DEVELOPING CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS THROUGH INTEGRATIVE TEACHING OF READING AND WRITING IN THE L2 WRITING CLASSROOM
DEVELOPING CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS THROUGH INTEGRATIVE TEACHING OF READING AND WRITING IN THE L2 WRITING CLASSROOM

Mamour Choul Turuk Kuek

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DEDICATION

To my late father Choul Turuk, my Mother Nyakai Faat and all who contributed and made me who I am today.
NEWCASTLE UNIVERSITY
FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, COMMUNICATION AND LANGUAGE SCIENCES

DECLARATION

I hereby certify that this thesis is based on my original work except for quotations and citations which have been duly acknowledged. I also declare that it has not been previously or currently submitted for any other degree at the University of Newcastle or other institutions.

Name: Mamour Choul Turuk Kuek

Signature:

Date: 24. 12. 2010
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Warms thanks and my heartfelt appreciation go my family members: my wife Susan, my daughter Tathloai, my son Garwatch, my brother Kuoth Choul, my dear friends Nyang Thiciout, Dagash Fathout, Garkouth Nuer and all the other members of the family and friends for their patience, devotion and understanding which was source of inspiration throughout the study period.
ABSTRACT

Applying sociocultural principles of mediation, collaboration and scaffolding as the underpinning theory, combined with the integrative teaching of reading and writing method, this study explored how L2 students’ thinking and reasoning abilities as manifested in their argumentative writing skills can be improved. Students’ creative and critical thinking skills and their ability to write logically and intelligently are part of English teaching objectives in the Sudan. However, there are no explicit guidelines on how they could be achieved. In this study therefore, argumentative/persuasive writing is considered to be a manifestation of critical thinking skills, since a writer needs to analyse, evaluate and counter arguments and present a logical text to convince the reader.

Thirty, first year university students from the faculty of Medicine, Upper Nile University, Sudan were randomly selected. They were first pre-tested and then randomly assigned into experimental and comparison groups. A twelve-week intervention was conducted in which the experimental group were taught reasoning and critical thinking to enhance their argumentative writing abilities employing integrative teaching of reading and writing method in conjunction with sociocultural principles and Paul and Elder’s (2006, 2007) close reading strategies. After the intervention, the groups were post-tested and a month later after the completion of the study they were post-post-tested. The nature of the tests was argumentative written compositions. In addition, pre and post focus groups interviews were conducted with the experimental group to explore their perceptions and attitudes towards thinking skills before and after the intervention. These interviews were organised to enable the researcher to trace and monitor how students’ ideas and perceptions changed as a result of the intervention.
The study found among others that students’ critical thinking, reasoning and argumentative writing skills improved dramatically after the intervention. In addition, there were improvements in their perceptions and attitudes towards thinking skills as well as in their understanding of the cognitive relationship between reading and writing. Moreover, a remarkable improvement in their spoken English was recorded as well as they developed positive attitudes towards learning English. The study concluded that critical thinking skills can be taught at post secondary school level. It recommended that future research should investigate the complexity of argumentative texts written by L2 students and how the complexity of their thinking may lead to the increasing sophistication of the language produced.
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Chapter One

Background Information

Introduction
The teaching of critical thinking skills in L2 contexts has been a contentious issue. Some researchers stress that, since it is embedded in social practice and inculcated through the process of socialisation from an early age, its tacit nature as part of culture means that it cannot be acquired through instruction (Atkinson, 1997). Others dispute the cultural connection as the only basis for explanation, emphasising its universality and therefore its teachability (Benesch, 1999; Stapleton, 2001). This study investigates the possibility of teaching critical thinking as reflected in argumentative writing through the combined teaching of reading and writing in the ESL classroom, adopting sociocultural principles as the theoretical foundation. The participants were Sudanese first-year university students. Given the research context in Sudan, it is necessary first to provide an overview of the language landscape and the position of English teaching in the country.
Sudan can be divided into two culturally and politically distinct regions. The South and the North have pursued different language policies since the early twentieth century, when English gained a foothold with the British–Egyptian conquest of the country in 1898. Since then, changes in English language teaching have since accompanied various upheavals in the political history of the Sudan. English was the official language of the country until 1950 before being reduced to second language status prior to independence in 1956. Despite relegation to a foreign language in 1990, English refuses to disappear from the Sudanese linguistic landscape. After the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005 which ended the civil war that had lasted for twenty-one years, English came to the forefront again as the official language in the South and a second language in the North.
The linguistic scenery in the country is complex. Various languages are spoken; however, Arabic has gained supremacy in the north, whereas no one language has ever gained dominance in the south. Consequently, either pidgin Arabic or English have served as means of communication among different ethnic groups. Arabic might become the official language of the country, but political reasons and the way it is portrayed as inseparable from the Islamic religion make it unpalatable to southerners.

This introduction therefore summarises the overall history of English teaching in the country, factors that led to its standards dropping after independence, and the current position.

1.1 A Brief Review of Language Policy and English Language Teaching in Sudan

A. During the Colonial Period

One of the colonial objectives prior to independence was the creation of an English speaking class to act as intermediaries for British officials and occupy junior positions in the government sector. Although the British were careful not to interfere in Sudanese social and religious life, this class was required to learn and master English in order to accomplish its duties. A training college was established, first as a secondary school later upgraded into a university, which eventually became the University of Khartoum (Abdelrasoul, 1976; Sandell, 1982). The policy pursued during this period was that Arabic in the North and selected indigenous languages and English in the South were adopted as the media of instruction at the lower primary level, whereas English was taught as a subject at upper primary level and the sole language of instruction at secondary and tertiary levels.
As a result of this policy, English was popular in both the North and the South. Students were motivated by the prospect of employment by the government where a good knowledge of English was essential for recruitment, promotion and economic and social prestige. The standard of English, as reported by Sandell (1982), was extremely high at near native speaker quality. In fact, since 1937 the Sudan School Certificate was linked to the Cambridge School Certificate Examination. This association enabled Sudanese students to undertake an internationally recognised examination whose standards and integrity were unquestioned, and in government offices across the country English was the official language of correspondence (Abdelrasoul, 1976; Sandell, 1982). This privileged position, however, changed in the postcolonial period.

B. Post Independent Period

Shortly before independence in 1956, a five-year plan drawn up by the Ministry of Education was intended to unify the national education system. Arabic was declared the official language and the medium of instruction at primary and secondary levels in the whole country. This Arabicization policy relegated English to a second language taught as a subject at intermediate and secondary levels, but it remained the medium of instruction at tertiary level (see Table 1).
Table (1) A General History of English Status in Sudan From 1900 to Date

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Status</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Primary (P), Intermediate (I) &amp; Secondary (S)</th>
<th>Uni</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>South</td>
<td>North</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Official Language</td>
<td>1900 - 1950</td>
<td>Eng</td>
<td>Eng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Language</td>
<td>1950 - 1989</td>
<td>Indig/Ar or Eng</td>
<td>Ar or Eng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Language</td>
<td>1990 - 2005</td>
<td>Ar or Eng</td>
<td>Ar or Eng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Official-South</td>
<td>2005 – to date</td>
<td>Eng</td>
<td>Eng</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
- **Ar**: Arabic Language
- **Eng**: English as a medium of instruction
- **Eng**: English taught as a subject
- **Indig**: Indigenous Languages
- **Uni**: University
- : Abolished
Changes of government in the 1950s and 1960s yielded major modifications in education and English teaching. Firstly, the education ladder changed in 1969 from 4-4-4 to 6-3-3\(^1\), and the objectives of English teaching at intermediate level were modified to emphasise oral and written skills. The translation teaching method was replaced by the audio-lingual approach, with a syllabus designed so that students began learning English by speaking it. Written language instruction was introduced only at the end of grade eight, consisting mainly of controlled exercises. Free composition was introduced only in secondary schools where students were expected to have sufficient command of the language to express themselves. Abdelrasoul (1976) described the intermediate English syllabus during this period as consistent and well integrated. However, the secondary syllabus was largely dictated by the demands of the Sudan School Certificate, targeting students’ ability to understand and write, but specifying no levels of achievement in comprehension and writing beyond what was required to pass examinations. First year secondary school composition classes, for example, aimed at mastering grammatical rules rather than actual practice in writing. Similarly, comprehension classes presented passages of text followed by questions, which mostly demanded factual information. Such exercises helped students neither to guess meaning from context, nor to make references and judgments on their own. These English teaching objectives have remained dominant until the present day.

Secondly, the relegation of English from official to second language status was accompanied in 1950 by a significant reduction of English teaching periods in schools. Along with the loss of its position as medium of instruction at secondary level, therefore, students’ opportunities to hear, read, speak and write English were greatly reduced. More importantly, English

\(^1\) 4-4-4 four years each for primary, secondary and college levels; 6-3-3: 6 years for primary, 3 years for intermediate and 3 years for secondary levels.
became no longer widely spoken outside schools having ceased to be required in the job market as was the case during the colonial period.

Thirdly, as a result of the Arabicization and nationalisation of education, the Sudan Examination Council changed school curricula and regrouped subjects. English literature had been compulsory and a main source of linguistic strength, but was now reduced to a subject with teaching periods reduced. Moreover, it was no longer necessary for students to pass English in order to receive the Sudan School Certificate, although failure in either English or English literature disqualified applicants for admission to university. The former high motivation to study these subjects, because no advancement was possible without fluency in English, diminished among students, as shown in the examination results in Table 2 where English literature scores remain steady and much better than for English language. The reason for this, as mentioned by Abdelreasoul (1976) and experienced personally by the present author, was that literature examinations in general tested memorisation and rarely encouraged judgement or discussion. Teaching was often geared to the types of question likely to occur in examinations, and students could score highly by revising previous examinations without even reading the set books.

Besides the above mentioned measures, various other factors contributed to the drop in English standards between 1950 and 1990 (Sandell, 1982; Abdalla, 2001):

a- Before independence most English teachers in secondary schools were English native speakers, mainly from Britain. This led to negligence in training Sudanese English teachers, particularly at secondary level. Therefore, after independence the teaching of English was handled by Sudanese teachers, a majority of whom had not had proper training. Trained teachers continued to migrate to Gulf countries for better pay.
Table 2

Percentage of Successful Sudan School Certificate Candidates in English Language and Literature (1963-1973)

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English Language</td>
<td>70.3</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td>66.5</td>
<td>57.9</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>43.2</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>38.1</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>34.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Literature</td>
<td>54.0</td>
<td>62.4</td>
<td>58.5</td>
<td>66.5</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>60.2</td>
<td>60.4</td>
<td>60.2</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>60.1</td>
<td>60.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ministry of Education, Khartoum, Sudan

b- Efforts to develop a coherent national English syllabus were realised very late. Due to lack of experience, the syllabus developed was incoherent and lacked clear educational objectives. Moreover, intermediate and secondary school English syllabuses were very similar, which made English classes boring for students who felt no sense of progress.

c- Large classes, a lack of individual attention, and excessive emphasis on grammar contributed to the deterioration of English proficiency. Students had a sound knowledge of grammatical structures but were often unable to use the language appropriately or effectively.

d- The change from the Cambridge Board to the Sudanese School Certificate was followed by lower grades in English and the repeated scaling-up of results to achieve pass marks.

Yet despite being downgraded at primary and secondary levels, English remained the medium of instruction at tertiary level.
C. The Current Situation

In 1989 a group of military officers supported by the National Islamic Front party toppled an elected civilian government in a coup d'état. The new regime’s main objective was to turn the country into an Islamic state. Not surprisingly, the reformation of the education sector was high on their agenda and in 1990 its structure was changed from the 6-3-3 ladder to one of 8-3\(^2\), with the intermediate level amalgamated with primary education. Arabic was instituted as the official language and the medium of instruction at all levels, including universities (Farajalla, 1992). English which had enjoyed the privilege of being the medium of instruction at tertiary level was now relegated in status to a foreign language taught as a subject from primary grade five through to university level. This policy was aggressively applied despite resistance from the elites in the country. In the process of nationalising the English syllabus, seven textbooks, known as the Sudan Practical Integrated National English (SPINE), were issued in which all references to English culture were replaced with examples from Sudanese culture. The majority of English teachers known by the present author felt that, besides lacking clear objectives, the textbooks did not offer learners the knowledge, skills and experiences needed to learn the language. Some went as far as describing the content as Arabic scenes translated into English.

One outcome of this policy was the further deterioration of English standards in all walks of life nationwide. Results in the Sudan School Certificate continued to decline, compelling the Ministry of Education to take drastic measures such as regularly scaling up results. The pass mark was reduced from 50 to 30 between 1990 and 1995, and then raised again to 50. English literature was reduced to a mere optional subject before being removed from the syllabus in 2003 (see Figure1). In addition, a severe shortage of trained primary and

\(^2\) Eight years for the primary and three years for the secondary level
secondary English teachers, poor salaries and the lack of coherent syllabuses and clear aims for English teaching further aggravated the situation. As Bishop (2004) reported, many university students could not copy basic information from the question sheet onto their examination papers or write complete correct sentences, despite reading and writing being the target skills in English teaching. English has virtually disappeared from public life and those who still speak it fluently are from the older generations taught before the Arabicization of education. Proficiency levels in the country have dropped to unprecedented levels in a period which has witnessed not only the deterioration of English, but also a general collapse of educational standards in the country.
Source: Ministry of Education, Sudan-Khartoum
In 2005 the Comprehensive Peace Agreement was signed in Naivasha, Kenya, between the Sudan People’s Liberation Movement (SPLM) in the south and the central government. As a result, the status of the English language in the South\(^3\) was revived.

An immediate consequence of this agreement was the institution of English as an official language and the medium of instruction in all learning institutions in the South. In the North, English was reintroduced as a second language taught from grade three instead of five, with consideration being given to teach it as early as grade one. In October 2009, the Ministry issued a regulation reintroducing the teaching of English literature in secondary schools, and some in the North are still calling for English to be reinstated as a teaching medium in higher education there too. Thus, English is now being vigorously promoted in all learning institutions in the country. However, with Arabicization having been pursued for so long, the years of neglect and lack of trained teachers will make the revival of English standards difficult. Commitment from the state to research, teacher training and funds to accelerate the process will be required.

A concern precipitated by the influence of globalisation and the pursuit of technological and scientific knowledge is improving the low standards in what is now one of the principal languages of the country. The present study addresses part of this problem by investigating

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\(^3\) Article 22 in the agreement, as enshrined in the Sudan constitution (2005), says that:

- All indigenous languages of the Sudan are national languages and shall be respected, developed and promoted;
- The Arabic language is the most widely spoken national language in the Sudan;
- Arabic, as a major language at the national level, and English shall be the official working languages of the national government and the languages of instruction for higher education;
- In addition to Arabic and English, the legislature of any sub-national level of government may adopt any other national language(s) as additional official working language(s) at its level;
- There shall be no discrimination against the use of either Arabic or English at any level of government or stage of education;
how students’ thinking and writing skills can be improved, given that reading and writing are essential skills for learning at any level of education.
1.2 Statement of the Educational Problem

We have seen that the relegation of the status of English has been followed by reductions in standards and proficiency levels. Irrespective of later efforts to restore standards, they have continued to deteriorate further. In the present author’s experiences, there are inconsistencies between the goals of teaching English as stated in textbooks, the teaching methods used and the actual situation in classrooms. For example, in the SPINE textbook 4 for first year secondary school, it is stated that the aims of teaching English, besides developing students’ communication skills, include improving their reading and writing skills. However, students completing their secondary education still cannot speak, read or write effectively in English. The gravity of the situation can be seen in the inability of university students to copy basic information from question sheets onto their examination papers. Indeed they cannot even write correct complete sentences (Bishop, 2004). In not one year of six of the present author’s experience teaching undergraduates English at Upper Nile University were the English results approved by the university senate without scaling up the scores. Interestingly, the students themselves were always blamed with no action taken to determine the roots of the problem. The logical question that should be asked is: why cannot students write or read effectively in English despite years of learning and the great emphasis placed on these skills? How can their writing skills be improved given that writing is so important in their educational progress? A gap exists between the objectives and the classroom realities that should be investigated and addressed.

Moreover, in the same SPINE textbook 4 it is also stated that, through teaching English, students should be encouraged to be creative and actively involved in the processes of learning and communication. Yet in the present author’s experience of English teaching
classes, creativity and critical engagement with the learning material is not a priority for many teachers. The emphasis in writing classes is usually on teaching narrative, expressive and descriptive genres. Expository and argumentative genres, which embody critical and creative thinking and could assist students to express their views in writing, are rarely taught. Instead the emphasis is often on the memorisation and regurgitation of facts. The textbooks contain no explicit guidelines on how students’ creative and critical thinking can be boosted. Although creative and critical thinking is desired and is now emphasised, students are rarely required to critique the material they learn. This gulf should also be explored and addressed. How could creative and critical thinking be infused into the teaching of English as L2?

The teaching objectives of the new English curriculum for secondary schools in Southern Sudan (Ministry of Education, 2007) include to develop students’ ability to use the language in a variety of ways, such as negotiating, questioning, hypothesising, critical thinking, creativity and evaluation, and to process information from a variety of sources and to encourage them to develop a life-long interest in learning. Though these skills are crucial nowadays, they are not accompanied here by a clear method of how they could be achieved. The question, then, is what teaching strategies should be applied to encourage students to engage in critical and creative activities in English classes? How could they be encouraged to become lifelong learners, particularly in English?

The issue of L2 students’ inability to express their views effectively in writing and to engage critically with what they read or write, especially in higher education, has recently received a lot of attention, and leading scholars such as Atkinson (1997) question L2 students’ abilities to handle critical thinking courses. So, it seems the problem is not confined to the Sudanese context but has wider dimensions and ramifications. Thus, the imperative question is how L2
students can be empowered with the skills that would enable them to express their views clearly in writing. How could L2 students’ ability to think and engage critically with what they read or write be enhanced?

Students’ inability to write critically and express their views clearly in writing in English despite years of learning is clearly a problem which needs to be investigated. Therefore, this study considers argumentative writing as a step towards answering some of the questions posed above. Improving L2 students’ argumentative writing skills could enable them to present and defend their views, synthesise information from various sources and encourage critical and creative thinking in writing. The integrative teaching of reading and writing may be a method which could not only improve students’ writing, reading and thinking abilities but also encourage the formation of lifelong learning habits. It is believed that part of L2 students’ success in higher education lies in their ability to write, read and engage critically and intellectually with the material they encounter.
1.3 Aims and Objectives of the Study

From the preceding discussion, it is clear that a gap exists between the English taught in classes and students’ ability to express their views freely in writing. It is also clear that Sudanese students are not often taught argumentative/persuasive writing in schools. Therefore this study attempts to explore if critical thinking as reflected in students’ argumentative writing can be taught in L2 contexts. The study adopts the integrative teaching of reading and writing and the sociocultural principles of mediation, collaboration and scaffolding to investigate the following specific questions and hypotheses:

Question (1): What are students’ attitudes and perceptions about critical thinking skills in general and in writing skills in particular before and after the study? This question leads to an exploration of students’ knowledge and understanding of critical thinking skills in general, and in particular their perceptions of thinking skills in writing, before and after the study. Whether or not the attitudes and perceptions they held before the study change as a result of the study and their reactions to it are also investigated.

Question (2): Does the guided teaching of critical reading improve students’ reasoning and argumentative/persuasive writing? The question aims to examine whether or not, through the guided teaching of critical reading in conjunction with writing, students would be able to transfer and utilise these strategies into their writing and therefore produce persuasive and organised argumentative texts.
Question (3): What is the role of interaction in improving students’ thinking and writing abilities? The question explores the role of small group discussions and students’ interactions while engaging in tasks in enhancing their thinking and writing abilities.

Question (4): What is the role of reflection in developing students’ metacognition? This question investigates the role of reflection in improving students’ ability to assess, monitor and improve their own performance and learning processes.
1.4 The Significance of the Study

Language is a crucial element of any learning context. It is the gateway for the acquisition of information and the sharing of knowledge. Low language proficiency can hamper proper understanding and therefore impair intellectual and critical engagement with the material being dealt with.

The importance of this study stems from its attempts to improve students’ writing and thinking skills. Brown and Campione (1990) argue that students should be prepared to know how to learn from texts through reading. They should also be trained to know how to share and communicate their ideas through writing. Reading and writing have important places in education in general and in higher education in particular. They are regarded as the means through which many educational objectives and values are achieved and disseminated (Condon et al., 2004).

Associated with the contemporary world of technology is an emphasis on reasoning and thinking skills. Given the complex nature of problems in science and education in general, it is necessary that the teaching and evaluating of students’ abilities to reason critically should be considered as vital components of educational processes at all levels (Osana and Seymour, 2004). Students need to be prepared to question, analyse and challenge information they encounter in their studies, and above all to use their linguistic skills more effectively.

Providing a good and competitive education is a key to the success of any country. It is now time for the Sudan education system to avoid the emphasis on the memorisation of information and to adopt new methods of teaching that would enhance students’ intellectual
abilities and prepare them to deal with complex tasks that involve complex thinking so that they can cope with the demands of today’s world.

The significance of this study, therefore, lies in the fact that improving students’ writing and thinking skills means empowering them with the skills for knowledge-seeking and -building as well as communicating. With these abilities, students can obtain and share information and maintain contact with the outside world. This could result in them no longer being so isolated and becoming part of the literate community worldwide (Brown & Campione, 1990).
1.5 Limitations of the Study

This study investigates whether or not, through the integrative teaching of reading and writing, students’ reasoning, thinking and their argumentative writing skills can be improved. In order to indicate other advantages of the integrative teaching of reading and writing method, reference has been made to how the method can also improve students’ reading abilities. However, reading abilities per se are not the object of investigation in this study.
Chapter Two

Literature Review

Introduction

The teaching of thinking skills has recently attracted increased interest in the field of the teaching of English as a Second Language (ESL). It is advocated that, in this rapidly changing technological era, L2 students need to be equipped with the skills to critically evaluate what they read, express themselves clearly both verbally and in writing, and develop reasoning abilities that render acquired knowledge usable and transferable to other contexts. Brown and Campione (1990) argue that, for any literate community, texts are major sources of information and anybody who intends to join such a community should know how to learn from reading and writing. By reading they mean the ability to understand and construct meanings, critically evaluate texts and apply new knowledge creatively in other situations. The importance of abilities such as reading and writing are undeniable, particularly in higher education where texts are the main sources of information. Therefore, L2 teaching should no longer focus on the compartmentalised teaching of language skills, but should embrace critical thinking instead. Students could then develop the ability to deal with issues that they have never encountered at school, becoming ‘intelligent novices’ (Brown et al., 1983) who may not possess background knowledge in a new field but know how to go about gaining that knowledge by learning from texts. But although the importance of thinking skills in L2 learning is recognised, the question is how these can be developed in L2 classrooms. How can L2 students be encouraged to be independent and self-motivated learners?
This literature review looks at the integrative teaching of reading and writing as one way of achieving this objective, highlighting how it can enhance L2 thinking abilities in writing skills.

2.1 Definitions of Critical Thinking

Critical thinking has been a controversial issue among philosophers, researchers and educationalists. Although there is no general consensus on a definition, Hager et al. (2003) believe that considerable agreement has been achieved on the fact that it combines two related entities: abilities and dispositions. John Dewey (1933) is thought to have introduced thinking skills into recent educational history. He described “reflective thinking” as consisting of meditating on a subject by giving it serious sustained consideration. Dewey conceptualised thinking skills as the ability to contemplate and reflect on complex issues in order to produce a sound judgment or solution. Similarly, Siegel (1997) defines critical thinking as involving a critical spirit and the critical thinker as a person who is moved by reason, and who takes action after careful and prudent thinking. Stapleton (2001) indicates that Siegel’s definition implies a set of dispositions, such as attitudes, habits of mind and character traits that inspire a person to scrutinise the evidence available before taking a position. Norris and Ennis (1989) also define critical thinking as reasonable and reflective thinking that is focused upon deciding what to believe and do. According to Norris and Ennis, as Hager et al. (2003) put it, to think critically in any discipline means to decide what to believe or do in a reasonable reflective manner and to display critical thinking dispositions and abilities within that discipline.
In order to harmonise these elements of critical thinking, the Foundation for Critical Thinking (2009) website offered a comprehensive definition as “that mode of thinking-about any subject, content, or problem in which the thinker improves the quality of his or her thinking by skilfully analysing, assessing, and reconstructing it. Critical thinking is self-directed, self-disciplined, self-monitored, and self-corrective thinking. It presupposes assent to rigorous standards of excellence and mindful command of their use. It entails effective communication and problem-solving abilities, as well as a commitment to overcome our native egocentrism and sociocentrism.”

These definitions suggest that thinking critically involves a set of cognitive skills, such as identifying potentially conflicting issues and gathering, evaluating and pondering over information in order to make a decision. At a personal level, a reflective thinker is a person who is capable of self-criticism and of adjusting strategies to suit the context and objectives, where any realisation of discrepancies between the real and an ideal or desired outcomes constitutes a problem that should be addressed (Peck and Westgate, 1994). At the heart of critical thinking, therefore, as Benesch (1999) claims, is the crucial role of personal identity and ideological convictions. So, if these represent critical thinking in philosophical terms, what definitions do educationists offer?

Educationalists tend to be more explicit in identifying specific critical thinking skills. Linn (2000) defines critical thinking as involving a variety of skills, such as identifying a source of information, analysing its credibility, reflecting on whether that information is consistent with background knowledge, and drawing conclusions based on critical judgment.
Similarly, Watson and Glaster (1980) state that critical thinking entails: (1) an attitude of enquiry that involves an ability to recognise the existence and acceptance of the general need for evidence concerning what is asserted to be true; (2) knowledge of the nature of valid inferences, abstractions and generalisations in which the weight of accuracy of different kinds of evidence are logically determined; and (3) skills in employing and applying the above attitudes and knowledge.

Also identifying specific skills, Ennis (1991) lists twelve skills categorised into four groups of critical thinking abilities:

(A) Clarification skills
   1. identify the focus: the issue, question, or conclusion
   2. analyse arguments
   3. ask and answer questions of clarification and/or challenge
   4. define terms, judge definitions, and deal with equivocation
   5. identify unstated assumptions

(B) Basic skills for decision making
   6. judge the credibility of a source
   7. observe, and judge observations and reports

(C) Inference skills
   8. deduce, and judge deductions
   9. induce, and judge inductions
      a- to generalisations
      b- to explanatory conclusions (including hypotheses)
   10. make and judge value judgments

(D) Supposition and integration
11. consider and reason from premises, reasons, assumptions, and other propositions with which they disagree or about which they are in doubt, without letting the disagreement or doubt interfere with thinking (suppositional thinking)

12. Integrate the other abilities and dispositions in making and defending a decision.

Educationalists clearly tend to be more specific in categorising thinking skills, allowing teachers to decide when and why to teach and emphasise certain skills. However, two schools of thought have emerged in the education literature regarding the teaching of critical thinking. The first school was spearheaded by Ennis & Weir (1985), Siegel (1990), Davidson and Dunham (1997) and Davidson (1998). They claim that critical thinking is a definable notion that can be empirically tested and therefore taught in schools. The second school, represented by McPeck (1990) and Atkinson (1997), considers critical thinking to be a more vague concept, which is either subject-specific and without any empirical parameters or an indescribable notion that exists only as a tacit part of social practice. However, despite the lack of consensus, recent research indicates that critical thinking can be tested and measured. Researchers have produced various lists of aspects of critical thinking which represent some degree of universality. Such skills include, seeking reasons, analysing arguments and judging the credibility of a source. These are regarded as invaluable skills for students to master if they want to succeed in their higher education (Davidson, 1998; Benesch, 1999; Stapleton, 2001, 2002; Hager et al., 2003).

In this study, persuasive writing is considered to be a manifestation of critical thinking skills, since a writer needs to analyse, evaluate and counter arguments and present a logical text to convince the reader. Therefore, Crammond’s (1998) definition is adopted in which he describes persuasive writing as a kind of writing where the writer predicts the audience’s
needs and interests, and therefore anticipates counterarguments and the questioning of his/her assumptions.

However, the question of whether or not critical thinking can be taught in L2 context and its cultural dimension as advocated by the proponents of the teaching of critical thinking need further investigation.

2.2 Can Critical Thinking be Taught?

Atkinson and Ramanathan (1995) and Atkinson (1997) sparked a huge debate when they warned L2 teachers to exercise caution against adopting critical thinking pedagogy. They argued that critical thinking is a tacit social practice acquired through unconscious processes of socialisation during early childhood or, as Atkinson puts it, “learned through the pores” (p. 73). This makes it difficult if not impossible for it to be taught, particularly at post-secondary school levels. To substantiate this claim, Atkinson (1997) argued that attempts made by scholars have failed to reach a unified definition of critical thinking, doing no more than merely reiterating its social aspects rather than describing an explicit notion. Therefore Atkinson concludes that, since what is being described is a social practice, and as some L2 students come from sociocultural backgrounds that encourage cultural conformity, it would be harder or even impossible for them to handle critical thinking courses. Moreover, teaching them critical thinking may expose them to the danger of foreign cultural influences, therefore jeopardising the harmony of their continuation with their social practices.

The arguments of Atkinson and his associates may be true to a certain extent. As a result of low proficiency in English, some L2 students tend to regurgitate and copy information in
their written assignments. Their critical engagement with texts, whether in reading or writing, is always hampered by their language deficiency. The tightened rules concerning plagiarism in western universities are partly an attempt to encourage students to understand and critically engage with whatever information they read or write. It is also a fact that some non-Western educational systems do not consider critical thinking as an educational goal, and thus encourage rote learning and the memorisation of facts as a preferred method of learning. However, Atkinson failed to investigate whether the L2 problem is a cultural, cognitive or linguistic deficiency. Is it justifiable, based on such limited arguments, to categorically advocate that students from such backgrounds lack critical thinking abilities? Is it possible that, in any part of this planet, there are communities who perform their daily activities without applying any kind of rational judgments to their actions?

Benesch (1999) points out an apparent contradiction in Atkinson’s and his supporters’ claims: namely that critical thinking is impossible to teach while at the same time easy to adopt. As she states, on the one hand they worry about L2 students’ vulnerability and susceptibility to the influence of critical thinking if they are exposed to it, while on the other hand they claim there is a lack of critical thinking abilities and as a result such students should not be required to engage in any critical thinking activities. Benesch finds it hard to reconcile these two contradictory positions, especially since teaching itself is always grounded in ideological conviction. Therefore what is perceived as an inability to deal with critical thinking issues could be resistance to the imposition of particular patterns of thought. She suggests that, instead of accusing others of critical thinking deficiencies, opponents of teaching critical thinking should rather ask themselves to what extent their teaching is influenced by their ideological beliefs. Distinguishing between normal choice and ideological choices, Benesch emphasises that although other opponents of critical thinking have not
stated clearly their political positions, Atkinson has. In his reply to his critics Atkinson (1998) outlined his conviction that making humans aware of how they think could lead to disastrous ends; therefore, normal life can proceed smoothly only if the majority of its mechanisms are hidden. Benesch argues that the choice of such a position prevents students from reflecting on their thinking and behaviour and challenging the social status quo of their communities. This political position is rejected by proponents of critical thinking who want students to question, critique and critically evaluate the processes of their own as well as of their communities’ daily lives so that their thinking and behaviour is well informed.

Gieve (1998) praised Atkinson for introducing the issue of cultural relativity into the debate and for acknowledging that critical thinking should not be considered as a matter of learning skills but involves a comprehensive re-orientation of students’ cultural norms, values, beliefs and attitudes. However, disagreeing with Atkinson’s interpretation of critical thinking as solely grounded in tacit social processes, he emphasises the two aspects of critical thinking identified by Blair (1988): intellectual virtue and the virtue of character. The former involves skills and understanding, while the latter involves the habit of critical reflection on one’s own and others’ problematic assumptions as well as the valuing of reasoned support for beliefs and actions. This resonates with Benesch’s rejection of definitions of critical thinking solely as tacit socially inherited norms without regard to an individual’s choices or political identity, which always influence decisions. Davidson (1998) similarly argues that critical thinking is a universal phenomenon and should not be reduced to narrow social practice. If some cultures differ in the ability to appropriate critical thinking tools, this may reflect the degree to which critical thinking is tolerated in specific areas of life. He encourages ESL/EFL teachers to teach critical thinking and prepare their students for what he calls the “world outside their
societies” (p. 122). There is evidence, he claims, that many students are ready for and in great need of critical thinking skills.

In assessing this debate, critical thinking can be defined, as above, to involve sets of cognitive skills such as identifying potentially conflicting issues, and gathering, evaluating and pondering over information in order to make a decision. These abilities can never be a monopoly of particular communities to the exclusion of others. Even students who come from backgrounds which encourage social harmony tend to apply them in their daily activities. The graduation of thousands of L2 students from such cultural backgrounds from Western universities every year demonstrates that they can manage critical thinking courses if exposed to them. Stapleton (2001) stresses that claiming that L2 students do not possess critical thinking abilities is merely a social prejudice. He cites research on schemata theory suggesting that performance in thinking tasks is related to a learner’s familiarity with the topic at hand (Simmons, 1985; Kennedy, Fisher and Ennis, 1991). Stapleton points out that most studies which claim that students from Asian backgrounds lack critical thinking were conducted in America using American topics such as freedom of speech, gun control and the death penalty. These issues, according to him, did not constitute major topics in the students’ home countries, whereas his research (Stapleton, 2001; 2002) demonstrated that Japanese students are capable of presenting critical arguments when tested on what they know. Franklin (1985) further concluded that the low performance of L2 students tends to disappear when they become more familiar with the task material, and Stapleton concludes that critical thinking means different things to different people, and in the academic arena it is greatly influenced by content familiarity.
In conclusion, it is clear that there are different interpretations of what constitutes critical thinking. However, this brief discussion suggests, firstly, that critical thinking is not a wholly tacit social practice but can be taught and improved. Secondly, every human being can be a critical thinker once such a choice is made and ideological convictions cannot be ruled out when discussing what constitutes critical thinking. So, if critical thinking is a universal phenomenon and can be taught, how could it be taught in L2 classrooms, particularly in writing classes? It can be suggested that the integrative method of teaching reading and writing could be a viable method of teaching thinking skills. In applying this method, this study employs sociocultural principles as the underpinning theory, as explained in subsequent sections. But first it is necessary to explain the concepts of argumentative writing and how reading can lead to better writing.

2.3 Good Argumentative/Persuasive Writing

McNamara et al. (2010) stress that, although a challenge for many, writing well is of great importance for success in a wide variety of institutions and professions. For example, they claim that writing skills are among the best predictors of student success at university, describing good writing as writing that articulates ideas clearly, argues opinions, synthesises multiple perspectives, presents information effectively and consistently with well-chosen details, and avoids grammatical and mechanical errors. Similarly, Paul and Elder (2006, 2007) describe ‘substantive writing’, as that which has a clearly defined purpose, makes a clear point, and supports it with specific information which is clearly connected and coherent.

What can be gleaned from these definitions is that certain characteristics distinguish good from poor writing. Among these are clarity of purpose and ideas, the use of supporting
arguments and opinions with evidence, and consistency in the presentation of ideas. These elements are usually desired in various forms and genres of writings.

As for argumentative writing, Crowhurst (1988), Brink-Budgen (2005), and Cottrell (2005) stress that its goal is usually to persuade readers to accept certain positions or viewpoints. To be convincing, the desired position needs to be supported with sufficient reasons and evidence, and these authors claim that good persuasive writing contains the following elements:

1. Position: the writer’s point of view that he/she wants to persuade the readers to accept should be clearly stated.

2. Reasons: the author provides propositions to support his/her position and why readers should accept them.

3. A line of reasoning: whether or not the reasons given are presented in a logical order. Cottrell (2005) claims that the logical flow of reasons acts as a path that leads towards the desired conclusions. A poor argument is where reasons are not presented in a logical manner or are incompatible with the intended conclusion. The strength of an argument thus lies in the reasons given to support the conclusion.

4. Conclusion: refers to the main purpose of the argument; the position or view the author wants to persuade readers to accept supported by the reasons provided. Furthermore, although a summary of events can form part of the conclusion, highlighting salient points, it should also provide judgements about the likelihood of these events. These judgments distinguish arguments from other types of writing such as description and narration (Cottrell, 2005).
5. Persuasion: the purpose of an argument is to persuade readers to accept a point of view. Therefore, the conclusion should be drawn from the reasons provided, which should be strong and appealing enough to convince the readers about the strength of the propositions made.

6. Signal words and phrases (clues): these are concerned with the structure and organisation of persuasive writing. Good persuasive writing uses transitional words such as ‘so’, ‘thus’, ‘in consequence’ and ‘as a result’ which, if properly used, alert the reader to the intended conclusion. Students also need to acquire the skills to identify and recognise underlying assumptions and conclusions even when such words and phrases are not explicitly used.

Mastering the ability to judge whether or not reasons and conclusions have been provided can be partly achieved through knowledge of the structure and organisation of argumentative/persuasive writing. However, argumentative writing has received relatively little research in L1 and even less in L2 (Connor & Lauer, 1985; Yeh, 1998; Connor, 1990; Crowhurst, 1991). Adopted from Crowhurst (1991) with some minor modifications, figure 2 below outlines a simple structure of persuasive/argumentative writing in English.

From figure 2, a piece of argumentative writing should have a statement of belief (claim) supported by reasons which justify claims made and raise and address counterarguments. In longer texts there is sometimes a need for intermediate conclusions which can also act as reasons before the final conclusion is drawn. This structure distinguishes argumentative writing from genres such as narration or description. It is important to note that good writing is not a gift that people are born with, and McNamara et al. (2010) stress that, to become good writers, students need to have a better command of a greater diversity of words and
more complex syntactical structures which, as Kellogg (2008) says, takes time through continuous reading, writing and deliberate practice. Therefore, if the above mentioned elements are characteristics of good writing, how can reading improve writing? Paul and Elder (2006) offer an answer through what they call ‘close reading strategies’.

Figure 2: Crowhurst (1991) Persuasive Writing Structure
2.4 Models of Good Reading Strategies that Lead to Better Writing

Paul and Elder (2006) claim that there is a profound relationship between good writing and good reading, where deficiencies in either skill entail parallel deficiencies in the other. A student, for example, who cannot distinguish clear from unclear forms of writing, would have a similar problem in reading, mistaking vague ideas for clear ones. They suggest close reading strategies which, if properly mastered, can enlighten students about the similarities between reading and writing and how cognitive strategies applied in one domain can be employed in the other. These strategies include the following:

1. Clarifying purposes: in any reading task given, learners should be required to identify the author’s purpose(s) and how they can use this strategy in identifying and clarifying their purposes when writing.

2. Formulating clear questions: learners should be encouraged to ask questions while dealing with reading tasks. Asking questions is a better way of unpacking reading content and identifying hidden assumptions. Similarly, learners should be urged and encouraged to ask questions about what they are aiming for when writing.

3. Judging the relevance and irrelevance of information in a text: learners should be encouraged to use their experience and background knowledge to judge and distinguish accurate from inaccurate information in a text both when reading, and when preparing and performing their writing tasks.

4. Drawing logical inferences: in reading tasks learners should be encouraged to draw conclusions based on the reasons given in the text. This is expected to activate their schemata and to bring their background knowledge into play, and they should be urged to do the same when writing.
5. Identifying deep concepts: learners should attempt to identify significant concepts in reading texts, and to similarly identify what guides their thinking while writing.

6. Identifying logical implications: during reading learners should trace the logic of the author’s arguments, and then identify such patterns in their own writing.

7. Exploring options: learners should be urged to identify and think within multiple viewpoints, including those present and absent in texts. Similarly, they should be encouraged to identify multiple viewpoints relevant to issues in their written work, concerning what they should include or exclude.

These arguments linking good reading strategies to improve writing echo Byrne’s (1988) emphasis that the comprehension of a text depends to a great extent on an appreciation of the devices used by the writer. This appreciation helps readers to absorb these devices into their mental frames before transforming and transferring them later into their own writing. This is a cognitively complex and intricate process, and how these operations occur is difficult to explain. However, the shared cognitive and other characteristics of the domains of reading and writing may help to explain their relationship.

2.5 The Relationship Between Reading and Writing

The notion of the integrated teaching of reading and writing goes back to the late 1800s (Applebee, 1974; Quinn, 1995), but only came to prominence in the late 1960s, and with vigour in the 1980s and 90s, as a reaction against the audio-lingual approach which traditionally treats these skills as distinct entities. Yet although research in the fields of reading and writing progressed independently for decades, the findings have echoed each other. Both are processes of meaning construction, involving similar patterns of thinking and
linguistic habits. They are multifaceted and complex processes involving many sub-skills, and rely on individual past experience (Janopoulos, 1986; Carrell, 1987; Esky, 1993). Therefore researchers in both domains have called for their integration, claiming that this will improve students’ linguistic proficiency as well as enriching their thinking skills.

2.5.1 Reading and Writing Share Similar Cognitive Processes

The cognitive relationship between reading and writing has received the attention of researchers in both domains. Kucer (1985, 1987), for example, identifies four cognitive features shared by the two skills. Background knowledge is a crucial factor for both reading and writing; both rely on a common cognitive data pool of written language; utilise similar processes transforming background knowledge into text; and employ common processing patterns in text production as a person reads or writes. This common pool of cognitive and linguistic operations led researchers to assume that the processes used in reading to construct meanings out of a text might be the same processes that a writer uses to create meanings. But despite its intuitive appeal, as Braun (1986) notes, Kucer’s account fails to show how readers and writers access this common pool. However, though Braun may be right that Kucer has not satisfactorily explained how readers and writers access this common pool, there is empirical evidence to suggest that good readers tend to be good writers (Krashen, 1984; Smith, 2004).

Kucer (2001; 2005) has recently discussed what he refers to as a common cognitive pool in more detail, where contextual dependency is a cognitive feature shared by the two skills. Furthermore, text comprehension (reading) and composition (writing) always occur through the interactions and negotiations of both readers and writers with texts. Kucer describes five aspects of these interactions.
Firstly, knowledge search refers to the utilisation of background knowledge, as suggested by schemata theory, in both reading and writing. Comprehension then represents the reader’s internal dialogue comparing and contrasting prior knowledge with the new input. This dialogue leads to the assimilation and internalisation of the reading input, and subsequent creation of new knowledge. Kucer claims that writers too use background knowledge to rearrange, organise and refine texts in planning, writing and revising. In fact, one strong aspect of the connection between reading and writing is that it encourages students to engage in an ongoing dialogue with texts through combined reading and writing activities that facilitate the useful employment of background knowledge. The activation of schemata enables students to assimilate and internalise newly acquired knowledge, a step regarded by sociocultural theory as important in learning processes. As information is transferred from the interpsychological into the intrapsychological plane, where it is transformed and personalised (Vygotsky, 1978).

Secondly, knowledge of context and audience is crucial in both comprehension and composition. Both readers and writers examine the purpose of a text within a particular context, each approaching it from a different perspective. Readers focus on what the text elicits, while writers consider if the text elicits what is intended. Smith (2004) also raises the importance of the text for both readers and writers. Reading requires not only the physical existence of text and reader, but their interaction. Similarly, a writer can never make his/her intentions known unless they are encoded in the form of texts. Text, therefore, is an essential focal point where readers and writers meet.

Thirdly, reading and writing are intentional, goal driven activities. An individual reads to obtain information and any change in this goal affects the interaction with the text. Likewise,
a writer writes to send a message, and any change in this goal may lead to a change in the writing. Therefore, both reading and writing are pre-planned activities tailored towards the achievement of objectives.

Fourthly, information processing strategies are common to both readers and writers. The macro- and micro- proposition strategies represent concepts such as the main and supporting ideas; whereas micro- and macro- integrating strategies concern the creation of focus and global meanings for texts. These two groups of strategies are commonly employed by readers and writers in their tasks, and Kucer proposes that the following cognitive activities are utilised by both readers and writers in pursuing their aims:

1. generating and organising ideas and concepts;
2. illustrating and elaborating on ideas with details and examples;
3. integrating meaning across the text into a logical and coherent whole and using a variety of linguistic cues to generate meaning;
4. utilising a variety of text aids and other relevant linguistic and conceptual background knowledge; and
5. making meaningful predictions based on the available text.

This similarity of processes and strategies prompted Smith (1994) to describe reading as a collaborative learning process in which the reader is not performing the reading act alone, but that he/she reads like a writer and consistently works through the text following the trajectory of the writer’s path of the organisation of words, sentences and meanings.
Fifthly, Kucer (2001) argues that readers and writers engaged in ‘an evolving cognitive text’, working to create, control and refine meanings in a process of the regeneration and reinterpretation of a text. The evolving nature of the generation of meaning supports the reader, where parts of text are related together, and the writer, as new text is generated. Continuously creating meanings, writing involves setting goals, generating ideas, organising information, selecting appropriate language, planning, writing, editing, reading and revising in a recursive way before the final product is completed (Hedge, 2000). Reading is also a recursive, non-linear process, where the reader moves back and forth to confirm the accurate construction of meanings and the logical coherence of the text, relating it to background knowledge. Both reading and writing can be regarded as messy processes of meaning creation, where no direct or systematic methods are followed.

This discussion suggests that the cognitive characteristics which are combined in reading and writing involve thinking and reasoning skills. The generation of ideas and concepts, the organisation and re-structuring of text and the examination of logical coherence are, in essence, thinking activities. Similarly, whether in reading or writing, the negotiation and selection of meanings from among alternatives, the integration of background knowledge and prediction of intentions are cognitive abilities involving critical thinking. Neither reading nor writing can ever be effectively used without the intervention of thinking, although thinking can operate independently of both. The conclusion that thinking and reasoning abilities augment and cement the relationship between reading and writing corresponds to what Hudson (2007) and Smith (2004) describe as the inextricable link between reading, writing and thinking.
However, reading and writing share not only cognitive strategies, but also processes of meaning construction. What is the common thread between readers and writers with regards to negotiating and creating meaning?

2.5.2 Meaning Construction in Reading and Writing

An argument against the separate L2 teaching of reading and writing is that it does not assist students to engage intellectually with texts (Lindemann, 1987; Greene, 1993; Leki, 1993; Furneaux, 1999). For example, writing classes often focus on practicing correct sentences, good introductions and conclusions and general rhetorical patterns. Similarly, great emphasis in reading classes is placed on vocabulary, the identification of main and supporting ideas, or the ability to differentiate discourse features. However, despite the relevance of these techniques, they do not necessarily help L2 students to read and write effectively (Lindemann, 1987; Greene, 1993; Leki, 1993; Furneaux, 1999). The latter occurs when students engage in meaning construction that enhances their abilities to become competent, fluent and flexible readers and writers when dealing with texts (Zimmerman, 1997).

Tierney and Pearson’s (1983; 1985) and Pearson and Tierney’s (1984) composing model of reading, assumes that readers construct meanings as a result of their ongoing dialogue with themselves as they read, in a process of meaning negotiation where background knowledge is mobilised to understand the writer’s intentions. Crucially, negotiation assists the reader to select appropriate meanings in the text that match his/her goal. The implication here is that there is no absolutely objective text. Readers use text cues to create meanings that satisfy their intentions; different readers can extract different meanings from the same text. Tierney and Pearson claim that writers engage in a similar dialogue, with the negotiation of meanings
embodied in the struggle to convey clear messages to anticipated readers. Both writers and readers adapt to perceptions about their partners in negotiating what a text means. Prediction serves as the common thread between readers and writers: readers continuously attempting to guess the writer’s intentions; writers constantly attempting to anticipate readers’ reactions.

In the literature, writing is often described as a generative process. However, because meaning creation and clarification are the underlying objectives of reading and writing, Wittrock (1983) describes both as generative. Both good reading and effective writing build relations between the text and what an individual knows, believes and experiences. The reader or writer tries through generative processes of comprehension and composition to maintain the coherence and logical flow of the text as a whole. Squire (1983) further illustrates the generative process, regarding reading and writing as process-oriented thinking skills. Reading requires the learner to reconstruct the structure and meaning of the writer’s ideas, and the writer constructs meaning and develops, relates and expresses ideas. The focus is on the iterative processes of construction in both reading and writing as well as the thinking processes involved (Hudson, 2007).

Meaning creation is claimed by sociocultural theory to be crucial to learning. Vygotsky (1978, in Lantolf, 1994, 2006) believes that the acquisition of literacy relies on the mediation of meaning as a psychological tool which transforms the learner’s cognitive system. Kozulin (2002) further argues that the learner’s appropriation of symbolic mediators depends on the goal that a teacher sets. Not every type of literacy leads to cognitive changes, and the literacy acquired in the formal educational setting may not lead to cognitive changes unless it is mediated to students as a cognitive tool where meaning creation is paramount. If the purpose
of the cognitive tool is poorly taught to learners, the proper understanding of its instrumental function can be missed (Kozulin et al., 1995). For example when an L2 is taught as a coding system which simply maps correspondences between foreign words and those in the native language, the learner becomes severely handicapped in both comprehension and expression in the L2 (Kozulin, 2002). But if the purpose of the study of L2 is mediated as an ability to comprehend and formulate meaningful propositions, the learner becomes capable of grasping the instrumental role of the foreign sign system and develops competence in both comprehension and expression. This clearly demonstrates the importance of engaging students in genuine dialogue with texts as a better way of appropriating meanings.

Once the focus of teaching is on meaning construction, students are able to assimilate, internalise and integrate new information with prior knowledge (Simister, 2004). Sociocultural theory argues that true learning occurs when the learner actively transforms his world and does not merely conform to it (Donato, 1994). Echoing the importance of meaning construction and fluency, Seedhouse (2004) suggested a simultaneous dual focus on form-and-accuracy together with meaning-and-fluency as the best way to enhance L2 students’ proficiency. The integrative teaching of reading and writing offers such a chance for students to focus on meaning comprehension and production as well as form through encountering others’ writings while reading. Corson (1999) suggests that L2 students should be taught so that they become knowledge builders rather than information recorders, with learning treated as a holistic, meaning-making process. This requires a method of teaching that values risk-taking, welcomes conjecture, and sees errors as inevitable and necessary. It can be argued that the integrative teaching of reading and writing can partly fulfil these objectives.
However, making the connection between reading and writing is not as a smooth process as it may seem. Challenges and complications include, for example, whether reading should precede writing or vice versa. What should the practical nature of such integration be? Eisterhold (1990) summarised research outcomes in the L1 context in three hypotheses which represented largely consensual views over the previous two decades:

1. The directional model hypothesises that reading and writing share structural similarities, so that the structure of whatever is acquired in one skill can then be applied in the other (the transfer process moves one-way only; either in reading-to-writing or writing-to-reading).

2. The non-directional model assumes that reading and writing derive from a single underlying cognitive proficiency and that improvement in one domain will cause improvement in the other (both skills can transfer in either direction, as in an interactive model).

3. The bi-directional model claims that reading and writing are not only interactive but also interdependent. In this model, what is learned at a certain stage of development can be qualitatively different from what is learned later. There are multiple relations between reading and writing as well as the possibility that the nature of the reading-writing relationship might change as development proceeds.

Research on the L1 reading-writing connection tends to focus on either “input” in the directional model, “meaning construction” in the non-directional model or “multiple relations and interrelated processes” in the bi-directional model. Eisterhold (1990) encourages teachers to take advantage of all three models in L1 literacy courses, and the few studies carried out so far in the L2 context favour the integration of the two skills (Leki, 1993; Zimmerman, 1997; Smith, 2004).
However, proponents of integration rarely deny the existence of some differences between reading and writing. Therefore, at what stage should they be integrated, particularly in the L2 context? Fitzgerald and Shanahan (2000) recommend the necessity to provide separate L2 instruction, especially at earlier stages. Eisterhold (1990) and Grabe (1991) assume a language threshold barrier before positive transfer can take place and before ESL learners can achieve promising levels of reading-writing fluency in the target language. L2 students cannot acquire language in the way that children do; they need to be explicitly taught the fundamental skills of both reading and writing before these are taught integratively. Lack of such basic skills can hinder progress as readers and writers, and Ferris and Hedgcock (1998) argue that:

1. ESL teachers should adjust the relative weight given to reading and writing assignments based on their students’ L2 proficiency levels, needs, and expectations.
2. L2 writing skills cannot be acquired successfully by practice alone. Some aspects of composition are difficult to teach and must be acquired through sustained exposure to many varieties of texts.
3. ESL learners need instruction to become successful writers in English. Neither extensive exposure to reading materials nor large quantities of writing practice alone is sufficient; both are necessary.
4. Just as reading facilitates the development of writing skills, so writing can help build proficiency in reading. Therefore, teachers should consider writing activities that help students prepare for, respond to, and comprehend reading selections more effectively.

