimes misapplication. They have grammatical problems in the use of tenses, articles, subject-verb agreement, the order of adverbs, adjectives and nouns, etc.</p>

	<p>problems mainly in grammar, parallel structure and writing sentence.</p>		<p>“ing” but there is no conjugated form of the auxiliary verb “to be”. They also misuse the articles; they don’t know when to put “the”. Sometimes, they overused it. They also have problems in subject verb agreement.</p>	
<p>43. Can you describe punctuation problems in your students’ written production?</p>	<p>They avoid using punctuation marks. I don’t know why. Although we have punctuation in Arabic, so usually the avoidance is related to mother tongue interference. I mean if this feature doesn’t exist in the mother tongue, the students avoid it like the use of definite and indefinite articles as one of the grammatical problems that the students face when writing. Sometimes they also make reference especially when they want to use “they”, they replace it with “she” or “he”, and they don’t refer to anything mentioned before about something or</p>	<p>Yes, we have got. It is in a big number because students misuse or overuse punctuation marks especially comma. That’s Why I remember in the beginning of my career, since nine or ten years ago, I presented a song of comma in my classroom. I can describe the punctuation problems in students’ writing in these tow statements: - If their writing contains punctuation marks, they misuse or overuse them though they, some of them, know the rules and the position of every</p>	<p>Always not all of them, but the majority of them doesn’t care about punctuation. I can see only full stops in their writing, and misused commas. If I ask them directly about the rule of positioning punctuation marks they do know, but they don’t use them in their writing and they don’t know the importance of these tools in enhancing their written communication.</p>	<p>Yes, of course. The use of punctuation marks is considered as a massacre. Really, I cannot find the beginning and the end of a sentence to the extent I cannot decide whether this is a sentence or sequence of words. That means that the punctuation is a consistent problem for all students and always.</p>

	<p>someone. For example, when they use the word “children”, they replace it later on with “she” or “he” instead of they. They also have problems with anaphora regarding punctuation which they mainly don’t use except full stop and comma which are overused.</p>	<p>punctuation mark. - Or they write a whole essay without even one punctuation mark. Really, I don’t know where the beginning and the end of every sentence. Really, it is a catastrophe; it is a big problem for a second year student to neglect and to not give an importance to such significant feature of writing. Normally, they are taught punctuation marks in first year, and they need to use them now in second year in their writing. Unfortunately, they don’t use them. At least they need to show the beginning and the end of sentences so that to make their writing meaningful.</p>		
<p>44. Can you give a description of capitalization problems in your</p>	<p>They do have capitalization problems because they write without punctuation so they don’t recognize the beginnings of a new sentence and</p>	<p>Yes, we have. Many words must be capitalized, but they don’t capitalize them. I think this is due to the frequent use of social</p>	<p>Yes, this is another problem in the students’ writing. They don’t care about the capitalization</p>	<p>Yes, they have this problem because they start with one capitalized letter in the beginning of the paragraph.</p>

<p>students' writings?</p>	<p>this can make it difficult for me as a teacher to understand the meaning, and sometimes they don't care whether a noun is common or proper so that it should or shouldn't be capitalized.</p>	<p>media networks. Students get the habit to write all the time using their cell phones in Facebook, Instagram and Twitter without using capitalization.</p>	<p>and even they don't know when to use capitalization including not only in the case of sentence beginning but also the name of country, name of person, special titles, etc.</p>	<p>Some students do succeed in using capitalization. The majority do have capitalization problems when writing.</p>
<p>45. Can you give a description of spelling problems in your students' writing performance?</p>	<p>Well, spelling problems; yes, there are spelling problems when writing whether new and difficult words and even the common words. This is because of the lack of focus, but also because of the lack of practice not only writing but also reading which is a key element when we talk about enhancing writing.</p>	<p>They have of course, but I always say to my students you know the word write it you don't know don't write it and need to show off because if you don't know how to write it is considered wrong word. Another problem concerning spelling, students write words but in the silent letters are always missed; they don't write the silent letters.</p>	<p>Concerning spelling problems, yes, there are a lot for example to write "b" and "p" each of which in the place of the other writing one consonant in the case of doubled consonant and many other sounds, and they find problems in the silent letters which in most cases they are not written at all. This is because students are lazy; they don't want to use dictionaries to be sure of how the new word should be written. That's why I always tell them try to use the</p>	<p>This is a dominant problem. They find difficulties in writing words especially the long and the new words. They are not able to write words with silent letter; these words are always written as they spell them.</p>