Ferris and Hedgcock’s arguments were incorporated into the research design as explained in chapter 3. The study methodology took into consideration that neither extensive exposure to reading nor practice in writing alone can lead to significant improvements in students’
argumentative writing. Therefore both need to be emphasised equally in class. The selected intervention reading texts were geared towards assisting students to experience and gain insight into aspects of argumentative writing that are difficult to teach but could easily be appreciated and internalised through the critical reading of argumentative texts. More importantly, the texts focused on highlighting the cognitive similarity between reading and writing and how knowledge and strategies acquired in one domain could be used to improve the other. Instruction was considered essential and, as such, the first and second stages of the teaching intervention involved the explicit teaching of elements of argumentative and writing skills in general. In addition, even though reading and writing are believed to mutually influence each other as Eisterhold (1990) illustrated in his three models of the reading-writing connection referred to above, the research design employed reading as a springboard for writing. Therefore, partly for reason of time constraints and the lack of a reliable measurement instrument, only the influence of reading on writing was investigated in the study. This point is considered further in the discussion chapter.

2.5.3 Reading and Writing are Thinking Processes

The traditional behaviourist model of the teaching of writing advocates that an individual should think first before writing. Such a supposition implies that a person should first do all the reading, grasp the entire material, think through it, then plan and write (Thomas, 1987 cited in Wellington, 2003). A corollary would be that thorough knowledge will lead to clear and high quality writing, but writers who follow this strategy, Thomas warns, would never get started. In a series of interviews with various authors, Wellington (2003) reported that most regarded writing as a form of thinking, and that learning and thinking comes from writing rather than preceding it. Writing was regarded as a way of clarifying and redefining
thought, developing understanding, and gaining access to their own thinking and personalities.

Smith (2004) similarly asserts that the thinking which occurs during reading is no different from that performed in other situations. Fulfilling intentions, making choices, anticipating outcomes, drawing inferences and making sense of situations are aspects of thinking exploited while reading. No one can talk, understand, or make sense of the world without thinking, so it is impossible to read and not to think. Reading, he proposes, is thinking partly focused on the visual information of print, stimulated and directed by written language. He calls for the exploitation of what he terms the “power of reading”. Readers can pause for reflection, for relief from the reading experience, or to skip experiences they are not interested in or which disrupt their flow of thought. Teachers should encourage their students to utilise this “power of reading” when reading or writing.

Furthermore the enquiry and questioning processes in both reading and writing promote higher-order thinking which employs both comprehension and composition. Comprehension then depends on deriving meanings which answer questions readers ask when interacting with texts. Smith (2004) argues that a reader cannot understand the writer’s point of view unless he/she asks the questions that the writer implicitly expects to be asked. Disputes over the meaning of a text thus often concern the relevant questions that should be asked, and a good writer leads readers to ask the relevant questions appropriate to the text. Effective reading then finds answers to these particular questions:
“Reading - like writing and all other forms of thinking - can never be separated from the purposes, prior knowledge, and feelings of the person engaged in the activity nor from the nature of the text being read. The conventions of texts permit the expectations of readers and the intentions of writers to intersect” Smith (2004, p.192).

For Smith, reading makes sense only when the reader gets satisfactory answers to his/her questions; an enquiry process followed by philosophers for centuries to build knowledge. Smith’s argument suggests that Reading is therefore a meaningful activity motivated by a purpose; where asking questions enables an individual to link together a chain of ideas and suppositions in order to achieve understanding. Such mental operations can never be separated from the reader’s feelings and experiences, so that reading can be separated neither from the intentions and interests of readers nor from the consequences it has for them. Reading can also never be separated from writing or thinking, as is evident in higher education.

McGinley (1992) examined composition using multiple textual sources through a series of case studies of readers involved in the process of creating text. Subjects reported that reading the source texts primarily helped them acquire new information about the topic, while writing notes served as an intermediate text in planning and organising arguments. Almost all of the reading and writing activities greatly influenced each other, functioning as vehicles for reshaping ideas and refining arguments. During composition or comprehension, writers and readers continually adjusted their strategies, adopting different roles throughout. These findings suggest a recursive process in which writing, reading and reasoning are intertwined.
2.5.4 Reading and Writing are Metacognitive Processes

Flavell (1976; cited in Moseley et al., 2005) defined metacognition as individual knowledge about his/her own cognitive processes and products and their monitoring and regulation to achieve targeted goals. This suggests that there is a distinction between cognition and metacognition. The difference is that cognitive skills assist a person to perform a task, whereas metacognitive skills are used to reflect consciously on both the conscious and unconscious procedures followed (Flavell et al., 2002; Hudson, 2007). Metacognitive skills are therefore important in problem-solving-cognitive activities such as reading, writing, language acquisition, logical reasoning, attention, memory, various types of self-control and self-instruction.

In reading, for example, Flavell et al. (2002) claim that metacognition is involved in three fundamental stages. In planning, the reader identifies the purpose of a reading and decides on the employment of certain strategies to achieve its goals. Then in monitoring, the reader regulates and redirects his/her strategies during the course of reading to accomplish its objectives. Finally, in the evaluation of the reading process the reader assesses his/her cognitive ability in carrying out the task. This metacognition can be seen as a type of executive control over the application of particular reading strategies, involving what is known about cognition and how it is managed (Hudson, 2007). If properly used, metacognitive skills enlighten the reader about his/her own thinking skills, self-efficacy and weaknesses. Such awareness can lead to a greater change in reading behaviour and more reflection in adopting effective and successful reading strategies. Newton (2000) argues that teaching metacognitive skills can encourage learners to better plan, describe and evaluate
their own thinking and learning, managing working memory, so that conscious and unconscious processes are used together to produce desired outcomes.

Metacognitive skills can be a significant thinking tool if writing is treated as a problem-solving activity. The selection of the appropriate genre for a topic, the purpose and audience, and the choice between various organisation of the text in order to make a particular point most effectively all constitute problems which require thinking. Citing Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), Wells (1999) suggests that the creation of any text involves problems of content and rhetoric: the former refering to the individual’s beliefs about the world; the latter mental representations of the actual or intended text as it progresses at different levels of abstraction. Therefore the interaction between the world and the individual is bi-directional and recursive. Because of this interrelation, Wells considers writing as a powerful tool of knowledge creation where interaction between content and rhetoric is the essence of reflection.

The role of metacognition here lies in emphasising ideas to be subject to further thinking and critique as the author clarifies ideas to make his/her points more effectively. The problem solving nature of writing can be brought into play through planning, monitoring, editing, revision, evaluation and the recursive nature of all these processes. Moreover, the ideas would be subject to further critique by audiences/readers reflecting and adding new ideas, but more relevant to this study is the way authors think about their own ideas and subsequent reflection and changes made to make their points clearer to the reader.

Metacognitive knowledge can enhance reading and writing abilities because, being potentially verbalised, it can be accessed and modified through reflection, and discussed and considered out of its particular context (Hudson, 2007). Once an utterance or idea is
verbalised in the process of speaking/writing, it can become a knowledge object for others who can respond by extending, questioning, accepting or rejecting it in a process of knowledge building (Wells, 1999). It also becomes an object of knowledge for the speaker/writer who can contemplate his/her own current understanding in an externalised form and respond to it in the same way as others do.

The contemplation by an individual of his/her own thoughts, ideas and strategies used in task performance is the focus of investigation in this study. It is hypothesised that such reflection and contemplation allows learners to examine their own thinking processes while performing learning tasks and use this introspection to discover weaknesses and strengths and to adopt new strategies. Vygotsky (1978) describes this as dialogue between the inner and the outer of the same individual for better understanding.

Success in any profession requires an individual’s sincere critical appraisal of his/her performance and progress, the recognition of weaknesses and the exertion of effort for improvement. Everyone engages in such self-inquiry and retrospection, but when it is practised in a regular and systematic manner with the intention of improving performance, remarkable improvements can result. The advantages of this reflective practice regarded in this study as a metacognitive strategy, include that it (Peck and Westgate, 1994):

(a) enables an individual to be continuously and systematically involved in self-evaluation practice for better performance;

(b) engages the learner in a conscious self-awareness-raising practice, which may enable the individual to perceive aspects of weakness or strengths or discover talents and skills that he/she might have not been aware of;
(c) helps an individual to develop the ability to observe, review and assess his/her learning behaviour and attitudes and discover different ways of approaching and solving problems.

Teaching strategies that make aspects of thinking explicit to learners are likely to focus attention on “self-aware goal-directed thinking” (Moseley et al., 2005). Here the strategic management of attention and working memory is supported by “habits of mind” such as critical reflection. The goals of thinking and learning can then be directed to information gathering, building understanding, and thinking that generates productive outcomes.

Metacognitive skills are therefore employed in this study as tools for reflection and the critical evaluation of the learner’s performance. Deliberate and conscious utilisation of these skills is hypothesised to make learners more aware of weaknesses and strengths and therefore more able to develop new strategies to improve performance. Claiming that learners who conduct more cognitive monitoring of their work learn better than those who do not, Flavell (1979) recommends that learners’ metacognitive knowledge and monitoring skills should be improved through systematic training.

2.5.5 The Integration of Reading and Writing Encourages Interactive Learning

Both reading and writing are in essence interactive activities. The struggle for meaning construction encourages a dialogue between and within readers and writers as they attempt to comprehend or compose a text. The reader unpacks the writer’s intentions and makes decisions about whether or not to accept his/her arguments. Similarly, in interactions in
class, students collectively discuss the content of a reading. While writing, the author
pretends to negotiate meanings with imaginary audiences, where planning, revising and
editing can be equated to the reader’s strategies decoding the author’s intention in order to
adjust his position, clarify ideas and defend his views.

A class based on the integrative teaching of reading and writing encourages collaborative
learning among students as they collectively discuss a text or write a paper. Students engage
in reading, writing and group discussion, which help them to refine their thinking and learn
from each other. Sociocultural theory focuses on how learners accomplish tasks, and
interaction between learners can scaffold and assist in the L2 acquisition process (Ellis, 2000)
where collaboration among peers creates a collective Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)
which learners draw from (Shayer, 2002). Ellis (2000) thus advises teachers to design tasks
that promote communicative efficiency as well as L2 acquisition.

Vygotsky (1978; cited in Wertsch, 1985) argues that the secret of effective learning lies in
the nature of social interactions between people with different levels of skills and knowledge.
The role of the parent, teacher or peer with more knowledge is to find ways of helping the
learner to move into and through the next layer of knowledge or understanding. An
individual first acquires knowledge through contact and interaction with others, then later
assimilates and internalises the knowledge in a transition from social to personal properties.
Vygotsky claims that students do not merely copy teachers; rather, they transform what
teachers offer them during the processes of appropriation.

A class which provides avenues for group discussions has the advantage of shifting the focus
from practicing linguistic functions to the construction of mutual understanding between
students through dialogue. Students’ attention can therefore be moved from grammar lessons and work on skills to concentrate on an authoring process in which reading and writing involve thinking, the clarification of meaning, and communication (Short & Burke, 1996).

Kumaravadivelu (1993b, 2006) sees the task-based approach, as useful for teaching language-centred, learner-centred and learning-centred tasks, where the suitable sequencing of tasks ensures that the demand on language is compatible with levels of proficiency. The central focus of tasks here is that learners scaffold each other through interaction and collaboration; a point that is essential in Vygotsky’s concept of learning. Likewise, the connection between reading and writing is a method where the focus can be shifted simultaneously according to the learners’ needs, from learner-centred to learning-centred and language-centred activities, where reading and writing are combined with thinking and reasoning as students interact among themselves. L2 students should engage in diverse language activities, to do more reading, writing, thinking, talking and listening. Such a rich intellectual environment allows them to apply what they learn and exposes them to different skills simultaneously, which is effective in language learning as a compensation for any lack of opportunity to practice outside the classroom.

2.5.6 The Connection Between Reading and Writing Enhances Awareness of the Features of Language

Auerbach et al. (1997) claimed that students who read more show improved grammatical awareness and writing skills. ESL/EFL classes are often obsessed with grammatical accuracy, but although spelling, punctuation and grammatical errors reduce the quality of writing, a sole concentration on grammar does not make a student either a good reader or
writer. The research evidence is clear that, despite the L2 concentration on grammar, students complain about not only their lack of effective reading and writing skills but also poor grammatical knowledge (Zamel, 1985; Leki, 1993; Miller, 1996). However, since the integrative teaching of reading and writing can be used in the L1 context as a model to enhance students’ syntactical maturity, so the same should also be true in L2 (Auerbach et al., 1997), where correlations have been found between reading ability and writing skills. Better readers tend to produce more syntactically mature writing than poor readers and vice versa (Stotskey, 1983; Belangor, 1986; Turuk, 1999).

The importance of using reading as a model to improve writing skills was also echoed by Krashen (1984) and Smith (2004). Krashen reported that increasing reading at the expense of grammar instruction leads to improvements in punctuation, spelling and grammar. Smith (2004) explains that the conventions of spelling, punctuation, capitalisation, paragraphing, grammar and style can be learned through reading. Through diverse readings students are exposed to different types and modes of expression, providing rich examples of how grammatical items are used. Moreover, reading not only enriches students’ vocabulary and grammatical knowledge, but also increases awareness about different writing styles. A full understanding of any type of text depends on an appreciation of the devices employed by the writer in conveying meanings, which Byrne (1988) asserts is an important step towards effective writing. So, through reading and writing, students will increase their vocabulary, use and construct complex sentences and be better at spotting and correcting grammatical mistakes in their writing. Overall improvements in writing abilities and increased confidence and fluency in linguistics abilities will result. Students will thus develop competency to identify and judge grammatical errors even if they cannot explain why.
In conclusion, the relationship between reading and writing and the justification for their integration has been explained above in detail. The next section therefore discusses the socio-cultural principles on which the present study was based.

2.6 Socio-cultural Theory

The emergence of socio-constructivism, according to Hickey (1997), can be traced back to the early writings of Dewey who emphasised the crucial role of experiences in education processes. Jean Piaget then empirically showed that children’s minds are not empty, as previously presumed, but actively process the materials they are exposed to through mechanisms of accommodation and assimilation. However, the most significant contribution to the development and widespread expansion of socio-constructivism in its present form came from the Russian psychologist Vygotsky (1896-1934) whose ideas have greatly influenced the field of education.

The main tenet of socio-constructivism is the interdependence of social and individual processes in the co-construction of knowledge, where humans do not act directly on the physical world without the intermediary of artefacts which are of their own creation in specific cultures under particular historical conditions. Such artefacts assist them in solving problems that cannot be solved in the same way in their absence, and learning occurs in constantly changing social and cultural contexts. A central notion in socio-constructivism is that effective learning takes place through interaction with and support from people and physical artefacts. The positive effect of collaboration, reflection and negotiation on the development of higher order thinking and the creation of meaningful learning contexts leads constructivists to emphasise multiple constructions formulated by groups and individuals.
(Rogoff et al., 1995; Hickey, 1997; Au, 1998; Palincsar, 1998; Lantolf, 2000), although opinions differ on the relative importance of human communities versus individual learners in the construction of knowledge (Phillips, 1995). However, the present discussion focuses on the socio-cultural theory of Vygotsky which underpins the approach of this study.

Vygotsky argues that artefacts mediate the development of higher mental processes in very significant ways. Language and writing systems are among the most important tools developed over time by and available to people in various communities, carrying concepts reflecting the experience of particular cultural groups. Cognitive development and learning depend on the child’s mastery and internalisation of these tools, and links between historical, cultural and individual conditions are formed when a child learns how to use them (Au, 1998; Lantolf, 2000). Vygotsky acknowledges that the acquisition of these tools is not spontaneous and requires guided experience, whereas they may remain useless unless their meaning as cognitive tools is properly mediated to the child (Kozulin, 1998). Therefore, Kozulin (2002) argues that the type of literacy acquired in formal education settings does not necessarily lead to cognitive changes unless mediated as a cognitive tool. This requires learners to engage in meaningful activities that help them to configure the relations between themselves and the surrounding world and mobilise their intellectual abilities. So students may never acquire the ability to write persuasively without proper instruction, because this activity is culturally and socially shaped, for example by the conventions observed in the production of a genre. This illustrated in the three phases of the wheel model of genre literacy (Gee, 1997): modelling, where learners are exposed to examples of the target genre; the construction of a text by the learner and teacher; and finally the independent construction of texts by the learner.
In Vygotsky’s theory, learning centres on meaning construction and the creation of meaningful social interaction in learning contexts, including engagement in the processes of meaning making, text comprehension and various other modes of knowledge construction (Au, 1998). The importance of what the learner brings to any learning situation as an active meaning-maker and problem solver is emphasised, as is the dynamic nature of the interplay between teachers, learners and tasks which produces learning (Williams et al., 1997).

This holistic approach to learning opposes the discrete teaching of elements, and subjects should be presented in all their complexity rather than as skills and knowledge in isolation (Williams et al., 1997; Au, 1998). Thus, the teaching of literacy assumes that students need to engage in authentic literacy activities (Au, 1998). Teaching strategies inspired by social constructivism involve contexts personally meaningful to learners, negotiating taken-as-shared meanings with them, class discussion, small-group collaboration, and valuing meaningful activity over correct answers (Hickey, 1997; Palincsar, 1998).

Vygotsky’s outstanding contribution is the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) used to explain the social origins of higher mental functions. This represents the difference between what the learner can perform without assistance and what can only be achieved with the help of others (such as more capable peers or teachers). Helping a learner’s mental functions to mature, the ZPD is the dynamic region of sensitivity in which the transition from inter-psychological to intra-psychological functioning takes place (Wertsch, 1985). The learner transfers and internalises knowledge acquired through social interaction with peers and teachers to enhance his/her ZPD, which later reflects the level of his/her actual development. What learners cannot do alone today, they can do later if coached and assisted by others. This scaffolding comprises structuring tasks through instruction, small
group discussion, modelling, reflection and feedback until the learners can perform them on their own. Thus good instruction aims not so much at the developed functions but developing ones (Shayer, 2002), with teachers responsible for offering learning contexts in which instruction marches ahead of and leads development.

Finally, in socio-cultural theory consciousness distinguishes human behaviour from that of other living beings, linking the individual’s knowledge to his/her behaviour. Consciousness is regarded as metacognition, more than mere awareness of an individual’s cognitive abilities but involving self-regulatory mechanisms deployed in solving problems. Therefore, education should be concerned with learning to learn, developing skills and strategies to continue to learn, making learning experiences meaningful and relevant to the learner’s life, and with the development and growth of the learner as a whole person (Williams et al., 1997).

Sociocultural theory has informed this study in important ways, including the adoption of class discussion and small group collaboration as viable teaching strategies and using reflection and feedback as effective methods for learners’ self-appraisal. Meaningful activities accomplished through collaborative and group work are seen as crucial means of scaffolding students’ learning efforts, so that in reading and writing tasks they could better accomplish tasks through the assistance of others (Freedman, 1995; Johnson, 1998).

### 2.7 Critical Thinking Teaching in Sudanese Schools

Continuous policy changes, without consideration of their impact, due to the narrow political views of those in power have negatively affected the education system in Sudan. Although
critical thinking per se has never been an educational goal, however, it has been an integral part of various subjects taught in schools.

In the experience of the present author, developing the abilities of students to critique, analyse and express their views on the material taught was embedded in teaching at school before 1990. Offering students opportunities to discuss, share their views and question what they learned was part of classroom routine. In subjects such as history, geography, poetry, chemistry, physics or mathematics, creative and problem-solving skills were often encouraged. At intermediate and secondary levels, extra-curricular activities such as debates, poetry competitions and academic societies engaged students in various activities with the assistance of teachers. Students were often required to select their own topics and deliver readings before audiences comprised of teachers, parents and fellow students. They would be questioned by the audience about the motives behind their selection and other issues raised. Such activities encouraged students to enhance their reasoning, judgement and thinking abilities as well as self-confidence.

Another factor which boosted students’ thinking abilities, despite its unfairness, was that until 1990 there were few secondary schools and universities in the country. The level of competition for places in these institutions was therefore high. In the academic year 1988-89, for example, 115,194 students sat for the Sudan School Certificate. Among the 71,528 who passed, 16,030 applied for enrolment in higher education institutions but only 5,327 were admitted (Frajallah, 1992). At that time School Certificate examination questions tested students’ understanding and their ability to analyse, critique and apply what they learned in other similar contexts. The mere memorisation of facts was discouraged and would not enable students to secure good scores. Students were prepared from the intermediate level
onwards to digest, analyse and evaluate information not only from textbooks but wider reading too. The quality of education was a priority at all levels and Sudanese university graduates were competitive candidates in job markets regionally and globally.

However, although higher education expanded following the 1990 Education Revolution, its radical changes were hastily implemented. Besides changing the medium of instruction from English to Arabic, the number of universities rose from five in 1990 to twenty-six after 1995, resulting in a huge rise in intake (Frajallah, 1992). Public primary education was extended from 6 to 8 years and, in an attempt to improve quality, the primary and secondary levels were packed with so many subjects that it was hard for students to focus and concentrate. Worse, inadequate funding, poor infrastructure, and shortages of textbooks, laboratories and qualified teachers led to an unprecedented drop in educational standards. As vacancies needed to be filled in the newly established universities, school certificate examination standards were relaxed to allow many students to pass. Even students who failed subjects, who would never have dreamed of a university place before 1990, were enrolled. One result of these changes was that the abilities of students to critique, evaluate and intellectually engage material encountered came to be emphasised much less in schools, focusing instead on memorisation, rote learning and the regurgitation of facts. Faced with severe shortages of reference books, lecturers provided written notes for students to memorise for examinations. Poor reasoning among students and a lack of critical engagement with what they learnt have been major defects of Sudanese education ever since.

Students were now graduating from universities without sufficient skills for the job market. Public outcry followed for example, daily newspaper report of the massive failure of law and journalism graduates to pass professional qualification examinations in 2007 (Al-Rayaaam 27th
October, 2007). Some accused the government of not funding education reform; others blamed universities for outdated curricula and a third group called for wholesale reform of the education system from primary school to university.

But such results were not surprising to those familiar with the situation after 1990, where students who were used to rote learning would find it hard to deal with material requiring critical thinking and the creative application of theory to the real world, as required in vocational examinations. If students could fail in such huge numbers in their fields of specialisation, how could they be expected to lead development in these areas?

Some universities responded to demands for change by revising syllabuses and considering the inclusion of critical thinking skills as a subject. For example, the Ahfad University for Women introduced critical thinking skills as a general course in its curriculum in 2008. Moreover, the objectives of the new Southern Sudan curriculum for secondary schools include creativity and critical thinking abilities as well as developing students’ life-long interest in learning. These steps, coupled with the demands of the job market and the general public’s clamour for improvements in education standards, may encourage learning institutions to think seriously about embracing critical thinking skills in their curricula. However, this requires more research and professional training of teachers on how to teach critical thinking skills; a move which seems to be underway at the moment.

2.8 Conceptual Framework of the Study

This study has adopted as its conceptual framework, with minor modifications, the Integrated Model for Understanding Thinking and Learning proposed by Moseley et al. (2005). This
model partly aims to strengthen cognitive and metacognitive skills in learning processes, identifying three strategies activated through combined reading and writing activities. It is hypothesised that engaging students in purposeful reading-writing activities which focus on close reading strategies and the mastery of persuasive writing structures will improve their creative and critical thinking abilities. This, in turn, would enable them to judge, reason and generally become conscious of their strengths and weakness, which may improve the quality of their argumentative writing. The three strategies are:

1. Information gathering: the ability to access knowledge from memory, reading or observation, comprising mainly lower-order thinking as a way of gaining knowledge that could later be restructured, reconstructed and reinterpreted through higher-order thinking. Tools include experiencing, recognising and recalling, and comprehending messages and recorded information.

2. Building understanding: knowledge reconstruction through understanding, elaboration and the use of background knowledge, including the development of meaning (elaborating, representing or sharing ideas), working with patterns and rules, concept formation, and organising ideas.

3. Productive thinking: higher-order thinking consisting of reasoning, understanding causal relationships, systematic enquiry, problem-solving, decision making and critical and creative thinking. These learning processes lead to a deeper understanding of the nature, justification, implications, and value of what is learnt.

Moseley and his associates argue that productive thinking can be just like any other form of thinking, but as a higher form of thinking it is supported by dispositions, and strengthened and revitalised by feelings and determination. Such invigoration would lead to critical, creative and caring thinking (Lipman, 2003) and so the model successfully combines the
elements and characteristics of critical thinking summarised by Hager et al. (2003), cited at the beginning of this chapter, in terms of abilities and dispositions.

The dispositions needed for productive thinking are metacognitive skills. Good thinking that facilitates good learning resides in an individual’s ability to reflect on his/her conscious and unconscious thinking and strategies during task performance, which Moseley et al. (2005) term ‘strategic and reflective thinking’ placed at the top of their diagram connected with two-way arrows with each of the cognitive skills explained above because these skills can sometimes be exercised effectively in unplanned and unreflective ways.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategic And Reflective Thinking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engagement with and management of thinking/learning, supported by value-grounded thinking (including critically reflective thinking)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Information-gathering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience, recognising and recalling. Comprehending messages and recorded information.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (3) Moseley et al. (2005) Integrated Model for Understanding Thinking and Learning

The use of two-way arrows in figure 4 below also does not signify linear progress, but the interrelation and interdependence between all the thinking processes at certain stages. Figure 4 places reading-writing activities at the top, followed by cognitive skills, metacognitive skills and good argumentative writing, where the assumption is that reading-writing activities activate cognitive skills, which in turn set into motion metacognitive skills so that the improvement of both skill sets could lead to better argumentative writing. Cognitive skills are
assumed to be the main means of accessing information that is later subjected to reflective processes, although, to Moseley et al. (2005), all kinds of thinking lead in various ways to an individual’s self-awareness and self-regulation. Thinking begins and often ends with knowledge construction, whether in the form of facts, concepts, rules or skills.

The metacognitive strategic and reflective thinking skills are considered to be difficult to master, nurtured through sustained deliberation not only by focusing on the issue at hand but also by looking critically at how a task is conceived and whether or not there should be a change of strategy in the light of new and previous experience. This sustained reflection turns what may have been regarded as normal routine practice into effective learning, so that metacognitive skills are crucial in learning contexts, especially in higher education. Boosting them could therefore lead to the development of a life-long interest in learning.
In relating the conceptual framework to the present study’s aims, the three metacognitive sub-skills suggested by Quellmalz (1988, cited in Moseley et al., 2005) were adopted: the abilities to plan, monitor and review/revise. Students were encouraged to apply these strategies during homework and reflective writing. These three metacognitive sub-skills are considered crucial for the aim of the study and can, according to Quellmalz, improve students’ abilities to plan, monitor and regularly reflect, review and assess their own performance in argumentative writing. It is generally hypothesised in this study that improvements in cognitive and metacognitive abilities through reading and writing activities will lead to better argumentative writing skills. Figure 4 succinctly depicts the conceptual framework explained above.

In conclusion, this chapter started with an exploration of different definitions of critical thinking and whether or not it can be taught. It also examined what constitutes good writing and models of reading that can lead to good writing. The integrative teaching of reading and writing was proposed as a method of improving students’ argumentative writing and critical thinking abilities. The use of this method was justified by arguing that both domains share common cognitive strategies in their operations. The principles of socio-cultural theory which form the main theoretical foundation for the study were explained before concluding with brief discussions of the teaching of critical thinking in Sudan, and the study’s conceptual framework.
Chapter Three

The Methodology

Introduction

Chapter Two discussed various definitions of critical thinking, the connection between reading and writing, the teaching of critical thinking in Sudan, the sociocultural principles on which the study was based and its general theoretical framework. This chapter explains the mixed methodology of field experiments and focus groups used, the pilot study and main intervention, and the evaluation instruments and analysis utilised, concluding with discussion of the ethical issues arising.

3.1 Aims and Research Questions

The study aimed to discover if ESL students’ reasoning and critical thinking as reflected in argumentative writing could be improved through the integrative teaching of reading and writing. Specifically, the study investigated the following questions and hypotheses:

Research Question

Can critical thinking and argumentative writing be taught in the ESL context?

Question 1

What are the students’ attitudes and perceptions about critical thinking skills in general and writing skills in particular before and after the intervention?
Hypothesis

Improvements in students’ knowledge about critical thinking and writing skills lead to better perceptions of and attitudes towards these skills, as well as positive assessments of the intervention.

Question 2

Does the guided teaching of critical reading improve students’ reasoning and argumentative/persuasive writing?

Hypothesis

Teaching close reading strategies combined with the teaching of writing enables students to transfer and utilise these strategies in their writing to produce more persuasive and organised argumentative texts.

Question 3

What is the role of interaction in improving students’ thinking and writing abilities?

Hypothesis

Small group discussions and student interactions while engaging in tasks improve their thinking and writing abilities.

Question 4

What is the role of reflection in developing students’ metacognition?

Hypothesis

Regular reflection enhances students’ self-regulatory ability and their ability to assess, monitor and improve their own performance and learning processes.
In investigating the above research questions and hypothesis, it would be practically difficult to isolate each variable and explore its influence on students independently of others. In educational contexts such as in this study, a supportive classroom environment, student interaction and collaboration, the adoption of guided critical reading and reflective writing, could each play a significant role in the intervention’s success. The intention, therefore, is not to examine the impact of each variable independently but to see how the combination of all these factors contributes to improvements in students’ thinking and writing skills.

3.2 Research Design

The study adopted Socio-cultural principles as the underpinning theory. It also adopted a mixed methodology to collect suitable research data, including field-experiments for quantitative data collection, and focus groups for qualitative data gathering. The main teaching intervention lasted for 12 weeks.

3.2.1 Sociocultural Theory

The principles on which the study was based were extrapolated from sociocultural theory, which regards individual knowledge as arising from interaction with other people. Classroom discussions and collaborative small group work were adopted as viable teaching strategies to create meaningful social learning contexts where students could scaffold each other. The study abandoned traditional teacher-centred approaches so that the role of the teacher was restricted to giving guidance and facilitating class discussions. Such arrangements are not familiar in Sudanese high schools. This approach aimed to encourage students to be active participants in knowledge construction. The overall target was to assist students to internalise whatever knowledge they acquired and to create their own voices by focusing more on
meaning negotiation and creation and genuine engagement with the material they read or write.

The study also adopted reflection as an effective method for learners’ self-appraisal, encouraging students to consciously retrospect on their own thoughts and performance and to discover their own weaknesses and strengths. Strengthening their self-regulatory ability and hence self-confidence may encourage them to take personal responsibility for their own learning.

The study applied the integrative teaching of reading and writing to provide a classroom environment centred on activities encouraging students to develop self-motivated attitudes in their learning. The integration was intended to help them experience how both readers and writers approach their tasks, providing insights about reading and writing that could not be explicitly taught. Such integration reduces the concentration on grammar out of context which is often the focus of English classes in ESL contexts, where students find it hard to apply their knowledge in real communication.

Moreover, English literature is not taught in Sudanese high schools. The integration encouraged students to read and therefore enrich their vocabulary, which is essential for their development as writers. More importantly, the integration can push students towards abstract thinking that goes beyond the lines of a text and the repetition of facts. This is something students are not often required to do in Sudanese high schools.
3.2.2 Mixed Methodology

Mixed methodologies combine quantitative and qualitative research techniques to collect, analyse data and integrate findings in a single study. The main guiding principle is that researchers should use all the means at their disposal to create pragmatic designs that effectively answer their research questions. The research questions determine the choice of method and the values of the researcher play a large part in the interpretation of results, where statistical and thematic techniques are combined in a single operation (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005; Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007).

In this study the mixed methods used addressed a range of confirmatory and exploratory questions simultaneously so that the research could answer a broader range of questions, facilitating insights and understanding that might be missed if only one method was used. This could assist in producing more complete knowledge necessary to inform both theory and practice (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Therefore, since in this study the investigation of students’ attitudes and perceptions about critical thinking skills is exploratory in nature, while how far their argumentative thinking skills in writing could be improved through the integrative teaching of reading and writing is confirmatory. The investigation of these aspects cannot yield reliable and in-depth understanding if only one method was used. Therefore to achieve the study’s aims, it was deemed important to use both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

To answer the research questions under investigation, a range of data types was collected, including pre-, post- and delayed written composition tests, teacher observation notes, audiovisual data, students’ written reflections, and focus group interviews. Some of this data
required qualitative analysis, others quantitative. Through the convergence and corroboration of findings from mixed methods, strong evidence for a conclusion can be provided (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005).

Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2004) and Onwuegbuzie & Leech, (2005) emphasise that researchers should use flexible methods to investigate and follow the research questions in a way that offers the best chance to obtain useful answers. The methods adopted here helped to fit together the insights provided, and thus could address the range of research concerns in the study.

The use of mixed methods has various weaknesses. It can be difficult for a single researcher to carry out both quantitative and qualitative research, especially if two or more approaches are expected to be used concurrently. A research team may be required for large and complicated studies where each method needs to be carried out independently and findings analysed separately, but it may not be so challenging in small-scale research in this study.

Secondly, mixed methods can be more expensive and time consuming, and in this study sifting through the data was tedious, laborious, time consuming and challenging, requiring determination and hard work.

The integration of findings from mixed methods may be problematic and findings are often reported separately (Bryman, 2007). The essence of using mixed methods should be the integration of insights provided by strictly following the research questions; a strategy followed in this study. Mixed methods are most useful in investigating phenomena that
cannot be fully explored using only one method, allowing researchers to mix and match designed components that offer the best chance of answering their specific research questions (Onwuegbuzie and Leech 2005).

3. 2. 3 Field Experimental Method

The field experimental method is often referred to as the randomised experiment commonly used in social sciences.

**Rationale**

Three characteristics fulfilling the conditions of a true experiment (Bryman, 2008) made this method appropriate for this study.

Firstly, variables are manipulated and their effects on other variables observed and measured. Normally in field experiment design, two groups are established and assigned randomly into experimental (treatment) and control groups, enabling the researcher to observe the cause and effect relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Bryman, 2008). Here the effect of the designed teaching strategies (independent variable) on the development of students’ logical and reasoning skills in writing (dependent variable) could be measured.

In field experiment design, a comparison can receive no treatment (control), or an alternative treatment, or both. In this study, the two randomly established groups were termed ‘experimental’ and ‘comparison’ groups. The experimental group received the teaching intervention, while the comparison group was denied that treatment. The dependent variable of students’ performance in argumentative writing was then measured before and after the experimental manipulation.
In field experimental design, participants must be randomly selected. This randomisation is important for the following reasons:

(a) It provides a solid ground against which it can be claimed that every participant had an equal chance of being assigned to any of the levels of the independent variable.

(b) Randomly formed groups can be assumed to be equivalent within the laws of probability.

(c) The randomisation of participants into treatment and non-treatment groups before the application of any treatment reduces the chances of inequality between experimental groups, so that differences observed in the post-test can be attributed to the treatment alone. This eliminates the possible effects of rival explanations of causal findings and strengthens the internal validity of the design (Bryman, 2008).

Randomisation gives field experiments an advantage over the quasi-experiments commonly used in social studies, particularly in education contexts. In quasi-experiments there is no random assignment of participants into treatment and control groups. Though some types of quasi-studies divide their participants into experimental and control groups and subject them to pre- and post-tests, often no randomisation is done. When pre-existing groups are left intact, the absence of random assignment casts doubt on the study’s internal validity, since groups may not have been equivalent from the start (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Bryman, 2008). Because of the above-mentioned characteristics and since the present study divided students into treatment and non-treatment groups, the experimental method chosen was deemed suitable for the achievement of the study’s aims.
Validity of the Field Experimental Method

Bryman (2008) cautioned against five common threats to the external validity of field experiments. Four of these were potential issues in this study.

The interaction of selection and treatment can affect the wider generalisability of findings. However, although the present participants were from different ethnic, gender and cultural backgrounds and represented various regions in the Sudan, they were all drawn from the Faculty of Medicine (Medicine and Nursing schools). Students in Medical Schools in Sudanese Universities normally received high scores in the Sudan School Examination while those in Nursing Schools are of above average scores, so the participants cannot represent students of all different standards. Furthermore, most participants were middle-class and attended private schools, and their performance is often considered to be better than those from state schools, particularly in English language. Even though the pilot study results with high school students suggest findings similar to those in the main study, this can never reduce the potential impact of this threat. A solution could be that future replications of this study could redesign the strategies used to match them to their participants’ standards and needs. In addition, the participants in this study already interact on a daily basis and, as a result, the experimental group might share what they learned with the comparison group. However, recordings of students’ collaborative work, videotaping sessions, classroom observation and the focus group sessions were used partly as measures to safeguard against this possibility, since the intention was to observe individual progress in the study rather than to compare the effectiveness of different methods.

The interaction of setting and treatment relates to how confidently the findings can be applied to other similar settings; for example, in this study, to levels of education other than
university students. Field experiments are not like those in the laboratory and exact replication may be difficult because of the influence of many uncontrollable factors including the weather, the timing of the study and other exogenous variables (Bryman, 2008). To reduce the impact of this type of threat, the study was designed in the form of teaching strategies contained in 12 lessons which, with slight adjustments, can be applied to different levels of education and other institutions interested in improving participants’ writing skills. The findings are therefore flexible and could be applied in other settings once the needs of their target groups and the goals to be achieved have been considered and specified. It should be borne in mind that the small sample size of this study, necessitates caution when interpreting the findings.

The possible interaction of history and treatment may prevent the findings being generalisable to past or future events. The critical thinking skills movement is a subject of increased interest in education nowadays. Therefore, the study was carried out with the intention of contributing to this wider debate, particularly in the ESL context. The findings can be seen mainly as a contribution to this ongoing discussion as well as to the relentless effort being exerted to improve ESL students’ logical and reasoning skills in writing. A further question concerns the study’s timing in the school academic year. The participants were newly-enrolled first-year university students who had not yet started their university courses. Therefore, if it were conducted at some point later in their studies, they may find the tasks easier as they may have encountered the issues discussed in their various courses. They may have found the language standard of the materials and their analysis and critique relatively easy to cope with, and their understanding, class discussion and critical engagement might have improved. So it could be speculated that similar findings or even better results could have been obtained.
Alternatively, due to the intensity of students’ efforts to pass their courses, the participants may have paid less attention to the study content and therefore performed poorly. However, the study content was in line with the skills demanded in university courses, and could have been complementary to their studies, again potentially improving their academic performance.

The reactive effects of experimental arrangements relate to people’s awareness of their participation, which can affect their responses and therefore the generalisability of findings (Bryman, 2008). In this study it was not seen as a great threat. Both comparison and experimental groups knew that they were participating in a study and they were tested on an issue of public interest which many people in Sudan are familiar with. In addition, students are always aware of being tested and competition is part of the education process. Instead, this awareness is essential and required to motivate and stimulate students to improve their performance. As with the other possible threat to external validity, this factor was not deemed serious in the generalisation of the study findings.

**3.2.4 Focus Group Interviews**

Focus group interviews gained increased popularity as a social research technique in the 1970s, seeking to generate data on collective assessments, where the group creates meanings by building on each other’s experiences and remarks. As a substitute for individual interviews, the method is often conducted by a moderator/facilitator whose role is to facilitate free and open discussion.
There is no consensus on the ideal number of participants per group. However, researchers recommend a range of five to twelve members (Morgan, 1997; Berg, 2004; Neuman, 2007). Common across the literature is the notion that the number of participants should be determined by the research questions, their complexity, the study population, time and available resources. Moreover, statistical representation is not often used as a basis for selection; instead the aims and the objectives of the study are paramount. Therefore, focus groups are frequently conducted with purposively selected samples in which participants are recruited from a limited number of sources, which favours homogeneity in the backgrounds of participants (though not in their attitudes), because otherwise free interaction within a focus group can be undermined (Morgan, 1997; Berg, 2004). Such homogeneity allows for free conversations among participants and facilitates analyses that examine differences in perspective between groups. However, the selection of acquaintances in a group can inhibit free discussion, particularly if participants agree to conceal some truth about the topic or if individuals do not want to reveal secrets about themselves (Agar & MacDonald, 1995, in Morgan, 1997; Bloor et al., 2001). Most researchers propose 60 to 90 minutes per focus group session (Bloor et al., 2001; Fern, 2001; Berg, 2004; Neuman, 2007; Stewart et al., 2007).

In individual interviews, interviewees may say things that are inconsistent with previous replies or that can not be accepted without challenge. However, individuals often argue and challenge each other’s views in focus groups, allowing the researcher to collect more realistic accounts because participants are forced to think about and possibly revise their views (Bryman, 2008).
The Rationale for Using Focus Group Interviews

Very little previous research has been reported on the teaching of thinking skills in writing classes in the L2 context, particularly in the Sudan. Focus group interviews were seen as a suitable tool to explore students’ attitudes to and understanding of critical thinking in writing, and their exposure to thinking skills in secondary schools prior to intervention. Insights gained from pre-focus group interviews and pilot and pre-test results helped in identifying their areas of weakness in writing. The intervention was then adjusted accordingly to match the material taught to their level of English proficiency. Focus groups were restricted to the experimental group as they were in a position to compare and contrast the intervention teaching strategies with traditional methods, the researcher could trace how students’ ideas and perceptions changed as a result of the intervention.

Because assessing students’ writing could provide little information concerning how they felt about the intervention and the difficulties encountered, focus group interviews were administered to assess their reactions, allowing free and comprehensive discussions that covered different aspects of the intervention. In order for the researcher to monitor changes in attitudes, the same participants took part in the pre- and post focus group interviews.

Validity of the Focus Group Interviews

Focus groups data to be obtained much more quickly and often at less cost than would be possible with individual interviews, and encourage frank and open responses that can provide large amounts of rich data in the respondents’ own words. The researcher can therefore obtain deeper levels of meaning, make important connections and identify subtle refinements in the expression of meaning (Steward et al., 2007). More importantly, the researcher interacts directly with respondents, providing opportunities for clarification, follow-up
questions, and the probing of responses. It is also possible to observe nonverbal responses which may carry information that contradicts or supplements verbalisation (Steward et al., 2007).

The method also has shortcomings. The open-ended nature of responses can make the interpretation of results difficult (Steward et al., 2007). However, one of the intentions of conducting focus group interviews in this study was to explore students’ attitudes to and understanding of critical thinking in writing. The summarisation of responses was not a challenge, and the open-ended responses provided a chance to vary questions and therefore investigate relevant issues more deeply.

Focus groups can lead to conformity, with participants adjusting behaviour in response to others, and bandwagon effects can arise. Contributions may be withheld due to lack of trust or the exaggeration of attitudes and ideas. Members may be required to sign disclosure agreements to ensure that information discussed is not to be shared outside the group. This was not seen as a threat in this study since the topics discussed were public issues and of common concern, and the participants had no secrets to withhold from each other or fear to disclose. The only common experiences they shared was of English teaching in high schools.

To avoid the facilitator losing control of the direction of discussions and irrelevant issues being raised (Morgan, 1993, 1997; Krueger et al., 2009), the focus group questions in this study were prepared in advance, and issues pursued were restricted to further exploration of unclear responses.
Only a few topics can be discussed in a focus group session and participants may produce fewer ideas than in individual interviews. In addition, only group outcomes and not individual opinions are obtained (Berg, 2004, 2007). The intention in this study was to explore if students’ experiences of English teaching at school were shared, so that this limitation of focus groups corresponds with the study aims. So in conclusion, none of the weaknesses of this method represented a direct threat to this study, and information obtained from the focus group interviews deepened and enriched the interpretation of the quantitative data.

3.2.5 The Intervention

As part of the research design, an intervention teaching stage was to be conducted. This was preceded by a pilot study lasting four weeks followed by the main study which comprised two phases. The pre-intervention phase introduced the participants to the study’s aims and objectives, performed initial selection and randomisation processes, the signing of consent forms, and the pre-test and pre focus group interviews. This phase lasted for a week, followed by the intervention phase which lasted for twelve weeks of which eleven were allotted to the teaching intervention with the final week for post-test and post focus group interviews. One month after the completion of the intervention, a delayed test was conducted to examine whether students maintained skill levels gained during the intervention. The present author conducted all post focus group interviews and the teaching intervention.

3.2.6 The Pilot Study

The initial group targeted was first year students of Upper Nile University. These newly enrolled students were not yet influenced by the rigorous university work which would oblige
them to apply critical thinking skills in written assignments. Such skills are not usually emphasised in Sudanese high schools. Their intellectual level and English standard was also judged to be appropriate to cope with demands of the study, which was planned to take place concurrently with the Intensive English Course normally taken before the commencement of university studies. This course could boost their vocabulary and help them to deal more effectively with the present study, which would be conducted without interfering with their university studies. However for some unfortunately the Intensive English Course was rescheduled to take place three months later in February 2009. Due to time constraints, the plan was changed to use high school students instead for the pilot study and to continue with them thereafter.

The pilot study with first year students of Ayod High School lasted for four weeks. The school was the second in its town to use English as the medium of instruction, which made this group suitable as a testing ground. Moreover, even though they had studied in English, their assessed level of English proficiency in reading and writing was similar to that of first year university students with Arabic education backgrounds. Poor reading and writing skills, an inability to identify inconsistencies in information in their written texts, and a dislike of reading and writing were found to be common problems faced by the participants in both the pilot and main studies.

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4 The school was established in 2004 to accommodate students who had started to return to southern Sudan from neighbouring countries before the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005. The school was temporarily based in Malakal town in Upper Nile State, due to insecurity in Ayod County in Jonglei State, its original location. The majority of the students had no formal primary school education. Most received basic primary education in refugee camps in Kenya, Ethiopia or Uganda. Those whose primary education was in Sudan studied in adult education schools, many of which were run by churches and used English as the medium of instruction. The majority of the students were therefore illiterate in Arabic. As a result, they did not sit Arabic language in the Basic School Certificate which qualified them for enrolment in high schools.
The first week of the pilot study was allotted for selection processes, pre-testing, and focus group sessions. Forty out of 105 students were randomly selected. They were pre-tested and then randomly assigned into experimental and comparison groups. The experimental group was further divided into four small groups each comprising five students for focus group interviews. During the final three weeks, the intervention teaching strategies were applied and tested. The teaching period was limited to three weeks because students were approaching their final examinations. When schooling resumed after holidays, only a few students came to the sessions in the subsequent three weeks and even those who turned up did not attend lessons regularly. Therefore the study was called-off until the first year university students were available. Table 3 shows the topics covered during the pilot study, which made useful contributions in two respects. The practical challenges students faced in writing and how difficult it was to teach persuasive writing to ESL students who had never had proper L2 writing skills training were revealed. The writing composition classes they had were in grade eight as part of their preparation for the Basic School Certificate in the final year of their primary schooling. Therefore, their experiences of writing were connected with examinations and most of the classes were guided compositions. Among issues noticed during the pilot study were: idea generation problems, lack of basic skills in writing paragraphs, inability to judge discrepancies of ideas in their written texts, the credibility of information cited, lack of proper reading strategies, inability to judge and express their own voices in writing, and a lack of interest in both reading and writing. Most of these problems were also found to prevail among the first year university students who later participated in the main study. Despite the obvious differences between participants in the pilot and main study.

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5 When asked why they were not taught writing, all the teachers contacted cited large class sizes as the major reason.
study, the problems they faced, as discovered later, were almost the same. Writing skills were lacking in the two groups.

As a result of the insights gained from the pilot study, substantial adjustments were made to the teaching strategies applied in the main study. More topics were covered in the basic writing skills section, such as how to write clear and concise main and controlling ideas for a paragraph, writing and distinguishing between different types of sentences, pre-writing activities, various modes of paragraph development and the multi-draft process. The number of writing assignments and class-work tasks were also increased to offer learners ample opportunities for practice, and reading passages were adjusted to suit the students’ level of proficiency.

The pilot study furthered and deepened the practical research experience of the present author and, consequently, the understanding of the evaluation instruments through the analysis of pre-test results. The complexity of the time-consuming scoring system was better understood to require diligence, patience and careful understanding of the process.
Table 3: The Lessons and Activities Covered During the Pilot Study Period

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Classroom Activities</th>
<th>Homework</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Week 1</td>
<td>Pre-intervention</td>
<td>Briefing meeting, initial random selection process, pre-test, random distribution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>of students into experimental and controlled groups, focus groups sessions (only</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>experimental group)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 2</td>
<td>Lesson One</td>
<td>Identification of author’s viewpoint in a written text, the reason(s) offered to</td>
<td>More Passages to practice at home</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>support the viewpoint, reason indicators and formulation of questions in attempt to</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>identify these elements.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 3</td>
<td>Lesson Two</td>
<td>Identifying and categorising various types of evidence provided by an author in</td>
<td>Writing Assignment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>support of claims and the ability to distinguish facts from opinions given as</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>evidence in support of claims.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Week 4</td>
<td>Lesson Three</td>
<td>Identification of intermediate and final conclusion in a written essay, word-</td>
<td>Writing Assignment</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>indicators of conclusion, distinction between words indicating reasons and those</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>signifying conclusions, assess the logical order of reasoning and draw logical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>inferences in the text.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

3.2.7 The Procedure and Structure of the Intervention Teaching Phase

Lessons

A. Lesson Procedure

The teaching stage consisted of twelve lessons described in Table 4. Each was taught once a week and lasted for four hours from 9:00am to 1:00pm every Thursday with a recess of half an hour. However, after the ninth week, when students had finished their Intensive English university course, they requested that the teaching periods be increased. As a result, lessons eleven and twelve were taught weekly. The intervention covered specific critical thinking skills in argumentative texts.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages</th>
<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Capacity Building  | Lesson 1| Week 1| Identifying author’s viewpoint in a written text and the reason(s) offered to support the viewpoint. | - Critical reading
- Ability to identify viewpoint and reasons, in a text |
|                    | Lesson 2| Week 2| Identifying and categorising various types of evidence provided by an author in support of claims. | Ability to:
- identify and use evidence in argument.
- distinguish facts from opinions |
|                    | Lesson 3| Week 3| Identification of intermediate and final conclusion in a written essay | Ability to:
- identify conclusion in a text
- distinguish reason and conclusion word indicators |
|                    | Lesson 4| Week 4| Evaluation skills                                                    | skills to:
- assess logical order of reasoning
- draw logical inferences
- identify author’s hidden assumptions |
|                    | Lesson 5| Week 5| Identification of fallacies in texts                                | - Judgment and identification of fallacies and logical flaws in a text |
|                    | Lesson 6| Week 6| Identifying critical appeals in texts                               | - Ability to identify and apply critical appeals in writing |
|                    | Lesson 7| Week 7| Organisation of persuasive/argumentative writing                    | - Knowledge and ability to identify elements of argument reconstruction |
| Basic Writing Skills| Lesson 8| Week 8| Paragraph writing and development                                  | - paragraph writing skills
- ability to maintain unity and logical flow of a paragraph |
|                    | Lesson 9| Week 9| Reorganisation of a jumbled text                                    | - Analysis and concentration skills
- Reflective thinking skills
- Anticipation and organisational skills |
| Productive Thinking Skills| Lesson 10| Week 10| Using the six thinking hats to improve decision-making processes    | - Problem solving skills
- creative thinking
- Decision making processes |
|                    | Lesson 11| Week 11| Group discussion                                                     | - Discussion skills
- Ability to express individual’s voice
- respect of different opinions |
|                    | Lesson 12| Week 11| Debate                                                                 | - debating skills
- ability to present and defend viewpoint |

The common features among the twelve lessons were procedural in terms of the stages of lesson development, as depicted in Figure 5 and explained in detail below:
**Discovery Stage.** Each lesson started with a discovery stage, representing both brainstorming and the main body of the teaching in which the theme of the lesson was introduced providing questions that would guide students gradually through the concepts which needed to be learned. This stage aimed to elicit students’ current understanding, encourage them to express their own views and consolidate and extend their current understanding by building on pre-existing knowledge. The teacher’s role was to facilitate by giving prompts, analogies and asking questions that would take them through various steps until the important issues in the lesson were covered. Through this guided discussion they were able to share and expand their understanding of the topic, and were encouraged to take the responsibility for their own learning processes since they were the main actors in the class and not just listeners or receivers of the teacher’s instructions. This represented the mediation and scaffolding stage in sociocultural theory where learners are assisted before being left to work on their own.
**Collaborative Small Group Discussions.** After the discovery stage, learners were asked to group themselves randomly into small groups to collaboratively accomplish the task accompanying the lesson, involving practical applications of the concepts discussed before consolidating their understanding. All of the tasks were reading passages, with students asked to work collaboratively in groups and write down answers that would be presented later. This was intended to provide learners with dialogic opportunities to verbalise and share their views with others in the group. This represented the knowledge-construction processes (Wells, 1999) occurring when learners express their views and ideas which become the target knowledge of other individuals in the group as well as for themselves. Here learners continue to acquire new ideas as well as correcting existing faulty ideas, raising their awareness of their own thinking and that of others in the group and becoming conscious of their own strengths, weaknesses and thinking processes. The group discussions also allowed learners to work at a higher level than when working alone, providing a non-threatening environment encouraging students to thinking critically (Ebersole, 1993). During the collaborative group discussions, a voice recorder was placed nearby to record the proceedings. In each week, a different group was recorded.