			<p>dictionary to check the correct form of every new word you encounter. Unfortunately, they don't use it though they have electronic dictionaries in their cell phones.</p>	
<p>46. Can you determine the aspects of writing in which they frequently find difficulties?</p>	<p>Yes, the aspects of writing are all what we have just mentioned before. I can't focus on one of these aspects because they all are existed in their writing pieces.</p>	<p>Of course they find difficulties in all aspects of writing we have mentioned starting with finding ideas, outlining them, word selection, sentence variation, punctuation, spelling and punctuation. I can't say that they find difficulties in one aspect more than the others because all the aspect are complementary I mean they complete each other and if they find no problem in one aspect, they find problems in the other aspects.</p>	<p>Of course all of them. They all serve the writing of an excellent piece of writing.</p>	<p>Yes, all of them.</p>
<p>47. According to you, what are the main sources behind the difficulties that your</p>	<p>- May be due to the lack of competence. They have very limited competence in the foreign language including vocabulary,</p>	<p>You mean the reasons. I'm saying something all the time that writing even in L1, L2 and F1 for many reasons.</p>	<p>- The lack of practicing writing whether inside or outside of the classroom. As I told you inside the</p>	<p>The lack of reading because reading a lot is key in eliminating their lack of vocabulary,</p>

<p>students encounter when writing?</p>	<p>grammar, and misapplication of rules. Sometimes they do know the rule, but they don't know how to use it correctly.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Another source is the lack of practice whether inside or outside the classroom.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Writing is a skill that cannot be used in any time, but we speak and listen all the time.</li> <li>- Writing has many aspects the students need to respect. These conventions are spelling, punctuation, capitalization, etc. which they are not existed in the other skills.</li> <li>- Unlike speaking, everything in writing is concrete so if you make mistake you have to correct.</li> </ul>	<p>classroom the times is not enough, but they work only if they know that the assignment will be marked.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- To enhance writing reading is the main solution. Students don't read; this is another reason behind the difficulties that students encounter when writing.</li> </ul>	<p>their lack of sentence variation, the lack of background information, etc.</p> <p>The lack of practicing writing; they are trained to write only in the module of writing but not in the rest modules.</p>
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**Section five: Possible solutions to overcome writing problems**

<p>48. Can you describe what solutions do you use to prevent the challenges encountering you as a teacher, and to improve your students' writing performance ?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- I try to vary the activities to cope with the different levels of all students.</li> <li>- I try to draw their attention and raise their awareness to the important features of writing. - - Sometimes I dictate to train students to eliminate their spelling errors and to enrich their vocabulary as they write in their copybooks.</li> <li>- I try to vary the activities whether in class or at home to give</li> </ul>	<p>I look for solutions, but what type of solutions I look for.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- I try to use eclectic teaching method to cope with the different levels of students.</li> <li>- I try to use some technical tools when teaching and learning writing in class to make it tech-classroom. This can motivate students to go forward in writing. It can also make variety. But these tech-tools must be used</li> </ul>	<p>For us as teachers we have to make great efforts to solve this problem.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- I try to well prepare my lectures taking into consideration the different levels of students.</li> <li>- I try to vary in the teaching materials so that to motivate students.</li> <li>- I try to vary the activities inside and outside the classroom so</li> </ul>	<p>The first thing is to encourage students to read, read and read. Reading is a basic in developing writing at different levels. It helps them to construct knowledge about different topics. It helps them to enrich their vocabulary. It also offers them an opportunity to experience different structures and</p>
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	<p>them more chances to practice writing so that they can improve their writing.</p>	<p>effectively by the teacher.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- I try to look for extra sessions if it is required and necessary.</li> </ul>	<p>that to create more chances for students to practices writing.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- I advice them to read so that they enrich their vocabulary, they are exposed to different sentence structures of English language.</li> </ul>	<p>variations of sentence.</p> <p>The second one is to practice more and more in order to understand the methodology of writing.</p>
<p>49. According to you, how do you think students can reach the expected level of competence in writing?</p>	<p>There are a variety of sources.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The first one is reading; they need to read, but they need to know how to read to learn; I mean reading can enhance and develop their learning of writing. And they need also to develop their analytical competence so that to analyze what they read at different levels: words, sentence structure, etc. I also encourage students to go to the library to check books and read and sometimes I myself suggest some books such as English grammar in use,</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- I think they have to read, to read and to read.</li> <li>- They need to write and practice writing more and more. By writing at least one sentence every day. One by one they will achieve accuracy and fluency in writing.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- They need to read a lot.</li> <li>- They need to practice writing because practice, practice and practice make their writing better.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- They have to read, read and read.</li> <li>- They need to write, write and write.</li> </ul>

	<p>English vocabulary in use.</p> <p>- They have to write, write and write.</p>			
<p>50. Thank you for your assistance and for the significant information you provide, are there any additions you want to supply before we end the interview?</p>	<p>No, I don't think there is something to add. Good luck for you and you are welcome.</p>	<p>Thank you very much. I wish for you all the best in conducting your research. That's all. Thank you.</p>	<p>Writing is very important especially it is in the serve of the other modules. And it is important not only in studying career but also in the professional career in the future.</p> <p>In this case a good style of writing is required. It should be developed.</p> <p>Thank you.</p> <p>I wish you all the best.</p>	<p>Thank you very much. I wish you the best.</p>