**Inter-group Discussion.** After the group discussions the groups shared and cross-checked their answers, which provided opportunities for the groups to discuss issues and differences and therefore further scaffold each other. As a result, each small group could amend their answers if they felt persuaded by what they learned. This represented another stage of collaborative scaffolding where students learn more from peers and further correct what they might have not understood as well, therefore expanding their collective ZPDs (Shayer, 2002).
**Group Presentations.** Then each group chose a representative to present their answers. This was followed by class discussion in which other groups questioned the merits of answers given, particularly if different from theirs, and sought explanation from the group concerned. At this stage the teacher provided feedback and further explanation of what it was felt students had not understood well or if they had strayed from the main discussion point. Moreover, they were given a chance to ask questions about unresolved issues before the lesson concluded.

**Reflection (Learning Log).** The last stage was reflection through keeping a learning log. In each lesson, students were encouraged to engage in reflective thinking where they were to distance themselves from the activities in the session and contemplate on their thinking, assessing the ways they had approached the tasks and commenting how easy or hard they were, how they might improve them, whether this was a productive way to think about such issues, and planning how they would perform the same kind of thinking in the future. Students were supported with questions to help their reflections, which aimed to help them examine their thinking strategies and their efficiency and to develop self-corrective measures to improve performance. Assisting them to identify and address their strengths and weaknesses could promote their ability to become both self-learning and lifelong-learning individuals. According to expressivists, this kind of writing can lead to self-discovery, self-development and self-empowerment (Johns, 1990), and since a clear mind and deep thinking were required, students were allowed to write down their reflections at home. To ensure that this happened regularly, students were asked to show their written reflection to the teacher and for feedback to be given if necessary. To accelerate their understanding of how to deal with reflection, the questions involved were discussed in the class during the first and second lessons. Reflective writing in this study represented the metacognitive stage in sociocultural
theory whereby learners think about their own thinking and learning processes. This stage formed an essential part of all lessons and was sometimes followed by extra homework of written tasks.

The progress of lessons as described above was not as linear as it may appear. The stages were interwoven and interrelated, each being based on and expanding on preceding stages. After every lesson, the researcher wrote down observations made about the lesson and the students’ performance, in order to monitor changes in their attitudes and progress in class.

B. Lesson Structure

As indicated above and shown in Table 4, each of the twelve lessons in the teaching stage was taught once a week, following the cycle of development explained in Figure 5. The lessons were categorised into three main stages as shown in Table 4 and illustrated below.

Stage 1: Capacity Building in Thinking Skills

This consisted of the first seven lessons introducing students to elements of good argumentative/persuasive writing and close reading strategies (Paul and Elder, 2006, 2007). The mastering of close reading strategies aimed to lead to substantive writing, defined as “the ability to identify important ideas and express significant implications of those ideas in clear and precise writing” (Paul & Elder, 2006, p.2), leading to disciplined thought, thinking from multiple perspectives and reasoning well. The close reading strategies consisted of clarifying a text’s purpose, formulating clear questions, judging the relevance of information, drawing logical inferences, identifying deep concepts and logical implication, and exploring various
options. These strategies can enlighten students about the similar nature of reading and writing and how cognitive strategies applied in one domain can be employed in the other.

The rationale for this strategy was that students needed to be explicitly taught what kind of writing they were expected to accomplish before being required to produce it. In sociocultural principles of scaffolding and mediation, the instructor models the desired work before students embark on it on their own. Knowledge of the structure of arguments then improves students’ judgements concerning the context and organisation needed to generate strong, logically connected arguments (Yeh, 1998). The present students’ different linguistic background, made it necessary to acquaint them with models of persuasive/argumentative writing in English, giving them insight which could not be taught explicitly. Combining explicit approaches with the immersion of students in reading, debating and writing thesis-supporting styles of argument, helps the acquisition of argumentative skills (Yeh, 1998), and learning different forms of various genres is a good way to acquire writing competency (Scardamalia and Bereiter, cited in Crowhurst, 1988). It was therefore hypothesised in this study that exposing students to various genres through reading would help to develop argumentative abilities which could later be transformed into their writing. The ability to assess lines of reasoning, evidence, and conclusions in a text is a crucial skill in students’ academic careers where they are expected to analyse, judge and evaluate information contained in their learning tasks.

**Lesson One**

Lesson one addressed how students could identify: author’s viewpoint in a written text, the reasons offered to support it, and indicators of the existence of a reason or a point of view. In attempting to identify the abovementioned elements, students were also encouraged to
formulate questions which is a common strategy followed by readers and writers to unpack reading content and hidden assumptions in a text or clarify intentions through the author’s continuous questioning of him/herself while writing (Morgan & Saxton, 2006). The lesson was also significant in that the students’ successful identification of such elements in reading texts may enable them to transfer this skill into their writing. Furthermore, such meticulous reading can help students to digest reading content properly and, therefore, assist them to bring into play their background information in internalising the reading content and adding their own voices to it. It could also motivate them to become not only recipients of knowledge, but active participants in the process of knowledge-creation and building, see Appendix 3A for details of lesson one.

Lesson Two
Lesson two dealt with the identification and categorisation of types of evidence provided by an author in support of claims in reading texts. Students learned about the citation of authorities, research, studies and statistics, causal explanations, factual evidence, personal experience, logical explanations, precise definitions, comparisons and analogies, and value judgments as well as distinguishing between facts and opinions. The lesson aimed to show learners the importance of evidence and how to use and distinguish various types of evidence in both reading and writing. Such knowledge can help them to realising the essential role of evidence in persuading others could then help them to consciously utilise it in their argumentative writing. See Appendix 3B for details of lesson 2.

Lesson Three
Lesson three introduced the identification of intermediate and final conclusions in a written essay. The aim was to bolster students’ ability to identify conclusions in written essays and to
distinguish between an intermediate and a final conclusion in a text. Students discussed how intermediate conclusions in long essays could act as reasons before final conclusions are drawn. In addition, the lesson also tackled how they could identify and distinguish word-indicators that signify conclusions and reasons in essays.

The identification of conclusions is very important in both reading and argumentative writing, concisely summarising the main purpose of an argument. Thus, a conclusion in persuasive writing is more than a mere summary of events, but should provide judgements about their likelihood in order to persuade the reader to accept it. These judgements distinguish argumentative from other types of writing (Cottrell, 2005). It was assumed here that students needed to know the importance of conclusions and how to identify them in written texts before being asked to master the skill in their writing. See Appendix 3C for details of lesson 3.

**Lesson Four**

Lesson four addressed evaluation skills and how a text could be logically assessed. Students were provided with questions drawn from Cottrell’s (2005) analysis sheet to assist them, aiming to increase awareness that understanding the writer’s implied assumptions often requires going beyond the text. To make sound judgments, they need to predict, imagine and speculate what assumptions should be derived from a text or what research into the issue is needed (Fisher, 2001). The lesson also aimed to develop students’ creativity and ability to think beyond the repetition of facts and their own beliefs. To persuade others to accept his/her point of view, a writer needs not only to present facts, but to combine them in a manner that can assist in stirring the imaginations of readers and pushing them to go beyond the lines of the text (Fung et al., 2004). Thinking of such other considerations that are
relevant to an argument needs creative and critical thinking (Fisher, 2001). Students need to know that responding to an argument requires that they should be clear about what is said in the text, whether or not the reasons offered support the conclusion, but above all they need to think around the subject to take into account all other relevant considerations. The Cottrell analysis sheet was very useful in helping students undertake this deeper textual analysis. See Appendix 3D for details of lesson 4.

**Lesson Five**

Lesson five helped students learn how to identify fallacies in reading texts and therefore avoid committing them in their writing. Weak and misleading forms of argument, in which reasons are not strong enough to support conclusions, may look correct at first sight but prove incorrect after careful examination (Halpern, 1997), and seventeen different types of fallacies were introduced. The students had some ideas about this topic in their first language, but teaching it in English employing the teaching strategies used in the previous lessons made it rather difficult for them to comprehend. To offer them ample opportunities for discussion to deepen their appreciation of the issue, the topic was approached as a project paper which students partly accomplished collaboratively with the help of handouts so that they could do some research and discussion in advance of the class. They were encouraged to provide examples drawn either from their own understanding of the explanation provided for each fallacy, or from any written material they had read. This aimed to motivate them to read and discuss the concept widely among themselves and to seek assistance from whoever they thought could help in consolidating their understanding. Thus, when the concept was later discussed in class, students had some background knowledge which enriched discussion; see Appendix 3E for details of lesson five.
Lesson Six

Lesson six dealt with the identification of critical appeals in texts. Good persuasive writing integrates rational appeals, credibility appeals and affective appeals. Connor and Lauer (1985) and Connor (1990) expressed their dissatisfaction with the confusion made between logical and persuasion appeals. They defined persuasive writing as integrating the three appeals in its effort to effect cooperation and audience identification. Though persuasive and argumentative are used interchangeably in this study to mean the same, the three appeals were taught to provide students with deeper understanding of their role in argument which complement that of logical appeal.

The concept of appeals in writing was also new to the students, and they were given analogies to discuss in class such as two reading passages where they chose which one was more appealing. It was thought crucial for students to understand the close relationship between fallacies and appeals in writing and the insights they acquired from the preceding discussion helped them to distinguish between the two concepts in subsequent class work. See Appendix 3F for details of lesson 6.

Lesson Seven

Lesson seven dealt with the organisation and structure of persuasive/argumentative writing and how it differed from other genres such as narrative, descriptive and cause and effect texts. The lesson revised the elements of persuasive writing taught in isolation in the previous lessons before students moved to the second stage of paragraph writing skills, see Appendix 3G for details of lesson 7.
Each of the above lessons was based on the preceding one and expanded it, beginning with the activities performed previously forming a spiral structure interweaving all the lessons. Each element taught of the overall structure of persuasive writing complemented the others to form a single unit, which represented a piece of persuasive text. Elements were taught in isolation to make them easier for students to understand, but were integrated to show that, despite differences, they are inextricably linked.

Stage 2: Basic Writing Skills

Lessons eight and nine in this section focused on improving students’ ability to write well-organised paragraphs. The initial focus group discussions revealed that they had limited practice in writing skills, and had problems with the generation and expansion of ideas in writing, could not judge discrepancies in ideas in their writing and, generally, disliked writing. A prerequisite for writing a substantive argumentative text is building a well-structured paragraph with unity and coherence, so it was necessary that they could do this in English.

Lessons Eight

Lesson eight dealt with the important steps needed for paragraph development, the ability to identify and write the main and controlling ideas in a paragraph, and how sentences can be expanded using details, examples, analogies and explanations. Mastering the simple, compound and complex sentences in English is important along with how to maintain the flow and unity of ideas in a paragraph. As novice learners, it could not be assumed that they would know the requirements of a paragraph in English unless explicitly taught. See Appendix 3H for details of lesson 8.
Lesson Nine

Lesson nine then focused on strengthening the ability to maintain a paragraph’s unity, aiming to enhance students’ reasoning ability, reflective and logical thinking skills, anticipation and organisational skills, and decision-making processes based on careful and judicious thinking.

To strengthen students’ logical thinking, they were presented with jumbled texts to re-organise and re-structure, identifying flaws in paragraphs and determining why certain re-arrangements seemed more sensible than others. The task engaged groups in real dialogue and focused thought, with contributions made following careful consideration and justification (Braun, 1986). This could bolster the reflective thinking essential in assisting students in their reading and writing, where they need to justify conclusions or identify hidden assumptions in a text.

The lesson also aimed to strengthen and heighten students’ sense of anticipation, consciously and collaboratively reviewing the links in a text and speculating upon which information should precede or follow others (Braun, 1986). Crucial in both reading and writing, this anticipation enables writers to bear in mind readers’ reactions and expectations, whereas it allows readers to predict the line of the writer’s argument and hidden assumptions (Smith, 2004; Hudson, 2007). Students were asked to question assumptions in texts, assess which information was important and re-arrange it in a logical order. They were also encouraged to look upon writing as an art requiring thinking and logical reasoning concerning how to structure a text, address readers’ needs and make their purpose clear, which in turn requires a clear vision of what to say, how to say it and how to logically organise it (Braun, 1986; Carson, 1998; Smith, 2004), see Appendix 3I for details of lesson 9.
Even if students know the elements of good argumentative writing covered in previous lessons, they still need skills on how to arrange ideas in paragraphs, which is an essential step towards substantive writing.

Stage 3: Productive Thinking Skills

The next three lessons focused on critical thinking skills, the cultivation of open-mindedness and sharpening students’ argumentative abilities, aiming to enable students to look at issues from different perspectives and to go beyond the facts in exploring issues. Moreover, the lessons were geared towards sharpening and transferring into writing students’ verbal argumentative skills some of which had been introduced in previous lessons.

Lesson Ten

Lesson ten was directed towards developing students’ creative thinking by introducing the “Six Thinking Hats” technique as a viable approach to improve decision-making (De Bono, 2000), requiring the investigation of issues from different perspectives. The aim was to stir their imaginations and creativity in producing sound and reasonable solutions and expose them to prudent and meticulous processes of decision making. Such creative thinking can push students to go beyond their usual ways of thinking and solving problems, to understand how complex issues may be and how flexible and open-minded thinking can assist in exploring issues and opportunities which might otherwise not be noticed (De Bono, 2000).

After an introduction and demonstration, students were asked to apply the six thinking hats to explore the topic of poverty in Sudan, which was selected by the students the week before. Taking each hat in turn, students reflected on what it signified in probing the topic. The
session was videotaped to assist in monitoring performance after the accomplishment of the task, see Appendix 3J for details of lesson 10.

**Lesson Eleven**

In lesson eleven students were introduced to group conferences practicing narrowing down a broad topic, along with the paragraph writing skills addressed in lesson eight. The broad and open-ended topic they chose for their conference was “Education Policies in Sudan”, which they worked collectively on to narrow down before embarking on group discussion. The topic was gradually reduced to “Education policies during the post-independence era from 1956 to date”, then to “Education policies during the National Salvation Revolution from 1989 to date”. They finally settled on “The 1990 Higher Education policy” as a manageable topic. The processes of topic selection and reduction are important skills in both writing and debate, requiring focus, precision clarity in writing as well as in arguing a point of view. Students practiced how to identify and raise relevant issues, respect others’ opinions, avoid attacking personalities, support their viewpoint with evidence, and admit genuine points raised against their own. After the topic was collectively agreed, students were divided into three groups to discuss it and devise resolutions. The groups were then merged to discuss the conclusions that each generated before a final agreement which represented their views was adopted.

The teacher’s initial scaffolding role of facilitation and giving prompt questions to guide the students during their deliberation was gradually removed for students alone in groups to lead their discussions. Two private group discussions were recorded and the final discussion video-taped to see how they scaffolded each other and achieved unanimous stands on the topic. Group conferences were treated in this study as a way of allowing students to verbalise
their thoughts in a collaborative process and gain insight into how readers and writers construct meanings. After the session, students were asked to write down their personal reactions to the topic in a written assignment. See Appendix 3K for details of lesson 11.

Lesson Twelve
Lesson twelve proceeded to further develop students’ debating skills, sharpening their verbal argumentative skills and transferring these into writing. Having again selected a topic the week before, they discussed “Women’s rights in Sudan”. They were encouraged to prepare questions in advance to assist them in consolidating their understanding of the topic.

The reason for deciding the topic in advance was that debate requires thorough understanding and time for an individual to form clear ideas. The purpose was not to declare winners or losers, but to help students practise defending claims with reasons and evidence. Ground rules were agreed upon before the debate, and students divided themselves into three groups: the opponents of increased women’s rights sitting on the right side of the room, proponents on the left, with the neutral in between. All were allowed to change sides if persuaded by the argument of any group, and, by halfway through, only opponents and proponents remained. Students found the debate interesting and asked for further sessions. Unfortunately this was not possible in the time available. See Appendix 3L for details of lesson 12.

3.4 Research and the Main Study Procedures
3.4.1 Research Context
The study site was changed at a very late stage of planning when a skirmish broke out in February 2009 in Malakal between armed forces belonging to the former rebel movement,
the Sudan People’s Liberation Army (SPLA), and the Sudan Armed Forces (SAF). As a result, the university staff and first year students attending the Intensive English Course were evacuated to Khartoum. Here, students from the same year group enrolled in the Faculty of Medicine at the Schools of Medicine and Nursing were preparing for the same six-week Intensive English Course. The Faculty of Medicine, unlike others, was stationed in Khartoum instead of Malakal. This English course is usually taken prior to first year studies and was introduced when the university adopted English as a medium of instruction two years prior. It aims to prepare students in how to take notes and generally improve their English reading and writing skills so that they could cope with their undergraduate studies.

As a national university, Upper Nile enrolls students from all over the country, but this batch had been delayed for a year due to irregularities in the university calendar. Therefore, most had mixed feelings by the time the study began with the delight and eagerness about embarking on their studies soon afterwards combined with disappointment over the year they had spent without studying.

Students enrolled in Medicine School are normally achievers of high scores in the Sudan School Examination, while those at Nursing Schools receive above average scores. Compared to students enrolled in the Faculty of Education, who were the initial target group, their scores were higher. As mentioned earlier in section 3.2.3, this may limit the generalisability of the study’s findings. Moreover, students in Khartoum have more access than those in Malakal to internet services and libraries.
3.4.2 Background of the Participants

The participants in this study were from various schools and complex linguistic backgrounds. In the experimental group, one student’s high school medium of instruction was English, whereas the rest received general education in Arabic with English taught only as a subject. Ages ranged between 17 to 34 years old\(^6\), and five students of the fifteen were female. Nine spoke Arabic as a second language (seven male and two female), although they received their general education in Arabic which was also the language of their daily communication outside, and sometimes inside, their homes. The other six students (three female and three male) spoke Arabic as their first language. Socially, all of them came from the middle-classes. One student left the study soon after the first lesson citing the difficulty of the tasks. Towards the end of the study three more dropped out (two female and one male). Therefore, 11 students (three female and eight male) in the experimental group completed the study successfully.

In the comparison group, two female and one male of the 12 students had received their education in English. The two women were returnees who had received their general education almost totally in English in Uganda and were illiterate in Arabic. The male student had been educated in a private school in Sudan, and spoke Arabic as first language and was literate in it. The age of the group ranged between 17 to 22 years old\(^7\), with eight female and four male. Six spoke Arabic as a second language (four female and two male). Two of these four women did not speak, read or write in Arabic, while the other four were educated in Arabic with English taught as a subject. The other six (four female and two male) spoke Arabic as their L1, and received their education in it with English as a subject. Like their

\(^6\) 2 students (17 years), 3 students (18 years), 5 students (19 years), 1 student (20 years), 1 student (22 years), 2 students (23 years) and 1 student (34 years)

\(^7\) 2 students (17 years), 4 students (19 years), 3 students (20 years), 1 student (21 year) and 2 students (22 years)
experimental counterparts, all were middle-class. Unfortunately, three students did not attend the post-test and were excluded from the study. Therefore, nine of the comparison group attended the post-test (six female and three male).

Only 16 students attended the delayed test conducted a month after the completion of the study. Five were from the comparison group (two female and three male), and eleven from the experimental group (three female and eight male). One student from each group did not attend the post-test and were excluded from the study, but one from the experimental group who attended the post-test but not the delayed test was retained.

Table 5 shows detail information about the participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Participants</th>
<th>Total No.</th>
<th>Experiemntal Group</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total No. &amp; Gender</td>
<td>Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Background</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Arabic (A)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>/English (E)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-selected Group</td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allocation to study group (without replacement)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A/L2: 9 (2F, 7M)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intervention</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>15 (Same as in pretest)</td>
<td>Same as in pretest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11 (M: 8, F: 3)</td>
<td>9 (M: 3, F: 6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delayed post-test</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11 (M: 8, F: 3)</td>
<td>5 (M: 3, F: 2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4.3 Sampling

The selection process began with a meeting briefing students about the aims of the study, the selection processes, ethical regulations and other pertinent issues. This was held on the same
day as the start of the English course, encouraging the involvement of a large number of students. Out of 120 who attended, 30 were randomly selected.\textsuperscript{8} This ensured that there was no bias in selection favouring any particular individuals.

### 3.4.4 Pre-test and the Pre Focus Group Interviews

The randomly selected students then returned two days later for the pre-test exam. 27 attended the test, and the three absentees were excluded from the study. Before the test, the consent form (see Appendix 1) was again read and discussed and students were given ten minutes to read through the test rubrics silently. Then, the test instructions were read aloud and students were invited to speak if they encountered difficult vocabulary or had not understood any of the instructions. This ensured that students understood the test and any difficulties were not due to language factors or misunderstanding of the test rubrics. They were given 90 minutes to write on which option they would prefer as Sudanese citizens, between the unity of the country or secession of the south from the north, if given a chance to vote in the general referendum in 2011. They were instructed to take a position either for unity or separation, to present reasons supported with evidence, and to draw a conclusion. Each option was supported in the test rubrics with four arguments which students had to elaborate, accept or refute (see Appendix 2). They were informed that claims made without reasons would be treated as mere opinions and would not be considered during marking and that repetition of viewpoints mentioned in the test paper without elaboration or additional support and evidence would also not be counted.

\textsuperscript{8} The selection method used was that small folded papers matching the number of the students in attendance were prepared. “Accepted for the study” was written on 30 papers out of the 120, while the others were left blank. Those who selected papers written on were therefore chosen as participations of the study.
The topic chosen was divisive and argumentative in nature since the Sudanese from all walks of life were divided on the subject and therefore it was suitable for the purpose of testing students’ argumentative abilities in writing. It was a familiar issue of public concern which was widely discussed in the country and students were expected to be familiar with it. There may be a risk that the use of familiar topics encourages well-rehearsed reasons and evidence to be acquired through repeated exposure, leading individuals to build rigid positions that reject alternative viewpoints. However, individuals with inadequate background information usually lack the schemata with which to infer further knowledge (Glaser, 1984), and the benefits of schemata activated by a familiar topic outweigh its potential impediments to critical thinking (Stapleton, 2001). Others agree that students engage critically when dealing with issues they have prior knowledge of, because rich schemata enhance critical thinking abilities and improve the engagement with and evaluation of topics at hand (Franklin, 1985; Simmons, 1985; Kennedy, Fisher & Ennis, 1991).

After the collection of students’ answer scripts and test papers, they were called in after a recess and were further randomly assigned into comparison and experimental groups. The number of students in the experimental group was kept at 15 to reduce the effect of any possible dropping out later while the other 12 formed the comparison group. After taking contact details, the latter were told that they would be called back for the post-test. The experimental group was then further divided into three small groups comprising of five students each for focus group sessions in which the same questions were administered between 24 and 26 March 2009 (see Appendix 4). The students’ scripts were reviewed to establish their present standard before the intervention teaching stage. This gave a chance to address some of their weaknesses in writing later during the teaching stage and to identify
any differences between the problems identified by participants in the pilot study and those in the main study.

3.4.5 The Post-test, Focus Group Interviews and the Delayed Test

After the twelve weeks of intervention, students were post-tested to see whether there were any changes in their argumentative writing compared to their pre-test. In addition, since the mere assessment of students’ writing may not yield information concerning how they felt about the intervention and the difficulties they encountered, focus group interviews were conducted before the end of the study. These post focus groups allowed changes in students’ perceptions about writing and their feelings about and reaction to the intervention to be measured, enriching the interpretation of the quantitative data. Because of the dropout rate during the intervention, only two post focus groups were conducted compared to the initial three. To ascertain if students sustained skills gained during the intervention, a delayed test was carried out one month after the completion of the intervention, with the topic the same as in the pre- and post-tests.

3.5 Data Collection and Research Tools

The types of qualitative and quantitative data collected are shown in Table 5 and explained below.
### Table 6 The Overall Data Collected

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Themes Explored</th>
<th>Data Answers the Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Research Question 1</td>
<td>Students’ attitudes and perceptions about critical thinking skills in general and in writing in particular before and after the intervention.</td>
<td>- Written texts&lt;br&gt;- Focus group interviews&lt;br&gt;- Teacher’s log</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Question 2</td>
<td>Whether or not guided teaching of critical reading would improve students’ reasoning and argumentative/persuasive writing.</td>
<td>- Written texts&lt;br&gt;- Audiovisual taped data (audiotape &amp; videotape)&lt;br&gt;- Focus group interviews&lt;br&gt;- Teacher’s log</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Question 3</td>
<td>The role of small group discussions and students’ interactions while engaging in tasks in improving students’ thinking and writing abilities.</td>
<td>- Written texts&lt;br&gt;- Audiovisual taped data (audiotape &amp; videotaped)&lt;br&gt;- Focus group interviews&lt;br&gt;- Students’ learning log</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Question 4</td>
<td>The role of regular reflection in enhancing students’ self-regulatory ability and the ability to assess, monitor and improve their own performance and learning processes</td>
<td>- Focus group interviews&lt;br&gt;- Audiovisual taped data (audiotape &amp; videotape)&lt;br&gt;- Teacher’s log</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.5.1 Students’ Written Texts

To establish whether or not there were significant improvements in students’ argumentative skills reflected in their argumentative writing, the results of the pre- and post- written composition tests were analysed and compared. Data from the delayed written composition test was then analysed to assess the extent to which students sustained the skills gained. These measures allowed the verification of the effectiveness of the teaching strategies applied.

### 3.5.2 Focus Group Interviews (Pre and Post)

The group interviews were conducted in two phases, exploring students’ attitudes and perceptions about critical thinking skills before and after the intervention. Analysis could
then identify any changes in their initial perceptions and evaluate their reactions to the intervention.

During the focus groups interviews, the semi-structured questions administered in order to provide information inaccessible to quantitative methods were grouped under eight main headings, and were the subject of deep discussion among the participants (see Appendix 4). The same questions were used in both pre- and post-focus group interviews, with the addition of question nine in the post focus groups that assessed participants’ reactions to and evaluation of the intervention. In total five focus group interviews were conducted: three before the intervention and two afterwards. See Appendix 11A to 11E for transcription of the sessions.

3.5.3 Audio and Video Recordings of Students’ Small Group Discussions

Audio and video recordings are commonly used in education research as valid tools for data collection (Liedtka 2001; Lewis and Anping, 2002; Flewitt, 2006). In this study, the recorded data could assist in revealing how students expressed, negotiated, understood and constructed meanings while collaboratively accomplishing classroom tasks, and in examining more closely how they interpreted and integrated background knowledge into the content of the discussed texts and therefore created their own voices. This would help in monitoring and tracing the level of their abstract thinking in task performance throughout the study. These instruments could also assist in exploring changes in students’ use of language and therefore in tracing any improvements in the patterns and flow of their thinking, as well as assisting in examining how students negotiated, resolved their differences and took unanimous positions as a group during collaborative classroom tasks. This would reveal how they presented,
defended and accepted each others’ views and worked as teams, and as social interaction is assumed to be crucial in creating a meaningful learning context, the data could show how students built trust and scaffolded each other during group work. In addition, the recorded data could be analysed in detail to see how the verbalisation of thought during group work contributed to individual improvements. Furthermore, the ability to replay and review data and to check and cross check it helped in discovering things that could have been hard to detect through normal classroom observation. This helped in analysing the data at different levels and to gain insights that could not be achieved from data in written texts or interviews.

Nine of the students’ collaborative classroom tasks from lessons one to nine were audio-taped using voice recorders, and three from lessons ten to twelve were videotaped since it was found inconvenient to audio-tape them. Videotaping enabled the researcher to capture and analyse participants’ attitudes and behaviours during these activities.

### 3.5.4 Students’ Learning Logs

Reflection is considered as a useful tool for qualitative data collection, enabling inner thoughts and feelings to be revealed which could not be identified through any other technique. The student logs offered them a moment of retrospection where they pondered on their conscious and unconscious thoughts after the completion of tasks, allowing them to realise their weaknesses and strengths and work hard to improve. In sociocultural theory, reflection aids self-appraisal and the development of self-regulatory abilities in approaching problems. Based on their pre-test results, six sets of students’ diaries were collected at the end of the study which represented two each from students of low, average and high scores.
3.5.5 Teacher Log

Recorded notes of the researcher’s observations in the class are useful in forming initial hunches which can later be confirmed or rejected when other data is analysed. The teacher’s log was used here as an ancillary technique to augment findings obtained through other techniques and to help the researcher form global concepts about the findings. Observation notes were written on each of the twelve lessons taught.

3.6 Data Analysis

3.6.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

Introduction

Over the last two decades the critical thinking movement has gained much attention in the field of L1 and L2, but there are few guides to assess the quality of critical thinking in written discourse (Stapleton, 2001). Most common assessment tools for evaluating writing have been holistic in nature, with only a limited use of analytic and primary trait scoring (Connor & Lauer, 1985). One of the most generally accepted tests for evaluating critical thinking in written discourse has been the Ennis-Weir test of critical thinking, (Hatcher, 1995) but this tends to confine critical thinking to test-related judgments with little wider application (Hatcher, 1995; Davidson & Dunham, 1997; Stapleton, 2001). Other instruments for assessing persuasive/argumentative writing have been developed (Connor, 1990; Crammond, 1998; Stapleton, 2001) but have not been widely used despite well established validity and reliability. With various modifications these adopt Toulmin’s (1958) model of argument as part of the measurement of critical thinking in persuasive writing (Crowhurst, 1991; Ferris, 1994; Crammond, 1998; Lunsford, 2002).
Two evaluation instruments were used here to assess persuasive critical thinking as reflected in students’ written work: Stapleton’s (2001) model of assessing critical thinking in writing and Connor & Lauer’s (1985) and Connor’s (1990) scale of the persuasiveness of rational, credibility and affective appeals.

### A. Stapleton’s Model of Assessing Critical Thinking in Writing

Stapleton (2001) developed a model useful for rating critical thinking as reflected in students’ argumentative writing. The model has the advantage that it goes beyond the evaluation of argumentative writing to assess critical thinking elements. Raters using the model identify and count the key elements of critical thinking displayed in students’ writing. Each paper is assessed based on: (a) the number of arguments; (b) the extent of evidence provided; (c) the recognition of opposing arguments; (d) corresponding refutations; and (e) the number of fallacies. Figure 6 shows an outline diagram explaining the different parts of the instrument followed by a description of each part of the model.

These key elements of critical thinking are isolated in a text. Each rater independently codes essays for all the critical thinking elements indicated above. In the model as originally applied by Stapleton, the total number of each element - claims, evidence, alternative viewpoints and refutations and fallacies – upon which the raters agree, are divided by the total number of distinct instances of that element identified by either rater, in order to reach a reliable percentage. To illustrate this point the following example is taken from Stapleton (2001):

Rater 1: A B C D E F G H I J
Rater 2: A B D E F H I J K L M
Here, rater 1 identified 10 arguments, whereas rater 2 identified 11. Between the two raters 13 different arguments were identified in which they concurred in 8 and differed in 3 elements. To obtain a reliable figure, the 8 agreed-on arguments are divided by the 13 total arguments, resulting in a percentage of 61.5.

However, the method was adjusted slightly in this study. The calculation of percentages as described above was abandoned when inter-rater reliability was found to be very high in the three tests (see section 3.6.1D). This assisted in measuring the groups’ performance on each discrete element of critical thinking as well as the individual student’s performance in the tests, which would have been complex to achieve using the percentage system. An example in the table below illustrates how this was applied in this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Claim</th>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Evidence</th>
<th>Counter-argument</th>
<th>Conclusion</th>
<th>Rationale Appeal</th>
<th>Credibility Appeal</th>
<th>Affective Appeal</th>
<th>Fallacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R1</td>
<td>St. 1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>St. 2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this way, it was easy to sum-up and compare the students’ total scores on each discrete element of argumentation in the three tests as well as a student’s individual progress during the intervention. In Stapleton’s example shown above there are no maximum/minimum scores since students’ marks depended on the length and number of arguments presented in a text, and the longer the text the more arguments and elements of critical thinking it is likely to contain.
Each argument consists of a claim supported by a reason. A claim consists of a statement whose truth is arguable, and is often advanced in answer to a problem or controversial issue. A claim standing alone without a supporting reason is an opinion and not an argument. Claims are often expressed using markers such as “I think” or “in my opinion”, and come in various forms, including:

- Proposals: “we should be together as one country and one family.”
- Definitions: “unity is the relation between people, society and well treatment.”
- Evaluations: “separation is not going to be the end of the hostility.”

Reasons are statements used to support claims and generally answer why the claim should be believed, showing a direct logical link to the claim in order to be bound into a single proposition called an argument. Reasons need not be original, but if they simply repeat those in the prompt, without elaboration, they do not indicate critical thinking. Reasons are often identified by indicator words and phrases such as “because”, “for this reason”, and “for one thing”.

Figure 6 Model for assessing critical thinking in writing (Stapleton, 2001)
Evidence constitutes statements or assertions serving to strengthen the argument which come in many forms, including personal experience, research findings, statistics, citing authorities, comparisons and analogies, pointing out consequences, facts, logical explanations and precisely defining words. Evidence must show integrity for timeliness (not being too old), representativeness (not extreme examples), sufficiency (not based on limited data), objectivity (not biased), and trustworthiness (sources are reputable) (Ramage & Bean, 2007).

The recognition of opposition and refutation includes opposing viewpoints which constitute statements running counter to or offering alternative interpretations of those expressed in the claim. These also do not have to be original and can be taken from the prompt, but are used when the writer responds to opposing viewpoints to show that it is inadequate because of logical flaws, poor support, erroneous assumptions, or wrong values (Ramage & Bean, 1999). Refutations must be logically linked to the opposing views which they profess to counter, and may offer rival causes or solutions so that the writer maintains his conclusion. Opposing viewpoints and refutations are identified by indicator phrases and words such as: “it is said that … but,” some people claim that … however,” and using conjunctive devices including “although”, “despite”, and “even though”.

Fallacies are errors which occur when reasons given do not adequately support the claim in one of a number of ways. Flawed relationships between the statements in attempts at argument are called logos fallacies such as irrelevancy, false analogy, hasty generalization, slippery slopes, oversimplification, and begging the question. Flawed relationships between arguments and the characteristics of those involved are called fallacies of ethos and include appeals to false authorities, attacking the character of the arguer, and the straw person (oversimplifying an opponent’s argument to make it easy to refute). Flawed relationships can
also exist between what is argued and the audience. These fallacies of pathos include appealing to stirring symbols (such as nationalistic values), provincialism, appealing to emotional premises, and red herrings (shifting the audience’s attention).

A conclusion is a statement or series of statements setting out what a writer wants the reader to believe, conveyed via argument, evidence, and other statements used to signal it. Conclusions are usually limited to agreeing, disagreeing or taking some middle ground with respect to the prompt, and are often preceded by declarations such as “I agree”, “I disagree”, “I am undecided”, or indicator words or phrases including “therefore”, “instead” and “as a result”. Conclusions may also be implicit, or unfolding, where the author’s belief is unstated and left for the reader to infer.

**Evaluation of the Model**

One weakness of this model may be the potential influence of cultural background on how students express themselves in writing, what they consider as logical or illogical and how to express it. As a result of the interference of L1 in L2, students can transfer expressions from L1 into L2 writing, which can confuse and cause judgement errors for a rater who does not share the same background. This was addressed in this study by having at least one rater familiar with the particular cultural background and allowing raters to discuss major differences between them.

**B. Persuasive Appeals Scale**

The analysis of persuasive appeals was used in this study to look at the persuasiveness of students’ writing. Rationality, credibility and reflectivity appeals correspond to logos, ethos and pathos in logical appeals, where argumentation and persuasion should not be confounded
Rhetoricians have challenged such a replacement of persuasion with argumentation since it reduces persuasion to merely logical appeal (Kinneavy, 1971; Berlin and Inkster, 1980; Connors, 1981), and written persuasive discourse is instead defined as “that which integrates the three appeals in its effort to effect cooperation and identification with an audience” (Connor & Lauer, 1985, p. 213). Here argumentation becomes part of persuasion, and this scale was preferred because it offers a detailed analysis of different types of persuasiveness which includes the logical appeals.

In using this scale, raters first divide an essay into episodes, each being a unit of analysis because an appeal may combine more than one sentence or clause. The episode is perceived as a semantic unit of discourse defined in terms of some kind of “thematic unity”, which also has some “psychological relevance” which Connor and Lauer claim neither the sentence nor the clause itself possess.

After determining episodic boundaries, raters analyse the appeals, and if there is more than one appeal in an episode, raters determine which is dominant along with its effectiveness in terms of the appropriateness of content, sensitivity to the reader and/or evidence of control (see Appendix 5 for details of each appeal and van Dijk’s and Kintsch (1983) episode boundary markers). Known to be reliable and valid (Connor and Lauer, 1985; Connor, 1990), the scale was applied in this study as follows.
### Rational Appeal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>What it represents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Not used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Use of some Rational appeals minimally developed or use of some inappropriate (in terms of major points).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Use of a single Rational appeal or a series of rational appeals with at least two points of development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Exceptionally well-developed and appropriate single extended rational appeal or a coherent set of rational appeals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Credibility Appeal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>What it represents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Not used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>No writer credibility but some awareness of audience’s values or some writer credibility (other than general knowledge) but no awareness of audience’s values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Some writer credibility (other than general knowledge) and some awareness of audience’s values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Strong writer credibility (personal experience) and sensitivity to audience’s values (specific audience for the solution).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Affective Appeal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>What it represents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Not used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Minimal use of concreteness or charged language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Adequate use of picture, charged language or metaphor to evoke emotion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### C. The Raters

Two raters rated students’ pre-, post- and delayed tests. The present author was the primary rater, having taught English at both secondary and university levels for seven years, and with a particular interest in reading-writing connections, thinking skills and discourse analysis. The second rater was a very experienced native speaker who taught English in various universities in Sudan for several years, with a particular focus on writing and communication skills, and teacher training programmes. He is currently pursuing his Ph.D. in education at the University of Sussex.
The raters met three times to discuss the use of the instruments, first with the primary rater explaining at length the principles underpinning the two instruments and how they are used to rate writing. The meeting lasted for two hours after which the second rater was provided handouts with more detailed explanation and examples for further reading at home, along with eight sample papers from students’ pre-tests to rate.

After a week, we met again and compared our ratings of the sample papers. In the meeting, only results of four papers were discussed in detail. Many initial differences were after lengthy discussion, narrowed down to achieve a reasonable level of agreement. The meeting lasted for three hours after which we agreed to meet again after a week to go through the other four papers.

In the third meeting, the gap which existed previously had been greatly reduced, and the raters now indicated a high degree of agreement. A thorough discussion of all the eight papers together then followed. At the end we felt satisfied and confident in our ability to use the instruments successfully to achieve a high level of reliability. Copies of all students’ pre- and post-tests with pseudonyms for confidentiality purposes were then provided to the second rater. Grammatical and spelling errors were not the focus of the study and these were ignored during the rating process.

D. Statistical Measurement

After scoring students’ scripts the quantitative data obtained were analysed using the SSPS software package, inter-rater reliability showed very high correlations of 0.982, 0.982, and
0.989 for the pre-, post- and delayed tests respectively. A paired sample T-test was then carried out to analyse and compare students’ results from the pre-, post- and delayed tests.

3.6.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

Introduction

A coding approach based on grounded theory principles was applied to analyse the qualitative data collected in this study. Grounded theory consists of a set of techniques to identify concepts and to categorise them into themes across texts. Using codings the main goal is to synthesise these themes and relate them to existing theories in order to develop a meaningful theory. Transcripts or field notes are reviewed, and labels given to component parts that seem to be of potential theoretical significance or that appear to be particularly salient within the context of the phenomena studied (Le Compte, 2000; Luna-Reyes & Andersen, 2003; Bryman, 2008). Such coding is a well established approach to data analysis in qualitative research, and in this study was used with data from focus group interviews, students’ learning logs, the teacher’s classroom observations, small collaborative group discussions and audio-and-videotaped sessions.

A. Focus groups Interviews

The recorded pre focus group interviews were transcribed, and the transcriptions were read carefully twice before any notes were made. In the third reading, marginal notes were then written about significant remarks and observations made by the participants. The notes were revised and concepts emerging from respondents’ responses were identified and coded, before being sifted through and grouped into broader categories of related themes. A theme was treated as an umbrella which encompassed various related concepts. These themes were
labelled and related to the theories articulated and the focus groups interview questions. Therefore, all the related themes were given one level throughout the interviews. For example, in the labellings 1-1-10, 1-2-15, or 1-3-24, the first figure stands for the proofreading category, with the second and third for the interview and page number respectively. The list of labels was then recorded on a separate sheet and used as guidance during the analysis. The categories were then analysed and interpreted and results compiled. The same procedure was also applied in coding and analysing post focus group interviews.

As Bryman (2008) indicated, the transcription of focus group interviews is more complicated and time consuming than individual interviews. Consequently, it took the present researcher forty-five days to transcribe the five focus group interviews: four weeks for the pre- and two weeks for post interviews. Because the respondents used both Arabic and English in their discussions, the texts mixed both languages. The transcripts were revised and crossed-checked by a colleague fluent in both English and Arabic who is currently pursuing a Ph.D. in Education & Communication at Newcastle University whose main areas of interest are comparative studies of Arabic and Western cultures and culture and language teaching in ESL contexts.

B. Students’ Learning Log Data

The same coding and categorisation mentioned in section 3.6.2.A was applied in the analysis of students’ written reflections. A total of six sets of students’ learning log were collected. The selection was based on their performances in the pre-test. Each two different diaries were collected from students of low, average and high scores in the test. After analysis, the results were then compared to the research questions and other findings obtained.
C. Teacher’s Observation Notes

After each of the intervention’s 12 lessons, the teacher wrote his observations about students’ attitudes and their performance in class. These notes were coded and categorised into concepts and themes. The themes were then analysed, interpreted, compared and related to the other qualitative and quantitative data obtained.

D. Small Group Collaborative Discussions

The nine small group student discussions were categorised into three groups according to the time of their audio-recording: three each at the beginning, in the middle, and towards the end of the intervention. Students’ progress and development in critical thinking and attitudes throughout the intervention could then be assessed. All the recorded sessions were listened to twice before any action was taken. Due to time constraints, one recording from each group was randomly selected for transcription. They were then numbered from 1 to 3 and listened to again before notes were taken. Then they were coded using the approach described above and grouped into themes before being transcribed. This was done by writing codings for selected parts of the session recording, for example, minutes 9 to 11 R1 ‘challenging questions’, or minutes 20 to 25 R3 ‘inclusion of background knowledge’. The letter R stands for the recording and 1 - 3 for the number of the session. Later, only categorised and labelled parts were transcribed and analysed. This selective approach was used to avoid spending huge amounts of time transcribing issues irrelevant to the research questions. Topics raised by the participants not related to the issues under investigation, or were judged to add no new information or insights to the study’s findings were ignored.
E. Videotaped data

This selective coding and categorisation approach used was also applied in the analysis of the three videotaped lessons, again due to time limitations. Therefore, only parts of the coded videotaped data judged to add new insights were transcribed. As with the data from the small group discussions, only those identified portions were transcribed and analysed.

F. Validity of the Coding Approach

Criticisms of the coding approach (Bryman, 2008) include that it categorises and reassembles similar concepts across texts, usually by cutting and removing those parts from the main texts where they occurred. This may lead to the loss of the social setting within which the data appeared. In this study, however, no parts of texts were cut, removed and reassembled. Using the categorisation process described in section 3.6.2.A, similar component parts were labelled and listed on a separate sheet, so that the category, the document in which it occurred and the page number could be identified. Each text, as a result, was left intact.

The coding approach may also lead to the fragmentation of data, with the narrative flow of texts or speech lost. In this study, the nature of the questions administered in the focus group interviews did not encourage long and uninterrupted narrative responses, so, this was not seen as a problem.

3.3.7 Ethical Issues

Ethical rules and principles govern research so that researchers abide by codes of practice that they adhere to as standard regulations. These vary from one field to another, but they
preserve scholarly integrity and honesty and ensure that research contains nothing that is libellous, obscene, unlawful or an invasion of privacy (Day, 1996).

In this study two ethical issues were successfully addressed. Firstly approval was obtained weeks before the study began from the authority concerned in the Faculty of Medicine to use their premises and students. Secondly, the participants’ consent to the study was obtained during the orientation and selection processes at the beginning when the consent form was read out and explained. As explained in section 3.4.4, the form was read again before the pre-test. Therefore, the participants joined the study from their own free will without any pressure or coercion or any incentive in return.

Subjecting one group for treatment and denying the other the same treatment, by assigning participants to experimental and comparison groups, could be deemed unethical. However, this is a long-standing research practice for centuries. Scientific research is often based on comparing phenomena subjected to different treatments (Bryman, 2008). The efficiency and effectiveness of one approach compared to another, as was the case in this study, cannot be precisely determined if both groups were subjected to the same treatment. Therefore, withholding treatment from one group was not seen as a violation of any ethical code of behaviour, Instead, following common and accepted scientific practice.
Chapter Four

The Findings

Introduction

Having discussed the methodology applied and the evaluation instruments and teaching strategies used during the intervention, this chapter presents the findings obtained in the study and assesses their significance.

The overall objective of the study indicated in section 3.1 was how to improve students’ reasoning and thinking abilities as manifested in the quality of their argumentative writing through the integrative teaching of reading and writing. The chapter is divided into two sections, with the first mainly exploring students’ written work using the paired samples t-test. Their performance was examined at three levels: overall group performance, group performance on discrete elements of argumentative writing, and individual performance in the pre-, post- and delayed written tests. These comparisons were conducted to determine whether or not there were significant improvements in their writing skills as groups as well as individuals before and after the intervention. The second section then compares the consistency of students’ quantitative results with the qualitative data collected, which consisted of pre-and post-focus group interviews, students’ reflections, recorded audiovisual data and the teacher’s notes.
4.1 Students’ Written Tests

Section one attempts to answer research question 2 as indicated in section 3.1. It investigates whether or not guided teaching of critical reading through integrative teaching of reading and writing could improve students’ reasoning and argumentative/persuasive writing skills. The probability level of the statistical significance of results was established at $p < 0.05$.

4.1 Comparison of the Overall Written Test Scores of the Groups

The paired samples t-test was chosen as a suitable analytical tool to determine whether or not there were differences in students’ performance in the pre-, post- and delayed tests. Using SPSS software, the test was run firstly on the pre- and post-test results for both the Comparison Group (CG) and Experimental group (EG) to establish if there were statistically significant improvements after the intervention period. No statistically significant difference was found ($t = -0.949, df = 8, p > 0.05$) between the pre- and post-test results of the comparison group with a mean pre-test score of 10.78, and mean post-test score of 12.11, demonstrating no improvement in post-test scores. However, a statistically significant difference was found between the pre- and post-test scores of the experimental group, ($t = -10.57, df = 10, p < 0.05$). Their mean pre-test score was 10.27, compared to 16.46 post-test. In contrast to the comparison group, the experimental group improved in their post test results.

The paired samples t-test was then run on each group’s post- and delayed test results to ascertain if the status quo shown from pre- and post-test results was maintained. For the comparison group, there were no statistically significant difference ($t = 0.87, df = 3, p >$
0.05), with a post test mean of 8.5, and 7.25 for the delayed test. Similarly, no significant
difference was found for the post- and delayed test results of the experimental group \( t = \\
-1.077, \text{df} = 9, p > 0.05 \), with a post-test mean of 16.5, and 19.2 for the delayed test. These
results demonstrate that neither of the two groups changed to a statistically significant extent.
However, the experimental group’s mean score for the delayed test was higher than for the
post-test, whereas for the comparison group the reverse was true. This indicates that the
experimental group made some improvement in their delayed test results even though not
statistically significant.

Finally, the groups’ pre- and delayed test results were compared to determine whether or not
the results obtained in their pre-and post-tests could be further confirmed. No statistically
significant difference was found for the comparison group \( t = -0.88, \text{df} = 3, p > 0.05 \), with
a mean score for the pre-test of 6.5, and for the delayed test 7.25. This further confirms that
the comparison group made no statistically significant improvement throughout the study
period. But when the experimental pre- and delayed test results were compared using the
paired samples t-test, a statistically significant difference was found \( t = -0.359, \text{df} = 9, p < \\
0.05 \), with mean scores of 10.5 for the pre-test and 19.2 for the delayed test. This indicates
that the progress shown in their pre- and post-test results was confirmed in their delayed test
results.

It is worth noting that, due to the small sample size and in particular as the numbers in the
comparison group in both post- and delayed tests continued to drop, the results of any
inferential statistics obtained in this study need to be treated with great caution. For more
detail on the scoring system see section 3.6.1 A, and individual students’ raw scores in the
three tests can be found in Appendix 10.
4.1.2 Comparison of Group Performance on Discrete Elements of Argumentative Writing

Further investigation was carried out to determine if there were improvements in the performance of the groups on discrete elements of argumentative writing as indicated in Stapleton’s (2001) model for assessing critical thinking. The performance of each group in the tests was compared as indicated in Tables 7 to 12.

A. The Comparison Group

When the performance for discrete argumentative writing elements of the comparison group was compared in their pre- and post-test scores, no statistically significant results were found (see Table 7). This indicates that the comparison group made no significant improvement in any individual element during the post-test.

Table 7 Comparison of CG Discrete Argumentative Writing Elements in Pre and Post Test Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements</th>
<th>Mean Pre</th>
<th>Mean Post</th>
<th>SD Pre</th>
<th>SD Post</th>
<th>P Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claims</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counter argument</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rational appeal</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credibility appeal</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective appeal</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fallacies</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N (pre)=12, N (post) = 9

Similarly, when their post- and delayed test results were compared for the same elements using the paired samples t-test, again no statistically significant results were found in any single element, as can be seen in Table 8. Note that for the rational and credibility appeal elements, students obtained no scores in the post-and delayed tests. This can be further
checked by looking at their mean scores of 0.00 in both the post-test and delayed test. Therefore, no probability values can be expected.

**Table 8 Comparison of CG Discrete Argumentative Writing Elements in Post- and Delayed Test Scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements</th>
<th>Mean Post</th>
<th>Mean Delayed</th>
<th>SD Post</th>
<th>SD Delayed</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claims</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counter argument</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rational appeal</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credibility appeal</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective appeal</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fallacies</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N (post) = 9, N (delayed) = 5

Furthermore, the group’s pre- and delayed test results were compared for further confirmation and, as expected, no statistically significant improvements were recorded as indicated in Table 9. Again, students gained hardly any scores for rational appeals and fallacies, also seen in their mean scores in the two tests as shown.

**Table 9 Comparison of CG Discrete Argumentative Writing Elements in Pre and Delayed Test Scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements</th>
<th>Mean Pre</th>
<th>Mean Delayed</th>
<th>SD Pre</th>
<th>SD Delayed</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claims</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counter argument</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rational appeal</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credibility appeal</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective appeal</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fallacies</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N (pre) = 12, N (delayed) = 5

**B. The Experimental Group**

When the paired samples t-test was used with the pre- and post-test scores of the experimental group’s discrete argumentative writing elements, statistically significant results were found in the elements of claims, reasons, evidence, conclusions, and rational appeals.
Students generated more of these elements in the post test, but no statistically significant improvements were recorded in their performance in counter-arguments, affective appeals, and fallacies. Note that, students made hardly any progress in credibility appeals post-test, as can be seen in Table 10, with mean scores of 0.09 in pre-test and 0.09 in the post test.

### Table 10 Comparison of EG Discrete Argumentative Writing Elements in Pre- and Post Test Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements</th>
<th>Mean Pre</th>
<th>Mean Post</th>
<th>SD Pre</th>
<th>SD Post</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claims</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counter argument</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rational appeal</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credibility appeal</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective appeal</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fallacies</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N (pre) = 15, N (post) = 11

Moreover, their scores on discrete elements in the post- and delayed tests showed statistically significant improvements for counter-arguments and conclusions, whereas there were no significant differences for other elements. This demonstrates that, on average, they maintained the scores obtained in the post- test with further improvements for those two elements. In addition, students obtained no scores for affective appeals in either post- or delayed tests, as seen in Table 11. Comparing only mean scores for affective appeals, they scored higher in the pre-test than in the post- and delayed tests, with mean scores of 0.09, 0.00 and 0.00 respectively.
Table 11: Comparison of EG Discrete Argumentative Writing Elements in Post- and Delayed Test Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements</th>
<th>Mean Post</th>
<th>Mean Delayed</th>
<th>SD Post</th>
<th>SD Delayed</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claims</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons</td>
<td>6.20</td>
<td>7.20</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counter argument</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rational Appeal</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credibility appeal</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective appeal</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fallacies</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N (post) = 11, N (delayed) = 11

A further comparison on their pre- and delayed test results was then carried out and statistically significant improvements were found for claims, reasons, evidence, and conclusions. No statistically significant improvements were recorded in the other elements.

For affective appeals, students made hardly any progress, as is clear from Table 12. Comparing the mean scores, they generated more affective appeals in the pre-test than in the delayed test.

Table 12: Comparison of EG Discrete Argumentative Writing Elements in Pre- and Delayed Test Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements</th>
<th>Mean Pre</th>
<th>Mean Delayed</th>
<th>SD Pre</th>
<th>SD Delayed</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claims</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>7.20</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counter argument</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rational appeal</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credibility appeal</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective appeal</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fallacies</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N (pre) = 15, N (delayed) = 11

4.1.3 Analysis of Individual Student Performance in Written Tests

When the performances of each individual student in the pre-, post- and delayed tests in both groups were charted, the following results were obtained.
A. The Comparison Group

The progress of comparison group students in the tests was not uniform. One category made linear progress from pre- to post-tests, for example students 1, 2, 6 and 9 as seen in figure 7. Unfortunately, these students did not sit the delayed test so that their progress could not be compared further. However, this linear progress of some of the comparison group was not surprising because three of them had received their education solely in English. A second category performed better in the pre-test than in the post-test, as with student 3. The third category produced mixed results. Student 5, for example, performed better in the pre-test then declined steadily in the post and delayed tests. Student 7 performed well in the pre-test, and then declined in the post-test only to improve again in the delayed test. Student 8 did poorly in the pre-test, then improved in the post-test but declined again in the delayed test. Figure 7 clearly indicates that the progress of students was not linear, as may have been expected, suggesting that any progress or deterioration may be attributed to exogenous factors such as individual effort and familiarity with the topic rather than any influence of regular treatment.
B. The Experimental Group

In contrast, individual students in the experimental group made steady progress from pre-test to post-test and delayed test. Each student made some progress from pre- to post-test, although in different degrees as can be seen in Figure 8. Most made slight progress between post- and delayed test results, even though not statistically significant, as indicated earlier, with the exception of students 3, 5 and 6 whose results declined in the delayed test as shown in the chart. Moreover, students 1, 4 and 9 performed steadily and extremely well in the three tests.

Even though the one-month interval between the post- and delayed tests is too short to give conclusive evidence that students could maintain gains made, the results clearly demonstrate that they retained the knowledge and skills acquired during the intervention. This further suggests that the experimental group made remarkable progress in performance compared with the comparison group (see Appendices 6A & B, and 7A & B for selected samples of students’ scripts).
4.1.4 General Remarks on the Written Test Results

As explained above, while the comparison group made no improvement after the intervention the experimental group’s argumentative writing skills improved overall significantly. However, despite this improvement, they generally did poorly in: rational, credibility and affective appeals. They also did poorly in counter-arguments compared to the other elements. Their poor performance in these elements could be due to the fact that these are so cognitively and linguistically demanding. Bearing in mind the students’ level of proficiency, it is to be expected that progress would take longer through continuous practice. In addition, students in both comparison and experimental groups generated fewer fallacies in the three tests, perhaps as a result of their familiarity with the topic. However, this is contrary to Stapleton’s (2001) findings where students who wrote on familiar topics generated more fallacies than those who wrote on unfamiliar topics (see Appendix 8, scoring system).

Moreover, in analysing the groups’ written texts, students were generally found to have difficulties in expanding their viewpoints in arguments from general to more specific ideas. Most arguments focused on major points without the proper provision of elaborate detail. This could be considered as part of the problem of the generation of ideas reported in the pilot study and observed during the first written assignments. It could also be attributed to their poor command of English and lack of the diverse and sophisticated vocabulary that could have allowed them to explain detailed and complex ideas.

4.2 Comparisons of Quantitative and Qualitative Data Results

When the result from the tests and the focus interviews were analysed and compared with other data collected, the following findings were obtained.
4.2.1 Students’ Perceptions of Critical Thinking

In attempt to answer the research question concerning students’ perceptions of critical thinking, the pre- and post- intervention focus group interviews were analysed. Students’ perceptions before and after the intervention were investigated, and the factors behind the students’ unfavourable perceptions before the intervention were also explored.

A. Students’ Perceptions Before and After the Intervention

When the participants’ perceptions were explored during the first focus group interviews conducted prior to the study, only two out of the fifteen students exhibited a generic understanding of critical thinking skills. As seen in Extract 1, lines 16, 20, and 22, they perceived critical thinking as the ability to provide a conclusion to a problem, as a problem solving skill. Both received secondary education in private schools. The majority of the students were found to have no idea about critical thinking skill, even though some had received primary and secondary education in private schools (see lines 30 and 34.)

Extract 1
16: Student 10: yes critical thinking it may ( ) it can be uh thinking that is going to an end
17: Facilitator: coming to an end?
20: Student 10: ((continues)) there is a problem facing you
21: Facilitator: OK:: a problem solving skills?
22: Student 10: yes
30: Student 11: I have no idea in this
34: Student 12: I have no idea

However, their poor perceptions of critical thinking skills changed markedly after the intervention. During the post-focus group interviews conducted after the intervention, they demonstrated clear awareness of the concept, providing precise definitions and identifying essential elements of critical thinking, such as problem solving, deep thinking and critical judgement, as is clear in Extract 2.
Extract 2
15: Student 20: OK: first of all what I observed is that critical thinking means something
16: you have to think deep and deep ( ) like when you think about something ( ) if you
17: gave = you give or you give the the the result for it ( ) you have to think about it that
18: result means ( ) you have to think deeply and deeply and deeply ( ) this is my opinion
19: when I think about critical thinking ( )
25: Student 17: yes ( ) critical thinking I understand in a way = in this way ( ) but there is a
26: thinking which has got deep ( ) there is got a deep deeper evaluation ( ) or in another
27: way = in another words critical thinking is a ( ) is when you think in different aspects
28: ( ) or in different corners at the problem ( ) when you look at the problem = when you
29: are given a topic then ( ) you look ( ) you don’t look at it from one way ( ) you look
30: here and then ( ) disadvantage of it ( ) advantage of it what are the alternative ( ) what
31: are the alternatives to this in option of the two ( ) so: this is what I think ( ) I can say
32: about critical thinking
In the light of their new understanding of critical thinking, they were able to state
categorically that they were not required to apply critical thinking at secondary school. As
expected, their responses were more definite, precise and straightforward than they were
during the first focus group interviews; see Extract 3, lines 43, 45, 60 and 64.

Extract 3
38: Facilitator: OK:: good ( ) now ( ) from your understanding of critical thinking ( ) your
39: previous and present understanding ( ) now do you think when you were in Senior
40: Secondary School ( ) do your students sorry ( ) do your teachers ask you to be critical
41: when you write anything? ( ) assignment o::r something like that ( ) do they really ask
42: you?
43: Student 23: NO::
44: Facilitator: NO?
45: Student 23: NO:: yes
59: Facilitator: SO: only give me what I gave you?
60: Student 20: YES; yes = yes
62: Facilitator: OK: it means based on your understanding ( ) critical thinking is not
63: something being applied in Senior Secondary School?
64: Students: ye::s

Surprisingly, even those who claimed that they were introduced to critical thinking at school
admitted that it was not as clear as what they were taught during the intervention; see Extract
4. This suggests that some of the uncertain responses they offered during the first focus
interviews stemmed from their lack of clear perceptions about critical thinking. Throughout
the post-focus interviews, they demonstrated a much clearer understanding and were more
confident in their deliberations. This change of perception seems to have led to a change of
expectation, as they knew what was expected of them during the post- and delayed tests. Accordingly, these changes may explain the remarkable results obtained during the post- and delayed tests.

**Extract 4**

89: Student 17: yes for me uh actually there were this type of this thing were there ( ) but there were not in the way that we ( ) you pronounce it to us clear uh that ( ) there
90: critical thinking or ( ) there is this the logical analysis ( ) but they were given in such a way that for instance ( ) you have to express yourself including write about the facts and all these ( ) but they were not given the title in such a way we are doing ( ) we are doing it in other ways ( ) in some exercise you are given some lines to write a composition ( ) some composition deserve description ( ) some deserve uh some of the one the future uh and all this ( ) but we are not given the title like what is now it is given ( ) but in a narrow manner = in shallow manner ( ) but now it is wide and clear ( ) I am sure it will help us a lot

**B. Factors in Students’ Poor Perceptions**

In exploring the reasons behind students’ initial poor perceptions, the study found various relevant factors such as an emphasis on memorisation and grammar teaching and the scaling up of English results as explicated below.

**I. The Encouragement of Regurgitation and Memorisation**

During the pre-focus interviews, it was found that critical thinking was not treated as an educational goal in the Sudanese education system. The system explicitly or implicitly encouraged rote learning and the memorisation of facts, as evident in Extract 5 and subsequent extracts. As shown below, student 8 recounted his experience that even changing the surface structure of a given definition while retaining the overall meaning was considered unacceptable by some teachers, as is clear in lines 383 to 385. This was a feeling shared by many which was repeated throughout the discussion.

**Extract 5**

374: Student 8: uh ( ) he would give us a particular definition you memorise it as it is if we do it in a way [I mean I have a subject such as] Physics [استاذ بيجي يدينا تعريف ده نزل و يتميز وكان له اشتكى بطرق]
375: the teacher would come معين تحفظ التعریف ده زی ما هو لكن لو استحلنا بطریق
376: ( ) he would give us a particular definition you memorise it as it is if we do it in a another way [he would give us wrong]
When asked if they were encouraged to analyse, evaluate or add their views when accomplishing school tasks, they said that it often depended on the teacher’s discretion. Some teachers allowed students to express their views while others did not; see Extract (6) lines 106, 108. They also reported that some teachers felt uneasy, challenged and provoked if students passed judgement on the topics being learned, as in lines 110, 112 and 113.

Extract 6
106: Student 7: not all of them [
107: Facilitator: {not all of them?}
108: Student 7: (continues) yes not of them use that way but there are some of them
109: because he wants to teach you about what he know = he knew ( ) because if you are
110: going outside will ( ) he will think that you you want to [provoke him]
111: Facilitator: OK:: OK::
112: Student 7: (continues) because what you know that something being added it not or
113: even he did not know what you mean by that word

Some alleged that teachers were arrogant and careless about the students’ future, blaming them for the deterioration of standards not only in English but in other subjects too, as shown in Extract 7, lines 968, 971, 1009 and 1010.

Extract 7
968: Student 1: [we blame our teachers in the
969: deterioration of our English standard]
970: Facilitator: You blame them?
971: Student 1: yes مش بس يناع الانجليزى لكن حتى في مواد أخرى إذا الاستاذ ما حضر الماده كوبس ما يقدر تستعد له
972: [yes not only English teachers but also teachers of other subjects if the
973: teacher has not prepare his lesson well you cannot be ready for it]

1007: Facilitator: [problems of
1008: English language in Sudan]
1009: Student 1: (continues) [and I mean they
1010: are arrogant if you ask they will tell you we studied for your age]
However when it was suggested to them that students in Sudan are treated like “parrots” who only repeat what the teachers offer them, some agreed, asserting that this is what happened in their schools; see Extract 8, lines 697 to 699.

**Extract 8**

697: Student 13: yes [in our schools we do the same thing ( ) you write down what you were given without adding or omitting anything]

The above responses are in line with what Freeman and Freeman (1998, cited in Rojas, 2001) called the skill-driven curriculum, where students deal entirely with facts which they describe as intellectually less engaging. Teachers have little space to provide students with opportunities to interact, assimilate, appropriate and develop personal experience in relation to the knowledge attained. As expected, students reported that their role in English classes was to sit and listen to the teachers, as in Extract 9.

**Extract 9**

580: Student 1: I think sometimes it depend on the teacher ( ) the teacher is the to force

581: you to perform better ( ) sometime the teacher don’t let you to say anything نحن ما نناقش حاجة بالإذان بتنا الإنجليزي تقول كلام بقطعه نسمع به [we don’t know anything

582: particularly in English you say something you will be interrupted we just listen]

Learning in such situations is not treated as a meaning-making process that values risk taking. Interestingly, this is because, as the students reported, risk-taking could be punished instead of encouraged and rewarded, particularly if perceived by the teacher as a criticism of what is being taught, as is clear in Extract 10, lines 443 to 445. The lesson students seem to have learned through experience, therefore, is that you should keep your views to yourself to avoid being blacklisted; see lines 448 and 449. Students’ views were therefore not valued, needed or respected, as shown in lines 452 to 454.

**Extract 10**

441: Student 5: I mean عموما في السودان هنا ما تقدر تقول رأيك يعني مثل دكتور قدامك قال حاجة انت قمت ب

442: اعتراضت اكر حيث تلقى نفسك F

443: [generally here in Sudan you cannot express your views I mean for example if the doctor (referring to the lecturer) in front of you says something and you oppose him]
They thought that they did not need to study hard because the ultimate goal of learning English in schools, as they reported, was to score high marks in examinations. This can be seen in Extract 11, lines 36 to 39, and suggests that learning English is not intended to develop students’ linguistic abilities, as it should, but only to pass examinations and therefore fulfil curricular requirements. This could also be perceived as a direct cause of the emphasis on facts and content learning, as is obvious in lines 45 and 48 concerning “perfect answers” and also evident in Extracts 5 and 6 cited earlier.

**Extract 11**  
36: Student 1: I think all ( ) what our teachers are concern about in our high school is  
37: only to get high scores in English by teaching us grammar because scores of grammar  
38: are the highest in all examination ( ) that is why they want us to be ( ) to get use  
39: English for examination and not in our general life  

45: Student 1: {yeah I have just to put perfect answer ( ) without}  
46: Facilitator: [perfect  
47: answer?  
48: Student 1: ((continues)) yeah without changing anything

Such an educational emphasis inculcates in students the belief that the best route to success and eventually to progress onto the next learning stage is through rote learning, as is clearly stated in Extract 12, lines 808, 809, 811 and 812. Abilities such as problem-solving, analysis and the logical evaluation of acquired knowledge become secondary or even unimportant. The dominant practice therefore is to “give back the information given” or you will fail, as seen in lines 814 to 816. Again, as explained in Extract 5, memorisation and the regurgitation of information resurface in lines 814 to 816, which clearly suggest that students strictly
follow teachers’ instructions and are not provided with opportunities to explore and develop personal experience with the material learned; see line 816.

**Extract 12**

794: Student: [my addition for the schools where I studied ( ) of course I studied in Algazeera in Shiek Lutfi Secondary School so ( ) the main aim was not to learn but basically to obtain marks ( ) how to get marks in order to progress ( ) and not how to learn ( ) therefore in those days I was among those who hated English] we have a teacher is very lazy ( (laughter)) he say if you don’t want my lesson go out ( (laughter)) the hostel is very near the school ( ) you go to sleep [this is the only reason why we neglected] English language grammar composition and ( ) or to protect your position or to convince yourself that you did something ( ) these are the reasons ( ) therefore you must be obliged to follow the points ( ) do this do this if you deviated ( ) I mean the teacher will not give you marks if you digressed] you will fail ( (laughter) ) حتى و لو أذاك نفسه الصبيع و انت غبت الصبيع الاكذب ما حا يتقام معك اذم يعني انت تتشغل بالمنهج بتاعة فكره بتاعة اللهو دارو ما ما [even if you write what he taught you and you change a little bit what you were given he will not accept that ( ) you must ( ) I mean follow his instructions strictly the way he wants and no no ( ) you are not free ( )

II. English Classes Mainly Focus on Grammar

Students reported that their English classes mainly focused on grammar. No discussion or any kind of extended discourse encouraged them to come up with other alternatives, as is obvious in Extracts 11 above and 13 below in lines 33 and 34.

**Extract 13**

33: Student 2: ( (continues)) we study grammar points and listening and not encourage us to be imaginative in our study [I mean all of it] grammar

The emphasis, as expected in such classes, is always on rules and language structure, which ignores the interactive nature of language which could provide learners with richly diverse examples of how grammatical items are used. This is certainly true when grammar is taught out of context and when there is no relationship between the language taught in the class and
the one spoken outside it, as in Extract 11, line 39. As commonly observed in the literature, an emphasis on language structure is ineffective in assisting students to develop a self-motivated attitude to learning the language. This is because students are not required to communicate, but only to provide correct answers, as in Extract 11, line 45. This culture of “correct answers” is unfortunately a widespread practice, as the students reported, not only in English classes but in other subjects too. This is a further indication that critical thinking is not a favoured option in English learning and teaching in general. As the student in Extract 14 eloquently put it, in primary school they study to avoid punishment, while in secondary school to score marks for promotion.

Extract 14
407: Student 2: in primary ( ) primary school we answer to avoid punishment only in
408: secondary to give correct answer
409: Facilitator: ((laughter)) just to give correct answers and to look for marks
410: Student 2: so that you move to the next class

Surprisingly, students also reported that their teachers in English classes spoke in Arabic instead of English, as can be seen in Extract 15, lines 36 and 37. Consequently, one student reported in line 37 that she lost the English she had learned in primary school when she reached secondary level; others agreed.

Extract 15
36: Student 6: ((continues)) and the meaning at the lecture talk by Arabic we talk meaning
37: by Arabic not by English ( ) in my secondary I forget all my English because we are
38: not ( )
39: Facilitator: ((interrupting)) {taught}
40: Student 6: ((continues)) taught ( ) we are not take enough English

When asked about the dictionaries they used, as expected, all reported English-Arabic translations, as in Extract 16. This supports the class observations in which all of the dictionaries used were English–Arabic and not English–English. They indicated that when checking the meaning of a word in an English-English dictionary, they often encountered a lot of new words which obscured their comprehension; see lines 700, 701 and 703. This
example shows that the teaching encouraged direct translation from English to Arabic. Interestingly, Kozulin (2002) described this kind of teaching as offering poor mediation. When an L2 is taught as a coding system which simply translates L2 words into the L1, learners become severely handicapped in both comprehension and expression in the L2. However, if the purpose of studying L2 is mediated in terms of the ability to comprehend and formulate meaningful expression, learners become capable of using the language and develop competence in both comprehension and expression. The former, unfortunately, fits the situation of the students in this study.

Extract 16
697: Facilitator: when you search a word in dictionary do you look for explanation
698: explanation in Arabic or explanation in English?
699: Students: (all together) in Arabic
700: Student 1: تجميل مصطلح [because in English translation
701: you find difficult words]
702: Facilitator: you find another difficult word
703: Student 1: another difficult word ( ) difficult

III. Scaling Up of English Results
Students also revealed that English scores in the Sudan school examinations are usually scaled-up or squared, as is clear in Extract 17, so that the results they got were often not their actual scores. Surprisingly, even the teachers informally contacted by the present author confirmed the truth of this. But if the students knew that their scores would be scaled-up, why should they study hard in that subject? What immediate incentives would compel them to read or write more? This could have a detrimental effect on their performance, sending the message that they do not need to work hard in order to improve their English standards because, even if they fail, their results will be increased, as seen in lines 907, 909 and 910.

Extract 17
907: Student 6: the result we get is squared
908: Students: it is true
909: Student 6: إن نتائج 40 بدخل جزء بتمشي فوق 50 [if you get 40 they will increase it in
910: such a way that you will get more than 50]
4.2.2 Students’ Attitudes Towards Writing

In attempt to answer question 1 section 3.1, concerning students’ attitudes towards writing, this section examined their attitudes before and after the intervention as well as their experiences of process approach in writing.

A. Students’ Attitudes Before the Intervention

Students’ attitudes towards writing before the intervention were mixed. Some claimed to enjoy writing, while others reported disliking it, as can be seen in Extract 18, lines 76, 133 and 144. To examine further their writing skills, analysis of pre-test results and the written assignments at the beginning of the intervention revealed, as expected, that they had poor writing skills. Various reasons could explain this as illustrated below.

Extract 18
76: Student 1: I don’t like writing ( )
133: Student 7: ((continues)) yes concerning me I like to write
144: Student 8: I like writing because ( ) when I write my writing uh uh the quality of my
145: writing will be good

I. Lack of Basic Skills in Paragraph Writing

Despite mixed attitudes towards writing, the study found that students lacked basic paragraph writing skills in English. Even those who claimed to like writing, could not distinguish between main and controlling ideas, what a paragraph should contain, or how to start or conclude it, as can be seen in Extract 19. During the post focus groups interviews, they mentioned that although they had been given writing tasks in secondary schools, they were never taught how to write a paragraph in English. Therefore, the experience gained during the intervention markedly improved their writing skills, as was obvious in their post- and delayed test results (see sections 4.1.1 to 4.1.3).
Extract 19
120: Student 21: in addition teacher ( ) yes uh I agree with my colleague uh I am got uh
121: some changing in the way of writing ( ) because in the past uh there is some
122: challenges uh face of me of me of uh how to put the writing uh at a good way ( )
123: began from what and end by what ( ) but uh now I’m seeing uh there this course ( )
124: some there are some results uh I am got it ( ) it is very well uh how to began this
125: topic uh and how to end it uh and to make the reader ( ) to make the reader uh who
126: are going to read uh make it to know ( ) yes ( ) there is something uh concern which
127: the topic is talking about

Their lack of paragraph writing skills could be attributed to the fact that they had no regular composition classes at primary or secondary school. Surprisingly, some even reported never having had English writing classes throughout primary and secondary levels and that they only encountered English compositions in examinations, as seen in lines 153 to 154 and 805 to 810 in Extract 20.

Extract 20
153: Student 9: I like writing but in Secondary School the teacher not give me the topic
154: for writing uh uh not in Secondary School or in Primary = in Primary ( )Basic {

805: Student 6: to 810 in Extract 20.

806: [you write a composition for example about a particular topic ( ) you write about it ( ) I never wrote a composition except in examination only in examinations in the first
809: the second the third and the final term I mean I was never given a composition in a
810: lesson]

Those who had English composition classes indicated that these amounted to only four or five lessons per year, as in Extract 21, line 792. These were mainly guided or controlled compositions where they were provided with points to write about, as in lines 744, 745 and 746. In controlled composition as experienced by the present author, students are given a topic and sub-topics, including the organisation that they should follow when writing. Occasionally, they are even provided with the necessary vocabulary. This suggests that students had never had the opportunity to engage in genuine writing at secondary school where they planned, organised and constructed writing on their own. This poor exposure to writing was, surprisingly, reported not only with English but also Arabic; see lines 789 to
793. However, the situation was worse in English which they described as a neglected language with very few activities being undertaken (line 747) or even considered important, as in line 788.

**Extract 21**

المدارس تختلف يعني في المدارس التي تتعلُّمنا فيها ما أظن انو بلدك حامه كده تكتب عنه حتى و:

740: Student 12: I don’t think they

741: لو بلدك دافع بلدك ايه بي نقطين بلدك ايه كموضوع عامه و بلدك فيه نقطتين يعني ما

742: ضروري تنخرج خارج الأطروح بعدين المشكله دافع انتشاط الإنجليزي ما كثير

743: [schools differ ( ) I mean ( ) in the schools where we learned ( ) I don’t think they]

744: give something like that to write about even if you are given ( ) they would be

745: provided with points to follow ( ) I mean they would give it as a general topic

746: supported with points ( ) I mean it would not be necessary to deviate ( ) again the

747: problem in fact is that there are no many activities in English]

786: Facilitator: [also in English] بانجليزي يرضو

787: Student 12: [NO NO in English we had but not

788: often and not important]

789: في السنة كلها بالعربي يعني بيكون زي 8 كده بالعربي السنة كلها انجليزي: 13

790: يرفق 5 سنة كامله بس كراس فيه 4 انشاء

791: [for a whole year in Arabic ( ) I mean there could be like eight or nine like that ( ) in

792: Arabic for a whole year ( ) in English it could be four or five for a complete year ( )

793: a notebook with only four compositions] ([Laughter])

Many seemed to perceive writing as a linear and straightforward business once a person had the ideas. Unexpectedly, when asked about the problems they faced in writing in English, all suggested spelling, as can be seen in Extract 22.

**Extract 22**

133: Student 5: Arabic no problem ( ) but in English my spelling ( ) {very bad}

146: Student 2: for me it only spelling

However, after the investigation of their written work, it was clear that they suffered a problem with ideas generation, as can be seen in Appendix 6 (A & B). They also lacked the ability to judge the logical flow of ideas in their writing. So they could not identify discrepancies amongst ideas in their written texts, as can also be deduced from Extract 23 and subsequent extracts.

**Extract 23**

253: Facilitator: is difficult ( ) writing is difficult?

254: Student 6: \[no not writing but to put the points and ( ) the: uhh recommendation

255: something like that I want to write ( ) I write too general
Students claimed that they were not taught free composition at school in which, as opposed to controlled composition, they would be offered more than one topic to choose from without being provided with any form of assistance. But they were unable to precisely differentiate between free and controlled composition, even though they vigorously insisted during the first focus interviews that they had not been taught free writing; see Extract 24. The present author’s survey of recent Sudan School Examinations suggests that students do conduct free composition; however, what could not be determined for certain is whether or not it is taught at school.

**Extract 24**

745: Student 6: no: there is no free composition they give you option ( ) option ( ) option
746: you choose what you can write about it
747: Facilitator: but that is = that is the free composition
748: Student 8: not free composition it give you ( ) three or four you must write one of
749: them one of them or to choose one of them
750: Facilitator: but are you being help with some point in each topic?
751: Student 8: yes they will give some points
752: Facilitator: 
753: يعنى مثلا لحظة كلما يدومم مثلًا ثلاثة مواضيع تختار منهم واحد كويسم هل كل موضوع
754: يدومم له يدومم بعض النقاط عشان تساعده بيه نفسه؟
755: [I mean for example whenever you were given say like three topics and you choose
756: one are you provided with points on every topic to help you in writing?]
756: Students: NO:: NO = NO

II. Students Provided with Models of Written Composition

The most striking finding is that the students reported that, even in English composition classes where they were supposed to think and express themselves, they were often provided with written models which they had to memorise and later put into their Sudan School Examination papers, as can be seen in Extract 25. This suggests that even composition is treated like any other content area, where the goal is not to improve students’ writing abilities but to regurgitate models. Interestingly, even on occasions where they were not presented
with models they were often provided with ready-written introductions and conclusions. Their role would therefore be to write the text body which, their teachers told them, was not considered during scoring; see lines 895 to 899.

**Extract 25**

880: Student 8: Compositions
881: زي استاذ بنا اجحذي جاء كتب لينا اربع بنا شهادة سودانية كتب لينا اربع
882: [like our English teacher wrote four topics for Sudan Certificate he wrote to us four
883: compositions to memorised ( ) he told us one of them would come in the exam ( )
884: we memorised the four of them just as they were written]
885: Student 6: [until you start the exam you will not know what topic will come]
886: [even teacher ( ) the introduction and the conclusion is made ready and you would
887: be shown how to write it and you would be made to memorise them and your role is
888: the exam is just to pour down anyone that comes ( ) just write]
889: [but what if none of the spotted topics did
890: not come in the exam?]
891: لا اذا ما جاك اي واحد فيهم الافقت البدانه يتكون حافظة واخذت الافقت الباقي بلا تعلم من عندك 6
892: [if none of them comes you had memorised the introduction and the
893: conclusion then you just write the remaining part]
894: Student 8: [they also tell us
895: that in marking they (referring to teachers who mark) only concentrate on the
896: introduction and the conclusion not the middle] ([laughter])

The idea that teachers can write model compositions for students to memorise clearly suggest that composition topics included in the Sudan School Examinations are repeated and recycled over the years. Experienced teachers can easily spot topics likely to recur in any particular year, as seen in Extract 26. This brings into question the trustworthiness of the Sudan School Examination itself.

**Extract 26**

874: Student 10: [that is if you don’t exert your own effort you would never learn
875: anything ( ) and another thing I want to add ( ) in composition the guided
876: composition
877: the Sudanese in the Sudan School Examinations often get to know the compositions
878: which we
879: are given ( ) one really get surprised ( ) I mean ( ) the passage which they write =
880: they write it in advance ( ) even I found these in some previous Sudan School
881: Certificates ( ) then they would remove some words from within] the composition
882: [and then they would instruct you]
883: [and they will list these words on the top ( ) and then they would instruct you]
884: complete = complete the composition below ( ) fill in the blank with the words in
885: red pen in a suitable place
III. Letter Writing

One writing genre students were found to be familiar with was letter writing. According to the pre-focus groups interviews, they were taught this genre extensively at school in both Arabic and English, as is evident in Extract 27.

**Excerpt (27)**

425: Student 7: how to write letters is the first thing that we are taught
426: Facilitator: even in Arabic = even in Arabic?
427: Student 7: yes even in Arabic or English

They repeatedly referred to letter writing whenever they talked about their writing experience. However, surprisingly, even when writing letters, they reported that they never had opportunities to write freely. Most letters-writing at school was also controlled composition, as shown in Extract 28. They were either provided with questions to answer as a method of controlling their writing, as cited from primary level, or given information including the addresses they should write to, as experienced in secondary schools (see Appendix 9). In none of these cases were students engaging in cognitively demanding writing where they needed to use craft to produce original texts of their own creation.

**Extract 28**

647: Student 1: letters في المدرسة لكن لن ندرسها ببحظونا
648: مفروض letters to express yourself
648: منحن حصة في المدرسة ببحظوننا لها الكتاب قاعدة في شكل مراحل
650: نحفظ الكلام في المراحل حتى العناوين داير ترسل له الجواب
651: [we were taught letters’ writing in the school when we were taught we were made to
652: memorise letters and letters are suppose to be to express yourself that is to complete
653: something to approve something but in school we memorise them ( ) you find the
654: book is written in form of squares you memorise what is written in a square
655: including the address that you want to send the letter to] ((laughter))

B. Students’ Attitudes After the Intervention

Students’ attitudes and writing ability improved dramatically after the intervention. Most admitted that previously they had not the slightest idea about paragraph writing in English.

However, after learning how to write a paragraph, writing became more interesting and
easier. They developed a clear understanding of concepts of main and controlling ideas, and how to start and end paragraphs, as is noticeable in Extract 29. They learned to judge the consistency of ideas and how to maintain paragraph’s coherence and the logical progress of the text. They hailed this as newly gained skills and insight from the intervention, which led to remarkable improvements in argumentative writing skills, as was evident in their post- and delayed test results (see sections, 4.1.1 to 4.1.3).

Extract 29
568: Student 17: for me it has changed ( ) because last time when I was in Secondary ( ) I
do write only when things are given to me and some points are there uh uh then I
write about these points ( ) then like that then I move from point to point and then ( )
I don’t even think about what is uh what are the transitional words to use ( ) to
connect these things together that was a problem from from this lesson ( ) I got that
but now as far as ( ) this course I manage to deal with them in a way uh if that not
up-to-date uh can be good or fair in that situation better than that uh was very poor
and secondary uh was actually very poor indeed ( ) but now it becomes fair pushing
a little bit to good ( ) but very good but pushing from fair to good in between fair
and good ( ) hope that running time maybe ( ) better to very good and excellent
581: Student 1: yes

I. Provision of Evidence in Writing
During the first focus interviews, students had no idea about the role and importance of evidence in argumentative writing. In fact, they had never engaged in argumentative writing before, even in the Arabic language. The reason they gave was that most writing they did in schools was expressivist, in which they either recounted their own experiences or narrated and described facts referred to earlier. This kind of writing needs no evidence, as they stated. What was needed was to express oneself, as is clear in Extract 30, lines 80 to 85. Supporting a viewpoint with evidence in writing was new to most of them, as seen in lines 86 and 88.

Extract 30
80: Student 16: Yeah when you explain yourself uh you can uh you not needed to uh
evidence and reasons = just explain yourself ( ) what you want what you can do uh
what you what you see in the past and definition and uh uh description something ( )
but in in uh when write or read text that is uh it depended what you know ( ) what
your background what evidence what your reasons all sort so it is very different ( )
we cannot learn that this type of the read ( ) or write text in our secondary School or
high school we cannot learn that ( ) so I think it is very new to us
87: Facilitator: it is very new to you?
After the intervention, one of the new skills they appreciated was supporting claims with evidence, as could be seen in Extract 31.

Extract 31
234: Student 16: yes I can distinguish uh before this course uh before this course we
235: ignore that’s point ( ) that point we ignore evidence ( ) but after the course we we
236: have seen its importance ((there was interruption a worker just came in looking for
237: something))

239: Student 19: I think evidence is very important uh for the uh reader and the writer the
240: reader is uh explaining your point to ( ) the writer explaining your point to uh to the
241: reader

C. Students’ Experience of the Process Approach in Writing

To gain wider understanding of the students’ writing background before the intervention and their progress afterwards, their knowledge of the process approach before and after the intervention was investigated. This approach emphasises the cognitive processes involved in writing, encouraging learners to apply systematic thinking in writing to explore their ideas and composition strategies. Four elements of a context should be considered when writing: the audience, the generation of ideas, the organisation of the text, and its purpose. Each element is investigated separately below.

I. Audience

The students showed a lack of familiarity with the concept of their audience (readers) when writing, which can be attributed to the fact that they never wrote for readers other than their teachers, as is apparent in Extract 32. Most of their writing in and outside schools was, moreover, expressivist and dealt with personal issues.

Extract 32
203: Facilitator: [You don’t write except in school?]
204: Student 12: [only in school] ((this was followed by laughter from the
205: whole group))
Surprisingly, they also reported that even in Arabic they never wrote for an audience outside school. Even those who claimed to have written on the internet reported that this involved informal issues in conversations using colloquial rather than formal Arabic; see Extract 33.

**Extract 33**

Student 1: sometimes you go to internet and find topic

[NO no just I

213: \( \text{لا لا ما يعني بس يجب أكتب يعني حاجات يعني شخصية أو حق المدرسة:} \) 13 only like to write about things () about my own private things or school work]

However, even though there was a slight change in their perceptions after the intervention, their responses did not reflect practical experience, because even then they did not write for an audience apart from their teacher.

II. Multi-drafts

Their lack of awareness of the audience was also reflected in their lack of understanding of the importance of the multi-draft system in writing. During the first focus interviews, they said that they did produce many drafts when writing as a process of clarifying their ideas, as in Extract 34.

**Extract 34**

245: Facilitator: OK () there is a say that the more you make multi-draft () I mean multi-

246: draft () more than one draft تعامل الكتابة الأول كراءات ثاني تعبد الصياغة ثاني تعبد الصياغة [you

247: write () read it you revise it again and you revised it again] {

248: Students: [several times Yeah

249: (group of them together)

251: Student 1: yes= yes

However, when taught multi-drafting during the intervention, it became apparent that all they meant was surface revision focusing mainly on grammatical errors. Interestingly, even after
the intervention, still they did not appreciate multi-draft processes, seeing it as necessary for tightening up the writing but time consuming, tedious and boring, as evident in Extract 35.

**Excerpt (35)**

250: Student 17: actually ( ) I want to say something ( ) I actually I love making several drafts is is good to come out with a good piece of writing ( ) but tedious uh uh takes time ( ) is boring tedious and boring ( ) because you do this and repeat some some of things you omitted ( ) meanwhile ( ) that thing before you omit it maybe it is important ( ) sometimes it depend on how you judge things ( ) because while you write things then again when you come you omit some of things ( ) if you are not carefully and having wisdom ( ) you may ( ) you have no wisdom ( ) you may omit the one which is important and take the one which has got no uh which has no nothing to do and leave it there ( ) in the piece to make the piece of writing meaningful ( ) so sometimes writing ( ) uh several drafts is good and it is bad in that manner ( ) if you are not careful and having a wisdom you may omit some important points ( ) because writing several drafts you write the first then you read it again you read it again then ( ) see whether they are coherent or not ( ) then again you come and write some of things which are not there ( ) you insert it and some which are not suppose to be there ( ) you omit it ( ) my problem here is that to omit the one which is suppose to be there ( ) sometimes I omit the very important points this is the problem which is facing me ( ) but it is good = it is good to come out with a very nice writing for the people to enjoy reading it ( ) yes

Since they used handwritten scripts in which any change required a re-writing of the whole text, it could be judged tedious and time consuming. However, the major problem seemed to be cognitive. Students seemed to think that, once they had set down their ideas, they did not have anything else to add; an attitude typical of poor writers. They were unable to realise that re-writing involves not only surface revision but the refinement of ideas in a more logical manner leading to a better product. For them, revising their written thoughts would lead to confusion rather than improvement, as is noticeable in lines 260 to 267. This could be part of an ideas generation problem and more globally, a cognitive problem in writing. It is worth mentioning that, each time they were asked to rewrite their texts, they were offered written feedback on how they could further improve them.
III. Proofreading

Students’ perceptions of proofreading scarcely changed after the intervention. As a means of clarifying meaning in Arabic or English, some reluctantly claimed that they appreciated proofreading as a good writing technique but felt that they should only give their work to close friends; see Extract 36, line 489. Others thought that they should trust their writing ability and not give texts to others for proofreading; lines 479 and 480. Some reported to have never given their work to be proofread by others; see lines 475, 476 and 477. Even though they were encouraged to proofread each other’s work during the intervention, none had done so, fearing harsh criticism from their peers and not thinking that they were competent to offer constructive feedback.

Extract 36
475: Student 20: it is important teacher ( ) but I am never do that before ( ) I never do that
476: before uh when I wrote something to somebody ( ) when I am finish it uh I sent it
477: just send it ( ) I am not let somebody to know it
478: Student 24: مفروض أكون واثق من كتابتي ما ضروري أنو زول تاني يقرأه
479: [I should be confidence of my writing and it is not necessary to give it to somebody
480: else to proofread it]
489: Student 22: but just your friend ((laughter))

Perhaps they had not grasped the wisdom of proofreading to clarify meaning and gain insight as to how both readers and writers negotiate meaning, enabling the writer to identify where he/she has communicated his/her ideas clearly and whether or not the text is well organised.

IV. Pre-writing Activities

When asked before the intervention about the pre-writing activities they employed before finally writing, they unexpectedly showed awareness of activities such as thinking about the topic, planning, and listing main points, as is clear in Extract 37.

Extract 37
196: Student 7: the first time is to think about what your passage or you want to look for
197: reading to think ( ) and to take your address = to see this address this compatible
198: with this passage I want to read (}
However, this knowledge was not reflected in their written assignments accomplished at the beginning of the intervention. One obvious reason, again, was lack of practical experience. They had never engaged in demanding writing tasks creating and crafting a text on their own. However, after the intervention they demonstrated a proper understanding as well as practical knowledge of pre-writing activities, as can be seen in Extract 38 and also demonstrated in their written assignments performed towards the end of the intervention and in their post- and delayed test results (see sections 4.1.1 to 4.1.3).

**Extract 38**

143: Student 17: of course = of course they are important ( ) because without these things
144: you may not organise your writing uh writing will not come in organise form ( )
145: because pre-writing is good uh because when you put the point down ( ) then uh in
146: form of plan then after that you pick which one come first ( ) when you write about
147: each point you look ( ) then you re-arrange which one will make them coherence ( )
148: link them together ( ) will be good ( ) but if you just write without making pre-
149: writing or making plan ( ) it will be just a piece of writing in disorganise manner ( )

**V. Purpose**

Unsurprisingly students demonstrated a clear understanding of the importance of purpose in writing both before and after the intervention. The responses they offered were consistent, as depicted in Extract 39, line 288, indicating that they saw no reason for writing if there was no objective and purpose to be achieved.

**Extract 39**

278: Facilitator: you must have a reason ( ) or a title or a topic ( ) DO you think it is
279: important? Do you always keep this in mind when you are writing something?
280: Student 6: I think so
286: Student 8: it is important
288: Student 7: if you have no a reason why you are going to write?
4.2.3 Students’ Reading Experiences

Reading was an integral part of the study postulated to inform writing, and students’ reading experience, knowledge of the reading-writing relationship and their judgement of sources before and after the intervention was explored.

A. Students’ Reading Experiences Before and After the Intervention

It was found that students were not only poor in writing but also in reading skills. Some claimed during the first focus groups interviews to read (mostly science books), while others said they read in their leisure time without elaborating; see Extract 40. On reading for pleasure, it was observed during the discussions that they did not read novels, or there were none as school textbooks. The materials they read occasionally or on a regular basis, were newspapers mostly in Arabic. Further investigation revealed that they did not read a lot outside school, as gleaned from lines 1043, 1045 and 1082 to 1084. Unsurprisingly, some suggested that they could not afford books; see lines 1062 to 1066.

Extract 40
1034: Student 6: [newspapers] جرائد
1035: Student 8: [I read books a lot but only science books] يقرأ كتاب كثير لكن كتاب علمي
1043: Student 7: [I read] Readers
1044: Facilitator: Readers?
1045: Student 7: Readers one up to two [however I complemented the rest with newspapers and other things]
1060: Student 8: [the question that we could ask why Sudanese don’t read ( ) because books are expensive I mean the price of books is high I mean if you bring a book from abroad is more cheaper but because there is increase in taxes ( ) today if I admired a book and it is for 45 pounds where will I get the 45 pounds to read it]
1080: Student 7: [nowadays I see many people read newspapers and listen to radio but you rarely see them reading books this is an observation I have also observed I mean people are interested only on daily events current daily events]

لا يمكن تسأل سؤال ليه السودانيين ما يقرأ لأن الكتب بفظ يغلب عليه يقرأ الكتب سعرها دافع يعنى: مثلًا لو حبيب كان من برر أخر من ليس السودانيين عيان الضرائب عرب القروش يعنى انا الليلة في كتب
عبني كن بي45 جنبي انا القيل و45 من وين عسان أقرأ
لكن انا بلاحظ انه أكثر الناس ي режند و يستمتعوا لراديو لكن ما يقرأوا الكتب ده
ملحوظه انا لاحظه يعني أفكارات الناس تائفين بحبوه اشية يومية اشية جاري يومية
واليوم انا بلاحظ كثرة الناس يقارنوا و يقرأوا اشية يومية كثيرة في الصحف والجرائد، لذلك لا يمكن نسبيها إلى التسهيلات المادية أو الفنية. ونتوجه إلى有一天人們會不把書視為稀有物，而會把每一天都當成是閱讀的一天。
Interestingly, some of them played down the importance of reading given the prominence of radio, television and multi-media formats, as seen in Extract 41, which offer more enjoyable programmes than reading about the same subjects. This suggests that, with the availability of such facilities, this group of students thought that reading has become redundant. It also showed their lack of reading habits, as is clear in the subsequent sections.

Extract 41
951: Student 2: بقى منتشر ومصادر الإعلام عندك راديو يسهل أكثر من القراءة Multimedia
952: و التلفزيون أسهل من القراءة و الإنترنت يسهل أكثر من القراءة
953: بطريقة بناع Multimedia برضو أسهل و طريقة من القراء
954: [Multimedia is wide spread you have media facilities radio is convenience more than
955: reading and the television is
easier than reading and internet is more convenience than reading and the
956: multimedia way is also easier and nicer than reading]
957: Student1: [I اشتهى برامج تلفزيونية على حيوان أو شقة في التلفزيون أفضل من ان تقرأ في كتاب
958: watch a television programme about an animal if I watch it on the television is far
959: better than reading about it in a book]

Their poor reading skills were also observed during the early stages of the intervention. Though the reading materials offered were judged to be within their level of proficiency, they encountered great difficulty in comprehending them. They later claimed that the intervention encouraged them to read more and, as a result, enriched their vocabulary; see Extract 42.

Extract 42
598: Student 20: in addition to that teacher ( ) my evaluation to this course is that ( ) this
599: course uh uh are encourage the the somebody who are going to study something uh
600: like when you are come here at the beginning ( ) this course are encourage me to go
601: and read ( ) because when you are uh given us the sheet this sheet everything is not
602: given and uh when I am going to read it ( ) I am going to read it ( ) how can I
603: understand what is within this sheet?
604: something concern me ( ) when I am in Senior Secondary School ( ) I am study
605: course English for three years and those vocabulary I got uh I got there is not
606: enough ( ) maybe I will mention them ( ) when I am came here this vocabulary
607: when I learned uh it here uh some vocabulary different give us uh the very high
608: vocabulary ( ) when I am listening to the BBC English uh I am understand what the
609: pub pub publisher has talking about ( ) I am understand = I am very = I am very
610: very happy glad ( ) because I am understand people who are talking English ( ) but
611: before I never = I will get some some vocabulary uh maybe it will uh be this is and
612: this is what I am understand ( ) but now I am re::ally re::ally glad
The most striking finding, however, was that some reported that the level of vocabulary they gained during the intervention exceeded that of the entire three years of secondary school; see lines 609, 610 and 611. Such vocabulary gains encouraged them to read and also to listen to the BBC World Service; see lines 612 to 617. One of them expressed happiness that he could now listen to and understands the news in English. Another claimed to have learned new words never encountered before, such as “fallacy”; see Extract 43. Extracts 42 and 43 clearly show that the intervention enriched their vocabulary and improved their reading skills. This progress could have helped enhance their writing ability, as shown in their post- and delayed test results (see sections 4.1.1 & 4.1.2). This suggests that the use of reading as a model for writing as employed in this study enabled students to improve their abilities in both skills.

**Extract 43**

586: Student 17: [yes I benefited a lot of things] ( ) yes I have
587: benefited a lot from some words ( ) I have some vocabularies which I have not seen
588: before ( ) I found them it was very nice like fallacy uh I didn’t know what was
589: fallacy before uh I was just uh I have never come across it even ( ) just found it in a
590: paper this fallacy uh and this land

**B. Students’ Knowledge of the Reading-Writing Relationship**

The improvements observed in their reading and writing skills also provided them with new insights into the relationship between the two domains. During the first focus group interviews they were asked if they felt there was any such relationship; most gave vague answers. Some claimed that they might be related in English, but not in Arabic; see Extract 44, lines 683, 684 and 685. Others thought there could be a relationship, but they were not sure; as shown in lines 690 and 691. These answers imply limited knowledge of the nature of the relationship between reading and writing even in terms of the strategies used in both fields, as could be deduced from Extract 44.
Their answers did not change significantly after the intervention, but reflected better understanding. They were able to pinpoint thinking and the internal negotiation of meaning as a common thread; see Extract 45, lines 451 to 455. They also reported that they could not write without reading and vice versa, lines 463 and 464. Some even suggested that reading and writing should be taught together, lines 459 and 460. This demonstrates that they had developed a better understanding of the nature of the relationship between the two skills and that they were inextricably linked.

Extract 45

448: Student 17: yes yes that is a common factor ( ) yes ( ) because while writing ( ) you
time is ( ) when you write ( ) you think you think and also while you are reading
450: you may read ( ) then while you read ( ) you will think also that what do this the
451: writer want to say ( ) you read it so let me read ( ) then I understand what he want to
452: say ( ) also while you write you put you think you put the point you try to arrange ( )
453: then this is a thinking also ( ) you want to make a piece of writing like what
454: somebody has done already ( ) and then you are so:: this is a common factor
455: thinking ( ) talking to yourself as a common factor to write ( ) yes
456: Facilitator: and so you think that reading and writing should be taught together? Do
457: you have a feeling that reading and writing should not be taught separately but
458: together?
459: Student 16: yes
460: Student 17: reading and writing should be taught together at the same time?
462: Student 16: yes ( ) I think when I write ( ) you said to me use ( ) you said to me use
463: re-writing ( ) if I write something I needed to read it and write it again ( ) write read
464: = write write read = write ( ) so: that makes connection between them ( ) so: it is
465: connect separate cannot uh sep a sep a {
their focus on language structure and reading techniques. In comprehension lessons they were trained more to identify reading techniques than truly interact with texts. This is obvious in the way they were taught how to answer comprehension questions in exams, where the emphasis was often on linguistic cues. During comprehension lessons teachers would instruct them that if they found a question, they should look for linguistic cues in the text that matched the words featured in the question. Once they found any, they should write down two or three lines before and after those word(s) and the correct answer would be found somewhere there. Or if they found a question starting with ‘why’ they should look for the word ‘why’ in the text. Once they found it, they should write down, starting from the sentence that followed it, up to the end of the paragraph; as seen in Extract 46. Such practices do not reflect good reading habits, and represent another form of rote learning of reading skills rather than encouraging intellectual engagement.

Extract 46
619: Student 2: [this is the popular method among teachers] if you have question by what wh questions you must go to the paragraph and take the word after stop aah after the comma and to.: stop ( ) all the you write
620: ايه ايها حتى في فثنوا الكلمة القريبة في السوء والانقل الكلمات: first start
621: somewhere بعدها من فوق أو تحتها و كده و كده الجواب الصحي حا يكون قاعد
622: ايه في النص: نحن في الثاني كان بندنا: zman envis in the compositions: model
623: الامتحان كان كتب: [this is popular method] model
624: inbound: نحن في الثاني كان بندنا: zman envis in the compositions: model
625: models
626: الامتحان كان كتب: نزلوا ذى ما ياه مرات يكون في اختلاف بسيط يكون نزلت حاجة ما عندن علاقه في: امتحان مثل بيكون في حاجه عندن اختلاف بسيط و ده يضع بعض الدرجات: models
627: الامتحان مثل بيكون في حاجه عندن اختلاف بسيط و ده يضع بعض الدرجات: models
628: [yeah yeah even from the first start they will tell you to look for the related word to the question then copy the lines above that word and below it sub-paragraph the correct answer lie some where there I mean in the middle ( ) in High School they use]
629: use
630: use
631: use
632: use

C. Students’ Ability to Judge the Credibility of Sources

As a result of new insights gained, students showed, as expected, improvements in their ability to judge the accuracy or otherwise of information in reading texts. They were also able to judge discrepancies between ideas in their own writing, which, they indicated, was a newly gained skill. This improvement in their reasoning ability enabled them to compare the
teaching system before the intervention with the intervention method itself. They thought that
the intervention offered appropriate strategies which addressed their needs as medical
students, as can be seen in Extract 47.

Extract 47
512: Student 16: I think you know ( ) we are all here we are students we are medical
513: students ( ) so the medicine it is logically it is specific it is uh this type of learning
514: uh uh we are study is put you in = in uh logical way ( ) in specific way ( ) so: that is
515: it is uh suitable and best solution to our problems uh if the problem we are facing in
516: the past that is uh we are uh when uh when we are write ( ) I write something like
517: mere talk write ( ) and just write just write explanation description ( ) don’t evidence
518: no view point no reason no ( ) but in this learn after this learn ( ) I think if I want to
519: write something association with me uh uh a view point new point evidence ()

Unsurprisingly, they also claimed that they now knew how to maintain focus in writing
which along with reasoning, were issues which they were ignorant about before the
intervention. This clearly indicates that they had developed some self-regulatory ability to
judge their performance and assess their strengths and weaknesses. This kind of awareness
was important in assisting them to develop some of the intrinsic motivation necessary to push
them towards better performance, as can be seen in their post- and delayed test results (see
sections 4.1.1 to 4.1.3).