## Appendix III: Training Sessions

### Session One

Course:	Writing		
Lesson title:	Discovering/ Inventing Ideas		
Level:	2 <sup>nd</sup> year	Lesson duration:	1h30m

#### **Objectives:**

By the end of this lesson students will be able:

1. To properly transform a subject into proposition
2. To decide on different sources/ fields from which they can invent ideas
3. To discover from the different sources they suggested a variety of ideas appropriate and relevant to the theme
4. To proficiently express their ideas using different categories of arguments

#### **Steps**

##### **Teacher-guided Practice (Class Discussion) (60 minutes)**

- 1) Students are asked about the essential element they should have in order to start writing (teacher should guide them to reach the intended answer which is “subject”)
- 2) Students are asked to suggest a subject that is interest to them
- 3) Teacher shows his students a pattern of transforming a subject into proposition highlighting the importance of clearly stated proposition in writing process and product
- 4) Students are asked to suggest some sources/ fields related to the subject in hand and to invent and write an idea next to each suggested source/field.
- 5) Students are asked to identify the category of each idea

##### **Free Practice (Group work) (30 minutes)**

- 6) Students are asked to apply what they have been taught in the guided application following the same steps (teacher’s assistance is required if it is necessary):
  - Selecting subject
  - Transforming subject into proposition
  - Deciding on related sources/ fields
  - Identifying the ideas’ categories

**Note: Drafts of both guided and free applications should be kept to be used in the next sessions.**

## Session Two

Course:	Writing		
Lesson title:	Arranging Ideas and Discourse Parts		
Level:	2 <sup>nd</sup> year	Lesson duration:	1h30m

### **Objectives:**

By the end of this lesson students will be able:

- 1) To competently select the pertinent and cogent ideas.
- 2) To make correlations between the selected ideas and mode of discourse using the appropriate methods to develop the theme, and among the ideas.
- 3) To proficiently arrange the ideas by function and position.

### **Steps**

#### **Teacher- Guided Practice (Class Discussion) (60 minutes)**

- 1) Students are asked to select from the many ideas they suggested the forceful and the relevant to the thesis under discussion.
- 2) Students are asked to assume the mode of discourse they are going to write
- 3) Students are asked to reformulate the ideas according to the mode of discourse they use. (teacher should explain that each mode of discourse demands a certain method of theme development)
- 4) Students are asked to determine the relationship between the selected ideas.
- 5) Students are asked to arrange the selected ideas by function and then position. ( Teacher should expose students to different arrangement plans classified into categories depending on the mode of discourse so that they become able to organize their ideas into larger sections)

#### **Free Practice (Group work) (30 minutes)**

- 6) Students are asked to apply what they have been taught in the guided application following the same steps (teacher's assistance is required if it is necessary):
  - Selecting the cogent and the pertinent ideas
  - Determining the relationship between the selected ideas
  - Arranging the selected ideas by position and topic

### Session Three

Course:	Writing		
Lesson title:	Ornamenting Ideas		
Level:	2 <sup>nd</sup> year	Lesson duration:	1h30m

#### **Objectives:**

By the end of this lesson students will be able:

- 1) To employ a variety of vocabulary to express their ideas
- 2) To use different forms of sentence
- 3) To use paragraphing devices in their writing pieces

#### **Steps**

##### **Teacher- Guided Practice (Class Discussion) (60 minutes)**

- 1) Students are asked about the properties of qualified writing (teacher should guide them to reach the intended answer: using a variety of vocabulary, a variety of sentence forms and correctly positioned paragraphing devices)
- 2) Students are asked to propose word fields which they will use when developing their ideas
- 3) Students are asked to use words they suggest in the fields to develop the main idea and its supporting ideas (they should replicate the same procedure to each of the main ideas they suggested)
- 4) Students are asked to write each sentence in different forms and then to select the most excellent one depending on its structure, length and/or opening.
- 5) Students are asked to revise each of their ideas in terms of punctuation marks ( teacher writes independently each punctuation mark in a piece of paper and stick them, then write all sentences, one by one, and ask students to correctly punctuate each sentence; he should provide them with feedback when it is necessary).

##### **Free Practice (Group work) (30 minutes)**

- 6) Students are asked to apply what they have been taught in the guided application following the same steps (teacher's assistance is required if it is necessary):
  - Suggesting word fields which they use to develop main ideas and its supporting ideas
  - Write each sentence in different forms and then select the excellent one
  - Punctuate each sentence to show the end and the pause

## **Appendix IV: Students' Writing Tests**

### **Pre-test:**

Phone is an important technological invention; it is created to facilitate communication between people. Nowadays, it is used for a variety of other purposes, but its use can be dangerous.