4.2.4 Classroom Organisation

Various classroom activities were introduced to maximise students’ interaction and
discussion in order to enhance verbal argumentative and thinking abilities. In an attempt to
answer research question 3 section 3.1 concerning the role of interaction, this section
discusses the impacts of the lesson plan, class interactions, debate and other activities
employed on students’ thinking and writing skills.
A. Lesson Progress

The design and progression of lessons was a crucial factor behind the marked improvements in students’ thinking and writing skills, presenting students with ample chances to grasp what may have previously eluded them. Lessons often started with a discovery stage where, through general discussion, they were assisted and scaffolded. This was followed by small group discussions where students collaboratively accomplished tasks associated with the concepts discussed at the discovery stage as a practical application of what they had learned. This was then followed by group consultations and presentations which provided another opportunity for consolidating their understanding and therefore gaining more insight. Subsequent class discussion probed any remaining perplexing issues. Finally, the teacher provided feedback if he felt there was a need for further clarification. In such a rich environment weaker students had the chance to catch up, and needs and progress were monitored and addressed; see Extract 48. Each stage involved discussion and interaction among students, thereby fostering deeper understanding where any information presented was carefully thought out, analysed and evaluated by the students themselves. As is obvious from the preceding sections, the students had never had such opportunities in their traditional classes.

Extract 48
541: Student 17: very nice uh uh yes ( ) because first of all we are grouped ( ) then we
542: discuss uh then from small groups we move to the bigger group ( ) which is the
543: groups they joined together they unite their ideas then ( ) after that the ideas we
544: elaborate it out ( ) so by that way is good to make those who are weak to come up
545: with the uh with the others together ( ) is good ( ) because there are some proverbs
546: saying that uh many hands make work light many hand work light ( ) so what I have
547: seen that uh to do to start with small group and uh then join the bigger group and ( )
548: lastly the teacher ( ) it makes work light = it make other people to understand quick
549: ( ) it is very nice = very nice actually
B. Group Collaboration

At the beginning of the intervention, students did not appreciate small group work in accomplishing classroom tasks, and worked independently despite being in groups. During the first few lessons, they frequently referred to the teacher for assistance instead of their peers. This was understandable since they were used to an education system which often encourages solitary work, as in Extract 49. This student reflected on the first collaborative class work he experienced during the intervention, describing it as his first experience of engaging in a discussion involving students as well as the teacher in a class. Although it was a difficult experience, as he reflected, he appreciated it as a remarkable feeling to talk in a group without fear.

Extract 49

It a first time for me to have discussion in lesson with another persons. So today is very difficult for me because is the first time, and I think its beautiful day because it make me courage to talk among my classmate and teacher about different things, and also talking with no shy.

The spirit of competition dominant in the Sudan school system was an obstacle to group work at the beginning of the intervention since each student wanted to outperform the others. However, signs of cooperation gradually emerged when they became better acquainted with each other. Those who were good at English began to tutor and coach the weaker ones in their groups. Consequently, the teacher’s assistance came to be needed less. Towards the end of the intervention, students depended on their peers and resorted to the teacher only when their colleagues could not help. After the intervention, they commented that group sharing and collaboration was very useful, offering them a chance to learn from each other, as in Extract 50.

Extract 50

I find this strategy is good uh because if uh if in group uh something something of my colleague tell uh tell us something ( ) we not we not knowing before and I I I uh get this information ( ) I uh think about and ask him what
C. Classroom Activities

The improvements recorded in students’ written skills could also be attributed to classroom collaboration and the various learning activities they were involved in. Before the intervention their role had been to listen while teachers talked. As is clear in Extract 51, teachers often did not care whether or not their students understood the lesson, and had few means of assessing students’ needs and difficulties in order to help them to monitor progress. The lesson students seem to have learnt through experience was that, even if they had difficulties, they would get no attention, so they should keep silent, see lines 997 to 999.

Extract 51

993: Student 3: [in this way I have learned an evidence from this information and uh if you give evidence enough and and get information from a different person] that is why uh this strategy is good
994: [he just sits on a chair open the book and read from it that’s it all]
995: Student 1: [this is the method of teaching I mean there is a teacher who sits on a chair and talks]
996: [and talks he doesn’t care whether or not people hear him and if he is told to repeat]
997: repeat something he would just ignore you]

However, the situation changed dramatically when students were presented with classroom activities which they conducted collaboratively. They did not just sit and watch but were the main contributors involved in small group discussions, evaluations, presentations, negotiations, thinking, reading, writing, listening and planning. One of them suggested that the class was not teacher-centred but student-centred; see Extract 52, lines 658 and 659. They did not sit in the same place but moved around as tasks required, and learning became a social activity. The tasks given centred on concepts where they had to express their own views, discovering that in some situations there could be more than one correct answer to a question. They were engaged in thinking activities whereby they took ownership of their learning without interference from the teacher. Students felt involved and therefore
developed personal experience with the language, and creativity and risk-taking became part of the learning process. The teacher’s presence did not intimidate them and they felt free to talk, move and contribute, as seen in lines 661 to 665.

**Extract 52**
658: Student 20: strategy ( ) I am got teacher ( ) strategy here here is students in class in
659: classroom not teacher in classroom ( ) I am got comparing between this strategy and
660: that strategy in Senior Secondary School ( ) I am got more lot or uh more observe
661: that here ( ) the student feel free to talk in the class ( ) but there you are just listener
662: ( ) but here you are the uh who done = who done uh more something = more
663: something than uh the teacher teacher is to tell you the way an::d you you do it
664: practically ( ) but at Senior Secondary School ( ) you are just listener keep or to
665: collect information not to bring out your what what you know about

The challenging nature of the tasks students accomplished was related to the intervention’s classroom activities. They did not think that learning tasks at school were challenging or demanded rigorous thinking, as alluded to in the preceding sections, where they were provided with notes which they read, memorised and wrote out in exams. But during the intervention, they found learning tasks to be interesting and challenging too. They had to think and work things out on their own, since they were not provided with ready answers as can be seen in Extracts 52 and 53. One student indicated that his colleague abandoned participation in the study after the first lesson, citing the difficulty of the tasks; see lines 637 to 640. Another claimed that he had contemplated leaving the course for the same reason; see lines 650 to 652.

**Extract 53**
637: Student 22: OK uh before uh in the beginning uh it is re::ally difficult even uh my
638: colleague uh I don’t know his name ( ) he come just one day and he ran ( ) he said
639: Oh teacher أنت أصلت في اسمه شنو [what is wrong with this teacher] ((there was laughter)) so: if
640: you understand what topic mean ( ) it can it will uh be it will be uh easy for you ( )
641: if you just understand what is meaning = I mean ( ) point of view or reason it will be
642: easy
650: Student 23: in the beginning uh I want to leave this course ( ) because I am not = I am
651: not understanding anything ( ) but I after ( ) this some أنا وواصلت في اسمه شنو[I
652: continued in the so call what] I found something is good to me ( ) to have something
653: about the vocabulary and uh the and uh the how to develop your paragraph and uh
654: something like that ( ) something I am not study in primary and secondary
Students felt challenged and therefore worked hard to improve their performance. Thus, they gradually began to understand and appreciate the intervention, and learning became an activity that did not end within the school premises but involved self-motivated goals that extended outside. Students felt responsible for taking their learning to the next stage. This included identifying what to learn, how and why. They had never experienced this before, as mentioned in line 654.

D. Debate Session

Students enjoyed the debate, describing it as interesting and not only sharpening their argumentative skills but also enhancing their communication abilities, and demonstrating the ability to support arguments with evidence from various sources. One of the proponents of women’s rights to education, for example, argued that,

“in my opinion uh women should have the right to be educated...because education change the way a person uh uh ( ) think ( ) education change lifestyle...it is bad some men forbid women from school like Afghanistan ...we call for women rights ( ) we are in 21st century and some men forbid women from going to school...even is she is lucky to educated they will ask her to stay at home...scientist said educated women care for children better...women is the person who rear next generation ( ) training children ( ) how do we want our children to be good thinkers to be scientists and to be ( ) I mean ( ) to be effective people ( ) women يعنى هن عضو المجتمع [women I mean are the pillars of the society]”.

Another from the same group added:

“...I think there is no different between man and woman because when Lord created the world he said shall men live as fathers and mothers he cleave together and two shall be in one shade ( ) uh uh if they are in one shade uh there is no different between them... in fact education is important for woman than man”

They were also able to judge, analyse and identify the strengths and weaknesses of arguments presented by the opposing group. For example, one of the opponents of women’s rights to education higher than university degree level raised the argument that,

“... high education is not good for the women ( ) see Condoleezza Rice she got old she will never produce any children because of high education ( )...see today she here she is there she not stay in one place ( ) how can a man enjoy his wife if she is not at home all the time...
scientist say that if women is 40 years she cannot bear children ( ) the period of her age with 
man differ... uh uh who will marry a woman who cannot bear children....education is good 
but only just university enough”

One of the proponent group responded by saying that,

“our friend think that education is only for work ( ) he educate only to go to office and be a 
minister...yes Condoleezza is one...many man don’t marry...in my opinion education is not 
only for work you can educate to get knowledge...woman who go 40 are married even in 
Sudan ( ) high educate women do many good thing like man...many people don’t like many 
children...”

Students supported their positions with information drawn from science, religion, life 
experience or information from other countries such as Afghanistan. Such debate made them 
feel confident in their newly gained skills and, as a result, some reported that they had 
participated in debates outside the class without fear – something they claimed they had 
never done before the intervention; see Extract 54 lines 686 to 689. At the end of the 
intervention, they suggested that the number of debating sessions should be increased; see 
lines 713 and 714.

Extract 54

686: Student 22: yes ( ) I think debate it is very good ( ) because everybody feel uh feel ( )
687: [teacher before I don’t argue but now any topic for discussion I
688: participate because I gain some confidence and I participate with] evidence كده [like
689: that]

713: Student 22: yes ( ) I think debate it is very good ( ) because everybody feel uh feel ( )
714: to say something uh we need to add more debate that what I suggest

Evident during the group conference was the ability to consider wider issues relevant to the 
topic being discussed. For example, when discussing the 1990 higher education policies in 
which the Arabic language was made the medium of instruction at all levels, they were able 
to consider issues such as the future of foreign investment in the country, communication and 
relationships with other nations and the global dominance of the English language. They
argued that these issues should have been thoroughly considered before the policies were
implemented, as indicated in Extract 55.

**Extract 55**

We think this reasons only consider that student will study and communicate with his people in Sudan they never considered that about foreigner about foreign investment in Sudan because Sudan is growing … foreigners do come and invest in Sudan …. English is not their first language but they do speak English very fluently….. something should be sharing between us to able to communicate and this something should be English and it is English … the main language worldwide

Moreover, the same attitude of judging and considering an issue from different perspectives was conspicuous during the debate on women’s rights in comparing and contrasting feminist movements in the Sudan and other parts of the world. As a result, they developed lines of argument compatible with their beliefs and cultural norms. For example, Extract 56 clearly argues that the equality they were looking for would never go so far as calling for a child to be named after the mother, as she had read on the internet. The student was able to evaluate, compare and make a decision based on her understanding of Sudanese culture in terms of what is achievable in her context and what would be ideal or hard to achieve. Critical thinking requires a balance between reality on the ground, the ideal situation, and the possible means of achieving goals.

**Extract 56**

People now are looking uh for women rights in wrong way they are looking for equality as I said before that I heard in uh uh = I read that in Internet days before that now there is uh uh people are looking for the right that a new baby should take his mum’s name not his father and this is the ( ) this not the kind of equality ( ) and this no ( ) we don’t look for this ( ) this are in Europe and US

A further clear example of the students’ use of evidence to support their argument can also be seen in Extract 57. A dispute over the ancient Arabs’ role in the creation and advancement of knowledge arose as an issue, and one student cited a reference to defend his view. Similar attitudes were also seen in their post-test written work, suggesting that the students were able to make use of information obtained from various sources to support their points of view.
E. Students’ Flexibility and Open-mindedness

Comparing students’ flexibility in thinking before and after the intervention, remarkable changes were observed. When asked about what their reaction would be if faced with an argument they did not agree with, they initially exhibited a degree of rigidity in their views, ranging from “I will oppose you immediately”, as in Extract 58, line 424, to more vague responses suggesting a lack of clear strategies, such as in lines 425 to 428. In these responses, no open-mindedness is indicated in considering views opposed to their own.

Extract 58

424: Student 4: [I will oppose you immediately]
425: Student 2: if I write ( ) if I write surely I have a prove
426: Facilitator: you have to prove?
427: Student 2: yes ( ) I have to prove ( ) if I’m surely of what I am going talking to you
428: about

This attitude, however, seems to have softened after the intervention, when they mentioned giving themselves time to weigh the argument presented, evaluating evidence provided, doing some research if they had no background in the topic, and pondering over the issue before stating their views. They also mentioned that thinking before arguing is a good way of avoiding mistakes; see Extract 59. Such responses certainly reflect greater flexibility and open-mindedness.

Extract 59

355: Student 17: actually I will give myself time ( ) will give myself time ( ) because the
356: evidence of what he has raised or what I am going to convey it to him or ( ) to them
357: uh there are many evidence ( ) but I will look ( ) I will give time like while if he is
358: talking in debate ( ) may give some few uh few minutes to think over the evidence
359: ( ) so that then I select the best one ( ) but if in piece of writing if I get some
360: evidence ( ) and they are not related ( ) then I look I search I read some books to get
361: some evidence ( ) then I translate it on my own point of view ( ) then I write it so
364: evidence = the evidence maybe may have no relationship with the conclusion or the
365: topic which we are saying ( ) so that if I don’t give time for myself to give evidence
More importantly, flexibility in their thinking was evident in their use of signalling words. During the first focus group interviews, they rarely used words such as “I think”, “maybe”, “I agree/disagree with my colleague”, “the way I see it” and “in my opinion”. But in the debates and post-focus group interviews, they used these words more frequently. This could be construed as acknowledgement of others’ views and treating them with courtesy and respect. It may also signify open-mindedness in giving oneself time to judge things diligently before giving an opinion, which is characteristic of a critical thinker. More importantly, it shows that they were not hostile and closed-minded when considering others’ views.

4.2.5 Students’ Development of Critical Mentality

Students’ development of a critical mentality through small group discussions and interaction while engaging in class tasks was monitored and assessed at three levels, as explained next.

A. At the Beginning of the Intervention

One clear feature of students’ discussions at the beginning of the intervention was their lack of a sense of working in groups. In sociocultural theory, group work is the essence of interaction, leading to meaningful learning contexts for mutual scaffolding, verbalising thoughts, sharing experiences and learning from each other. It is also assumed more liable to facilitate thinking and improve performance than solitary learning. However, students at this stage did not share and distribute roles among themselves in task accomplishment, as they did at later stages. They preferred to work individually or in pairs even though they were in groups. Therefore, it was difficult to follow turn-taking from the recordings of the small
group discussions, and harder to transcribe them since there were many exchanges in pairs. Some would discuss tasks and leave fellow group members behind, occasionally being forced to wait for the rest to catch up. Others would get lost and ask the group where they had got to, as in Extract 60. Moreover, they did not check each others’ opinions to ensure that they all understood the task before moving on, as happened later in the intervention.

Extract 60
140: Student 1: [where are you where are you where are you]
141: Student 2: abnormally abnormally
142: Student 1: [where are you uh here at the lower part]

They rarely asked questions or challenged each other while performing a task. If criticality did occur, it often focused on the meanings of words or the interpretation of a sentence or phrase from English to Arabic, as is clear in Extract 61.

Extract 61
13: St 1: what is arsenic?
14: St 3: kind of poison زرنغ {poison}
15: St 2: زرنغ
16: St 4: سم

B. Mid Intervention

During the fourth week, a sense of organisation and cooperation began to appear as they became acquainted with each other. They began to recognise their different abilities, thus forging a sense of collaboration, and began to divide tasks among themselves to ensure that each was involved, as in Extract 62.

Extract 62
1: Student 1: someone must read to us
2: Student 2: Ok:: ((he reads the passage while others were following in silent))
3: uh ( ) you can uh { }

It was also observed that they often assigned the most difficult roles to those they thought could manage them. The solitary and pair work dominant in the early stages gradually
declined, and they became keen to check with each other and to ensure that everyone understood the task before they moved on as a group, as can be seen in Extract 63.

**Extract 63**

| 20: St1: | مواقفين يا جماعة؟ [do you all agree guys?] |
| 21: St3: | yes (read the line once again) |
| 22: St4: | اين [where is] weak reason here? |
| 23: St5: | yes |
| 24: St1: | Ok:: [alright then we move on] ( ) reasons |

They also began to challenge each other, as in Extract 64. Questions such as, ‘can you give us the weak reason?’ ‘Why they did it like that?’ ‘I do not understand you’, ‘how can it be administered?’, and ‘What do you think?’ began to appear.

**Extract 64**

| 48: St3: | I have weak reason here it can be fact? |
| 49: St2: | في ما في [there is no] weak reason |
| 50: St1: | ما في [there is no] weak reason |
| 51: St4: | yes |
| 52: St2: | Ked ادنا [let him give us] weak reason? |
| 59: St2: | {but can be administered how? ( ) brother Augustino brother Augustino} |
| 60: St1: | step by step |
| 61: St3: | why they did it like that step by step they |
| 62: St1: | should have just killed him |

However, their discussions were still marked by intense arguments where two group members would often argue without conceding and with no fresh evidence, as in Extract 65. Usually others in the group would just listen, and intervene only to take sides.

**Extract 65**

| 60: Student 2: | I think whilst in exile is a place ( ) I think it is a place |
| 63: Student 1: | whilst is while it means while during |
| 64: Student 2: | لا لا يتابع شنو [No No for what?] Whilst ( ) resistance between |
| 65: | whilst and St. Helen ( ) it is a place |

The whole discussion in this extract centred on whether ‘whilst’ is a place or the word ‘while’. Much time was thus wasted arguing about trivial issues, and as a result, they often digressed from the main tasks.
C. Towards the End of the Intervention

The eighth week of the intervention saw a marked change in their discussions and organisation of tasks. They focused on important issues, and frequently revisited task instructions if uncertain what they ought to do, something they did not do in the previous stages, as in Extract 66. Here, Student 3 demanded that the question should be re-read to determine precisely what was needed. The answer from student 6 was rejected as not what was required. Moreover, student 3 reminded the others in line 67 to concentrate on the main task.

Extract 66

اقرأ السؤال اقرأ السؤال السؤال شنو؟
1: St3: [read the question read the question what is the question?]
2: [question wants point of view]
3: St6: point of view سوال دايرين [no we want only judge we don’t want]
4: St3: [they don’t want those]
8: St4: point of view لا دايرين بس ما دايرين judge ما دايرين [we want point of view]

Now more flexible in their arguments, they might take a moment of silence to work individually or in pairs whenever they differed on an issue. When they resumed, new evidence would be produced to support a position which was either counteracted or conceded to. Whenever two different positions were offered, others would contribute and the discussion would focus on that point until they agreed. In Extract 67, the discussion focused on deciding the precise meaning of the word ‘task’ in Arabic. Although all of the three words they mentioned could differ in their contextual use, they are synonyms. Their discussion centred on agreeing one meaning of ‘task’ in Arabic first before they could move to the next task.
If they did not reach a consensus, they would agree to include the point of their dispute in their final resolution and to seek the opinions of other groups or the teacher, as seen in Extract 68, lines 52 and 53.

Extract 68

51: [let us leave it like that logical explanation and we put the other opinions guys
52: the teacher hopefully will solve it for us]

Furthermore, they all participated in discussions. Quiet students were often consulted before moving to the next stage, after summarising major points. They applied various strategies in their reading, such as guessing the meaning of a new vocabulary item using the textual context and their linguistic knowledge without consulting a dictionary, as in Extract 69. Using the knowledge that a proper name always starts with a capital letter in any position it occupies in a sentence, they were able to guess that “Lincoln” is a name. Guessing the meaning of a word from context is a reading strategy often used by experienced readers, competent in employing language cues utilized by the writer to predict meaning from context, or what Smith (2004) described as following the writer’s footsteps in negotiating meaning. Their frequent checking of difficult words in the English-Arabic translation dictionary, as reported earlier, was greatly reduced at this stage.

Extract 69

1: St1: [this wants to buy lincoln I do not know what is Lincoln]
Moreover, they also developed other strategies. For example, if they did not understand a line or a passage, they would re-read and discuss it repeatedly. Sometimes they would use background knowledge to approach a task, as in Extract 70, where student 21 explained to his group that, in English, a word that follows “or” in a sentence is often either a synonym or an alternative meaning of the preceding word.

**Extract 70**

21: or
22: دم د اداك آر
23: [You see in English any word written and you don’t know it’s meaning then it is followed by ‘or’ the word after ‘or’ is another meaning of the preceding word which you don’t know ( ) you are given a word after ‘or’ this is the meaning of the word before it]

Most of their time was now spent on meaningful discussion centring on crucial issues related to the task at hand. Always asking many questions while accomplishing tasks, as can be seen in Extract 71, they sometimes compelled themselves to consider other possibilities.

**Extract 71**

56: St3: yes final conclusion
57: St1: [but evidence here is which type of evidence?]
58: St3: logical = logical evidence
64: St2: هل هنا كتاب من evidence: [is the evidence here logic?]

More importantly, they were able to judge which tasks they performed well and which needed reworking and revision. The teacher often found most of their doubts and suspicions to be true, as in Extract 72 where they agreed that task 1 had not been properly tackled and therefore they should revisit it.

**Extract 72**

1: alright guys uh uh Francis passage
At this stage they had begun to use English more often than before in discussions. They usually resorted to Arabic when explaining difficult issues that required complex thinking. This could be attributed to their lack of the sophisticated vocabulary necessary to discuss complex ideas.

### 4.2.6 Students’ Spoken Proficiency

Another of the striking findings from this study was that improvements were recorded in students’ spoken English, even though this aim was not pursued. At the beginning, they communicated mostly in Arabic during the small group discussions and would only shift to English in the presence of the teacher. However, as the study progressed, their use of English gradually increased even though Arabic was still the preferred language when alone. Clearer evidence emerged when comparing their first and post-focus group interviews. During the former, some students in the three groups did not utter even a single word in English throughout the sessions. However, during the post-focus group interviews, most deliberations were conducted in English (see transcripts of first and second group sessions in Appendix 11, A to E). Surprisingly some students indicated during the post focus interviews that they had only ever spoken English during the intervention, see Extract 73.

**Extract 73**

584: Student 21: it is it is good as for me uh before this this course ( ) I have not any
585: background about English really ( ) background about English and vocabulary but
586: now I ( ) just to try talking I am not talking before but now I ( ) tried ( ) I see it is
587: really good ( ) but it is it is difficult
This improvement could be the result of many factors. Firstly, during the intervention they had ample opportunity to practice their English skills in class. The classroom environment made them feel free to speak, with the teacher’s role of facilitator rather than authoritative or dictatorial. This encouraged them to take risks, feeling free to express themselves, as explained in section 4.2.4 C.

Secondly, the various class activities and progression of lessons was another crucial factor. Students felt involved and immersed in learning activities, and consequently got involved in extended discourses which stretched their language to the limit, as is evident in Extract 48 & 49.

Finally, classroom collaboration was ideal for sharing experience and abilities. As Ebersole (1993) claims, when learners are allowed to think about things they are practically involved in, they can easily make sense of them. Perhaps students made sense of the language and, as such, developed interest and exerted effort in improving their skills; see Extract 50 & 52.

4.2.7 Students’ Response to the Reflection Task

In an attempt to answer research question 4 (see section 3.1), reflection was applied in this study as a way of encouraging learners to consciously contemplate their own thoughts and performance and therefore discover their weaknesses and strengths. It was hypothesised that reflection would strengthen their sense of self-appraisal and self-regulation, boost their self-confidence, and therefore enhance their metacognitive skills. The data, however, suggested that students did not appreciate the reflection writing they engaged in during the intervention. They described these reflections as tedious and boring, as in Extract 74. This could be because, firstly, they did not properly master how to conduct reflection despite the training
provided. Secondly, they may have felt that the questions provided after every session to help them in their reflections were too similar and therefore they failed to relate them to individual lessons. As a result, these questions only encouraged them to engage in a mechanical and superficial learning process rather than self-regulation. Attempts made to improve things after noticing this problem only resulted in minimal changes.

**Extract 74**

621: Student 17: yes my suggestion to the course was that uh uh the course is very nice but
622:  uh uh the only thing which I faced ( ) or it makes point of reflection to be tedious
623:  and boring because it has got a repetition ( )

**4.2.8 Students’ Feedback on the Intervention**

**A. Change in Students’ Attitudes Towards English**

Interestingly, students did not only improve their reading, writing and speaking skills but also reported that the intervention changed their previously negative attitudes towards the English language. Before the intervention, they abhorred English, because they did not understand and appreciate what they were taught at school. Accordingly, English was monotonous and they did not see any rationale for learning it. Some claimed that they used to think English comprised only of grammar, comprehension and summaries, as in Extract 75. This made them feel that what they experienced during the intervention, however, scarcely resembled the English they knew, as is clear in lines 619 to 621.

**Extract 75**

618: Student 23: in my Secondary School I I think uh uh I I read all English uh
619:  composition comprehension summarise ( ) I feel this all English ( ) but after I come
620:  uh I come to this course uh I find uh I am not study English before ( ) I study
621:  something different different uh in in Secondary in my Primary School ( ) I study in

After the intervention they no longer disliked English. They even thought that the English they encountered during the intervention was more advanced than what they had at primary
and secondary school. This feeling shared by many prompted one to describe the
improvement he made as a great leap forward in standards; see Extract 76.

**Extract 76**
599: Student 19: I think in the last uh in past idea I think the English is very difficult ( ) I
don’t learn it but now I think the English is very good uh and it is easy to uh for
601: learning but some word for learning
661: Student 16: I think the course is a big jump to us uh from old English to developed
662: English ( ) I want to say here if you = if you increase the debate that is it will be

**B. Change in Students’ Perceptions About Learning**
An important finding is that students felt the intervention encouraged them to read and study
during their leisure time, so that learning was not confined to school but became a continuous
activity that extended outside it, as is clear in Extract 76 and 77. They gained confidence in
their ability to study on their own if requested to do so; see Extract 77, lines 573, 574 and
576.

**Extract 77**
567: Student 23: I agree with my colleague ( ) because uh in this this is really uh good ( )
because uh in this strategy I think I search something about something ( ) I search
569: something and don’t the teacher uh give me and don’t copy ( ) but I search
570: something I found uh
يعني أنا اشتبه عن حاجة أنت مثل لو دينتي أو قلت لي أفتش عنه أنا أفتش عنه برأي أعرف
572: الصح و الخطأ أنت تسمع رأي تسمع رأي ما لو أنت انا ما كنت لك كده أنت
571: نقول لماذا أنا أوريك
573: [I mean I can investigate something ( ) for example if you give or tell me to probe
574: something I can do it on my own ( ) for I now know what is true or wrong you listen
575: to an opinion you listen to an opinion ( ) if I told you for example this you will ask
576: me why and I can tell you the] evidence [why I did
577: [لماذا أنت شافك] كه و أنا شافك داك غلط [why I did
578: this and why I see this incorrect] in Secondary School the teacher don’t argue argue
578: with us ( ) but give us the topic and give us the main point uh tell us write the main

This suggests that they felt motivated and trusted their ability to be self-reliant and
independent in pursuing their study. So, as suggested in Extract 78, they began to visit
libraries and browse the internet. They realised that their old system of “copy and paste”
should be abandoned. Widening their scope of learning outside the classroom now emerged
as a worthwhile goal in its own right.
Extract 78

C. Students’ Assessment of the Intervention

Unsurprisingly, students’ assessments at the end of the intervention were positive. Some compared the teaching strategies used in the intervention with their experience at secondary school concluding that composition in secondary school was useless because it did not give them the opportunity to think and write freely on their own, as seen in Extract 79.

Extract 79

D. Changes in Students’ Ways of Thinking

As expected, students indicated that the intervention not only improved their reading and writing, but also their thinking. They felt that the ways they used to think had changed, as in Extract 80, lines 678 and 679. A reason could be that they were offered opportunities to think and judge things by themselves, and therefore took responsibility for their learning. They
were involved in learning activities in the class; their views and contributions were valued. This was a new experience for them. Consequently, one student claimed that the intervention helped him to organise his thinking and plan properly for whatever he read or wrote; as in lines 131 to 134. This was acknowledged by most of them.

**Extract 80**

131: Student 16: uh I think this this type of learning ( ) and what is addition to me in this 132: parts ( ) of the lesson is organising thinking and critical thinking ( ) planning 133: what you write and what you read = what you write what you read so:: that is a 134: big addition to me ( ) uh it is very good and a big addition to:: I think that

678: Student 16: the course in fact uh uh change not write not = not just write and read ( ) 679: it change the way I think thinking about anything ( ) it very nice ( ) very good

This claim is supported by the level of abstraction observed in their post- and delayed written work, as in Extract 81 taken from one student’s post-test text beseeching people to not bother so much about their ethnicity. For her, they all belong to one nation, living under the shadow of the same sky and drinking from the same source of water that is the Nile. This is a very imaginative way of describing how both the South and the North of Sudan are interdependent, bound together by strong forces of nature that should not be dismantled by humankind.

**Extract 81**

“We all have to remember and think a lot about just one topic, its that before we being Arab or African, we are Sudanese. Belong to the same country, to the same land, drink from the same water, and have that nice deep brown sky which means the race and the colour have no place between us, we have to realize that it is not more than a foreign planet has grown in our unity heart to break, what we have all be aware about”

Another student looked into the social implications of the separation between North and South and its effects on mixed marriage couples and the future of their children. She wondered about the confusion the children and the family would feel if asked to which land they belonged:

“...if you live in all your age in north or south and they asked you where is your land what this people are going to say. If there is separation and the parents are from
different regions what is the future of their marriage and the children. How can they be separated from their wives and children between south, east and west?”

Extending the liberty to choose where to belong to include young children who are supposed to follow their parents’ decisions, is an eloquent and abstract way of conceiving individual liberty as transcending that of the family, especially in a conservative society like Sudan.

E. Duration of the Intervention

Students found the intervention interesting and indicated that if it were made longer, they would benefit even more; see Extract 82.

Extract 82

119: Student 17: …
125: writing we got it here in a wider way ( ) it is actually ( ) I enjoyed it ( ) it is the best
126: and I have still having a problems ( ) but I the time of this course is very short ( ) if
127: it was to be extended I hope somebody will = will be ( ) will learn a lot ( ) but the
128: period of course is very short cannot do the all these things in this time ( ) so: that I
129: have seen good by the way very nice

4.2.9 Poor Exposure, Not a Lack of Critical Thinking

The study found, as expected, that the students’ poor perceptions of critical thinking exhibited at the beginning of the intervention and their low performance during the pre-test was not due to a lack of critical thinking ability. Instead, it was a direct consequence of the educational emphasis on rote learning. Students themselves thought that the problem was not because they could not analyse, judge and critique information, but that they were never asked to do so; see Extract 83. The expectation they had was to memorise and regurgitate knowledge given at school; therefore critical engagement with material was not valued and rewarded. However, when they were exposed to critical thinking skills, changes occurred in both their perceptions and expectations. This resulted in marked improvements in argumentative writing skills evidenced in their post- and delayed test results, demonstrating
that critical thinking skills could be taught at the post-secondary school level. Such a
collection contradicts Atkinson’s (1997) claim that critical thinking is hard or impossible to
teach at post-secondary level in ESL contexts.

Extract 83

ما طبعاً انا ماه ما تضيف لكن ما بطولوا انك اناك تضيف يعني اصلا بطولوا انك تكتب: 12
نفس الموضوع زي ما هي يعني ادوك الموضوع تكتبوا يعني ادوك حاجة ما تطلع من اطار الموضوع لازم تكتب فيه: 701:
702: [NO ( ) of course it is not that you cannot add ( ) you can do that ( ) but you
703: are not required to add your opinion ( ) I mean you are only required to write
704: exactly the same issue as was given ( ) I mean if you are given a topic you write it
705: ( ) I mean if you are given a topic do not deviate from it ( ) you must write within
706: it] composition

In conclusion, both quantitative and qualitative findings suggest that there were marked
improvement in students’ perceptions, critical thinking and argumentative writing ability
after the intervention.
Chapter Five

Discussion

Introduction

Chapter four illustrated the findings obtained in the study and their significance, and this chapter discusses them in relation to the literature in the field. It examines the social dimension of critical thinking, students’ engagement in class, and other classroom strategies used such as group discussion, collaboration, scaffolding and reflection writing, followed by an explanation of the implications.

5.1 The Social Dimension of Critical Thinking

The findings in this study support Stapleton’s (2001, 2002) conclusions that what is widely perceived as L2 students’ inability to handle critical thinking courses, particularly those from cultural backgrounds where social conformity is encouraged, should not be construed as cognitive deficiency but instead results from their unfamiliarity with the course content. It is believed that various communities have different perceptions of what constitutes critical thinking and creativity (Stapleton, 2001; Tin, Manara and Ragawanti, 2010). In fact, one of the most important contributions of Atkinson’s (1997) controversial arguments concerning the critical thinking debate, according to Gieve (1998), was his emphasis on the social dimension. As Stapleton (2001) alluded to, the expectations, values and beliefs of communities or even institutions have a direct bearing on their members in shaping precepts and convictions. For example, one expectation that had been inculcated and nurtured in the participants in this study throughout their education was that rote learning and the
memorisation of facts is the best way to learn. The education systems which shaped their perceptions, therefore, reward students who fulfil this expectation by offering them high marks and promotion from one learning stage to the next. As a result, it became one of their firm convictions, part of their ideology, and a deeply rooted belief concerning what good learning should be. It would be unrealistic, given such a background, to expect them to embrace a different system willingly and with ease. Instead, attempts to change such entrenched convictions can face fierce resistance and reluctance which could take various forms, including the inability to manage the tasks at hand.

This is what occurred in the study. The participants did not only perform poorly at the beginning of the intervention, but also resisted the new teaching strategy. An extreme example of this resistance appeared when one of the students left the study after the first lesson, citing the difficulty and the vagueness of the teaching method as a reason. This view was shared by many at the beginning of the study, as was learnt later during the post focus interviews. Though the challenging nature of the new method is undeniable, it is assumed from his first reaction to the tasks that the rejection of and resistance to what he may have perceived as an imposed teaching method was the main reason for his withdrawal. This assumption is reinforced by his bitter complaints during the lesson when participants were asked to accomplish the tasks collaboratively in small groups. He insisted that the teacher should explain the lesson thoroughly before requiring them to do the tasks. The analogies and examples performed were not enough for him. A teacher-centred class was what he was accustomed to and, therefore, changing the class into a student-centred setting in which they had to take an active role in the learning process appeared to him to be an unbearable challenge. This situation could be related to the position of L2 students who are faced with a
sudden change for the first time when they leave their home countries to study abroad in a new environment with education demands completely different from what they are used to.

This interpretation is in line with Benesch’s (1999) argument that what is considered as an L2 inability to manage critical thinking issues could be in essence a resistance to the imposition of particular patterns of thoughts contrary to those they are familiar with. She distinguished between normal choices and ideological choices, challenging her opponents to stop accusing others of a lack of critical thinking skills and, instead, encouraging them to look objectively at how far their perceptions and beliefs about teaching and learning are influenced by their ideological convictions. Benesch summarised the problem simply as a conflict between students’ own beliefs on what good learning is, which are greatly influenced by their education backgrounds, and the new education demands contrary to these beliefs imposed by the new system. Therefore, the confusion that L2 students experience at the beginning can be interpreted in terms of contradictions between old and new systems. However, once this conflict is resolved, any resulting change in or influence on the old perceptions and beliefs can consequently lead to improvements in performance, as occurred in this study and has been reported by others such as Stapleton (2001, 2002).

Therefore, these findings suggest that not only can critical thinking be taught, but L2 students’ critical thinking abilities can be improved through instruction if there is a change in their beliefs and convictions. Contrary to Atkinson’s (1997) warning that ESL/EFL teachers should avoid exposing their students to critical thinking skills, Davidson (1998) encouraged them to introduce their students to critical thinking and to prepare them for what he called the “world outside their communities” or, to put it in contemporary jargon, the “demands of the
21st century”. This is because, as he argued, many are ready for and in enormous need of this, a position strongly supported by the findings of this study.

5.2 The Link Between Critical Thinking and Cultural Values

Relevant to the argument above is the extent to which critical thinking can be generalised across subjects or whether it is domain specific. Furthermore, it is unclear to what extent reasoning and logical judgment are closely connected to the cultural and social values of a certain community. This subject is a matter of contention between the Universalist and Postmodernist schools of thought. Postmodernists consider the legitimacy of judgments to be bounded by the perspective within which they are made. In other words, what is logical in one specific context may not be so in another different context (Resnick, 1987; McPeck, 1990). Resnick (1987), for example, states that the social context in which critical thinking occurs is an essential and crucial part of the thinking activity. This argument led McPeck (1990) to suggest that, if critical thinking is to be taught, it should be integrated into specific disciplines. This may suggest that critical thinking is discipline-specific and similarly it could imply that critical thinking is closely connected to cultural values. This is in line with McPeck’s position on the teaching of critical thinking, as mentioned in chapter 2, where he considers critical thinking to be too vague a concept. It is either subject-specific or a tacit part of social structure and therefore cannot be taught.

Contrary to the Postmodernist position, Universalists believe that, although sometimes specialised knowledge is needed for reasoning, assessment, good judgment or logical thinking transcend individual cultures or disciplines (Ennis, 1998; Siegel, 1990, 1997). They emphasise that, even though individuals make judgment from their social or perspectival
knowledge, there are aspects of critical thinking which are not related to specific subject-matters or social contexts, but could be applied to diverse situations. Therefore, they believe critical thinking is a universal phenomenon extending beyond cultural boundaries.

This debate is reminiscent of the argument at the beginning of chapter 2 as to whether or not critical thinking can be taught. It also evokes an issue still being widely discussed in the field concerning whether critical thinking should be taught as an independent subject or integral to specific disciplines. A lengthy philosophical discussion on these issues is beyond the scope of the present study. However, although it is difficult to give a definitive answer to the question of whether or not critical thinking is culture-specific, the study generally supports the Universalist position.

The findings in this study strongly suggest that students can transfer the skills acquired during the intervention, for example in the assessment of reading strategies, arguing and supporting a position with evidence, open-mindedness in assessing opposing views and assessing the credibility of sources of information. This clearly implies that reasoning can be generalised. Students claimed that the intervention changed their ways of thinking as well as their previous learning habits, and helped them to be more critical than before in whatever they read or wrote. Moreover, if two raters from different cultural backgrounds can agree on the quality of written arguments, as occurred in this study, this also suggests that some aspects of critical thinking are generalisable.

In addition, one of the aims behind the inclusion of reflection writing in the study as a means of strengthening students’ metacognition and therefore their self-regulatory abilities was to enable them to transfer skills gained in the intervention to other similar contexts. As reported
in the findings, because of the skills gained during the intervention, students were able to look back and critique the way English was taught in their schools as well as the education system in the country in general. They also reported having gained confidence in their debating skills, and were now able to participate in debates outside the class without fear. In fact, without the assumption that skills gained in one domain could be transferred to other similar contexts, the outcome of this study would have been useless. In any learning context, the intention is always to enable students to apply what they have learned in school to other similar contexts. Thus, acknowledging that sometimes specific knowledge may be required, reasoning, good thinking and judgment transcend individual cultures and disciplines. Individuals from the same cultural background may hold diverse views on specific subjects, but nevertheless a wider consensus can be obtained concerning abstract concepts such as the quality of a good novel or a written article. Similarly, even though individuals from diverse cultural affiliations can differ in their methods of judgment, common issues or values still exist and are shared across cultures. However, the issue cannot be simply concluded as such, and more research is needed to further examine the extent to which critical thinking is closely linked to cultural values.

5.3 The Importance of Addressing Students’ Linguistic Needs

A fundamental issue highlighted in the findings is the importance of continuous diagnosis and the addressing of students’ linguistic needs if their thinking and proficiency levels are to be improved, particularly in contexts where English is not widely spoken as is the case in the Sudan. One of the weaknesses of English teaching, as revealed in the data, was the teachers’ overemphasis on and prioritisation of examinations compared to other considerations such as students’ ability to read, write or speak. The goals of English teaching and learning, as
pursued by teachers and perceived by the students, were to obtain high scores in examinations. Therefore, the ability to analyse, interpret and respond intelligently and intellectually to what they learned was not a priority. Success and failure were seen only through the lens of examinations. Students’ needs, as was obvious in the data, were assumed by the teachers and textbook designers (Oanh, 2007). Teachers did not make any efforts to examine and monitor the problems and the challenges students faced. As students claimed, teachers delivered lessons while sitting on chairs and did not bother about whether or not they understood the contents or even whether those who sat at the back of the class heard what they said. As a consequence, they learnt through experience that even if they raised genuine concerns, no one would listen to them. So, the best strategy in such situations is to keep silent and pretend to listen. Such a mode of teaching therefore discourages any form of thinking and interaction in the classroom. Moreover, it does not consider students as important contributors and stakeholders in the learning process. As a result, students were justified in describing English classes as boring and monotonous and that they did not see any rationale for learning it.

However, the data showed that when some of the participants, who were initially thinking of abandoning the study, felt that the intervention did tackle their concerns, such as how to write a paragraph in English, support a claim with evidence, identify reasons and viewpoints in a passage, evaluate sources of information and generally how to write an argumentative essay in English, they took the study seriously and decided eventually to continue. This change of mind was a consequence of their realisation that these elements are crucial for their university studies which were to begin soon in English. This realisation prompted some comments during the post focus group interviews such as “we used to think that English comprised only of grammar, comprehension and summary; however, what we did in the
study did not resemble the English we had known”. And “the improvement we made in the study is a great leap forward in our standards”. Or “as medical students this is the way we should be taught”. Such comments reflect genuine beliefs that the intervention addressed their present and future needs. One of the advantages of this realisation was that they developed intrinsic motivation and therefore took personal responsibility for their learning. They also developed the kind of curiosity in which learning is no longer something merely imposed on them but something they can take pleasure in, making it a lifelong pursuit. As reported in the data, they began to visit libraries and search the internet, and became more enthusiastic about learning something new, deriving enjoyment from carrying out learning activities without any external impetus. It could be deduced from the data that when learners understand and appreciate what they are learning, progress can be achieved more easily.

While success in examinations is part and parcel of the learning process in many ESL/EFL contexts, it should not be seen as the sole goal and objective of education, as implied in the data. Student needs should be assessed and their performance monitored and evaluated on a regular basis. Through continuous diagnosis, students’ problems can be identified and resolved, and their needs and interests unveiled and incorporated into the classes. This is what Oanh (2007) considered the secret behind the successful application of the EAP programme in New Zealand compared to the Vietnamese EAP programme. The same reason is assumed in this study to be behind the remarkable improvement of the students’ results during the post-test.

Kumaravdivelu (2006) drew ESL professionals’ attention to a continuous shift in the field from what he called a state of awareness to a state of awakening. He speculated that a future
challenge faced by ESL teachers in general and writing teachers in particular would be how to discern the needs of their students and use an appropriate method that would incorporate context, needs and aspirations. Citing Williams and Burden (1997), Zhang and Head (2010) similarly remarked that “the greater the value that students attach to an activity, the more highly motivated they will be both to engage in it initially, and later to put sustained effort into succeeding in the activity” (p.,6). These citations clearly emphasise the importance of incorporating learners’ needs into classroom activities if their interest in L2 learning is to be aroused and their performance improved. Lack of motivation, as experienced by the participants before this study, could partly be attributed to the negligence of their needs and an overemphasis on grammar teaching and language structure which, as Bilton & Sivasubramanian (2009) state, were neither motivating nor edifying for them. Bilton and Sivasubramanian argued that disregarding L2 students’ needs means disempowering them by leaving them with no other alternative except rote learning, which would never set into motion their intellectual abilities.

5.4 L2 Students’ Engagement with Texts Should be Encouraged
Another obvious weakness which confirms the disempowerment mentioned above, and as revealed in the data, is the overemphasis on teaching skills and techniques. A major concern of teachers, as could be deduced from the participants’ reactions, was how they could master both reading and writing skills. Bazerman (1980), Spack (1988) and Leki (1993) warned against a similar trend when reading and writing are taught separately. They argued that, without reading, ESL writing classes would depend entirely on expressive writing, as was also seen in this study. Although they acknowledged its importance, and agreed that it should be encouraged at a certain stage of L2 learning, they believed that this was not the kind of writing required in most academic fields. This is because reading, as a major source of new
knowledge, is ignored. As a result, students are not encouraged to develop the ability to select and integrate new knowledge with the knowledge and the information they already possess; an ability described by Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) and Flower (1990) as underlying the notion of knowledge transformation.

In addition, although the emphasis on expressivist writing, according to Horowitz, (1986), Spack (1988) and Leki (1993), promotes students’ ability to generate meanings and forms and is therefore a good method for reflective writing, it does not acknowledge the fact that most writing in academic classes is conducted in response to specific assignments or prompts. Most of these academic writing tasks require students to at least present data obtained through written sources and according to explicit sets of instructions. Thus, students rarely have any free choice of topics in their university writing assignments. Therefore, as Horowitz (1986) puts it, teaching students to write intelligently on topics they do not care about seems to be a more useful goal than having them pick topics which are interesting to them.

Finally, Kroll (1993) and Furneaux (1999) stated that, when the emphasis is on teaching skills, students are not invited to genuinely engage in real writing. They are only taught how to practise correct grammar and rhetorical patterns. They claimed that it is often erroneously assumed in ESL classes that the important elements of writing that students should master concern knowledge of how to write good introductions, topic and supportive sentences and good conclusions. Once they are equipped with such skills they will be capable of producing any type of text. Kroll (1993) says those teaching reading skills, also held similar beliefs placing great emphasis on learning vocabulary and identifying main ideas and supporting details as well as the ability to recognise different discourse features. Knowledge of the
features of language, according to her, is important because it makes both reading and writing easier. However, she warned that, if the teaching of these skills is the goal rather than the means to facilitate reading or writing, teachers retreat to teaching techniques. Despite the importance of teaching these skills, it does not address the question of how to help L2 students to read and write effectively.

These arguments are relevant to the data obtained in the study. In both the reading and writing classes reported in this study, students were not engaged effectively in reading or writing acts but were only practising particular reading and writing techniques in order to successfully pass their examinations. For example, in writing classes, teachers provided written introductions and conclusions and the students’ role was to write the body part which they knew would not be assessed. In extreme cases, teachers provided written models of composition which they had to memorise and regurgitate in the exams. Similarly, in reading classes teachers concentrated merely on teaching reading techniques. The comments students made about how they were trained to approach comprehension exams included that, “if they found a question, they should look for the linguistic cue(s) in the text that matched the words featured in the question. Once they found any of the linguistic cues, they should write down two or three lines before and after those word(s) and the correct answer would be lying somewhere there. Or if they found a question starting with ‘why’ they should look for the word ‘why’ in the text. Once they found it, they should write down, starting from the sentence that follows it, up to the end of the paragraph”. Such comments reveal much about the narrow objectives pursued in teaching reading. Sadly, they also reflect the fact that comprehension and proper engagement with the reading material is not a central aim. In fact, the responsibility for locating the correct answer, as implied in these comments, seems to have shifted to the rater instead of the student who writes the right answer precisely to
convince the rater of his/her understanding of the text. The main target through the teaching of such techniques, as deduced from such practices, is not student understanding but how they could spot the correct answer.

This poor engagement with texts cannot lead to what Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) and Flower (1990) referred to as the transformation of knowledge into the students’ own world and consequently the creation of their own voices. More importantly, it cannot assist them in building a solid background or schemata that they could refer to as their working memory when faced with new learning tasks. This is because the type of thinking which should have provided the threads and linkage of ideas is not effectively mobilised and activated. Such poor activation of students’ thinking would discourage their ability to transfer, coordinate and synthesise several cognitive processes, as is necessary when integrating information obtained from various sources. It would also hamper their ability to develop effective personal reading and writing strategies that could enable them to identify relevant information in texts and reconstruct this information in a logical and coherent manner in their writing so that they become competent and flexible readers and writers (Zimmerman, 1997; Wolfe, Britt & Butler, 2009). This may help explain the students’ poor English reading, writing and background knowledge despite seven years learning the language. The ability to comprehend, evaluate and construct arguments and engage in critical reading and writing is not only required in academia but also in many workplaces. It should, therefore, be one of the focuses of ESL teaching (Ackerman, 1993; Wolfe, Britt & Butler, 2009).

The arguments of Leki (1993) and Kroll (1993) should not be construed as a call to abandon the teaching of language features since, as they said, such skills or techniques facilitate reading and writing. In fact, it would be a mistake if the importance of these language
features was ignored. The poor grammatical knowledge exhibited by the participants in the study was a clear indication that the explicit teaching of grammar is essential. The lack of such skills can impede L2 progress and competence in reading and writing. Nevertheless, the main issue is that ESL students’ competency in English should not be seen as residing solely in mastery of these skills, as was found in this study. Such an emphasis would only inculcate in students the habits of reading for information retrieval, and consequently they would miss many of the ideas implied in the texts (Kirby, cited in Cobine, 1995; Silva, 1993; Rivas, 1999). Too much concentration on teaching skills, as evident in this study, could prevent students from getting involved in other aspects of literacy such as meaning construction, competency and flexibility in dealing with texts as readers and writers (Zimmerman, 1997).

A paradox apparent from the present study and reported by many ESL researchers is that although the emphasis in ESL classes is often on teaching grammar, L2 students usually exhibit poor grammatical knowledge in their writing (Zamel, 1985; Miller, 1996; Kubota, 1998). This is acknowledged even by many advanced L2 speakers. One of the reasons for this, as widely reported and seen in this study, is the negligence of the interactive role of language in reading, writing or speaking which could provide L2 students with diverse examples of how grammatical items are used. The role of meaning construction and the interactive nature of language are often ignored in ESL learning contexts. Eventually this leads to low proficiency, depriving students of the ability to react, transform, and employ their relevant background information when reading or writing, as reported in the data. Seedhouse (2004) drew attention to the lack of correspondence between the forms practised in the L2 classroom and those in real-world communication outside. Recognising the importance of students’ personal creation of meaning and their contributions in the classrooms, he claimed that a simultaneous dual focus on form-and-accuracy (language
structure) together with meaning-and-fluency (meaning construction) could avoid focusing on only one of them. Although he doubted the practicality of such a dual focus in a single lesson, it seems from the present research that it is possible to implement. In fact, with slight adjustments, approaches such as the integrative teaching of reading and writing can offer a simultaneous focus on both form and meaning.

5.5 L2 Students Should be Exposed to Various Genres

The arguments of Bazerman (1980), Horowitz (1986), Spack (1988) and Leki (1993) described above also do not contradict the teaching of expressive writing. This type of genre is important, as those authors explained and as similarly concluded in this study. As Bilton and Sivasubramanian (2009) indicated, it promotes students’ capacity for critical reading. Through reconstruction processes, students can relate the information they read to their own emotions, beliefs and thoughts. However, as evident in the study, university students need to be exposed to various genres and different form of writing, especially academic writing. As Badger et al. (2000) emphasised, language is a resource for making meaning in social situations, and that is why writing has to vary according to context and the goals to be achieved. If L2 students need to master writing, they must have not only knowledge about the language, but also knowledge of the contexts in which it takes place as well as the ability to use it. This suggests that concentration on teaching one genre at the expense of others may erode the main principle of language use as a meaning making tool for the achievement of various purposes in different situations. Therefore, it is vital that L2 students should possess knowledge of how and when to use a certain genre if they are to function successfully in their future careers. As found in this study, this message was often missing and teachers were not keen to raise students’ awareness of it. The kind of writing skills students possessed did not promote the role of writing as a means of knowledge dissemination and reconstruction. It
only circled around the students’ own selves and did not equip them with the ability to use writing as a tool for knowledge reintegration. It is therefore crucial that L2 students should be exposed to different forms of writing, either through direct teaching or indirectly through the integrative teaching of reading and writing as applied in the study. This may give them insight into the actual use of both reading and writing in academia as sources of knowledge gathering and reconstruction.