Write a composition about the advantages and disadvantages of using cell phone.

### **Post-test:**

A number of people complain of the obstacles they encounter in different domains in their home countries. They see immigration as the main solution to solve their problems. However, it can cause difficulties. Write a composition about the advantages and disadvantages of immigration.

## Résumé

Dans la classe de langue, la capacité d'écrire couramment et de manière autonome soit parmi les avantages les plus précieux que les étudiants souhaitent tirer de l'étude des langues. Un tel résultat doit cependant être planifié à l'avance dans l'enseignement des langues plutôt que laissé au hasard. Bien que les enseignants consacrent plus de temps, d'efforts et d'énergie, les élèves rencontrent toujours des difficultés lors de l'écriture. Cela nécessite de trouver une stratégie innovante et pratique. Cette étude fournit un compte rendu détaillé des pratiques réelles d'écriture des enseignants algériens d'anglais comme langue étrangère et, ensuite, elle examine dans quelle mesure l'enseignement des canons rhétoriques: invention, arrangement et style, peut améliorer les performances d'écriture des élèves de l'anglais comme langue étrangère. Pour atteindre ces objectifs, un mélange de méthodes qualitatives / quantitatives a été utilisé. Tout d'abord, une interview a été administrée à quatre (4) enseignants, sélectionnés au moyen d'un échantillonnage raisonné, qui enseignent l'écriture au Département d'anglais de l'Université Kasdi Merbah. Deuxièmement, un test d'écriture, distribué en deux étapes, a été administré à trente (30) étudiants de deuxième année, choisis par échantillonnage de convenance, dans le même département. Le test d'écriture avait pour objectif de mesurer quantitativement la performance d'écriture des étudiants au niveau du contenu, de l'organisation et du style. L'analyse qualitative des données recueillies lors des entretiens montre que les enseignants et les élèves rencontrent des difficultés à l'approche de l'écriture. Concernant le test d'écriture, les résultats obtenus du pré-test ont été comparés aux résultats obtenus du post-test et confirmé que l'enseignement des canons rhétoriques peut améliorer la performance d'écriture des élèves de l'anglais comme langue étrangère. Les résultats de la recherche suggèrent une reconsidération des canons rhétoriques dans la classe d'écriture.

**Mots clés:** canons rhétoriques, invention, organisation, style, étudiants de l'anglais comme langue étrangère, performance d'écriture.

## ملخص

تعتبر الكتابة بطلاقة واستقلالية هي من بين أهم الفوائد التي يهدف الطلاب إلى الاستفادة منها من دراسة اللغة. ومع ذلك ، يجب التخطيط لمثل هذه النتيجة مسبقاً في تدريس اللغة بدلاً من تركها للصدفة. على الرغم من أن المعلمين يبذلون المزيد من الوقت والجهد والطاقة ، إلا أن الطلاب لا يزالوا يواجهون صعوبات عند الكتابة. هذا يتطلب إيجاد إستراتيجية مبتكرة وعملية. تقدم هذه الدراسة سرداً مفصلاً للممارسات الفعلية للكتابة من قبل أساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية الجزائريين، ثم تدرس إلى أي مدى يمكن لتدريس الشرائع البلاغية:، الابتكار، الترتيب، الصياغة أن تعزز أداء طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. لتحقيق هذه الأهداف ، تم استخدام مزيج من الأساليب النوعية / الكمية. أولاً ، تم إجراء مقابلة مع أربعة (4) أساتذة ، تم اختيارهم عن طريق أخذ عينات هادفة ، والذين يقومون بتدريس الكتابة في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة قصدي مرباح. ثانياً، امتحان الكتابة، الموزع على مرحلتين، تم منحه لثلاثين (30) طالباً في السنة الثانية، تم اختيارهم عن طريق أخذ العينات الملائمة، في نفس القسم. الهدف من اختبار الكتابة هو القياس الكمي لأداء الطلاب في الكتابة على مستوى المحتوى والتنظيم والأسلوب. يظهر التحليل النوعي للبيانات التي تم جمعها من خلال المقابلة أن المعلمين والطلاب يواجهون صعوبات عند الاقتراب من الكتابة. فيما يتعلق باختبار الكتابة ، تمت مقارنة النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها من الاختبار الأولي بالنتائج التي تم الحصول عليها من الاختبار البعدي. تؤكد هذه المقارنة أن تدريس الكتابة عن طريق الأقسام البلاغية يعزز أداء الكتابة لطلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. تشير نتائج البحث إلى إعادة النظر في البلاغة و الأقسام البلاغية في صف الكتابة.

**الكلمات المفتاحية:** الأقسام البلاغية، الابتكار، الترتيب، الصياغة، طلاب اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية، الأداء الكتابي