The data showed that at the beginning of the intervention students were unable to produce argumentative writing. Considering carefully their writing backgrounds, it was clear that they had never engaged in genuine writing where they had to create and craft original texts of their own. Many of them had no understanding of concepts of multi-drafts, proofreading or audiences in writing, even in the Arabic language. The writing experience they had was connected to school work and was mainly geared towards exams. In fact, many of them had no idea of the possibility of writing an argumentative essay before the intervention in either Arabic or English. Therefore, their poor performance could be explained in the light of what Wolfe, Britt and Butler (2009) described as the lack of an argument-writing schema. Here L2 students’ inability to produce argumentative writing texts could be a result of what these authors called a “deficit argument schema” that made it difficult for them to create the essential sub-goals related to the genre. Grounding their work in Flower and Hayes’ (1981) concept of cognitive representation, they claimed that if a writer has a limited background in argument writing, which is only familiar with a claim supported by a single reason, he/she would not be able to produce other related elements of arguments such as backing up reasons with evidence and counter-argument. This is because they lack any background knowledge (schema) of those elements. According to them, this applies to reading too (Britt & Larson, 2003; Britt, Kurby, Dandtkar & Wolfe, 2008; Wolfe & Britt, 2008). This argument brings to
the forefront the importance of prior knowledge, as discussed in the literature review in chapter two, as a facilitator of both reading and writing acts. It also further stresses the importance of gearing teaching towards empowering L2 students with what Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) called an information transformation ability. As understood here, this is the ability which enables learners to transfer and internalise knowledge acquired into their own zones and therefore build a schema that they can refer to when dealing with new learning tasks. Poor background knowledge, as mentioned earlier, can inhibit students’ ability to become flexible readers and writers.

Based on the above arguments, the improvement which occurred in the participants’ argumentative writing could therefore be attributed to their exposure to closed reading strategies and how to apply these in their writing (Paul & Elder, 2006; 2007). They were exposed to argumentative reading models in which each element of argument in writing was taught separately and in-depth. They took the time to apply and practise these elements in writing in an attempt to bolster their argumentative schemata. However, the study period was short enough to enable them to fully master all the elements related to argument in writing and therefore to produce what Wolfe and Britt (2008) called quality argumentative writing. The weaknesses found, such as the lack of the elaboration of ideas, generation of counter-arguments, and limited use of appeals, could be interpreted in the light of the same premises of schema deficiency mentioned above.

Quality in argumentative writing, according to Wolfe and Britt (2008), improves when an argument avoids what they termed as ‘myside bias’. They defined this bias as the writer’s failure to consider opposite views or positions in their argument. From the analysis of the students’ writing at post-test, although overall performance improved remarkably, the data
still showed poor generation of counter-arguments in their writing. Applying Wolfe and Britt’s (2008) argument, it could be said that students founedered in producing what may be regarded as good argumentative writing. The inclusion of counter-arguments in argumentative essays is seen as a way of acknowledging the other side’s views. In producing a counter-argument, the writer presents the opposite view and then counteracts it by producing a strong argument against it. This increases not only the strength or the quality of the argument but also its coherence. In addition, it leads to favourable impressions among readers about the author. Moreover, dismissing information about the other-side without providing reasons for this leads to more negative impressions of the author. Wolfe and Britt (2008) also suggested that both claims and reasons activate knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and values, suggesting a correlation between an argument and persuasiveness, a view which has been supported by this study.

Three reasons were identified for myside bias. Firstly, the writer fails to fully evoke an argumentation schema that considers both the positive and negative sides of an issue. Secondly, the writer reads diverse views about an issue but chooses to concentrate only on the views that support his/her side of the argument. Finally, the writer provides evidence of a fact–based argumentation schema, viewing the argument simply as a matter of presenting facts. Unfortunately, all three reasons seem to apply to the participants’ texts produced at the end of the study. As Wolfe and Britt (2008) emphasised, good argumentative essays often address other-side views. Poor argumentative writers therefore frequently exclude other-side viewpoints in their essays (Wolfe & Britt, 2005). This phenomenon was in fact observed in the students’ written essays. One probable reason for their poor generation of counter-arguments compared to the other elements is that it is cognitively demanding and requires a highly sophisticated command of language. Bearing in mind the students’ poor levels of
proficiency, generating counterarguments would take them considerable time in both reading and practice in argumentative writing. In addition, their lack of background knowledge in the production of this type of writing, even in Arabic, could be another possible reason, as Wolfe, Britt and Butler (2009) mentioned.

5.6 Group and Classroom Discussions

The improvement in participants’ writing, reading, thinking and spoken English reported in the data would have not been possible if effective teaching strategies were not applied. The first of these strategies was group and overall class discussions. Any kind of discussion in an ESL classroom is a valuable learning tool (Devita, 2000). However, it was difficult at the beginning of the study to persuade the students to participate actively in small group discussions. Feeling less confident about their English proficiency, they mostly communicated in Arabic and shifted to English only in the presence of the teacher. They were very shy and lacking in confidence. Some even reported that they had never spoken in English before.

There are several logical explanations for their inability or unwillingness to speak in English. Besides the poor teaching reported in their English classes, the models of dialogues and conversations they had were frequently unrealistic and did not really reflect authentic English as spoken in the real world, as Seedhouse (2004) mentioned. Such dialogues did not contain learning activities that could encourage students to analyse the language used in terms of sociocultural context (McConachy, 2009). Students often wasted a lot of their valuable time memorising and rehearsing phrases. This neither provided motivation nor assisted them in conducting genuine conversations. In addition, teachers’ tight control of classroom
procedures, as was evident in the data, denied them opportunities to interact and express themselves freely in English (Xie, 2010). It is reasonable to conclude that students who are kept passive and reticent in classes, with less opportunity to practise their language abilities in or outside the classroom, cannot be expected to make tangible progress (Zhang & Head, 2010). Therefore asking them to discuss topics in English was at the beginning a frustrating experience for many of them.

However, small group discussions proved to be a successful strategy in encouraging them to speak and therefore improve their speaking skills. It was amazing to see the amount of language they produced at the end of the study. In fact, small group discussions immersed them in negotiations and genuine dialogues in which they were not rehearsing and memorising phrases but talking, arguing, making claims and decisions, and managing their conflicts and disagreements within groups. English was used in the class as it is used in the real world. All the group discussions proceeded with no interference from the teacher, which encouraged the quiet students to participate actively. The students felt free to discuss and express their thoughts. In addition, the topics discussed were found to be interesting and enabled lively participation, the expression of opinions and agreement and disagreement, which therefore kept the group focused on the tasks. Group discussions therefore provided a secure environment for the students to talk and try out new ways of interacting and risk taking. As such, they could practise speaking in a less constrained way than in the typical English classrooms they were familiar with. Discussion was introduced into nearly every activity of the programme and every task conducted, so that speaking and thinking were integrated. It could be said that the success of the small group discussions lay in the fact that students were provided with a conducive environment to get involved in meaningful interactions where they verbalised their thoughts in relation to the task at hand, discussed
complex issues and related them to their own experiences, with less control exercised by the teacher over either the direction of the discussion or the themes (Xie, 2010). The improvements recorded in spoken English at the end of this study were not therefore a surprise. Verbal communication needs to be given space in ESL classes. As seen in the study, although students may have a chance to engage in reading, writing or even listening in their leisure time, opportunities may not exist for speaking.

5.7 Collaboration

The second teaching strategy used, which was closely related to group and class discussions, was collaborative class work. Collaboration in small learning groups is replete with benefits (Crossman & Kite, 2007). Compared with working alone, working with others towards a common goal yields better achievement and greater productivity. It promotes the exploration of ideas among multiple participants who offer multiple perspectives (Bedrova & Leong, 1996). Like discussion, it enabled the participants to practise questioning and defending their views about why this or that should be done in this or that way, thus modelling their own thinking processes. It was evident in the study that socialisation, encouraged through collaboration, enabled the students to participate in more complex learning as compared with working independently which they were used to (Vygotsky, 1978; DelliCarpini, 2009). This is what Shayer (2002) referred to as the collective ZPD which is only optimised when a group of learners accomplish learning tasks interactively in collaborative groups.

The collaboration in the study provided a realistic, dynamic, and relatively safe environment for students to share and defend their views, question others’ thoughts, and improve their communication processes and products. Therefore, it was not surprising that they commented
that sharing ideas in collaborative task accomplishment allowed them to learn more from each other. Providing students with the opportunity to engage collaboratively in task achievement and thinking can help them to discover the wealth of knowledge they have which is unlikely to be accessed through any other means. It can also enable them to realise their potential, including what they may have deemed themselves incapable of doing while in fact they could do it with a little encouragement from others. As mentioned in the data, the learning tasks at the beginning of the intervention were found challenging; however, collectively, they managed to deal with them. ESL students need to be offered various learning activities, and afforded opportunities for critical reflection in their journey to discover their true potentials and capabilities in learning the second language. This can also increase their sense of responsibility towards their learning and heighten their motivation (Zhang & Head, 2010).

5.8 Scaffolding as a Way of Diagnosing Students’ Learning Needs

The third strategy applied and proven to be successful was the scaffolding of lessons and tasks. The scaffolding process created a better rapport than the traditional method between the teacher and learners whereby the former was not seen as repressive and authoritarian, as was the case in their traditional classes, but as a facilitator whose main objective was to assist them in their learning processes (Thompson, 2009). In turn, this relationship enabled the teacher to better diagnose and understand their needs. To successfully scaffold students’ learning, the teacher should know the learners’ knowledge needs for the task in order to provide appropriate feedback (Wood, Burner & Ross, 1976; Thompson, 2009). This knowledge helps the teacher to give the right doses of knowledge at the right time; the more the learner fails to grasp what’s necessary, the more help is given, and the more the learners
understand the task the more latitude is given and help is reduced or completely withheld (Thompson, 2009).

Puntambeker and Hubscher (2005) described three features of the scaffolding of students’ writing conference which are similar to the way it was applied in the study. The first of these features is what they described as inter-subjectivity, whereby there is collaboration between the teacher and learner. Both share knowledge and the responsibility for task completion. The role of the teacher is to offer guidance and to lead the learners to successfully understand the task. This stage represented the discovery stage in the present study, where both the teacher and the students jointly defined the tasks and worked closely so that knowledge was transmitted through their active participation from the teacher (the expert) to them (the less expert). In this sense the discovery stage differed from both modelling and traditional classroom practice in that students were not given a model to follow or direct instructions on what to do, but we worked together through gradual stages such as using analogies and questioning to help them stretch their knowledge beyond their current understanding (Poehner, 2009). In Vygotskian terms, the teaching here was not directed at what the students knew and were capable of doing, but using their background knowledge through their collective contributions and my mediation to optimally guide them towards the targeted knowledge. Despite my expertise, the display of any sort of superiority was avoided. Instead, the collaborative work with them acknowledged the importance of their input into the learning situation. On their part, although aware of my expertise, they accepted my facilitating role as a guide whose help was sought when needed. This shadow role of the teacher plus the nature of the tasks encouraged them to play an active role in the class rather than being passive listeners waiting for instructions and feedback (Hogan & Presley, 1997; Puntambeker & Hubscher, 2005).
The second feature is the teacher’s ongoing diagnosis of the students’ current level of understanding, or what Thompson (2009) called cognitive scaffolding. Here the teacher provides support while at the same time continuing to monitor students’ progress during their stages of task accomplishment to check how far they have grasped the knowledge and what challenges they still face. In the study, this was achieved through class activities such as small collaborative group discussions, group sharing, group presentations and the overall class discussions. In these stages, the teacher monitored student progress, occasionally providing assistance and feedback when needed as a way of consolidating their understanding. It was during these stages that information was gathered about the learners’ knowledge needs, their actual levels of knowledge, what appropriate assistance to offer and when it should be stopped. Accordingly, the learning tasks were adjusted to suite their level of English and to address any unforeseen problems that emerged.

The scaffolding stages here took the shape of continuous dialogue and active interaction between the students themselves on one side and with the teacher on the other. Each issue was discussed and re-discussed at various levels as they moved from one stage to the next. This kept them motivated, stimulated and attentive throughout the classes despite the fact that the lessons took longer. In fact, a major advantage of scaffolding is that it enables the teacher to mediate and assess students’ performance at the same time (Poehner, 2009). As a result, their performance could be monitored as a group as well as individually, their needs could be identified and appropriate assistance provided. This helped them to change the negative image they had about English, as reported in the data, thus providing a source of motivation for their learning.
As Thompson (2009) stated, scaffolding should not only lead to the completion of the task at hand, but also to a wider generalisation of the knowledge and the processes gained to other similar tasks. During the post focus group interviews, students were critical of their traditional English classes and the Sudan education system in general. They blamed the teachers for the deterioration of their standard of English, accusing them of being selfish and caring only about their own reputations by being seen as successful when their students scored high marks. Such success, they claimed, was not accompanied by a proper understanding of the knowledge taught.

The final feature is the gradual withdrawal of the expert’s (the teacher’s) assistance, or the ‘fading’ stage (Puntambeker & Hubscher, 2005; Thompson, 2009). Fading occurs when the teacher feels that the students have understood the knowledge targeted and that they can carry out tasks successfully without his/her help. The assumption is that students have internalised the knowledge and are no longer in need of any external assistance. As described in the methodology, help in this study was mostly offered at the discovery stage and then gradually withdrawn throughout subsequent stages until the reflection and homework stages where no help was needed. The students were gradually given the responsibility to direct their own learning process and to choose and create appropriate learning strategies that best suited their better achievement of their goals. In Maslow’s (1943) terms, this is a self-actualisation stage where other needs have been achieved and the students were now expected to be creative and independent knowledge constructers. Zimmerman (2001) refers to this as the self-directive process or self-regulated learning.

Holton and Clarke (2006) suggested that the self-regulation stage is achieved through metacognition. The learner at this stage is able to monitor his/her own learning processes and
strategies in achieving the learning goals. He/she is able to diagnose himself/herself through self-reflection processes, identifying weaknesses and strengths for better achievement. Holton and Clark indicated that effective scaffolding plays a substantial role in the achievement of the metacognition stage, which they regarded as a bridge between social and individual knowledge or, in Vygotskian terms, enables the learner to transfer knowledge from the surface zone to the personal zone and therefore transform information into individual knowledge. This, as Thompson (2009) says, helps the students to develop confidence as writers and to commit themselves to face challenges and adapt various learning strategies to achieve their learning goals. This, in turn, develops and enhances their critical thinking skills as a goal in itself and obliges them to be actively engaged and cognitively ready to learn. This may explain the improvement in the students’ performance towards the end of the study as they became increasingly more conscious about their learning abilities and needs and how to achieve their goals.

5.9 Close Reading and Writing Strategies

The fourth strategy was the teaching of strategies as a vital learning goal in its own right. The study emphasised the importance of teaching reading and writing strategies that would help students to read and write effectively. Reading and writing strategies were emphasised to accelerate students’ learning ability and to use them as a substitute for their poor reading and writing skills (McNamara, 2007; McNamara, Crosseley & McCarthy, 2010). McNamara and his colleagues have argued that providing instruction and practice in the use of strategies in teaching contexts improves comprehension and compensates for deficient skills. Instruction in strategies therefore was regarded as an effective means of learning, particularly for the weak, less knowledgeable and less skilled students (Magliano et al., 2005; O’Reilly &
McNamara, 2007). One reason cited for this is that the use of strategies can help increase students’ working memory resources (McNamara & Scott, 2001). This, in turn, would help them to develop, for example, their own writing strategies, thus scaffolding their writing processes. This may also help them to enhance the sophistication of their language if they are less focused on processes associated with planning, drafting and revising.

In fact, the rationale for integrating reading and writing in the study was to enable learners to gain insight into how good writers write and, through reading, to adopt some of the strategies learned in their reading into their writing. In this way, strategies acquired for one skill can be transferred to improve performance in the other (Paul & Elder, 2006, 2007). Therefore, emphasis was placed on various reading strategies that were aimed at improving students’ argumentative writing skills, such as how to identify a viewpoint or reason, write a conclusion, judge the credibility of a text and support argument with evidence. It was hypothesised that identifying these strategies in reading passages would help the students to transfer them into their writing, thus, encouraging them to read like competent writers and write like experienced readers. The improvement recorded within the relatively short period of the study could therefore be partly attributed to the successful adoption of reading strategies into their argumentative writing.

Various theories have attempted to specify the nature of reading and writing integration. As explained in section 2.5.2, Eisterhold (1990) summarised the alternatives in the L1 context using three hypotheses: the directional model, the non-directional model and the bi-directional model. It is difficult to make similar distinctions in the L2 context due to the scarcity of research in this area. However, in this study, a directional model was used where the use of reading to provide models and as a springboard for writing proved to be successful.
As noted from the data, the students did not read widely during their leisure time even in the Arabic language. In fact there was nothing to encourage them to read in English, bearing in mind the poor teaching conditions reported in the data.

The importance of reading as a source of vocabulary was clear from the comments of many of the students. For example, one claimed that he had acquired more vocabulary during the intervention than he had learnt during his entire three years of high school. This clearly shows the crucial role reading can play in L2 contexts as a source of vocabulary, motivation and knowledge. In fact, as was also evident in this study, Brown (2009) suggested that an effective way of improving L2 English proficiency is through reading. Extensive reading, as Brown argued, leads to considerable learning gains in writing, vocabulary, and overall proficiency levels, while it also increases motivation. However, an important question is how students can be encouraged to become avid readers in their L2. This question is part of what the study has addressed by integrating reading and writing in L2 classes. Along similar lines, Brown (2009) suggested that a more powerful way of encouraging extensive L2 reading is to directly provide activities that encourage students to begin reading in their classes and that allow them to discuss their reading. Reading is a source of knowledge and it is absolutely vital for L2 students to know how to learn from their reading (Brown & Campione, 1990). Integrating reading and writing in L2 classes can provide opportunities for discussion, a meaningful space for interaction and meaning construction, enrich their vocabulary and improve their writing ability.
5.10 Students Need Opportunities to Think

The fifth strategy which was seen to be effective in the study was the provision of free space for the students to think and sharpen their communication skills. From the analysis and evaluation of the Sudanese education system in general, it appears to resemble the situation in Hong Kong described by Morris et al. (1996, cited in Mok, 2009) as the ‘three Ts situation’: teacher-centred, test (exam)-centred and textbook-centred. Teaching and classroom learning are predominantly teacher-led and quantity-driven, which encourages students only to adopt a superficial approach to learning. Writing is taught with a primary focus on grammar and language features. Developing students’ writing skills receives limited attention and is not a learning priority for many teachers (Mok, 2009).

The data has further shown that students had very little space to think, ask questions or contribute to classroom discourse. Classroom environments do not facilitate inquiry, genuine communication and reflection (Mok, 2009). This is because teachers have unrestricted control over class procedures. Lessons strictly follow their predetermined plans, and there is no chance for students to initiate discussion or critique, or take any form of active role in the class. Interestingly, they were even punished if they expressed their opinions and passed any judgement that could be perceived as criticism of what was taught. Their role, as evident in the data, was limited to offering correct answers that had to conform to the teachers’ agenda. Would it not be a paradox to expect such students to analyse and critique what they learnt? It is hard to imagine that students could excel, be creative and analytic in an environment where they were merely following teachers’ instructions concerning what to write and how. In the writing classes described in the data, there was no space for students to engage in any serious thinking, or compositional processes, as mentioned earlier. The crucial question is where the
problem lies. The answer is simple: in the system and not the students. As students stated clearly, they do not lack critical thinking abilities, but the issue is that they are not required or allowed to apply any reasoning to or judgements on what they learn. Therefore, in such classes, creativity and originality, as mentioned in the present findings, are not encouraged, valued or needed. Students understood that and were happy to memorise and regurgitate whatever they were taught.

Mayfield (2001) stressed that although good teaching models from the teachers could enhance critical thinking development among students, they also need to be provided with space to think. Bourdillon & Storey (2002) emphasised the need for students to be made aware of what they are learning and why they are learning it. Critical thinking, according to them, consists of two equally important general and specific aspects. In terms of learning space, it is important for learning to be organised in such a way as to intellectually engage students in the acts of learning. In other words, for students to engage in critical thinking processes, they need space and time to think and to discern various critical attitudes featured in the learning tasks. In terms of classroom teaching, Bourdillon and Storey asserted that the literature has emphasised beyond any doubt the effectiveness of the use of teacher questions, and the involvement of the students in genuine discussion and reflection in contexts that value inquiry and diversity, in engaging students in meaningful critical thinking processes. Teachers should therefore create for students a space to explore and make sense of the objects of their learning.

During the First Sudanese International English Conference held in Khartoum in June 2009, the presenters were mostly teachers. They consistently blamed students for poor performance, accusing them of being careless and exerting no effort to improve their
standard of English, yet none questioned their own teaching strategies and methods. Most of them merely regurgitated information, and these problems have existed at least since the present author was in high school decades ago. No one offered any genuine practical solutions. It was easier for them to point the finger at students, ignoring their own failures. Teachers have a great role to play in improving their students’ reading, writing and speaking abilities. They need to reassess their teaching methods and invent effective methods of teaching that correspond to their students’ needs. This is what Kumaravdivelu (2006) referred to as an awakening state, where they should pay attention to their students’ needs and problems and choose suitable methods of maximising their learning opportunities accordingly. One of the important things they need to reconsider is providing space and opportunities for their students to contribute and become active stakeholders in their learning. This study therefore maintains that providing space for students to think is essential and it should be considered as a strategy in itself. Students need space to think, negotiate and express themselves freely. This was one of the aspects students appreciated most in the study. The improvement in their spoken English registered in the study could be a result of the interactive space available in the class. They were free to discuss and conduct activities which were meaningful to them and, as a result, they forced themselves to speak the language. Denying them such opportunities is tantamount to disempowering them and depriving them of a chance to think and be creative in their L2 and therefore of any real chance for effective and tangible improvement.
5.11 Classroom Strategies and the Improvements in Students’ Thinking

The findings of the study indicate that all of the classroom strategies discussed above played a role in enhancing students’ creative and critical thinking skills. As evident from the data and as argued above, the creation of a classroom environment which encouraged students to think, become involved in discussions and collaborative work and value inquiry and reflection can improve students’ critical thinking processes (Ebersole, 1993; Bourdillon & Storey 2002). As illustrated above, the teaching strategies used provided students with a secure environment to express their views, to make arguments and counterarguments and to manage their conflicts and disagreements. They also engaged in meaningful interactions where they verbalised their thoughts in relation to the tasks at hand and to relate them to their own experiences. In addition, they were encouraged to reflect on their learning processes and discover their weaknesses and strengths. More importantly, they developed self-confidence, took risks and tackled challenging tasks in their learning. All these aspects were crucial in the development of the students’ critical thinking. As indicated in the data, students felt that these teaching strategies gave them the chance to think and to learn from each other, and the critical reading helped them to be more reflective in their reading and writing. Therefore, the role of the classroom strategies used in this study to improve students’ thinking should not be underestimated. Although it seems clear that critical reading and argumentative writing promoted the students’ ability to think, the classroom strategies used also played a role in this improvement. Although the teaching strategies certainly contributed to the improvements recorded, it was difficult to measure their effects independently of other factors such as critical reading, as indicated in sections 3.1, 5.13 and 6.4. It was difficult to disentangle the
influence of each variable in this study because they were interrelated and interwoven in their impact on students’ improvement.

5.12 Reflection Writing

The sixth strategy employed was to use reflection as a relevant strategy in developing students’ sense of self-assessment and appraisal. Mitchell (2003) emphasised that reflection helps students to take responsibility for their own learning. He stated that, just as educators feel it is essential for teachers to reflect on their successes and failures, it is equally important for students to reflect on their own performance. As explained in section 3.2.7 A, reflection was introduced in the study to boost students’ self-regulatory and metacognitive processes. It was intended to engage them via reflective thinking on how they could distance themselves from the activities they performed and explicitly contemplate their thinking processes. The encouragement of such reflective thinking aimed to help them discover their strengths and weaknesses and to make this process a fruitful method of self-assessment and self-evaluation in the future.

However, in the study students were unable to benefit from the reflection they practised. This was not because the reflection itself failed, but because they found it difficult to master and understand how to practise it properly. To accelerate their understanding of the process, they were offered training during the first two lessons and, at the end of every lesson, were provided with questions to help them in their retrospections. Though the questions were meant to assist them in their reflection, they turned out to have distracted them from genuine thinking. Instead of engaging them in sincere metacognitive thinking and the assessment of their own performance, they merely answered the questions without any thorough and
meticulous thinking. At the end, their reflections on each task were almost always the same even though they performed different tasks which involved different thinking operations. Attempts made after noticing the problem to improve things only resulted in minimal changes in their attitudes towards the end of the study. Thus, reflection was turned into another mechanical and superficial learning process, contrary to what was originally meant as a self-regulating process. Though providing students with training is absolutely vital, it is therefore concluded that they should not be provided with these sorts of questions in every lesson. Or, if that is judged to be vital, the questions should vary in nature from one lesson to another. Of course this may be difficult if the themes of the lessons are closely connected, as was the case in this study. The provision of questions on a regular basis as applied in this study can distract students’ attention from real reflection and meditation, so that they merely answer the questions without any serious process of self-appraisal. In addition, such practices could work against the intention of the study to encourage students to be creative and independent thinkers. In order to place thinking at the centre of reflection, they should perhaps be afforded space to prioritise their needs on their own. They should be allowed to decide which are the most important areas for them to reflect on and how this should be done.

Dewey (1933) identified three characteristics of meaningful reflection: open mindedness, responsibility, and wholeheartedness. He described reflection as an “active desire to listen to more sides than one; to give heed to the facts from whatever source they come; to give full attention to alternative possibilities; and to recognise the possibility of error even in the beliefs that are dearest to us” (p. 29). Though it may be doubted whether reflection per se, as applied in this study, has enabled students to develop these characteristics, the overall setting of the study has in many ways assisted them to acquire these characteristics. This was evident
in the data concerning the flexibility and open-mindedness in their thinking that they exhibited at the end of the intervention. They showed respect for opponents’ views in argument, appreciated taking time to think before making decisions, and were more careful in evaluating any piece of evidence they presented or received. In addition, they reported changes in their thinking processes, such as in how to plan, judge and consider other alternatives to any plan they made. All these characteristics are in line with Dewey’s description as indicative of critical thinking dispositions.

5.13 The Overall Achievement of the Research Aims

The study has successfully answered the research questions and tested the hypotheses stated in section 3.1. In examining students’ attitudes and perceptions about critical thinking and writing skills before and after the intervention, the study has found that they initially had little knowledge of critical thinking as well as poor writing skills. Both improved markedly after the intervention, as illustrated in sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2. Students learned during the intervention how to write a paragraph in English and assess the logic and consistency of information in their written texts and showed improvements in their verbal and written argumentative abilities. These remarkable improvements in their reasoning and thinking as well as in their writing ability was also evident in their performance in the post and delayed tests conducted at the end of the intervention. This suggests that this objective was successfully achieved.

As to whether or not the guided teaching of critical reading improved students’ reasoning and argumentative writing, the study recorded profound improvements in their reasoning and logical thinking as reflected in their argumentative writing after the intervention. Their
written work evident in the three tests indicated that the experimental group performed far better than the comparison group. The experimental group exhibited substantial gains in vocabulary which, as they claimed, assisted them in reading and writing. The guided reading also improved their understanding of the relationship between reading and writing and the cognitive strategies these operations share. They appreciated new reading strategies such as the identification of the author’s viewpoint in a text, the provision of pieces of evidence in support of claims, identifying and drawing conclusions in texts, and assessing unstated assumptions in a text. They considered learning these skills as valuable experiences gained during the intervention.

The third research question concerned the role of interaction in improving students’ thinking and writing abilities. The study found that the classroom procedures and activities offered students the opportunity to think, argue and participate actively in the class, as opposed to what they were used to. Students’ needs, challenges and concerns were identified and addressed. Teacher-student relations were friendly, and as a facilitator his help was sought when needed, and therefore his presence did not intimidate them. This rich and supportive classroom environment encouraged students who had never spoken English before to speak it. As a result, remarkable improvements in their spoken English were recorded even though this was not an objective pursued in the study. At the end, the students recommended that this was a better way for them to be taught.

As for the role of reflection in developing students’ metacognition, the study found that students did not appreciate the reflection writing. The reason, as mentioned in section 4.2.7 and discussed in section 5.12, was that although they were offered training, the questions provided at the end of each lesson were the same and therefore students failed to relate them
to individual lessons. Instead of engaging them in retrospection on the conscious and unconscious strategies they applied in accomplishing class tasks, the questions only encouraged regurgitation and mechanical reflections. As argued in section 5.12, the provision of questions as applied in the study was later realised to work against the study’s intentions to offer students the opportunity to decide on their own which aspects of lessons they wanted to reflect on and why. However, even though the reflection per se did not fully achieve what was aimed for, the overall setting of the study, as argued in section 5.12, has in many ways assisted students to develop self-regulatory abilities. They became more open-minded and developed respect for views opposed to their own. They also demonstrated the ability to assess and evaluate their performance and progress and therefore their strengths and weaknesses, which are considered in this study to be crucial for individual progress. These were among the aims intended to be achieved through the reflection sessions.

In evaluating the overall results obtained in this study, it is difficult, as mentioned in section 3.1 and later in section 6.4, to isolate and measure the effect of each variable independently of the others. So it cannot be claimed that critical thinking was the sole factor responsible for the outstanding performance of the experimental group. One possible complicating factor which needs to be reckoned with is the novelty effect (the Hawthorne effect). Even though the participants in the groups undertook an intensive English course together and were tested on familiar topics, subjecting the experimental group to special treatment while denying the comparison group the same treatment could involve this effect. As argued in section 3.2.3 students are often aware in educational contexts of being tested. Also in section 3.3.7 while exposing one group to a treatment and denying another group the same treatment is a common scientific research practice, the only way to examine the role of the Hawthorne
effect in studies such as this is to conduct more research, and, in particular, longitudinal studies.

In conclusion, despite the possible existence of factors whose impact was not fully measured, such as the Hawthorne effect and the independent influence of each variable, it can still be concluded that the study has satisfactorily answered the research questions.

5.14 The Implications of the Study

The main premises on which the integration of reading and writing was based is that such a combination would enable students to carry out reading, writing, thinking, speaking and listening simultaneously in one class. Since students have little chance to practise their skills outside school, such a combination was thought to be capable of maximising their language use in the classroom. It was also believed that the combination would expose them to different kinds of intellectual work that would expand their thinking and reasoning abilities.

Although the study achieved good results, there were some further implications which need to be considered. One of these is that the method used requires a lot of time for students to think, read, discuss, reflect, and later write. This could be manageable at university level where teaching sessions last two to three hours. However, it may be difficult to apply in high school where lesson duration is fixed at forty-five minutes or ninety minutes for double periods such as is the case in Sudan. Teachers who wish to apply the method in high school need to be mindful about the time factor and design their lessons accordingly.

Secondly, the method might be more suitable for advanced L2 students who have acquired some reading and writing skills in English and have achieved a certain level of language
proficiency. Beginning learners may find it hard to discuss and share their ideas in English. Teachers who would like to apply this method for beginners may need to redesign their lesson in such a way as to be compatible with the level of their students.

Finally, despite the improvements witnessed in students’ reading, writing and speaking skills, they still exhibited poor grammatical knowledge. This suggests that teaching grammar is still vital in ESL contexts. It would be a mistake to assume that through such a combination L2 students would spontaneously learn how to apply grammatical rules consciously in either their writing or speaking. Explicit teaching on language structure is needed and should be incorporated into lesson design. This can be done either by illustrating grammatical issues that arise in the readings or through the separate teaching of grammar in areas where the teacher feels students are weak.
Chapter Six

Conclusions

6.1 The Overall Significance of the Findings and Conclusions

Chapter five has discussed the findings and their significance. This chapter briefly discusses the overall significance of the findings, followed by a summary of the conclusions of the study, its limitations and suggestions for future research.

6.2 The Significance of the Findings

The findings of this study represent a substantial contribution to the ongoing debate which is attempting to encourage ESL/EFL teachers to consider introducing thinking skills in their classes. This study has managed to design a robust methodology which successfully integrated reading, writing and thinking activities in one class. Through these activities, the authentic use of L2 was encouraged in class in the way that any language is used in the real world. ESL/EFL teaching in Sudan has for decades advocated the compartmentalised teaching of L2 as separate skills. Consequently, many L2 learners have approached and perceived L2 learning as a mastery of these distinct categories. As a result, many learners encounter difficulties in integrating these functions and in using the L2 efficiently and fluently in real communication. Although for teaching purposes L2 can be divided into small manageable parts, learners should be encouraged to look at the components as one entity. This study has found no contradiction between the treatment of L2 as a whole language in class, while at the same time concentrating on individual features. As such, the findings can contribute in furthering the global teaching of L2 as a language without compromising
attentiveness to its individual aspects. This in turn, could encourage L2 teachers to avoid the treatment of L2 as isolated skills and as a mere subject for examination and to look at it as a language first and then as a subject.

There is very little research on critical thinking skills in the ESL context in general and applied to writing skills in particular. For example, the present researcher has found no studies in Sudan tackling critical thinking skills in writing; and the Ahfad University for Women is the only learning institution in the country which has introduced critical thinking skills as a general course. This began in 2008 and is still under development. This study therefore is one of the very first to address critical thinking as reflected in argumentative writing among Sudanese students. The findings could inspire professionals in the field to conduct further studies to achieve a better understanding of students’ writing needs given the increasing contemporary challenges many of them face in learning English as a global language as well as a language of science and technology. In addition, bearing in mind the unique situation of the participants in this study, the findings can add a new perspective to the literature in the field.

Although there are studies of L1 argumentative and persuasive writing skills, this area has received little attention in the L2 field. Most of the thinking skills studies in L2 writing contexts have investigated writing ability in general terms. Moreover, the emphasis in many L2 writing classes is often on teaching descriptive, narrative, and, to a less extents, expository writing. Argumentative or persuasive writing seems to have been neglected. Moreover, analytical skills and the ability to critique and transform knowledge, though considered essential, have not received wide coverage in the field. This study therefore is
among the few pieces of research which explore argumentative writing in L2 situation. The findings should indeed be a valuable contribution for further exploration of the area.

6.3 Summary and Conclusions

The study has explored how ESL students’ critical thinking as well as their argumentative writing ability could be improved through the combined teaching of reading and writing in the L2 classroom. Specifically, the study investigated four research questions and hypotheses. Firstly, it explored the participants’ perceptions and attitudes about critical thinking in general and in writing in particular before and after the intervention. Secondly, it probed whether or not the guided teaching of critical reading can improve students’ reasoning and argumentative/persuasive writing. Thirdly, the study explored the role of reflection in enhancing students’ metacognition. Finally, applying sociocultural principles, the study examined the role of discussions and interactions provided by class activities in the improvement of students’ writing and thinking abilities. The main theoretical framework which underpinned the study employs the sociocultural principles of mediation, collaboration and scaffolding as advocated by Vygotsky.

The study found that the majority of participants had no clear concept of critical thinking skills before the intervention. Critical thinking, as revealed in the data, is not treated as an essential educational goal in the Sudan education system. The system explicitly or implicitly encourages rote learning and the memorisation of facts as a suitable method for learning. Teachers provided little or no opportunities for students to interact, assimilate, appropriate and develop personal experience with knowledge attained. As a result, they were not encouraged to analyse, evaluate, critique, or intellectually engage with information they
learned. Learning, therefore, is not treated as a meaning-making process that values risk-taking. However, these attitudes and perceptions had changed markedly after the intervention. At the end of the study, the participants demonstrated clear awareness of the concept, as was also reflected in their reading, writing, thinking and speaking skills.

The study revealed that the goal of English teaching in schools was not to develop students’ intellectual ability to use the language more efficiently and effectively, but only to obtain good scores and to pass their examinations. Abilities such as fluency, competency and flexibility in dealing with texts as both readers and writers were secondary and not considered as a priority by many teachers. English classes mainly focused on teaching grammar and language features. As the participants described, English is a neglected language with few activities being undertaken in classes. As a result, students were often less motivated and saw no reason to learn it.

Students’ attitudes towards writing before the intervention were mixed. Whilst some claimed to enjoy writing, others reported that they disliked it. A further analysis of the data revealed that they had poor writing skills. Many of them lacked basic skills in paragraph writing in English. Though they were given written tasks at high school, they were never taught what a paragraph should contain in English. They also reported never having had regular composition classes in high school in either Arabic or English. Some even claimed that they wrote compositions in English only during examinations. Most of the writing classes they had involved guided composition where they were either provided with points to write about or with written models to memorise. Therefore, they never engaged in cognitively demanding writing where they had to craft and produce original texts of their own.
As a result of their poor writing skills, the participants were found to suffer from problems with the generation of ideas and they lacked the skills to judge logical flaws in and discrepancies between ideas in their written texts. They were also found to have no idea of the concepts of audiences, multi-drafts and proof-reading even in the Arabic language. Most of the writing they performed, in and out of school, was descriptive, narrative or expressive writing that mostly dealt with personal issues. However, their writing abilities improved dramatically after the intervention. At the end of the study, they had acquired and developed a clear understanding of how to write a paragraph in English. They also learned how to judge the consistency of ideas in a text, how to maintain its coherence and its logical progression. In addition, they learned how to support their arguments with evidence in writing and the importance of assessing the relevance and accuracy of information in a text. More importantly, the data showed that they developed some self-regulatory abilities where they were able to judge their own performance and assess their strengths and weaknesses.

The study suggested that the participants were not only poor in writing but also in reading skills. In the reading classes before the study, they had not been encouraged to intellectually engage with reading content but were only taught certain reading techniques and skills to tackle comprehension exams. Their poor reading skills, as revealed in the study, were also partly due to a focus in class on teaching grammar and language structure. It was also found that they did not read very much in their leisure time. However, during the intervention, they were presented with many reading texts, which enriched their vocabulary and improved their reading ability. The use of reading as a model for writing enabled them to improve their abilities in both sets of skills. Moreover, the improvements in their reading and writing provided them with new insights about the relationship between the two domains. They
indicated, as a result, that both are cognitively related and that thinking and the negotiation of meanings is a common thread between the two skills.

The study reported greater flexibility in participants’ thinking after the intervention. Before the study, as revealed in the data, they were unaware of the importance of presenting evidence in argument to counteract an opponent’s argument. Most of their arguments, as they said, were based on personal beliefs and convictions without necessarily presenting any evidence. In a nutshell, they were rigid and less open-minded in accepting anything that contradicted their beliefs and convictions. However, after the study, they showed some lenience and acknowledged the importance of respecting opponents’ views as well as backing up their own positions with logical evidence. They mentioned various elements as essential, such as giving themselves time to weigh an argument presented, evaluating evidence provided, conducting research on issues they lacked knowledge of, and pondering over an argument before stating their views. Such responses reflect flexibility and open-mindedness in the treatment of views opposed to their own. The flexibility in their thinking was also seen in their frequent use of signalling words during the debate session. Terms such as ‘I agree/disagree’, ‘I think’, ‘the way I see it’, and ‘in my opinion’ reflected open-mindedness in giving oneself time to judge things diligently before giving an opinion, which is a characteristic of critical thinkers.

The classroom setting played a crucial role in the study. In their traditional classes, teachers had unrestricted control over classroom procedures. The student’s role was to listen while teachers did the talking. Teachers had few means of assessing students’ needs or difficulties or to monitor their general progress in class. The lessons students learnt, therefore, through experience, was that even if they raised issues of their own concern, teachers would not take
them seriously. However, this situation changed during the intervention. Students were involved in small collaborative group discussions, evaluations, presentations, negotiations, thinking, reading, writing, listening and planning. Even physically they did not remain seated in one place but kept moving as the nature of the task required. Learning, as a result, became a social activity accomplished collaboratively in small groups. The tasks given in the class centred on concepts which enabled students to express their views and share their experiences. They engaged in thinking activities whereby they took ownership of their learning without interference from the teacher. Therefore, creativity and risk-taking became part of their learning process. The teacher was seen as a facilitator whose presence did not intimidate them. They felt free to talk, move and contribute actively in class. Learning consequently became an activity that did not end within school premises but was a self-motivating goal that extended outside it.

The study also recorded improvements in students’ spoken English, although this was not an aim in itself. This was seen as a consequence of many factors among which are the following. Firstly, students had ample opportunities to practice their English skills in the class through interaction and groups discussions. Their learning needs and difficulties were monitored and addressed. The classroom environment was therefore encouraging and made them feel free to speak and take risks. Secondly, students felt involved and immersed in learning activities, and consequently got involved in extended discourses which stretched their language to the limit. Thirdly, classroom collaboration provided an ideal environment for them to share their thoughts and experiences. As a result, they got involved in meaningful activities which enabled them to use the language in class as it is used in the real world.
Students’ reaction to the study was positive. They resented the way they had previously been taught English. They felt they had been denied opportunities to think, read, write and interact effectively with the language. The study not only improved their reading and writing, but also their thinking. It helped them to organise their thinking and made them plan properly for whatever they read or write. It also offered them opportunities to think and judge things by themselves and therefore they took responsibility for their own learning. Their views and contributions during the study were respected and valued. As a result, their previous negative attitudes towards English changed. They developed greater interest in learning it because they understood and appreciated what they were taught.

The study revealed that students did not appreciate the reflection practices they engaged in, which were aimed at strengthening their metacognitive and self-assessment ability. This was because they had not mastered and understood how to conduct proper reflection. The questions provided after each class session to assist them in their retrospection were found to have distracted them. As a result, they only engaged in superficial answering of the questions without any serious self-appraisal of their thinking and performance. These findings indicate that it is important that students should be provided with training on how to carry out proper reflection. But it is cautioned that, if this is considered important, the questions provided should vary in nature from one lesson to another.

The data suggested that students did not lack critical thinking abilities but were unfamiliar with its requirements. The education they had received did not encourage critical thinking. The expectation they had was merely to memorise and regurgitate knowledge in exams. Therefore critical engagement with learning material was not valued and rewarded. However, there were changes in their perceptions and expectations when they were exposed to critical
thinking skills. Marked improvement resulted in their argumentative writing. This demonstrated, as the study concluded, that critical thinking skills could be improved through instruction.

In conclusion, for L2 students to improve their English abilities, they need to engage in reading, writing, talking and listening and to use the language in class as it is used in the real world. Offering various classroom activities can provide a rich environment that allows them to practice their language skills. In addition, it exposes them to different skills simultaneously, which can be more effective than one-by-one skill mastery. Through reading, students may gain new vocabulary and various grammatical uses as well as being exposed to different intellectual works. Moreover, through writing, they would comprehend this information properly, create their own voices and thus expand their schemata. ESL students need to be given opportunities to learn and think, and their needs to be revealed and addressed.

6.4 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The study suffered from certain limitations, among which are the following. Firstly, even though students showed overall improvements in their writing ability, the texts they produced still exhibited poor grammar and spelling which were overlooked during the rating processes. Students’ use of cohesive devices was poor, although the overall coherence of the texts was clear. Secondly, the study has only investigated the influence of reading on writing. However, the influence of writing on reading was not investigated, though briefly referred to in the literature. In addition, the study did not thoroughly investigate students’ reading skills even though these were reported to have improved. Thirdly, the study’s duration was short.
Thinking skills in argumentative writing is a complex issue which takes time for its effects to be realised, especially when taught in the L2 situation. Therefore, future research needs to consider conducting longitudinal studies for proper investigation and to offer students enough time to internalise the knowledge gained.

Finally, in addition to the above limitations, it was difficult in the study to identify which factors contributed more or less to the improvements found in students’ thinking and writing skills. The classroom strategies utilised, such as small group discussions, the collaborative accomplishment of tasks and students’ conscious reflections on their performance, can all lead to improvements in students’ results. Equally, the novelty of the teaching method, the brevity of the study period and the teacher’s enthusiasm could also have contributed to the success of the intervention. Therefore, it was difficult to disentangle these factors from each others. However, as indicated in section 3.1, the intention was not to examine which individual factors played the greatest role but how far the combination of all these factors in a real educational context could lead to improvements in students’ performance. Sociocultural theory does not consider one factor to be directly responsible for the development of high-order thinking. Instead a combination of factors such as meaningful social interaction, good teaching directed towards improving the ZPD, and a proper use of mediators and scaffolding processes are all considered crucial in learning contexts. However, the determination of the extent of the Hawthorne effect influencing the result obtained is an issue of some concern. Although the present author is aware of its cautionary effect on the interpretation of the results, it is clearly an issue that can be best tackled through longitudinal study. Yet some indications, such as the level of students’ abstraction in their writing, the changes witnessed in their reading and writing, and the improvements in their verbal and written argumentative
skills, all suggest that, besides other factors, critical thinking skills may have had a significant role in their performance.

Overall, such potential limitations do not negate or reduce the importance of the findings obtained in this study. Such limitations only highlight the fact that much work still lies ahead. Future research, therefore, needs to investigate the complexity of argumentative texts written by L2 students and how the complexity of their thinking may lead to the increasing sophistication of the language produced. Moreover, studies need to look at how grammatical items could be embedded in reading, writing and thinking activities, in order to address the grammatical weaknesses reported in this study. More importantly, research should be conducted over longer periods in order to allow for the proper investigation of students’ thinking and argumentation and how they adjust to the demands of L2 learning.
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Appendix 1: Consent Form

Consent Form (participant)

Project title: ____________________________________________________________

Declaration of Consent

It is a university requirement that all respondents give their formal consent to take part in any research. For this reason could you please sign and date the declaration below.

Consent to the use of (name the instruments to be used)

I have read the statement provided for the above research project and I have had the opportunity to ask questions. I consent to participate in this research project. I understand that all the data will be kept confidential and I will be anonymous in the research report. I also know that the data gathered from this project will be used for the purposes stated in the Participant Information Form.

I understand that participation is voluntary and that withdrawal from the project is possible at any time without needing to give a reason.

Name of participant/parent:__________ Signed:_______ Date:_______

Name of researcher: _______________ Signed:_______ Date:_______

One copy to the participant and one to the researcher
Appendix 2

Pre, post and Delayed test rubrics

There is speculation that Sudan in the year 2011 may split into two states, when the southern Sudanese will vote in a general referendum in which they will vote for either unity or secession of the south from the north. Though no official opinion poll has ever been conducted in the south on this matter, it is generally assumed that a majority of southern Sudanese will favour separation. Opinions are divided, however, over which option is better for the future of both sides and the region as whole. Some people from both the south and the north think that separation is the only viable option left to curb the endless hatred and hostility between the two sides, which has been going on for centuries. They claim that despite the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005 which at least established an acceptable formula for the distribution of wealth and power, still the tension between the two sides is far from being abated. On the other hand, those who oppose this view think that the Sudanese should try to find a common ground of understanding in order to keep the country united for the benefit of both sides. They claim that after the signing of the CPA, the two sides became more close to each other than ever before. They conclude that the tension which still exists is a natural residue of years of hatred and mistrust, and according to them, it has declined tremendously compared to the years before the agreement.

As a Sudanese, given a chance to vote, say which option you will choose, unity or separation, and why. Support your argument with evidence. While writing for or against any of the options, try to consider the following argument points:

Unity

1- Separation will lead to the emergence of a weak and landlocked state in the south. Lack of a seaport will hamper its economic growth and trading with other countries in the region and the rest of the world.

2- Separation will not end the hostility between the two sides; instead it will lead to more bloodshed. Conflicts over issues such as border demarcation and resources in the border areas will ignite further conflicts between the two sides. The issue of the Abeyi area is a living example.

3- As a result of globalisation, countries are moving together to form bloc economies as a way of strengthening their economies and to create bigger markets for their products. Therefore, it will be an unwise step for the country to disintegrate at a time where unity is most needed.

4- The social structure in Southern Sudan is based on tribalism in which people are loyal to their tribal leaders. Separation, therefore, will lead to the domination of bigger tribes over smaller ones. This, in turn, will lead to more unrest in the state. Instead of the peace and stability they fought and hoped for, they will find themselves fighting each other, which might have a devastating impact on the new state. There are a lot of such incidences in recent history that support this view. Therefore, southerners need northerners to maintain a balance.

Separation

1- The country is suffering from an identity crisis in which southerners regard themselves as black Africans, while northerners conceive themselves as Arabs. Culturally, religiously and politically there is no common ground between the two
sides. Attempts to create a united nation despite the obvious differences have failed. Therefore, it is time to divide the country and let each side live in peace.

2- Islamic fundamentalism is an obstacle towards unity and the co-existence of the two sides. Both southerners and northerners each have the right to retain their values and beliefs. If the price of the unity is an abandonment of these values, it is better for the two sides to go their own ways. Let the northerners go on with the creation of a theocratic state, while southerners can form their secular state.

3- The South is rich with resources such as oil, minerals, water and animal resources, and arable and fertile agricultural land. Given a chance to run its own resources, it will develop very fast.

4- Many countries have disintegrated when their people have discovered that they could no longer remain together. Eritrea and Ethiopia represent a living example in recent history, even though they have a lot more in common than the north and the south. Uganda is a landlocked country, yet economically it is performing better than Sudan. Therefore, Sudan is too big to be ruled by one group; let each side rule itself.
Appendix 3 (A)

Lesson One:

Aims: to identify the author’s viewpoint in a written text and the reason(s) offered to support the viewpoint.

Pedagogical Objectives:

1- to encourage students to ask and formulate questions in their attempt to identify a viewpoint and reasons provided in support of an argument in a written text.

2- to identify an author’s viewpoint in a written text.

3- to identify reasons offered in support of a viewpoint in a written text.

4- to identify “reason indicators”, that is, word clues that may lead the reader to realise the existence of reasons or a point of view in a written text.

Lesson plan

Step 1: discovery stage (analogy) to prepare students for learning.

At this stage the teacher offered examples and analogies as introductory steps to the topics of the lesson. This was to avoid offering students ready answers, instead leading them through examples and analogies to discover the intended objectives of the lesson. In this way, students were not silent recipients of knowledge but active participants in the processes of knowledge creation and building. In cases where students failed to understand the concept presented, the teacher offered more examples and clarifications. Below are some examples:

Analogy 1
Teacher: Imagine a teacher who thought he/she taught a subject well, however, in the final examination result, he/she found that majority of students failed in his/her subject, what would you thing the teacher will be interested to know?
(Students gave different answers, however the targeted answer was “reasons”)

Analogy 2
Teacher: Why do authors write in the first place? What is the importance of writing?
(Students gave various answers including the intended answer, which was “to express a point of view”.

Analogy 3
Teacher: What do you think is the difference between a reason and a viewpoint? How will you identify that this is a reason and not anything else?
(First part: to ensure that students know the difference between a viewpoint and a reason before they embark on the task. Second part: the answer was “reason indicators”, or “word clues” that usually acted as indicators for the existence of reasons in a persuasive text.)

Analogy 4
Teacher: If you encountered a difficult text which you must understand, what is the best strategy you think you should use in order to focus on the main points of the text?
(The intended answer was to ask questions about each part as a best option of engaging with the difficult text.)

NB: The teacher regularly changed the structure of questions if he felt that the students had not understood the questions. The main purpose was to lead them gradually to the intended answers.

Step 2: Group work
Students were divided into small groups to identify the following:
1- author’s point of view.
2- the reasons given in support of the viewpoint.
3- reason indicators (words clues)
4- encourage students to ask themselves questions during the processes of identifying viewpoint, reasons and word clues.

Passages
NB: The answers are provided here but were removed from the students’ copies

Passage 1
Most parents want their children to have successful careers. Since education is essential to success, it is the duty of parents to give children the best possible education. Because it is also in the country’s economic interest to have a highly educated population, the government should help parents to provide for their children’s education. Therefore all parents should receive financial help towards the cost of their children’s education, so the low paid should receive tax credits and those who are better off should receive tax relief. (Taken from Fisher, 2001, p.24)

Viewpoint:
1- Parents should receive financial help towards the cost of their children’s education.
The reasons are:
   1- Education is essential to children’s future success.
   2- It is in the country’s economic interest to have a highly educated population.
In this example, each reason directly supports the conclusion (separate reasons)
Reason indicators
1- Since and because
The other two word indicators, Therefore and so are conclusion indicators and not reason indicators

Passage 2
Dissecting creatures in the biology classroom teaches students that animal life is expendable and unimportant. Also a recent study showed that certain companies who supply these creatures are careless of the suffering and pain inflicted on them. Furthermore, there are good alternatives available now in computer simulations, which teach the lessons taught by dissection just as well. So for all these reasons, we should no longer use dissection of animals to teach students in the biology classroom.
(Taken from Fisher, 2001, p. 30)

Viewpoint
1-Dissecting animals to teach students in the biology classroom should be stopped.
The reasons in this passage:
1- Dissecting creatures in the biology classroom teaches students that animal life is expendable and unimportant (claim & reason).
2- A recent study showed that certain companies who also supply these creatures are careless of the suffering and pain inflicted on the animals.
3- Computer simulations can be a good example to teach lessons taught by dissection.

In this example, we have separate reasons in support of the conclusion. Each reason gives support to the conclusion on its own right without the other reasons.

**Reason indicators**

1- Also and furthermore

---

**Passage 3**

The Truman Doctrine was a turning point in American history for at least four reasons. *First*, it marked the point at which Truman used the American fear of communism both at home and abroad to convince Americans they must embark upon a cold war foreign policy. *Secondly*… congress was giving the president great powers to wage this cold war as he saw fit. *Third*, for the first time in the post war era, Americans massively intervened in another nation’s civil war. *Finally*, and perhaps most important, Truman used the doctrine to justify a gigantic aid programme to prevent a collapse of the European and American economies. (Taken from Fisher, 2001, p.34)

**Viewpoint:**

1- Truman doctrine was a turning point in American history.

**Reasons offered in this passage:**

1- Truman used the American fear of communism both at home and abroad to convince Americans they must embark upon a cold war foreign policy.
2- Congress gave the president great powers to wage this cold war as he saw fit.
3- For the first time in the post war era, Americans massively intervened in another nation’s civil war.
4- Truman used the doctrine to justify a gigantic aid programme to prevent a collapse of the European and American economies.

In this example we have separate reasons in which each reason directly support the conclusion.

**Reason indicators:**

1- Firstly, secondly, thirdly and finally

---

**Passage 4**

Burning vast quantities of fossil fuels is causing global warming, which is hurting us all, *so* it is vital to negotiate reductions in the production of the gases, which are doing the damage. *Thus* we need an international agreement under which countries reduce the production of such gases in proportion to the extent to which they are creating the problem. *Therefore* the United States must not be allowed to buy permission to produce these gases from other countries. (Taken from Fisher, 2001, p.35)

**Viewpoint**

1- United States must not be allowed to buy permission to produce gases in other countries.

**Reasons provided in the passage:**

1- Burning vast quantities of fossil fuels is causing global warming, which is hurting us all.
2- It is vital to negotiate reductions in the production of the gases, which are doing the damage. (This reason is a conclusion to the first reason, and a reason for the next conclusion)
3- We need an international agreement under which countries reduce the production of such gases in proportion to the extent to which they are creating the problem. (Like 2, it is a conclusion to reason 2 and at the same time a reason for the final conclusion). Such types of reasons are known as *chain of reasoning* in which each reason does not stand alone to support the final conclusion.

**Passage 5**
Most prospective parents would prefer to have sons. So if people can choose the sex of their child, it is likely that there will eventually be more males than females in the population. This could produce serious social problems; therefore we should prohibit the use of techniques which enable people to choose the sex of their children. (Taken from Fisher, 2001, p.39)

**Viewpoint:**
1- The technique used for children’s sex selection should be prohibited.

**Reasons offered:**
1- Most prospective parents would prefer to have sons.
2- This could produce serious social problems.

**Reason indicators**
1- So, and

**Passage 6**
Much of the genetic diversity in humans has evolved to protect us against the huge variety of pathogens that prey on us, from viruses and bacteria to protozoa, worms and other parasites. This inevitably means that some of us are more susceptible than others to a particular disease. But...that genetic diversity can also protect this susceptible group. If the people who are likely to catch a particular disease are in a minority, then each of them will be surrounded by others who are more resistant to the disorder. This makes life difficult for the pathogen causing the disease, because the few susceptible hosts will be thinly scattered throughout the resistant population. So, many susceptible people might never come in contact with the disease. (Taken from Fisher, 2001, p.39).

**Viewpoint:**
1- Many susceptible people might not come in contact with the diseases.

**Reasons offered:**
1- Much of the genetic diversity in humans has evolved to protect us against the huge variety of pathogens that prey us, from viruses and bacteria to protozoa, worms and other parasites.
2- If the people who are likely to catch a particular disease are in a minority, then each of them will be surrounded by others who are more resistant to the disorder.

Passage 6 is like passage 5 in the sense that a reason is followed by one or more conclusions before the author moved to the next reason. However, this mixed kind of reasons and intermediate conclusions will be the subject of later lessons.

**Step 3: Inter-group discussion**
After the inter-group discussion, intra group discussion was allowed so that students could share their answers and as a result scaffold each other. This sharing of experiences and answers could enhance their individual ZPDs. In this way, they might change or modify their previous answers as a result of consultation they had with the other groups.
Step 4: Group presentations
Students in their various groups presented their answers followed by whole class discussion. During the class discussion, the teacher offered some feedback whenever he felt students have missed some points or strayed.

Step 5: Writing Log (reflection).
*(If they are not familiar with reflection, you might need to spend some time to train them, e.g. asking questions verbally and discussing them in the class).*

Students were asked to write their reflection about the lesson. They were provided with the following questions to assist them in their reflections.

1. What do you think you have learnt especially from today’s lesson?
2. What kind of thinking have you engaged in the activities we did today?
3. How did you carry out this kind of thinking?
4. Do you find any differences between this teaching strategy compared to your usual way of teaching? Explain how?
5. In today’s lesson is there any aspect which you had difficulty with? If yes, what were they?
6. What are the challenges you faced while accomplishing this task and how did you overcome these challenges?
7. Do you think you can apply this strategy in other situations?
8. What is your general thought about today’s lesson? [Do you think this is an effective way of teaching?]

The end

Home Work
*(Students were given the passages below to do more practice during their free time as homework).*

Passage 7
Random drug-testing of prisoners was introduced in 1995 in order to solve the many problems associated with prisoners taking drugs. Since cannabis can be detected in the body up to a month after having been smoked, prisoners are tempted to switch to heroin, which stays in the system for only 48 hours. As a result, since drug-testing was introduced, cannabis use has declined by a fifth, whereas heroin use has doubled. Heroin is not only a much more damaging drug than cannabis, but it is also extremely addictive. There is evidence that heroin addiction encourages prisoners to intimidate others in order to pay for the drug. *(Taken from Fisher, 2001, p.45)*

Passage 8
One of the attractions of drugs for young people is the excitement of taking risks. The proposed anti-drugs campaign will stress the risks involved in taking drugs. Therefore the proposed campaign is unlikely to be effective with young people who take drugs. *(Taken from Brink-Budgen, 2000, p.26)*

Passage 9
Most people don’t go to watch football matches. But the costs of policing them are very high. Clubs make a contribution to these costs, but most of the bill falls to us all to pay. Football fans must be prepared to pay higher prices for their tickets to cover most of these costs. *(Taken from Brink-Budgen, 2000, p.30)*
Passage 10
Since some of the Antarctic ice-caps are melting, there must be global warming. So we can expect sea-levels to rise, resulting in catastrophic flooding of many coastal areas. We should take action now to reduce the causes of global warming. (Taken from Brink-Budgen, 2000, p.40)

Passage 11
There are laws against the ill-treatment of farm and domestic animals. The reasoning behind these laws is that animals should not be allowed to suffer needlessly. But there are no differences in their capacity to suffer between wild animals on the one hand and pets and farm animals on the other. We cannot justify treating wild animals differently from any others. It follows that we should have a law against ill-treating wild animals. (Taken from Brink-Budgen, 2000, p.43)

Passage 12
It is important that pregnant women and those with poor immune systems become aware of the potential risks posed by cats. Many of us keep cats as house pets without realising the dangers they may be harbouring. Cats are hosts to infectious toxoplasma gondii, a protozoa that causes disease, toxoplasmosis, in mammals such as humans. The protozoa is crescent-shaped and common in nature, but in its infectious stage relies on the cats as host bodies. Adult humans rarely show signs of significant disease if they become infected. However, if pregnant women become infected, the foetus can become infected by parasites and suffer serious congenital damage. In the worst cases, infants may lose their eye-sight and acquire motor deficits. In people with poor immune systems or AIDS, toxoplasmosis can cause seizures and death. The symptoms of the disease are not evident in cats so there is no way of knowing if a particular cat is a risk. (Taken from Cottrell, 2005, p.45)
Appendix 3 (B)

Lesson Two
Aims: identifying and categorising various types of evidence provided by an author in support of claims.

Learning Objectives:
1- to enable learners to identify the following types of evidence.
   I- Citing authorities
   II- Research Studies and statistics
   III- Causal explanation
   IV- Factual evidence
   V- Personal experience
   VI- Logical explanation
   VII- Precise definition
   VIII- Comparisons and analogies
   IX- Value judgment

2- to distinguish facts from opinions given as evidence in support of claims.

Lesson Plan
Step 1: discovery stage (analogy) to prepare students for the learning tasks.
This stage was aimed to prepare learners to know the importance of evidence as support for claims and to be able to distinguish various types of evidence. It was also aimed at enabling them to form ideas about the difference between facts and opinions offered in support of claims.

Analogy 1
Teacher: Suppose someone told you that there are some human beings living in some part of this planet who have four eyes and horns on their heads, what will you ask for in order to believe the story?
(Students were expected to offer various answers including the intended answer, the probe for “where is the evidence?”)

Analogy 2:
Teacher: how many type of evidence do you know can be used as support for claims?
(Students mentioned the evidence they know and the teacher assisted them in explaining and defining the other types of evidence, which they did not mention. Whenever students failed to come up with their own examples, they were referred to look at evidence provided in the previous lesson.)

Step 2: Group work
Students were divided into small groups to identify the following types of evidence:
1- Citing authorities
2- Research studies and statistics
3- Causal explanation
4- Factual evidence
5- Personal experience
6- Logical explanation
7- Precise definition
8- Comparisons and analogies
9. Value judgment

(Students were encouraged to identify the viewpoint and the reasons offered where applicable first before identifying the type of evidence provided. This was done as a method of connecting the previous lesson with the present one)

Passages:

NB: The answers are provided here but were removed from the students’ copies.

Passage 1

C/Napoleon must have died of arsenic poisoning whilst in exile on St Helena for the following reasons. R1<< Arsenic can be administered in small doses, which will not be noticed, but will eventually kill the victim. R2<< Arsenic poisoning leaves traces of arsenic in human hair, and R3<< reliable tests recently showed that Napoleon’s hair contained abnormally large amounts of arsenic. It had been thought that he died of cancer, but R4<< his symptoms included nausea, chills, weakness and increasing corpulence, which R5<< cancer specialists say are not symptoms of cancer. However, R6<< these are typical symptoms of arsenic poisoning according to specialists. (Taken from Fisher, 2001, p. 140, Causal explanation)

R4 and R5 are evidence against the alternative hypothesis and R1, R2, R3, R4 and R6 provide support for C

Point of view:

Reasons:

Reason (Word) - indicators:

Type of Evidence:

Passage 2

An interesting switch was pulled in Rome yesterday by Adam Nordwell, an American Chippewa chief. As he descended his plane from California dressed in full tribal regalia, Nordwell announced in the name of the American Indian people that C// he was taking possession of Italy “by right of discovery” R1/E<< in the same way that Christopher Columbus did in America. “I proclaim this day the day of discovery of Italy,” said Nordwell. R2/E<< “What right did Columbus have to discover America when it had already been inhabited for thousands of years? R3/E<< The same right I now have to come to Italy and proclaim the discovery of your country”. (Taken from Watson, 2000, p. 20, Analogy)

R1, R2 and R3 are reasons provided to support his Claim. The nature of the evidence (reasons) is comparison and analogy. He compared two similar situations as evidence to support his conclusion.

Point of View:

Reasons:

Reason (Word) - indicators:

Type of Evidence:

Passage 3

Carol Beckwith, in “Niger’s Wodaabe” E1/<(national Geographic 164, no. 4 (October 1983): 483-509), reports that among the West African Fulani peoples such as the Wodaabe, makeup and clothes are mostly men’s business. E2/ Beckwith and an anthropologist colleague lived with the Wodaabe for two years and observed many dances for which the men prepared by lengthy preening, face-painting, and teeth - whitening. (Her article includes many pictures too.)
Wodaabe women watch, comment, and choose mates for their beauty - which the men say is the natural way. “Our beauty makes the women want us,” one says. (Taken from Watson, 2000, p.26 authority or expert)

E1, E2, and E3 are evidence extracted from reliable and expert sources.

Point of view:
Reasons:
Reason (Word) - indicators:
Type of Evidence:

Passage 4
C/ There is a growing number of organisations which have been set up to deal with bullying. The only possible reason for this is R2< that bullying is on the increase. (Taken from Fisher, 2001, p. 171, logical conclusion).
C/ provide logical evidence for the increase of bullying.

Point of View:
Reasons:
Reason (Word) - indicators:
Type of Evidence:

Passage 5
C/ Democracy is the government of the people, by the people, for the people. The essential thing is that the government is elected by the people and can be replaced by others if the people are dissatisfied. This simply reports common usage (it is a reported definition); it may still be too vague to make it easy to decide if certain countries are democracies though some examples might help. Presumably, E1/ if any country is a democracy, the United States is, as are various western European countries; certainly E2/ Hitler’s Germany was not, Franco’s Spain was not, and modern Saudi Arabia is not. A politics text would no doubt give you much more detail. (Taken from Fisher, 2001, p. 213, definition)
C/ provide a (criterion) definition for what is democracy; E1 is evidence to support the claim. E2 provides evidence to further support what is not a democracy according to the definition.

Point of view:
Reasons:
Reason (Word) - indicators:
Type of Evidence:

Passage 6
The coroner stated that E1< the time of death was between 2 am and 4 am in the morning. E2< The body was found at 6.30 am by the cook. E3< The footman reports that there were six people in the house overnight. E4< The butler reports that four other people have keys and could have entered the house and left again before 6.30 am (Taken from Cottrell, 2005, p., 141, Facts)
E1, E2, E3, and E4 are facts in relation to the death and are factual evidence that can be used in the court in relation to the circumstances of the death.

Point of View:
Reasons:
Reason (Word) - indicators:
Type of Evidence:
Passage 7
According to a study by the Bureau of National Affairs, E1< about 35% of U.S. companies restrict smoking (only 2% ban it outright) and an additional 20% are studying the issue. E2< In many cases, companies have choices: 17 states and hundreds of localities outlaw smoking in offices and other working places. E3< The surgeon general’s report last year asserting that smokers create health risks for nearby nonsmokers has encouraged companies to promote smoke-free work environments. E4< Finally, firms are increasingly aware of the cost of having smokers on staff: higher insurance expenses and increased absenteeism. (Taken from Wegmann, B. and Knezevic, M., 1996, p., 77, study with statistics).
C/the study uses E1, E2, E3 and E4 to support its claims about the restriction imposed by companies on smoking in offices and places of work.
Point of view:
Reasons:
Reason (Word) - indicators:
Type of Evidence:

Passage 8
A group of tourists who were taking a walk at Boma national Zoo in Southern Sudan E1/ were advised by a local resident not to get scared when they encounter a lion and to avoid looking straight at a lion’s eyes, moreover, they should not run away if they heard a strange move or sound. C/ If you observe these simple rules, no lion will attack you, the resident told them. (Personal experience)
E1 provide evidence through experience to support the C.
Point of view:
Reasons:
Reason (Word) - indicators:
Type of Evidence:

Passage 9
Children are very susceptible to the power of advertisements. R2< Those children who smoke tend to buy those brands that are most frequently advertised. C/ It must be advertising that influences children to smoke. (Taken from Brink-Budgen, 2000, p.30, value judgment)
R1 and R2 provide reasons and evidence to support the conclusion.
Point of view:
Reasons:
Reason (Word) - indicators:
Type of Evidence:

Step 3: Inter-group discussion
After the inter-group discussion, intra group discussion will be allowed so that students can share their answers and as a result scaffold each other. This sharing of experiences and answers can enhance their individual ZPD. In this way, they might change or modify their previous answers as a result of consultation they had with the other groups.

Step 4: Group Presentations
Students in their various groups presented their answers followed by whole class discussion. During the class, the teacher offers some feedback whenever he felt students have missed some points or strayed.
Step 5
Further discussion on facts and opinions

Decide whether each of the following statements is a fact or an opinion and state the reason why you think it is either opinion or fact

1- Juba is the capital city of England.
2- Drinking milk can make you clever.
3- Cigarette smoking has been linked to lung cancer
4- In Sudan 60% of the population is under 30 years old.
5- There are more people in Malakal than in Kudok.
6- This girl is very beautiful.
7- Autumn season in Malakal is better than in Yai.

Exercise:

Read the following statements and insert either facts or opinions in the space:

1- ……deal with real people, places or things and make statements which can be proved.
2- ……often include adjectives such as good, beautiful or boring.
3- …….are often about the present and the past where events can be shown to be true.
4- …….often refer to abstract things which can’t be measured such as hope, love or courage.
5- Statements about the future are …….even when the outcome seems very probable.
6- …….often refer to things that are measurable or visible such as colour, shape or number.

Step 6: Writing Log (reflection):

Students were asked to write their reflection about the lesson. They were provided with the following questions to assist them in their reflections.

1- Do you think you have learnt something new from today’s lesson?
2- What kind of thinking have you engaged in the activities we did today?
3- How did you carry out this kind of thinking?
4- Do you find any differences between this teaching strategy compared to what you did in the last lesson and your usual way of teaching? Explain how?
5- Can you differentiate between viewpoint, reasons and evidence?
6- What are the challenges you faced while accomplishing this task and how did you overcome these challenges?
5- Do you think you can apply this strategy in other subjects and how?
6- What is your general thought about today’s lesson? [Do you think this is an effective way of teaching?]

The end

Homework

In not more than 250 words, write a composition on any topic of your choice. Indicate clearly your viewpoint, reasons, and the evidence to back up your claims and statements.

(I decided to give them a writing assignment so early because I found that students have never been taught composition writing. Therefore, giving them a writing assignment will help them to form some ideas about paragraph writing, which is one of the targeted topics in the upcoming lessons. Moreover, such a writing task will help them to consolidate the knowledge gained from the lessons given so far and to give them some ideas of the process of writing)

Worksheet
This is for students to practice at their leisure time during the week. This is to ensure that students understood the concepts taught.

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<tr>
<th>Passages</th>
<th>Viewpoint</th>
<th>Reasons provided</th>
<th>Word Indicators used</th>
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Appendix 3 (C)

Lesson Three

Aims: identification of intermediate and final conclusion in a written essay.

Learning Objectives:
1- Student ability to recognise a conclusion in a written essay (what the author wants the reader to believe). Student should be able to identify:
   (a) Intermediate conclusion.
   (b) Final conclusion.
   (c) Word-indicators of conclusion.
2- Ability to distinguish between words indicating reasons and those signifying conclusions.

Lesson Plan
Step 1
In this stage students were aimed to identify conclusions in written essays and to distinguish between an intermediate and a final conclusion. In addition, they were intended to identify and distinguish word-indicators that signify a conclusion or a reason.

Analogy 1
Teacher: How many parts can an essay be divided into?
(Student were familiar with the different parts of an essay (introduction, body and conclusion); therefore, conclusion was expected to be part of the answer they would offer)
Teacher: Well, you mention conclusion, then what is…or what should a conclusion contain?
(Student defined and explained what conclusion should include)
Teacher: Then, what is the difference between a conclusion and a reason?

Analogy 2
Teacher: since you correctly defined a conclusion and identified the difference between a reason and a conclusion, can you identify which of the following statements contain a reason and which contain a conclusion? (Answer are provided here)
   1- We stayed at home because it was raining heavily (cause & effect, reason)
   2- Since many parents in rural areas in Sudan could not afford paying for their children’s education, the government should provide financial help for these parents (Conclusion).
   3- It was very sunny so I took my umbrella (cause & effect, reason)
   4- The children who smoke tend to buy the brands that are most frequently advertised. Thus, it must be advertising that influences children to smoke (conclusion).
   5- Many students failed in English in Sudan School Examination because they were taught by untrained teachers (cause & effect, reason).
   6- For many victims of crime, a tougher punishment for criminals would be welcome. So the Government is right to introduce Hudud as tougher laws in Northern Sudan (conclusion).

Analogy 3
Teacher: study the underlined parts of the passage below marked as 1 & 2 and label which is an intermediate or final conclusion and why?
Burning vast quantities of fossil fuels is causing global warming, which is hurting us all, so it is vital to negotiate reductions in the production of the gases which are doing the damage. (1) Thus we need an international agreement under which countries reduce the production of such gases in proportion to the extent to which they are creating the problem. (2) Therefore the United States must not be allowed to buy permission to produce these gases from other countries. (Taken from Fisher, 2001, P.35)

**Step 2: Group work**

Students were divided into small groups to identify the intermediate and final conclusion and word-indicators in the passages below.

Students were required to identify first the author’s point of view, reasons and their word-indicators, evidence provided and then, identify the intermediate and final conclusion where applicable and their word-indicators. The rationale was to connect the previous lessons with the current one so that students gradually understand the links and interrelationship between all the topics they studied and to make them understand that these topics are complementary and essential in mastering writing skills. Students therefore were instructed in their collaborative groups to identify the following:

1. Author’s point of view.
2. Reasons offered in support of a point of view.
3. Words that indicate the present of a reason.
4. Types of evidence provided.
5. Conclusions
   
   a. Intermediate conclusion.
   
   b. Final conclusion.
   
   c. Word-indicators of conclusions.
   
   d. The different between word-indicators of reasons and conclusions.

**NB:** Students were familiar with the passages below as they encountered them in previous lessons. Therefore, they were not expected to find difficulties in identifying the first four objectives.

**Passages**

**NB:** *The answers are provided here but were removed from the students’ copies.*

**Passage 1**

*RI*

Dissecting creatures in the biology classroom teaches students that animal life is expendable and unimportant. Also *R2* a recent study showed that certain companies who supply these creatures are careless of the suffering and pain inflicted on them. *Furthermore, R3* there are good alternatives available now in computer simulations, which teach the lessons taught by dissection just as well. So for all these reasons, *C1* we should no longer use dissection of animals to teach students in the biology classroom.

(Taken from Fisher, 2001, p. 30)

**Passage 2**

*RI*

Most prospective parents would prefer to have sons. So *C1* if people can choose the sex of their child, it is likely that there will eventually be more males than females in the population. *R2* This could produce serious social problems; therefore *C2* we should prohibit the use of techniques which enable people to choose the sex of their children.

(Taken from Fisher, 2001, p.39)
Passage 3

R1 A human skeleton was found near the river late last month by a senior couple walking their dog. They believed it was a murder caused by a troublesome local family. R2 The police interviewed the family but ruled out their involvement. R3/E The bones are believed to be several hundred years old. R4/E Historians confirm that the river Marle passes close to ancient burial grounds and that there are records of R5 other bodies being carried away by the river in the distant past. This was the first for over 150 years. R6 Recent storms have caused the river to rise by half a metre. C It is probable that the skeleton was dislodged from its resting place by the river rather than by the local family. (Taken from Cottrell, 2005, p.45)

Passage 4

R1 The lives of people who are public figures are of considerable interest to the general public. In addition, R2 people have a right to information about how public figures conduct their lives. Therefore C there should be no control over the right of newspapers to publish photographs and stories about public figures. (Taken from Brink-Budgen, 2000, p.25)

Passage 5

S Most parents want their children to have successful careers. Since R1 education is essential to success, it is the duty of parents to give children the best possible education. Because R2 it is also in the country’s economic interest to have a highly educated population; the government should help parents to provide for their children’s education. Therefore C all parents should receive financial help towards the cost of their children’s education, so C2 the low paid should receive tax credits and those who are better off should receive tax relief. (Taken from Fisher, 2001, p.24)

Step 3: Inter-group discussion

After students’ deliberation in their various groups, they were given time for intra group consultation as a way of encouraging group interaction and sharing of their views on the answers they had. As a result, they can have further discussion over these issues and consequently modify or change their first answers when they get new insights through their between groups discussion.

Step 4: Groups Presentations

Students in their groups presented their answers followed by whole class discussion. During the class discussion, the teacher offered feedback if he felt students have missed some points or strayed.

Step 5: Writing log (reflection)

Students were asked to write their reflection about the lesson. They were provided with the following questions to assist them in their reflections.

1- Do you think you have learnt something new from today’s lesson?
2- What kind of thinking have you engaged in the activities we did today?
3- How did you carry out this kind of thinking?
4- Do you find any differences between strategies you used in previous lessons compared to this lesson? Explain how?
5- How helpful were the strategies you used in the previous lesson in accomplishing today’s lesson?
6- Can you now differentiate between reasons, intermediate and final conclusions?
7- What are the challenges you faced while accomplishing this task and how did you overcome these challenges?
8- Do you think you can apply this strategy in other subjects and how?
9- What is your general thought about today’s lesson? [Do you think this is an effective way of teaching?]

The end

Worksheet

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Appendix 3 (D)

Lesson Four

**Aims:** Evaluation Skills

**Learning Objectives:**

1- To assess the logical order of reasoning.
   
   - (a) Are the reasons presented in logical order?

2- To draw logical inferences in the text (based on the reasons presented).

3- To identify author/writer’s assumptions (assumed concepts and logical implications in the text)

4- What the author ought to say but did not mention in the article?

**Lesson Plan**

**Step 1**

Students needed to be made aware that judgment of a piece of writing and working out a writer’s implied assumptions often require going beyond the text. To make sound judgment, they needed to predict, imagine and speculate what assumption should be derived out of a text or what research needs to be done into the issue. However, as Fisher (2001) advocates, thinking of other considerations that are relevant to an argument needs critical thinking. Students needed to know that responding to an argument requires first that they should be clear about what is said in the text. They also needed to ask themselves of whether or not the reasons offered support the conclusion but above all they needed to think around the subject to take into account all the other relevant considerations.

**Analogy 1**

**Teacher:** assess this statement and state what are the assumptions that can be drawn?

“It is important that we should elect the president of the republic of the Sudan from the western region because the region is a desert and it has a low rainfall.”

**Teacher:**

1- Does the reason offered support the conclusion and why?

2- What are the other considerations relevant to this argument?

This passage aimed to generate discussion in which one of the goals was to alert students to the effect of incompatibility between reasons and the conclusion and the impact of that on the internal strength of a text. This was to enable students to gain insights that evaluation embodies looking at the compatibility of various parts of the text such as the consistency of point of view with reasons, evidence, and the conclusion provided.

After this brain storming session, students were asked to compare this statement with another passage where the reasons support the conclusion before being asked to define the word “judgment or evaluation” as the target concept of the lesson. This was to enable them to see the differences and the importance of maintaining the flow and unity of ideas, reasons and the conclusions in texts.)

**Teacher:** Compare the above statement with the following passage and then indicate the differences between the two.
“If William goes to a party tonight he will be tired tomorrow. If he is tired tomorrow he will do badly in his examination tomorrow. Therefore, if he is allowed to go to a party tonight he will do badly in his examination.”

(Another intention of the lesson was maintaining the logical flow of ideas and how this flow is maintained until the end. This point was also emphasised during the evaluation of the passages)

Teacher: After we deliberated on the above passages, can you now define the word “Judgment, evaluation or critique”, can you distinguish between them?

Analogy 2
(In this stage, students were introduced to the concept of assumption)

Teacher: What are the other considerations that can be drawn from William’s passage?

(Students were to raise the question of what if William did not get tired.

Teacher: What do you understand by the word “assumption (s)” using William’s passage as example?

(Students were to offer different answers depending on their understanding of the word)

Teacher: OK, read the following passage and the statements that follow. Cross out any statement you think is not implied in this statement).

“Here in Sudan, more people have bought Toyota automobiles than any other national or foreign car brands.”

The un-stated but implied Assumptions in this statement are:

1- When large numbers of consumers make a choice, it is always a good choice.
2- This car is better than the other cars
3- You should buy this car because that is the wise choice to make.
4- This is just an advertisement and you shouldn’t care about it.
5- You need to compare and contrast between different car brands first before you buy one.

Teacher: What are the implied assumptions but not stated in the following statement:

“The number of people in Malakal prison continues to rise since the signing of the CPA in 2005. The number of prisoners is now three times what it was before the CPA”.

(Students were to offer their implied assumptions about the statement)

Step 2: Group work

Students were divided into small groups to collaboratively judge and evaluate information contained in the below passages.

(Students at this stage were required to judge and evaluate information stated in the passages. They were asked to state implied assumptions and what information they expected the authors should have included in the text but did not include. In their group discussions, students were supported with questions to lead them through their discussions. Before students started evaluating these passages, they were first asked to identify the points of view in the passages, reasons offered, conclusions, words indicating conclusions and reasons, types of evidence provided and then in light of all this information, they were asked to evaluate the passages.)
Passages
(NB: The answers are provided here but were removed from the students’ copies)
Passage 1
R1< Most prospective parents would prefer to have sons. So C1< if people can choose the
sex of their child, it is likely that there will eventually be more males than females in the
population. R2< This could produce serious social problems; therefore C2< we should
prohibit the use of techniques which enable people to choose the sex of their children. (Taken
from Fisher, 2001, p.39)
Identify the following:
1- The point of view in the passage,
2- Reasons offered
3- Reason-indicators (looking language elements).
4- Evidence provided
5- The conclusion
6- Words indicating the conclusion, then
Evaluate the passage by answering the following questions:
1- Is the claim made logical?
2- Are the reasons acceptable?
3- (a) Do the reasons support its conclusion?
    (b) Are there other relevant considerations/arguments?
4- What are the assumptions implied in the passage?
5- What do you think the author ought to say but did not mention in the passage.
6- What is your overall evaluation of the passage?
Here is an example to demonstrate how students were advised to carry out their group
discussions:
1- The claim: most prospective parents would prefer to have sons. > Is it true in all
societies?
   (Students can give examples of countries where this statement could be either true or
false and why)
2- If it is true that “most prospective parents would prefer to have sons”, is it true that if
people can choose the sex of their child, it is likely that there will eventually be more
males than females in the population?
3- The author said, “this could produce serious social problems”, is this claim
acceptable? What consequences would you expect to arise from such imbalance?
4- Do the preceding claims support the conclusion that “we should prohibit the use of
techniques which enable people to choose the sex of their children?
5- Are there other relevant considerations/arguments? E.g.
    (a) For example positive aspects of this technique such as prevention of certain
inherited diseases.
    (b) Freedom of choice as important in certain societies
Or negative aspects such as:
    (a) The possible side effects
    (b) There might be religious arguments against the techniques etc.
6- What are the implied assumptions in the passage?
7- What do you expect the author should have included in the passage but did not?
8- What is your overall evaluation of the passage?
(The last three questions required students to think deeply about the passage in which they
need to be imaginative, to think outside the box or even be quite creative.)
Passage 2

R1< Dissecting creatures in the biology classroom teaches students that animal life is expendable and unimportant. Also R2< a recent study showed that certain companies who supply these creatures are careless of the suffering and pain inflicted on them. Furthermore, R3< there are good alternatives available now in computer simulations, which teach the lessons taught by dissection just as well. So for all these reasons, C/ we should no longer use dissection of animals to teach students in the biology classroom. (Taken from Fisher, 2001, p. 30)

Some points for consideration (withhold from students)
1- Will computer simulation be exactly like practical (manual) dissection of an animal?
2- What about places where there are no computers?

Identify the following:
1- The point of view in the passage,
2- Reasons offered
3- Words indicating reasons
4- Evidence provided
5- The conclusion
6- Words indicating the conclusion, then

Evaluate the passage by answering the following questions:
1- Is the claim made logical?
2- Are the reasons acceptable?
3- (a) Do the reasons support the conclusion?
    (b) Are there other relevant considerations/arguments?
4- What are the assumptions implied in the passage?
5- What do you think the author ought to say but did not mention in the passage.
6- What is your overall evaluation?

Passage 3

R1< For many victims of crime, a tougher prison regime for criminals would be welcome. Furthermore, R2< many offenders would not commit crime if prisons were tougher. So the Government is right to introduce tougher regimes in prisons. (Taken from Brink-Budgen, 2000, p.25)

Some points for consideration (withhold from students)
1- What about congestion of prisons and the consequences such as prisoners’ rioting, absconding and the general services.
2- Is it true that tougher sentences will deter criminals from committing crimes?

Identify the following:
1- The point of view in the passage,
2- Reasons offered
3- Words indicating reasons,
4- Evidence provided
5- The conclusion
6- Words indicating the conclusion, then

Evaluate the following passage by answering the following questions:
1- Is the claim made logical?
2- Are the reasons acceptable?
3- (a) Do the reasons support the conclusion?
    (b) Are there other relevant considerations/arguments?
4. What are the assumptions implied in the passage?
5. What do you think the author ought to say but did not mention in the passage.
6. What is your overall evaluation?

Passage 4
Random drug-testing of prisoners was introduced in 1995 in order to solve the many problems associated with the prisoners taking drugs. Since cannabis can be detected in the body up to a month after having been smoked, prisoners are tempted to switch to heroin, which stays in the system for only 48 hours. As a result, since drug-testing was introduced, cannabis use has declined by a fifth, whereas heroin use has doubled. Heroin is not only a much more damaging drug than cannabis, but it is also extremely addictive. There is evidence that heroin addiction encourages prisoners to intimidate others in order to pay for the drug. (Taken from Fisher, 2001, P.45)

Some points for consideration (withhold from students)
1. Is it true that the results of random drug testing have been unintended? Has the drug testing result promoted the use of Heroin?
2. Do we need new strategies to combat drug consumption in prisons?
3. Is there evidence that heroin addiction encourages prisoners to intimidate others in order to pay for the drug? What about the role of prison wardens in the spread of drug taking in prisons.

Identify the following:
1. The point of view in the passage,
2. Reasons offered
3. Words indicating reasons,
4. Evidence provided
5. The conclusion
6. Words indicating the conclusion, then

Evaluate the passage by answering the following questions:
1. Is the claim made logical?
2. Are the reasons acceptable?
3. (a) Do the reasons support the conclusion?
   (b) Are there other relevant considerations/arguments?
4. What are the assumptions implied in the passage?
5. What do you think the author ought to say but did not mention in the passage.
6. What is your overall evaluation?

Passage 5
An interesting switch was pulled in Rome yesterday by Adam Nordwell, an American Chippewa chief. As he descended his plane from California dressed in full tribal regalia, Nordwell announced in the name of the American Indian people that he was taking possession of Italy “by right of discovery” in the same way that Christopher Columbus did in America. “I proclaim this day the day of discovery of Italy,” said Nordwell. “What right did Columbus have to discover America when it had already been inhabited for thousands of years?” The same right I now have to come to Italy and proclaim the discovery of your country”. (Taken from Watson, 2000, p. 20, Analogy)

Some points for consideration (withhold from students)
1- Nordwell is suggesting that his “discovery” of Italy is like Columbus’ “discovery” of America in at least one important way: both claimed a country already inhabited by its own people for centuries. (More discussion can ensue)

2- Difference: twentieth – century Italy is not like fifteenth-century America. Italy is now known to every school child, while in the fifteenth – century America was unknown to much of the world. Nordwell is not an explorer and a commercial jet is not the Santa Maria.

Identify the following:
1- The point of view in the passage,
2- Reasons offered
3- Words indicating reasons,
4- Evidence provided
5- The conclusion
6- Words indicating the conclusion, then

Evaluate the passage by answering the following questions:
1- Is the claim made logical?
2- Are the reasons acceptable?
3- (a) Do the reasons support the conclusion?
   (b) Are there other relevant considerations/arguments?
4- What are the assumptions implied in the passage?
5- What do you think the author ought to say but did not mention in the passage.
6- What is your overall evaluation?

Passage 6

R1< Children are very susceptible to the power of advertisements. R2< Those children who smoke tend to buy those brands that are most frequently advertised. C< It must be advertising that influences children to smoke. (Taken from Brink-Budgen, 2000, p.30, value judgment)

R1 and R2 provide reasons and evidence to support the conclusion.

Some points for consideration (withhold from students)
1- Can we blame children’s smoking habit on the effect of advertisement alone? What about the role of peer groups, or family breakdown?
2- Is it true that children who smoke tend to buy those brands that are frequently advertised or there are other factors such as cheaper price of those brands?

Identify the following:
1- The point of view in the passage,
2- Reasons offered
3- Words indicating reasons,
4- Evidence provided
5- The conclusion
6- Words indicating the conclusion, then

Evaluate the passage by answering the following questions:
1- Is the claim made logical?
2- Are the reasons acceptable?
3- (a) Do the reasons support the conclusion?
   (b) Are there other relevant considerations/arguments?
4- What are the assumptions implied in the passage?
5- What do you think the author ought to say but did not mention in the passage.
6- What is your overall evaluation?
**Step 3: Inter-group Discussion**
After students’ deliberation in their various groups, they were given time for intra group consultation as a way of encouraging group interaction and sharing of their views on the answers they had. As a result, they can have further discussion over these issues and consequently modify or change their first answers when they get new insights through their between groups discussion.

**Step 4: Group presentations**
Students in their groups were asked to present their answers followed by whole class discussion. During the class discussion, the teacher offered feedback if he felt students have missed some points or strayed.

**Step 5: Writing log (reflection)**
Students were asked to write their reflection about the lesson. They were provided with the following questions to assist them in their reflections.

1- Do you think you have learnt something new from today’s lesson?
2- What kind of thinking have you engaged in the activities we did today?
3- How did you carryout this kind of thinking?
4- Do you find any differences between strategies you used in previous lessons compared to this lesson? Explain how?
5- How helpful the strategies you used in the previous lesson in accomplishing today’s lesson? Do you feel there are connection between the previous tasks and today’s task?
6- Can you now speculate assumptions in a text?
7- What are the challenges you faced while accomplishing this task and how did you overcome these challenges?
8- Do you think you can apply this strategy in other subjects and how?
9- What is your general thought about today’s lesson? [Do you think this is an effective way of teaching?]

**The end**

**Worksheet**

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Appendix 3 (E)

Lesson Five

Aim: identification of fallacies

Learning Objectives:
Students should be able to identify the following fallacies in their reading and avoid committing them in their writing.

1- Arguments against the person or the arguer (ad hominem)
2- Appeals to pity
3- Appeals to popularity
4- False dichotomy (simplification or the black or white fallacy)
5- Card stacking or suppressed information
6- Circular reasoning (begging the question)
7- Straw man argument
8- Part-whole fallacy
9- Appeals to ignorance
10- Weak and inappropriate analogies
11- Appeal to authority
12- Incomplete comparisons
13- Knowing the unknowable
14- False cause
15- Appeals to tradition
16- Turning two wrongs into one right
17- False charge of fallacy

Lesson Plan
Stage 1
The concept of fallacies in writing was new to the students, although they might have encountered it in their first language. Therefore, to teach it in English, in which students were less proficient, employing the teaching strategies used in the previous lessons can make it more difficult for them to comprehend. To give them ample opportunities for more discussion, therefore deepening their understanding of the various types of fallacies, the topic was approached as a project that students did part of collaboratively in groups outside the class. They were provided with handouts so that they could do some research and discussion in advance of the class. They were also encouraged to provide examples drawn either from their own understanding of the explanation provided for each fallacy or from any written material they read. This was aimed to motivate them to read and discuss the concept widely among themselves and to seek assistance from whoever they think could help in consolidating their understanding. Thus, later when the concept was taught in the class, students had some background knowledge which enriched the class discussion.
The handout

Read the following explanations and provide examples of your own for each fallacy.

What is a fallacy?
A fallacy is a weak and misleading argument in which the reasons are not strong enough to support the conclusion. In other words, if the reasons are not successful in supporting a conclusion, the arguer's reasoning is said to be fallacious or crooked. Sometimes reasoning can be crooked without being intended to be so. The arguer can make mistake(s) in his/her reasoning which may be caused by inattention or lack of reasoning abilities. In this case, the arguer may not recognise or realise his/her mistake(s). But there are also occasions where crooked arguments are used intentionally in order to confuse people, to disguise an unacceptable argument, to cheat or to create prejudice. Usually the word fallacy is used for arguments which look correct at first sight but prove incorrect after careful examination. There are a number of different types of fallacies as shown below:

1- Arguments against the person (ad hominem): this occurs when the opposing argument is directed against the person rather than the substance of the argument or the ideas raised in the argument. The underlying principle is that if you don’t like the person who supports or initiated an idea, then you should also oppose the idea itself because the idea and the person are associated. If someone opposes an idea because he/she doesn't like the person who said or supports it, he/she is probably committing this mistake.

2- Appeals to pity: this is an argument for special treatment where the conclusion is drawn by irrelevant appeal to pity. “Support this position” or buy that product” because it needs your help. Pity is not always a bad argument, but it is inappropriate when objective evaluation is called for. Appeals to pity are often found in legal pleadings. A defendant’s poor background or turbulent home life will often be brought up during a trial as an excuse for sentence reduction or pardon.

3- Appeals to popularity: this relies on the need for conformity and to do things like others. It occurs when someone is expected to believe or adopt a position because others do the same. Implicitly, the message is, “everyone is doing it, it must be right.” Usually no reasons are offered to show that everybody is an informed or impartial source.

4- False dichotomy (simplification or the black or white fallacy): this occurs when readers or listeners are asked to decide between two positions without allowing other alternatives or “grey areas” that would combine aspects of both choices.

5- Card stacking or suppressed information: this operates as a persuasive technique by omitting information that supports the unfavoured view. Here there is a need to consider the missing components in an argument.

6- Circular reasoning (begging the question): this fallacy occurs when the reasons which are used to support the conclusion are very similar to the conclusion itself. In effect, the reasons used to support the conclusion are merely a paraphrase of the conclusion. The problem with circular reasoning is that they don't go anywhere. If you were to diagram the structure of this sort of argument, you would get a circle because the support for the conclusion is a restatement of the conclusion.

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7- **Straw man argument:** this fallacy occurs when an opponent to a particular conclusion distorts the argument in support of the conclusion and substitutes it with one that is much weaker in order to exploit the weakness. In this fallacy, instead of dealing with the real argument (with all its substance and strength), the arguer deals with a flimsy version of it (with none of the original’s substances and strength). The distorted version is then attacked as if it is the real version. Therefore, the opponent's position is presented in a deliberately weak way in order to argue against it easily. The straw man type of argument is similar to attacking the arguer. The similarity is that the real argument is not dealt with; however, they differ in the methods used.

8- **Part-whole fallacy:** this fallacy is made whenever a speaker (or writer) assumes that whatever is true of the whole is also true of all its parts, and whatever is true of the parts is also true of the whole. E.g. consider outstanding, prestigious university, do you think its schools will be of equal standard?

9- **Appeals to ignorance:** this fallacy is committed when arguing that a claim is true just because it has not been shown to be false. The peculiar think about this appeal is that it can often be used to support two or more totally different conclusions. The claim involves something the arguer doesn't know and he/she is using her/his ignorance to argue that because there is no evidence to support a conclusion, for example, the conclusion must be wrong. Similarly, her/his ignorance of a topic can be used to support a conclusion by stating that because there is no evidence that contradicts it, the conclusion must be right. E.g. believers have argued that because no one can prove that God doesn’t exist, He therefore must exist. Non-believers on the other side argue that because no one can prove beyond any doubt that God exists, He therefore doesn’t exist. The absence of evidence doesn’t support any conclusion.

10- **Weak and inappropriate analogies:** we use analogies whenever we encounter something new and try to understand it by reference to something we already know. Although analogies can be extremely useful aids to comprehension, they can also be misused. Two objects or events are analogous when they share certain properties. When we argue with analogies, we conclude that what is true of one object or event is true of the other. When considering an argument by analogy, it is important to consider the nature and the salience of the similarity.

11- **Appeal to authority:** this fallacy occurs when the authority we use to support the reason in an argument is not an expert or credible authority on the topic. E.g. Mr. Joseph a football player said that drinking Milo will make you healthy and strong to resist Malaria. The problem here is that a football player is only an expert on issues related to football and is probably less competent as an expert on the nourishment value of certain food items.

12- **Incomplete comparisons:** these fallacies are committed when comparisons are missing the other half of the equation. They always contain evaluative terms like “better”, “safest” and “cleanest”. E.g. “more doctors agree that Pandol can give you fastest headache relief.” This advertisement is incomplete. Whenever you see comparative terms such as “better, cleanest, safer, etc. you need to consider the missing part of the comparison. For example, better than what, or faster than what? How is better defined? How was it measured? By whom? Compared to what?
13- **Knowing the unknowable**: this occurs when we are given information that is impossible to know. Suppose you read in the newspapers that we need to increase the size of the police force because the number of unreported rapes has increased dramatically. How can anyone know about the number of unreported rapes? We don’t doubt that many rapes are not reported to the police or that this is an important issue. What is at question is the increase or decrease in the number when the actual number is unknowable.

14- **False cause**: this fallacy occurs whenever someone argues that because two events occur together, or one follows the other closely in time, that one caused the other to occur. E.g. the explanation of the finding that as the number of churches increases in a city so does the number of prostitutes.

15- **Appeals to tradition**: In this fallacy, the unstated assumption is that what exists is the best, e.g. that’s the way we’ve always done it. It is a way of resisting changes and sticking to the old methods of doing things. Anyone who has tried to change a policy has heard this sentence. It may be true that current policy is better than some suggested changes, but it also may not be true. There is nothing inherent in the fact that “that’s the way we’ve always done it” that makes it a good or best way to accomplish an objective. One of the attitudes of a critical thinker is flexibility, thus, this fallacy denies the possibility that a difference may be an improvement.

16- **Turning two wrongs into one right**: we are all familiar with this line of argument in that it’s one commonly used by children. E.g. it’s not fair that I got into trouble for forgetting my books. Lots of kids in my class forget their books. In this argument, the reasoning for the conclusion that "it's not fair"… is that "lots of kids" do the same thing. As you can see, though this argument appeals to a simple form of justice, it is unconvincing. The issue of forgetting the book was not dealt with; instead, the wrong action is being justified and turned into right on the ground that many kids do the same. It is alarming, however, how often it is used by those who should know better.

17- **False charge of fallacy**: that’s a fallacy! It seems that after some people learn to recognise fallacious reasoning, they then label everything that anyone says as a fallacy. Not everything is fallacious. The idea of critical thinking is to develop an amiable scepticism, not a cynical view that everything and everyone is false.

**Step 2**

Teacher: After you read the handout, could you define the word "fallacy" using your own words.

*(Students offered various definitions using their own words of what they understood about a fallacy)*

Teacher: Have you ever come across the fallacies listed in the handout in your first language?

*(This question was aimed to reveal students' background knowledge about the concept of fallacies and how they could be assisted to understand it better)*

Teacher: What are the fallacies that you found easy or difficult to understand?
(This question was aimed to further assist the teacher to know which type of fallacies students found difficult, thus needing further emphasis during the class discussion)

Step 3: Group work
To deepen students' understanding and stimulate further discussion in the class, students in their groups were asked to match examples from group "A" with the suitable fallacies from group "B". (This strategy "group A & B" was preferred over preparing slips because it was time saving and less confusing to the students who are already familiar with it.)

NB: The answers are provided here but were removed from the students’ copies.

Group A
1- The managing director insisted that the company could not increase its pay offer since profits were expected to fall substantially over the coming year. But she has been convicted of drinking-driving twice in the past three years, so the union should not believe her profits forecast. They should press ahead with the strike. (Arguments against the person)
2- Mr Jack is a veteran SPLA officer who fought for the freedom of this land. Even though he committed fraud, his sentence should be reduced because of his gallant liberation history. (Appeals to pity)
3- Most people in the Sudan prefer Toyota automobiles than any other national or foreign car brand; therefore, you should buy it. (Appeals to popularity)
4- In Sudan if you want to pursue a political career, you must either join the SPLM party or the NCP party. (False dichotomy)
5- There are allegations about the alarming level of corruption in Southern Sudan Government. These allegations are not true, instead, lots of developments have taken place, schools have been established, new roads constructed, and the unemployment rate reduced to 20% the lowest rate ever in the region’s history. So the region is progressing tremendously. Therefore, these allegations are false and unfounded. (Card stacking)
6- Of course he likes me. He told me that he does. I know he wouldn’t lie to me about it; he always tells the truth to people he likes. (Circular reasoning)
7- Those who argue that the rain forests should be protected from further development are the sort of people who don't want to see progress. Progress has brought us all sorts of benefits, such as medical care and rapid transportation. People's lives would be much poorer if our predecessors had stood in the way of progress. We should not therefore listen to those who oppose the proper development of the rain forests. (Straw man argument)
8- Mr. David is a graduate of Juba University. It is one of the most prestigious universities in the Sudan and any graduate of Juba University must be a competent student. Therefore, David should be employed without any necessary need for interview (Part-whole fallacy).
9- I don't have much information on this except the general statement of the agency that there is nothing in the files to disprove his communist connections. (Appeals to ignorance)
10- The National Congress Party (NCP) is like the Sudan People's Liberation Movement (SPLM) party in many aspects. For example, both are the leading parties in their respective regions, each claims to be the best party to lead the country into prosperity. (Weak and inappropriate analogies)
11- Leaders from all communities support the view that rock music has a negative influence on southern Sudan youth. (Appeal to authority)
12- I studied different cultures and social structures of various communities and I came to the conclusion that Sudanese culture is the best. (Incomplete comparison)
13- People should not feel worried, even though the SPLM party has not spelt it out in its constitution; it is fighting for the separation of the south from the north. (Knowing the unknowable)
14- Increasing the price of cigarettes will reduce the number of people who smoke. The price has been going up over many years and the level of smoking has been declining. (False cause)
15- In addressing the youth conference, Mr. Ajack said "our customs and traditions require the youth to respect elders and obey whatever they say without any complaint". He cautioned the youth not to embrace foreign cultures which encourage individualism and disrespect to the elders. He therefore, called for the youth to observe these traditions as better methods of maintaining unity and harmony within our society. (Appeals to tradition)
16- Why should our president be indicted by the International Criminal Court (ICC) when many leaders have committed atrocities against their citizens and they were not indicted by the so called ICC. (Turning two wrongs into one right)
17- All the developmental programmes advocated by the government were not based on proper studies. There is lack of vision in educational policies, economic reformation policies are not convincing at all and the agricultural policies are the worst of all. The policies are fallacious and misguided.

Group B

a- Straw man argument
b- False cause
c- Part-whole fallacy
d- Incomplete comparisons
e- False dichotomy (simplification or the black or white fallacy)
f- Weak and inappropriate analogies
g- Arguments against the person or the arguer (ad hominem)
h- Appeals to tradition
i- Turning two wrongs into one
j- Card stacking or suppressed information
k- Circular reasoning (begging the question)
l- Appeals to ignorance
m- Appeal to authority
n- Knowing the unknowable
o- Appeals to pity
p- Appeals to popularity
q- False charge of fallacy

Step 4: Inter-group discussion
Students in their groups were allowed to compare their results before being asked to present their answers.
Step 5: Group presentations
Students in their groups were asked to present their answers followed by whole class discussion. During the class discussion, the teacher offers feedback if he felt students have missed some points or strayed.

Step 6: Writing log (reflection)
Students were provided with the following questions to assist them in their reflections.

1- Do you think you have learnt something new from today’s lesson?

2- What kind of thinking have you engaged in carrying out the project and the class discussion?

3- How did you carry out this kind of thinking?

4- Do you find any differences between strategies you used in previous lessons compared to this lesson? Explain how?

5- Are there any special challenges you experienced while accomplishing this task? What have you done to overcome them?

6- Do you think you can apply this strategy in your reading and writing and how?

7- What is your general thought about today’s lesson? [Do you think this is an effective way of teaching?

The end
Appendix 3 (F)

Lesson 6

Aim: identifying critical appeals in texts

Learning Objectives:
Identification of the three types of appeals
1- rationale appeal
2- credibility appeal
3- affective appeal

Lesson Plan

Step 1
Like the concept of fallacies studied in the previous lesson, the concept of appeals in writing was also new to the students even though they might have encountered it in their first language. To help them figure out what an appeal means, analogy 1 presented two passages in which they were asked to choose which one was more appealing to them. Such a choice assisted them to gain insights into what appeal means as a general concept in writing. Because of the close relationship between fallacies and appeals in writing, which was crucial for students to know, they were asked based on the insights they acquired from the preceding discussion to distinguish between the concepts of fallacy and appeal in analogy 2.

Analogy 1
Teacher: Read the following two passages and decide which one is more appealing than the other and why do you think so?

Passage 1
Please I'm an old and homeless person. I have no family and no one to care for me. I'm suffering from rheumatism that has crippled me for years and prevented me from taking up any job. I need your generous help; five Sudanese pounds can feed me for a week. Please help me if you can.

Passage 2
Hi, I'm a sick and destitute old man. I have nothing to eat, could you give me five pounds please?

Teacher: Based on the criteria you used in judging the above two passages, can you now define the word “appeal” using your own words?

Analogy 2
Teacher: Based on the insights you gained from the discussion of the above two analogies and your previous knowledge of fallacies, what do you think is the difference between fallacy and appeal?

Analogy 3
Teacher: How many types of appeals do you know?
(Students stated the type of appeals they know and for the others which they don’t know, the teacher presented the three main type of appeals and their sub-classification, then asked them to use their background knowledge in defining these sub-groups.)

Teacher: You should be familiar with terminologies such as contrast, comparison, narrative etc. now based on your previous knowledge and your common sense, can you explain the differences between the following terms:
1- Rational appeal
   a- descriptive example
   b- narrative example
   c- classification (including definition)
   d- comparison (including analogy)
   e- contrast
   f- cause and effect
   g- information (facts, statistics)

2- Credibility appeal
   a. writer-audience shared interests and points of view

3- Affective appeal
   a. emotion in audience's situation
   b. vivid picture

Step 2: Group work
Students were divided into groups and then asked to match examples provided with suitable types of appeals.

Teacher: In your groups, decide which of the headings in group A goes with each of the examples in group B and then show evidence from the paragraph which supports your choice.

Group (A) headings
   a. descriptive
   b. narrative
   c. classification (including definition)
   d. comparison (including analogy)
   e. contrast
   f. cause and effect
   g. information (facts, statistics)
   h. writer-audience shared interests and points of view
   i. emotion in audience's situation
   j. vivid picture

Group (B) examples
   a- At the latest count my syllabus is at the mercy of 45 different activities sanctioned by our school system. I lost students this past year for the following reasons: club trips to Atlantic City, student-council elections, bloodmobile, appointments with guidance counsellors and army representative, an art show, community show, tennis, baseball, swimming, football, cheerleading, club meetings, orchestra rehearsals, science day and graduation rehearsal. Obviously many of these activities are worthwhile. But there is no pressing reason why any of them have to take place during class hours. Days could be added to the school calendar for state-mandated testing and registration. And why not let communities sponsor dances, sports, college and army representatives and clubs after school hours? At the very least we would then discover which students wanted to participate in activities and which simply wished to escape from class. (Writer's – audience shared interest and point of view)
   b- The runway was icy so the plane couldn't take off. (cause and effect)
   c- One day in 1997, I was invited for a picnic along the west side of the River Nile. After the breakfast, the singer who was brought there turned on the generator and his other equipment to entertain us. All the audience there were very eager and happy to
hear the voice of their pop star who has got a silver tongue and golden voice. The singer cleared his voice and started to sing a song entitled “The fire is set, who will extinguish it”. Before the singer went any further with the song, the generator caught fire; the audience quickly left the dancing ground and ran directly to the generator that was on fire, all of us started through …. to the generator. (narrative)

The body of an insect consists of three main parts: the head, the thorax and the abdomen. The head contains the insect's brain, eyes and mouth. It also carries the antennae. The thorax is the central part of the body. It bears the legs and wings. There are three pairs of legs and two pairs of wings. The insect's abdomen contains its digestive and reproductive organs. (description)

She did not realize I was a medical student. Despite my youthful appearance she called me, "Doctor", then briefly lost control. "What have I done wrong" she cried, "not to have family of my own?" Perturbed, I tried to comfort her and in a moment she managed to continue, "I would have liked to have a large family but I've been married seven years and…" her voice trailed off. (vivid picture)

The twins are as different as two people can be. Sally, who is always hoping someone will have a party, has black hair, brown eyes, and an outgoing personality. She wants to be an actress or a popular singer. Susan, more serious and studious, has blonde hair, blue eyes, and a somewhat shy manner. Since she has done well in all her classes in graphic arts and math, she plans to become an architect or an engineer. (contrast)

Gatluak didn't know what to do when he missed the bus and was running around like a headless chicken. (comparison)

Just think, a press of a button, thousands miles away, could kill you, your friends, all the inhabitants of your town. (Triggering emotion in the reader, e.g. fear, joy etc.)

There are three kinds of book owners. The first has all the standard sets and best-sellers-unread, untouched. (This deluded individual owns wood pulp and ink, not books.) The second of them dipped into them, but all are as clean and shiny as the day they were bought. (This person would probably like to make books his own, but is restricted by a false respect for their physical appearance.) The third has a few books or many - every one of them dog-eared and dilapidated, shaken and loosened by continual use, marked and inscribed in from front to back. (This man owns books.) (classification)

According to a study by the Bureau of National Affairs, about 35% of U.S. companies restrict smoking (only 2% ban it outright) and an additional 20% are studying the issue. In many cases, companies have choices: 17 states and hundreds of localities outlaw smoking in offices and other working places. The surgeon general’s report last year asserting that smokers create health risks for nearby non-smokers has encouraged companies to promote smoke-free work environments. Finally, firms are increasingly aware of the cost of having smokers on staff: higher insurance expenses and increased absenteeism. (facts and statistics)

I agree that if they didn't give animals drugs or tablets then we would never find out whether these tablets would harm us in any way. I strongly think that in this day and age scientists now equipped with highly expensive instruments could quite easily find the many answers without needing animals. (shared interest and point of view)

**Step 3: Inter-group discussion**

Students were allowed to consult each other before each group was asked to present their answers.
Step 4: Group presentations
Students in their groups were asked to present their answers followed by whole class discussion. During the class discussion, the teacher offers feedback if he felt students have missed some points or strayed.

Step 5: Writing log (reflection)
Students were provided with the following questions to assist them in their reflections.
1- Do you think you have learnt something new from today’s lesson?
2- What kind of thinking have you engaged in the activities we did today?
3- How did you carry out this kind of thinking?
4- Do you find any differences or similarities between strategies you used in identifying fallacies explained in the last week lesson and the strategies relevant to identification and application of appeals discussed today? Explain how?
5- How helpful the strategies you used in the previous lesson (identification of fallacies) in accomplishing today’s lesson? Do you feel there are connection between the previous tasks and today’s task
6- Can you now identify different type of appeals in a text?
7- What are the challenges you faced while accomplishing this task and how did you overcome these challenges?
8- Do you think you can apply these types of appeals in your writing and how?
9- What is your general thought about today’s lesson? [Do you think this is an effective way of teaching?]

Homework
Students were given this homework for more practice in their leisure time to consolidate their understanding of the topic.

Group (A) headings
  k. classification (including definition)
  l. vivid picture
  m. contrast
  n. narrative
  o. descriptive
  p. emotion in audience's situation
  q. writer-audience shared interests and points of view
  r. comparison (including analogy)
  s. cause and effect

Group (B) examples:
1- There was once a man who lived in a country that had no fruit trees. This man was a scholar and spent a great deal of time reading. In his readings he often came across references to fruit. The descriptions of fruit were so enticing that he decided to undertake a journey to experience fruit for himself. (narrative)
2- Upper Nile University is the only higher learning institution in Malakal town. It occupies a strategic location in the town; to the north of it there is Malakal international airport, to the east stands Jesus the King Catholic cathedral and a few metres behind the cathedral runs the river Nile, the second longest river in the world. On its southern part there is the famous Malakia market. (description)
3- Crumbling masonry, peeling paint and dusty patches where once were manicured lawns…The University of Khartoum has worn poorly under the searing Sudanese sun
- as much as the language that buttoned-up colonialists who built it came to spread. When the university was opened in 1902 amidst military pomp by Horatio Herbert Kitchener, formerly governor general of Sudan, English was the medium of instruction - and also the official language of Sudan. (vivid picture)

4- Three passions, simple but overwhelmingly strong, have governed my life: the longing for love, the search for knowledge, and unbearable pity for the suffering of humankind. These passions, like great winds, have blown me hither and thither, in a wayward course, over a deep ocean of anguish, reaching to the verge of despair. (classification)

5- My best friend is always complaining because he has eleven brothers and sisters. He thinks I am lucky because I'm an only child, but I'm not sure. I think things are about even. When it comes to working around the house, we both seem to have about the same amount of work to do. There's more to do around his house, but there are also many people to do it. At my house there's less work to do but no one to share it. The only difference I've noticed in this area is in his favour. If he doesn't do something he's supposed to do, there's a chance his parents won't notice. When I don't do something, you can be sure my parents will know about it. (contrast)

6- The population of Sudan is increasing at an alarming rate; therefore, the government should subsidise farmers to increase productivity so that we don’t face any food shortage. (cause and effect)

7- I am not unmindful that some of you have come here out of great trials and tribulations. Some of you have come fresh from narrow jail cells. Some of you….you have been the veterans of creative suffering. Continue to work with the faith that unearned suffering is redemptive.

9- The bed I was given in the dormitory was not comfortable at all. In fact, it was as hard as a rock. (Comparison)

8- I agree that if they didn't give animals drugs or tablets then we would never find out whether these tablets would harm us in any way. I strongly think that in this day and age scientists now equipped with highly expensive instruments could quite easily find the many answers without needing animals. (shared interest and point of view)
Appendix 3 (G)

Lesson 7
Aim: organization of persuasive/argumentative writing

Learning Objective:
Identifying elements of argument reconstruction:
- claims
- reasons
- evidence
- counter-argument
- fallacies
- appeals
- conclusion
- judgment of information

Lesson Plan

Step 1

Analogy 1
Teacher: Based on what we studied earlier about persuasive/argumentative writing, what are the differences between persuasive/argumentative writing and the following genres?
- Narrative and persuasive/argumentative writing
- Descriptive and persuasive/argumentative writing
- Cause and effect and persuasive/argumentative writing.

Analogy 2
Teacher: In the form of a diagram, explain how many parts persuasive writing can be divided into?
(Students mentioned the various parts of argumentative writing studied since the start of this study.)

Analogy 3
Teacher: What are the differences between the various parts of argumentative writing you just mentioned?
(Students stated the differences between these various parts of the argumentative essay. This was done to further consolidate their understanding of these parts as well as acting as a revision of what they studied so far.)

Step 2: Group work
Students were divided into small groups to parse and dissect argumentative passages into parts. They were asked to identify the following parts of argument reconstruction:
- claims
- reasons
- evidence
- counter-arguments
- fallacies
- appeals
### Passages

**NB:** The answers are provided here but were removed from the students’ copies.

**Section A**

**Passage 1**

It was initially believed that young children could not understand other people’s points of view or undertake tasks such as counting and measuring until they were at least seven years of age. However, it seems the problem does not lie in children’s capacity to do these things so much as in their understanding of what is being asked and why. If there is no obvious purpose or they do not understand the language used, children find tasks difficult. Even young children can perform tasks formerly considered too advanced for them, as long as these are set up in ways that make sense to them. Problems that involve teddies or drinks, for example, may be meaningful to a very young child, whereas tasks with counters and beakers are not. (Taken from Cottrell, 2005, p. 39)

**Author’s point of view (claim):** even young children can perform tasks considered too advanced for them, as long as these are set up in ways that make sense to them.

**Reason in support:** children perform better if the task is presented in language they can understand.

**Passage 2**

A human skeleton was found near the river late last month by a senior couple walking their dog. They believed it was a murder caused by a troublesome local family. The police interviewed the family but ruled out their involvement. The bones are believed to be several hundred years old. Historians confirm that the river Marle passes close to ancient burial grounds and that there are records of other bodies being carried away by the river in the distant past. This was the first for over 150 years. Recent storms have caused the river to rise by half a metre. It is probable that skeleton was dislodged from its resting place by the river rather than by the local family. (Taken from Cottrell, 2005, p. 45)

**Author’s point of view (claim):** the swollen river dislodged the skeleton.

**Reasons**

1. A skeleton was found near the river.
2. The police have ruled out that a suspected local family was involved.
3. The bones are believed to be several hundred years old.
4. Historians confirm that the river passes close to ancient burial grounds. (can act as evidence, authority)
5. Other bodies are known to have been carried away by the river in the past (can act as evidence)
6. Recent storms have caused the river to rise by over half a metre.

**Conclusion:** it is possible the skeleton was dislodged from its resting place by the swollen river rather than by the local family.

**Word indicator of a conclusion:** it is probable
Passage 3
Smokers should be given more freedom to smoke and more personal responsibility for the choices they make. Many know that cigarettes carry serious health risks, but these are risks that consenting adults are willing to take. Most smokers plan to give up before the risk becomes extreme. Adults should be allowed to make up their own mind about whether they smoke or not, without warnings on cigarette packaging. Smokers pay at least as much tax and insurance as anyone else. They also pay additional taxes through levies on cigarettes and are often required to pay higher insurance. Despite this, some medical practitioners refuse them health care. Smokers should have the same rights to health care as any other tax-payer. They should also have the same access to public spaces. In some countries, it is becoming almost impossible to find a place to smoke. Smokers are forced outside no matter what the weather. They are becoming social pariahs where once smoking was the most social of activities. (Taken from Cottrell, 2005, p. 71)

Conclusion at the beginning: smokers should be given more personal responsibility for the choices they make.

Reasons
1- Many know that cigarettes carry serious health risks, but these are risks that consenting adults are willing to take. Most smokers plan to give up before the risk becomes extreme.
Intermediate conclusion: Adults should be allowed to make up their own mind about whether they smoke or not...

2- Smokers pay at least as much taxes through levies on cigarettes and are often required to pay higher insurance. Despite this, some medical practitioners refuse them health care.
Intermediate conclusion: Smokers should have the same rights to health care as any other tax-payer.

Intermediate conclusion: They should also have the same access to public spaces.
3- In some countries, it is becoming almost impossible to find a place to smoke. Smokers are forced outside no matter what the weather. They are becoming social pariahs where once smoking was the most social of activities.

Passage 4
Apples are better for your teeth than refined sugar snacks. Some people argue that apples contain an acid and that acid damages tooth enamel. However, any food, if left on the teeth, is bad for them. Refined sugars are particularly damaging to teeth. Compared with the sugar snacks most people eat, apples provide a more beneficial alternative and have long been recommended by dentists. (Taken from Cottrell, 2005, p. 65)

Author’s point of view (claim): apples are better for your teeth than refined sugar products.
Evidence: recommended by dentists (authority)
Reasons: embedded in the discussion
Counter-argument: apples contain acid and acid damages tooth enamel. (This allegation is minimised in the next sentence).
Conclusion: apples are better for the teeth than refined sugar products

Passage 5
Differences between the roles that males and females are expected to play are not fixed by our genetic make-up but are learned in each individual’s social development. Thus, gender is something that is learned rather than something which has a biological cause. (Taken from Brink-Budgen, 2000, p. 67)
Author’s point of view (claim): the roles that males and females are expected to play are not fixed by our genetic make-up but are learned in each individual's social development.

Reasons: N/L

Conclusion: gender is something that is learned rather than something which has a biological cause. (Restatement of the claim)

Word indicator of conclusion: thus

Fallacy: circle reasoning

Passage 6
It is a legal offence to assault other people. Hitting and slapping are forms of assault and cause psychological, if not physical, damage. They should always be considered as examples of legal assault. Although this rule is applied to adults, it is often not recognised in the case of children. Slapping is defended as a useful and necessary form of discipline. It is also argued that children are not independent beings. This is not a valid argument. Children may be dependent on adults but they are still people. Therefore, slapping a child should also count as legal assault. (Taken from Cottrell, 2005, p. 82)

Author’s point of view (claim): slapping a child should be count as a legal assault.

Evidence: citing legal position on assaulting other people (induction)

Reasons:
1- Slapping should always count as a legal assault.
2- Children should count as people.

Counter-argument: even though children are dependent, they are human beings. (It is always argued that....).

Intermediate conclusions:
1- They should always be considered as examples of legal assault.
2- Children may be dependent on adults but they are still people.

Final conclusion: slapping a child should count as a legal assault.

Passage 7
I’m not a kill-joy. I know that kids need fun just as much as adults do and that clubs are educational in their own way. But as a member of a profession which is accorded only the most grudging respect and which is continually suspected of not doing its job, I say start by giving us a chance. Guarantee me those 180 periods I’m supposed to have. I’ll know the public and the people who run the schools are serious about improving when the year classes have not been shortened, delayed, cancelled, interrupted or depleted for any reason short of illness, an emergency or the second coming.

Appeal: writer’s respect for audience’s interest and point of view

Section B
Judge the internal consistencies of the following passages

Passage 1
Trainers should discourage sportspeople from taking performance enhancement drugs as these can have serious effects upon their health. Some of these drugs have resulted in distorted body shapes, skin conditions, and increased aggression. The long-term effects of some of these drugs are unknown. On the other hand, some individuals with conditions such as asthma need medication which contains those drugs. For them, taking the drugs may be more beneficial than not taking them. Therefore, it would be wrong to ban performance enhancement drugs altogether. (Taken from Cottrell, 2005, p. 66)
Comment: the passage is consistent. In this case, the author argues consistently that drugs should be generally discouraged on health grounds but permitted on an individual basis for health reasons.

Passage 2
Reality TV is not delivering what the public wants. Too many programmes are cheaply made, turning a camera on the experiences of ordinary people who are duped into wanting their short period of fame. As a result, investment in quality programmes is declining. There is much less variety on television. The promise of choice heralded by TV has not materialised. Far from exercising choice, last night almost the whole nation switched on to watch the final episode of the latest reality show. What has happened to television drama, good comedy programmes and well-researched documentaries? (Taken from Cottrell, 2005, p. 66)
Comment: the passage is inconsistent. The author argues that reality TV is not giving the public what it wants, but then points out that almost the whole nation is watching it, which suggests it is popular. The author could have made the argument more consistent by, for example:
1- offering an explanation for why people watched programmes they did not want;
2- giving evidence that there were no other choices;
3- Presenting evidence of surveys that show people would prefer to watch a good alternative type of programme.

Passage 3
The brain of an elephant is five times larger than that of humans. Some people believe elephants are very intelligent but, even if that were true, are they really five times brighter than humans? But maybe we are looking at this the wrong way. After all, is it fair to compare the brain size of a large animal with that of a small creature? Perhaps it is relative size that matters? Human brains weigh as much as 2.5 percent of body weight whereas elephants’ brains are less than half of a percent of their total body weight. Proportionally, the brain of a human is ten times greater than that of an elephant. Maybe it is the ratio of the brain to body size that matters? It that were the case, then the shrew, with its heavier brain, would be brighter than humans and elephants - and yet shrews do little more than eat. (Taken from Cottrell, 2005, p. 64)
Comments: the author’s position is not clear. It could be clarified, for example, by using either the opening sentences to introduce the argument and/or the final sentence to sum it up. The author uses too many questions without providing answers to these. There are many facts, but these do not help clarify the position. The author needs to provide more guidance to the reader about the direction of the argument.

Step 3: Inter-group discussion
Students were allowed to consult each other before each group was asked to present their answers.

Step 4: Group presentations
Students in their groups were asked to present their answers followed by whole class discussion. During the class discussion, the teacher offers feedback if he felt students have missed some points or strayed.
Step 5
Writing log (reflection)
Students were provided with the following questions to assist them in their reflections.

1- Do you think you have learnt something new from today’s lesson?
2- What kind of thinking have you engaged in the activities we did today?
3- How did you carry out this kind of thinking?
4- Do you find any differences between this teaching strategy compared to strategies used in the previous lessons? Explain how?
5- Can you differentiate between various parts of persuasive arguments?
6- What are the challenges you faced while accomplishing this task and how did you overcome these challenges?
7- Do you think you can apply this strategy in other subjects and how?
8- What is your general thought about today’s lesson? [Do you think this is an effective way of teaching?]

Home work
After identifying the essential elements of persuasive writing in the below passage, use Cottrell’s critical analysis sheet that follows to judge the article.

Article
Title: Is there anyone out there?
In some countries, the idea that there is life on other planets would make people laugh or sneer. In others, the inhabitants not only believe in life elsewhere in the universe but make efforts to communicate with it. There are certainly doubters and believers on this issue. One traditional argument for the existence of extraterrestrial life, known as the plenitude theory, is that there are some many stars systems in the universe that it is unlikely that only earth would bear intelligent life. Indeed, it could be considered the folly of human arrogance to think that we are the only intelligent life in all of space. Not so, argue those who subscribe to contingency theory. Their argument, and it is a compelling one, is that life is a happy accident, a serendipity. They claim that the processes which led to the evolution of life are so complicated that it is extraordinary they occurred even once. They consider it extremely unlikely that the same set of processes could ever occur again. Thus, we have very divergent theories on whether there is life out there or not. It is unlikely that there is extraterrestrial life. For over 100 years, radio waves have been used to tract space for signs of life and so far have uncovered nothing. If there was intelligent life out there, it is probable that we would have identified some signs of it by now. The most convincing current argument for extraterrestrial life comes from convergence theory. Convergence theory refers to situations when two different species are faced with a problem and independently arrive at the same solution. For example, both bats and birds evolved wings in order to fly. Similarly, octopus and squid have camera-like eyes. The species evolved separately, arriving at these adaptations independently. This suggests that although there may be infinite possibilities in the universe, nature tends to repeat itself. Morris (2004) has argued that where nature has produced something once, it is likely to produce it again. However, Morris himself recognises that even the basic conditions for life may be rare in the universe. Nature may be willing but the conditions might not be right. It is probable that the exacting conditions required for life are unlikely to be found more than once. It is unlikely that other planets will be exactly the right distance from their sun, with the right gravity, the right combination of chemicals and physics, with water and atmosphere. Although convergence theory indicates that nature tends
to reproduce the same outcomes, and plenitude theory argues that the multiplicity of star systems increases the likelihood of extraterrestrial life, the arguments are not convincing. The conditions for life itself are so fragile and complex that it is remarkable that life occurred even once, much less that it could be repeated elsewhere. (Taken from Cottrell (2005), page 59)

Critical Analysis Sheet

1- Identify the main line of reasoning
   a- The main line reasoning is: (write in your own words)
   b- Is the line of reasoning clear from the text? Give reasons for your answer.

2- Critically evaluate the line of reasoning
   a- Give some propositions (or statements) from the text which adds to its line of reasoning
   b- Give any examples of points not following in the best logical order
   c- Give any examples of flawed reasoning.

3- Identify hidden agendas
   a- What hidden agendas might the writer have that might make you question the contents or conclusions of the passage?
   b- What information might be missing that could paint a different picture?

4- Identify evidence in the text. What kinds of evidence does the writer use?

5- Evaluate the evidence given in the text according to valid criteria.
   a- Does the text use up-to-date data?
   b- Does the text use reliable sources? What are these? What makes you think they are or are not reliable?
   c- Do you think there may be any bias in the text? Give reasons and examples
   d- Comment on any statistics used. Are these likely to give a true and full picture?

6- Identify the writer’s conclusions

7- Does the evidence support the writer’s conclusion?
Appendix 3 (H)

Lesson 8

Aim: Paragraph Writing and Development

Learning Objectives:
Students’ ability to:
1- Write topic sentences and controlling ideas
2- Write different types of sentences
3- Connect sentences using signal words or phrases (Transitional Words)
4- Write unified and coherent paragraph

Lesson Plan
Step 1
The target was students’ ability to write a coherent and unified paragraph. For them to do so, they needed to master skills of writing and identifying the main and controlling ideas in a sentence and how sentences are expanded using details, examples, analogies and explanations. They also needed to master and distinguish the basic types of sentences in English (simple, compound and complex). More importantly, they needed to know how to maintain the flow and unity of ideas in a paragraph.

NB: (I identified this topic based on my experience to be difficult for the students to comprehend easily therefore I provided more analogies to give them a chance for more discussion before doing the tasks, answers are provided here)

Analogy 1
Teacher: Identify which of the following is a complete sentence and which is a fragment and why, then define a sentence.
1- Trying hard not to laugh while his sister, who was hiding under the table tickled his toes (fragment subject missing).
2- Stars shine (complete sentence).
3- Her eyes leaking tears of joy (fragment, subject missing)
4- The game continued into the night (complete sentence).

Analogy 2
Teacher: Indicate which of the following sentences is simple, compound or complex and why?
1- I heard the noise when Michael dropped the plates. (complex sentence)
2- The big dogs enjoyed their unexpected bones. (simple sentence)
3- I saw his hat, but I didn’t see his gloves. (compound sentence)
4- The man who will decorate your apartment has not come to work yet. (complex sentence)
5- The boys were waiting for the headmaster to come. (simple sentence)
6- Most of us were in the hall, the doors had been closed and the late comers had to wait outside. (compound sentence)

Analogy 3
Teacher: Read the following sentences and identify the topic sentences and the controlling ideas (main or chief ideas).
1- Water sports attract two types of people: those who play in the water and those who prefer their sport on the surface of the water.
2- People can shop for expensive clothes or for budget clothes, depending on the kind of sales outlet they choose.
3- There are several ways to go about looking for a job.
4- His counsellor gave Steve three arguments for not dropping out of school.
5- Fast food restaurants offer both advantages and disadvantages to the hungry consumer.

(Controlling ideas are in bold)

Analogy 4
Teacher: Study the following pairs of sentences and decide which one contains clear, specific and strong topic sentence and controlling idea(s) and which contains too general and weak topic sentence and controlling ideas and explain why?
1- Foreign travel is an interesting experience. (weak)
2- Foreign travel exposes tourists to many different cultures. (strong)
3- It is easy to change a tire. (weak)
4- Changing a tire can be done in six steps. (strong)

Analogy 5
Teacher: Study how the topic sentences were expanded using examples and explanations, then indicate which one of the paragraphs is well connected and therefore maintain a unity and flow of ideas (coherent) and which one is not.

Paragraph 1
Drugs may be classified in a variety of ways. The most common method is to group drugs according to their general purpose or use. For example, drugs are often categorised into those used to fight disease and those used to relieve pain. Alternatively, drugs may be classified according to the way they are administered to patients. For instance, they may be grouped into those taken orally, those injected into the body, those applied to the body surface and those inserted into a body opening. Drugs may also be categorized according to their form: tablet, liquid, ointment or powder. (Good and coherent paragraph)

Paragraph 2
Tourism is an important industry in many parts of the world. Wherever tourists go they need food and drink and so they spend money in restaurants, cafes and bars. Their need to travel results in jobs for thousands of people involved in air, sea, road and rail transport. They need accommodation and thereby provide employment for large numbers of people. Tourists increase the demand for goods and services and, in this way, they have helped to increase employment in many countries. In addition, tourists buy all kinds of souvenirs and mementos and they pay for all sorts of entertainment. (Weak and incoherent paragraph)

Step 2: Group work
Students were divided into groups to:
1- Identify flaws in the paragraphs.
2- Identify topic sentence and controlling ideas
3- Identify the transitional words which connect sentences together in order to maintain a paragraph’s unity.
Paragraph 1
Citizenship: do illegal immigrants deserve it

Ever since its first existence, man has known power as the highest target. No one doubts that economy is the strongest weapon of total control. Singapore with the width smaller than Pahang for example is actually the grant in the South East Asia. It has an economic growth rate of 11 percent and foreign savings of 230 billion dollars. Man dares to do anything including begging and killing in order to fulfil his desire and sense of self-love. Due to this very statement, I strongly believe that no illegal immigrant should be given citizenship in view of the country’s development.

Paragraph 2
Our life is Better without Automobiles

A part from expenditure and environment, life without automobiles will decrease the number of road casualties. A country like Denmark where people of all generations ride on bicycles in the city has proven it. The road casualties could be decreased by not using automobiles. Furthermore, road accidents that are caused by bicycles have lesser degrees of serious injury. On the other hand, if a collision happens, for example, between a car and a lorry, the possibility of death, major injuries and handicap is higher. (It is known that the rate of road accidents excessively increases during major festivals such as Hari Raya, Chinese New year, and school vacations.) These examples clearly show that how automobiles can turn our lives into miserable ones.

Paragraph 3
Advertising brings more negative effect than positive effects

Advertising is a kind of business tool that is used by producers to attract people’s attention to buy their products. Advertisements also seem like news fashions, and styles. (Producer promote their products in magazines, newspapers, posters, and also through television and radio) whether we realize it or not, advertising brings more negative than positive effects. Our life is influenced by advertising without realizing that we are cheated by the producers who used advertisement to promote their products.

Paragraph 4
Compare the following paragraphs and show the differences between them and which you thing is coherent and why?

(The intention with this part was that although a paragraph may be well connected, it may not convey a clear and meaningful message, as is the case with ‘b’)

a- My father once bought a Lincoln convertible. He did it by saving every penny he could. That car would be worth a fortune nowadays. However, he sold it to help pay for my college education.

b- My father bought a Lincoln convertible. The car driven by police was red. That colour doesn’t suit her. She consists of three letters. However, a letter isn’t as fast as a telephone.

Step 3: Inter-group discussion

Students would were allowed to consult each other before each group was asked to present their answers.
**Step 4: Group presentations**
Students in their groups were asked to present their answers followed by whole class discussion. During the class discussion, the teacher offers feedback if he felt students have missed some points or strayed.

**Step 5: Writing log (reflection)**
Students were provided with the following questions to assist them in their reflections.

1- Do you think you have learnt something new from today’s lesson?

2- What kind of thinking have you engaged in the activities we did today?

3- How did you carry out this kind of thinking?

4- Do you find any differences between this teaching strategy compared to strategies you used in the previous lessons? Explain how?

5- Can you identify flaw in sentences, identify topic and controlling ideas in a sentence and use transitional words effectively?

6- What are the challenges you faced while accomplishing this task and how did you overcome these challenges?

7- Do you think you can apply this strategy in writing your assignments for other modules?

8- What is your general thought about today’s lesson? [Do you think this is an effective way of teaching?]

**Home Work**
Write two paragraphs on any topic of your choice.
Appendix 3 (I)

Lesson 9

Aim: reorganisation of a jumbled text

Learning Objectives:
1- judgment and reasoning ability
2- analysis and focus thought activity
3- reflective and logical thinking skills
4- anticipation and organisational skills
5- decision-making processes that are based on careful and critical thinking

Lesson Plan
Step 1
Analogy 1
Teacher: We discussed in the previous lesson the importance of maintaining the unity and coherent of a paragraph. What is your understanding of coherent and logical flow of ideas in a text?

Analogy 2
Teacher: How can we maintain the coherent and logical flow of ideas in a text?

Analogy 3
Teacher: Look at how the ideas are organised in the following paragraphs. Do you think the ideas were organised and structured differently? Explain if your answer is yes.

Paragraph 1
Alcohol works quickly on the body because alcohol goes quickly into the body. It is not affected by the digestive system. The stomach and intestines pass it into the blood unchanged. Within a few minutes after it has been swallowed, alcohol has made this voyage in the body: to the liver, then to the left ventricle of the heart, to the lungs, back to the right ventricle of the heart, through the aorta into the arteries and throughout the body and finally to the brain and the higher nerve centres. That is where it has its greatest effect. (Taken from Bander, 1985, p. 202)

Answer: development by time, and is the natural form to use when describing a process

Paragraph 2
Hibernating animals can sleep all through the winter. You may wonder how they manage to live without eating for so many months. The answer lies in two facts. The first is that a hibernating animal has stored supplies of fat in its body during the summer and autumn. The second is connected to the main use the body makes of food – to supply the energy for movement. A hibernating animal reduces movement to far below the ordinary level. Even the movements of the heart and lungs are greatly reduced. The animal makes hardly any movement, uses hardly any energy, and needs hardly any food. (Taken from Bander, 1985, p. 203)

Answer: development by breakdown of parts. The central idea is broken into two parts. The writer gave readers stronger guideposts to the two facts by using the important transition words “the first and the second”.

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Paragraph 3
Modern parents are constantly telling their children that they have to wait until they reach a certain age before they can do certain things. These range from eating particular foods to drinking, smoking, or even using cosmetics. “Wait until…” is actually a common custom among primitive peoples, too. Some tribes forbid their young people to eat the flesh of sheep or goat. In New South Wales, a primitive man is not allowed to eat duck until he gets married. Among the people of Fiji, you have to reach a certain age before you can eat river fish or eels. (Taken from Bander, 1985, p. 206)

Answer: development from general statement to specific facts (deductive). The writer starts with a general statement “…children…have to wait until they…” Then supports the idea in the first sentence by adding specific examples of primitive tribes and customs in New South Wales and Fiji.

Analogy 4
Teacher: Mention other ways of paragraph development that you know apart from the three methods we discussed above.

(Teacher helps by showing some other ways of paragraph development when they failed to mention any. These are:

1- Development from specific facts to general statement (inductive).
2- Development from the least important idea to the most important idea
3- Development from the most important to the least important idea.

(Examples were provided)

Step 2: Group work
Students were asked to sit in small groups to first read the jumbled paragraphs silently for ten minutes and to form some ideas about the task individually before acting collaboratively in groups. This was to offer each student an opportunity to reflect and think about the task individually. Such opportunity can help them to assess their own level of understanding and how sharing his/her ideas with others later has deepen his/her understanding. Individual reflection followed by collective performance on the same task can help student to realise their areas of weaknesses and strengths. Awareness of individual weakness can assist the learner to improve himself/herself.

After the individual silent reading, the teacher asked each group to collaboratively re-structure the paragraphs in a logical order. A voice recorder was placed to record two groups’ interaction during the process of reorganisation.

Paragraphs
Re-arrange the following paragraphs and decide which of the development methods mentioned above the writer has followed.

Task 1
1/Galileo’s intense observation of the sun did irreversible damage to his retinas. 2/This possibly contributed to the blindness that afflicted him during the last four years of his life. 3/Galileo’s refinement of the telescope opened up the universe to the eyes of the world. 4/The Italian astronomer Galileo Galilei, who lived from 1564 to 1642, was one of many scientists who have been injured by their own pioneering experiments. 5/Yet his development of the telescope also helped to ruin his own already weak eyes.

Task 2
1/ Einstein performed so badly in all high school courses except mathematics that a teacher asked him to drop out, telling him, “You will never amount to anything, Einstein.” 2/ Even
after graduating from the institute, he had trouble finding and holding a job. 3/ His enrolment at Zurich’s Polytechnic Institute was delayed a year because he had failed his entrance exams. 4/ Even as he floundered in his jobs, he was formulating his first ideas about the theory of relativity. 5/ Albert Einstein’s parents feared their son was retarded because he spoke haltingly until the age of nine and later would respond to questions only after long periods of thought.

Task 3
Rearrange the following paragraphs into a complete and meaningful story.

A- The scholar entered the orchard and proceeded immediately to take one of the blossoms and taste it. He liked neither the texture of the flower nor the taste. He went to another tree and sampled another blossom, and another. Each blossom, though quite beautiful, was distasteful to him. So he left the orchard and returned to his home country, reporting to his fellow villagers that fruit was a very much over-rated food.

B- So he went to the market and asked everyone he met if they knew where he could find fruit. After much searching he located a man who knew the directions to the country and place where he could find fruit. The man drew elaborate directions for the scholar to follow.

C- There was once a man who lived in a country that had no fruit trees. This man was a scholar and spent a great deal of time reading. In his readings he often came across references to fruit. The descriptions of fruit were so enticing that he decided to undertake a journey to experience fruit for himself.

D- Being unable to recognise the difference between the spring blossom and the summer fruit, the scholar never realised that he had not experienced what he was looking for.

E- With his map in hand, the scholar carefully followed all of the directions. He was very careful to make all the right turns and to check out the landmarks that he was supposed to observe. Finally he came to the end of the directions and found himself at the entrance of a large apple orchard. It was springtime and the apple trees were in blossom.

Step 3: Inter-group discussion
Students were allowed to consult each other before each group was asked to present their answers.

Step 4: Groups presentations
Each group was asked to report their re-organised text and to state the reasons why they decided to put it in that way. During the class discussion, the teacher offers feedback if he felt students have missed some points or strayed.

Step 4: Writing log (reflection)
Students were provided with the following questions to assist them in their reflections.

1- Do you think you have learnt something new from today’s lesson?
2- What kind of thinking have you engaged in the activities we did today?
3- How did you carry out this kind of thinking?
4- Do you find any differences or similarities between strategies you used in previous lessons and today’s lesson? Explain how?
5- How helpful were the strategies you used in the previous lesson in accomplishing today’s lesson? Do you feel there are connections between the previous tasks and today’s task?
6- Can you now explain and write what it means to maintain the flow and unity of ideas in an essay?
7- What are the challenges you faced while accomplishing this task and how did you overcome these challenges?
8- Do you think you can apply the skills you gained today in writing your assignment and how?
9- What is your general thought about today’s lesson? [Do you think this is an effective way of teaching?]

The end of the lesson
Appendix 3 (J)

Lesson 10

Aim: Using the Six Thinking Hats to improve decision-making processes.

Learning Objective:
1- Expose learners to judicial and meticulous processes of decision making.
2- Raising student awareness of different ways of evaluating and solving a problem.
3- Stirring learners’ imagination and creativity and pushing them to think beyond the repetition of facts and their own beliefs.

Lesson Plan

Step 1
Six Thinking Hats” is a good technique that could help students to look at an issue from different perspectives before making a decision. Through creative and careful study of a problem a balanced decision can be made. Creative thinking could also push students to go beyond their usual ways of thinking and solving problems. As such, students can understand how complex issues may be and how flexible and open minded thinking can assist in exploring issues and opportunities which might otherwise not be noticed.

Analogy 1
Teacher: How do you approach your problems, what are the steps that you usually follow when studying a complex issue that need a decision to be made?
Teacher: Have you ever heard of the six thinking hats? If not can you make a guess of what they might be?
(It was expected that none of the students had heard of the six thinking hats, therefore the teacher gave a brief explanation of what they are and how they can be used to improve an individual’s approach to probing a problem. The teacher designed hats according to their colours to demonstrate their use)

Introduction to the Thinking Hats

The Six Thinking Hats

The White Hat
White Hat thinking focuses on data, facts, information known or needed.

The Black Hat
Black Hat thinking focuses on difficulties, potential problems. Why something may not work.

The Red Hat
Red Hat thinking focuses on feelings, hunches, gut instinct, and intuition.

The Green Hat
Green Hat thinking focuses on creativity: possibilities, alternatives, solutions, new ideas.

The Yellow Hat
Yellow Hat thinking focuses on values and benefits. Why something may work.

The Blue Hat
Blue Hat thinking focuses on manage the thinking process, focus, next steps, action plans.
The Six Thinking Hats
(Below are the teacher’s explanations of what each colour represents and then, demonstrations of how they are used in exploring an issue)

In order to use the Six Thinking Hats as effective devices to improve the quality of your decision-making, you need to look at an issue "wearing" each of the thinking hats in turn.

1- **White Hat:**
   With this thinking hat, you focus on the data available. Look at the information you have, and see what you can learn from it. Look for gaps in your knowledge, and either try to fill them or take account of them. This is where you analyze past trends, and try to extrapolate from historical data.

2- **Red Hat:**
   Wearing the red hat, you look at the decision using intuition, gut reactions, and emotion. Also try to think how other people will react emotionally, and try to understand the intuitive responses of people who do not fully know your reasoning.

3- **Black Hat:**
   When using black hat thinking, look at things cautiously and defensively. Try to see why ideas and approaches might not work. Black Hat thinking is important as it highlights or identifies the weak points in a plan or course of action and therefore, allows you to eliminate them, alter your approach, or prepare contingency plans to counter problems that arise. Black Hat thinking helps to make your plans tougher and more resilient. It can also help you to spot fatal flaws and risks before you embark on a course of action. Black Hat thinking is one of the real benefits of this technique, as many successful people get so used to thinking positively that often they cannot see problems in advance, leaving them under-prepared for difficulties.

4- **Yellow Hat:**
   The yellow hat helps you to think positively. It is the optimistic viewpoint that helps you to see all the benefits of the decision and the value in it, and spot the opportunities that arise from it. Yellow Hat thinking helps you to keep going when everything looks gloomy and difficult.

5- **Green Hat:**
   The Green Hat stands for creativity. This is where you can develop creative solutions to a problem. It is a freewheeling way of thinking, in which there is little criticism of ideas.

6- **Blue Hat:**
   The Blue Hat stands for process control. This is the hat worn by people chairing meetings. When running into difficulties because ideas are running dry, they may direct activity into Green Hat thinking. When contingency plans are needed, they will ask for Black Hat thinking, and so on. It is also used for synthesising, and making final decisions based on the results of thinking by other hats.

**Step 2: Looking at a topic from different perspectives**
After demonstration of the use of the thinking hats and explanation of what each stands for, students sat in a circle to apply them in an exploration of the topic: Poverty in the Sudan. The topic was selected by the students themselves.

**Topic:** Poverty in Sudan was discussed in the class by taking each hat in turn and students reflected on what it signified in probing the topic
Step 3: Class discussion
At the end of the discussion, students were given a chance to ask questions in relation to the use of the thinking hats.

Step 4: Writing log (reflection)
Students were provided with the following questions to assist them in their reflections.

1- Do you think you have learnt something new from today’s lesson?
2- What kind of thinking have you engaged in the activities we did today?
3- How did you carry out this kind of thinking?
4- Do you find any differences or similarities between strategies you used in previous lessons and the strategy of today’s lesson? Explain how?
5- How helpful were the strategies you used in the previous lessons in accomplishing today’s lesson? Do you feel there are connection between the previous tasks and today’s task?
6- What are the challenges you faced while accomplishing this task and how did you overcome these challenges?
7- Do you think you can apply the thinking hats strategy to other aspects of your study or life and how?
8- What is your general thought about today’s lesson? [Do you think this is an effective way of teaching?]

The end of the lesson
Appendix 3 (K)

Lesson 11
Lesson plan

Topic: Group Conference
Learning Objectives:
1- to enhance learners’ ability to critically and analytically discuss and evaluate a topic.
2- to encourage learners to voice and express their convictions and beliefs and their personal viewpoints on a particular issue.
3- to learn how to respect and accommodate others’ opinions, and correct and advance their understanding of the topic being discussed.
4- to expose to and involve learners in comprehensive discussion of a topic

Lesson development/progress
The discussed topic was approached in form of a conference (as an open-end topic for groups to discuss) in which students with the help of the teacher narrow down the topic and set questions to be deliberated before students were divided into groups for further deliberations. Each group at the end of discussion was required to come up with resolutions. Such discussion was aimed to allow students to verbalize their ideas in a collaborative discussion of an issue. Through dialogue and group discussion, students can question their assumptions as well as those of others, and consider various opinions to improve their understanding of the topic.

Step 1
Teacher: introduces the topic “Education policies in Sudan”. After initial brain-storming the topic was narrowed down to focus only on one aspect of educational policies. (The topic was chosen by the students themselves. The intention was teaching them focused thought)

Teacher: Before we get into groups what do you think are the important questions that we should focus on in tackling this topic? What should we do now before we deliberate on the issue? Students came up with their suggestions and questions as part of brain-storming for the discussion. With the help of the teacher, they narrowed down the topic from “Education Policies in Sudan” to “Education Policies during the Post-independence Era from 1956 to date”, then to “Education policies during The National Salvation Revolution from 1989 to date”, then finally they settled on “The 1990 Higher Education policy” as a manageable topic. This took 15 to 20 minutes.

Step 2: Group work
Teacher: Now after we narrowed the topic, you can organise yourselves into three small groups for discussion. Discuss in your groups the positive and negative aspects of the policy. Each group has to write down their resolutions and present it in the class later during group presentations. (They were given the reasons the government stated as justification for the Arabacization of High Education. A copy is attached).

Step 3: Group Presentations
Each group presented its resolutions which this was followed by class discussion. This was aimed at offering students’ the opportunity to collaboratively share their experiences and
learn from each other, particularly on a topic that they were familiar with and had different experience of.

**Step 4: Writing log (reflection)**

Students were provided with the following questions to assist them in their reflections.

1- Do you think you have learnt something new from today’s lesson?
2- What kind of thinking have you engaged in the activities we did today?
3- How did you carry out this kind of thinking?
4- Do you find any differences or similarities between strategies you used in lesson 10 (Thinking Hats) and the strategy of today’s lesson? Explain how?
5- How helpful were the strategies you used in lesson 10 and the previous lessons in accomplishing today’s lesson? Do you feel there are connections between the previous tasks and today’s task?
6- What are the challenges you faced while accomplishing this task and how did you overcome these challenges?
7- Do you think you can apply this strategy to other aspects of your study or life and how?
8- What is your general thought about today’s lesson? [Do you think this is an effective way of teaching?]

**Home Work**

The teacher asked students to write an argumentative essay stating their personal reaction to the discussed topic as homework.

**The end of the lesson**
Government Reasons for Arabicization

The government’s justifications for the Arabicization of High Education as reported by Forojalla (1992):

1- It would make it easier for teachers (Arabic) to express themselves accurately and for the students to absorb and understand the subject.

2- It would strengthen links between the students and the universities and their communities.

3- Self-esteem and self-reliance would be encouraged and greater scope offered for intellectual enquiry and debate.

4- In economic terms Arabicization would save money, as locally produced books are less costly than imported ones. Also, since studying in Arabic is much easier and quicker for students, time previously used for explanation would be saved.

5- The use of Arabic for teaching is a means of promoting national identity and unity and ending dependence on foreign cultures.

6- There would be a return to Arabic cultural roots.

7- Arabicization can provide a powerful factor in promoting cultural and national unity among the Sudanese in all their diverse ethnic groups.
Appendix 3 (L)

Lesson 12

Aim: Debate

Learning Objectives:

1- to sharpen learners’ argumentative skills
2- to enhance learners’ ability to present and defend their ideas with logical evidence.
3- to introduce and increase learners’ understanding of the three fallacies (logo, ethos and pathos) and the three appeals (rational, credibility and affective)

Lesson Plan
Students chose the topic for the debate in advance of the class. They were asked to read and gather information to support the position they decided to take. They were encouraged to prepare some questions in advance to assist them in consolidating their understanding of the topic and the position they took. The reason for offering the topic in advance was that debate requires thorough understanding of the topic and for an individual to form clear ideas for or against the topic. Students were informed that the purpose of the debate is not to declare any side as the winner or loser, but to help them practice making claims and defending their claims with reasons and evidence. They were encouraged to work with claims, reasons, arguments and debating ideas without attacking personalities. Regulations and ground rules were agreed upon before the debate began.

Step 1
The teacher asked students to group themselves into three groups: those who support women having all the rights of men to sit on one side of the class and the opponents on the other side. Those who were still undecided were asked to sit in the middle.

The topic: Women’s Rights in Sudan

Step 2:
The teacher as a facilitator asked each group in turn to present their argument, why they supported or opposed women having full rights like men in the Sudan. Any side was allowed to present counter-arguments or rebuttals in response to what the other team has said, or offer more reasons in support of their own side. Each group was required to support their claims with evidence. Anyone who was persuaded by the argument of the other side was allowed to change sides and join the team. The teacher was neutral; however, he asked questions for clarification or offered direction. The debate progressed gradually from point to point, arguments and counter arguments, till the end.

Step 3
At the end of the discussion students were asked to draw conclusions from their discussion and to indicate points of convergence and disagreement.

Step 4
The teacher asked each student at the end to write an argumentative essay about the topic discussed as homework. They were instructed to add some more reasons and evidence of their own and to state their personal position.
Step 5: Writing log (reflection)

Students were provided with the following questions to assist them in their reflections.

1- Do you think you have learnt something new from today’s lesson?

2- What kind of thinking have you engaged in the debate we had today?

3- How did you carry out this kind of thinking?

4- Do you find any differences or similarities between strategies you used in lessons 10 and 11 (thinking hats and group discussion) and the strategy of today’s lesson? Explain how?

5- How helpful were the strategies you used in the previous lessons in accomplishing today’s lesson? Do you feel there are connections between the previous tasks and today’s task?

6- What are the challenges you faced while attempting to convince the other side and how did you overcome these challenges?

7- Do you think you can apply the debate as a strategy in investigating other subjects of your study or life and how?

8- What is your general thought about today’s lesson? [Do you think this is an effective way of teaching?]

9-

The end of the lesson
Appendix 4

Questions for Focus Group Sessions

1- What do you understand by critical thinking? Do your teachers always encourage you to be critical when writing your assignments?

2- What is your attitude towards writing, do you like or dislike it and why? What are the activities that you do before finally approaching your writing tasks?

3- Do you always bear in mind the following when writing:
   (a) The main purpose.
   (b) Audience.
   (c) Making your ideas clear for the reader.
   (d) Supporting your argument with evidence.
   (e) Having many drafts and revisions before the final draft.
   (f) Adding your voice.

4- What do you do when faced with a viewpoint or argument which you don’t agree with? Do you look for evidence first before you make your point or do you let yourself be led by your conscience and beliefs?

5- How do you maintain your focus when writing?

6- Do you think there is any relationship between reading and writing skills?

7- How do you judge whether or not any information you have collected from a reading passage is accurate or inaccurate?

8- Have you ever experienced a moment where you found yourself disagreeing with the account of an author?

9- What is your reaction to the intervention?
   (a) Level of tasks given.
   (b) Strategies used.
   (c) Has it changed your attitude towards writing or reading, and how?
   (d) What insights have you gained?
   (e) Your suggestions for improvement.

Question (9) was reserved for the second focus group sessions at the end of the intervention.
Appendix 5


Connor and Lauer (1985) developed an analytical system of 23 persuasive appeals comprising of fourteen logical categories, four ethical categories, and five affective categories as listed below:

Rational appeals
1- Descriptive example
2- Narrative example
3- Classification (including definition)
4- Comparison (including analogy)
5- Contrast
6- Degree
7- Authority
8- Cause/effect
9- Model
10- Stage in process
11- Means/end
12- Consequences
13- Ideal or principle
14- Information (facts, statistics)

Credibility appeals
15- Firsthand experience
16- Writer’s respect for audience’s interest and points of view
17- Writer-audience shared interests and points of view
18- Writer’s good character and/or judgment

Affective appeals
19- Emotion in audience’s situation
20- Audience’s empathy
21- Audience’s values
22- Vivid picture
23- Charged language

The van Dijk’s and Kintsch (1983) episode boundary markers
van Dijk’s and Kintsch (1983, 204) criteria for episode boundary markers include:
1- Change of possible world
2- Change of time or period
3- Change of place
4- Introduction of new participants
5- Full noun phrase reintroduction of old participants
6- Change of perspective or point of view
7- Different predicate range (change of frame or script).

(Date:06/09/2009)
Appendix 6 (A): Sample of Written composition, Pre-test (weak student)

Pre-test

Separation

Sudanese people can’t be together because northern people can see themselves they are better over people of south, west and east.

Sudan is a country of black people you see that in the name (Sudan) means black (Sad) mean they are tired. Now could Arabic country and Islamic should be a general religious and Christianity not important?

Government uses political kill themselves uses a Malishia called peace the aim is to kill the CPA sign after 2005. Government also use tribe to kill themselves that not good.

The south is rich with resources such as oil, minerals, water and animal resources, arable and fertile agricultural land. Given a chance to run its own resources, it will develop very fast.

Over unity: many countries have great because their land is a big. For example US, Russia. We shall do a unity when all Sudanese life side by side and leave any different for colour and religions, Sudan going to be a African country.
Appendix 6 (B): Sample of Written composition, Post-test (Weak Student)

Post-test
I think that I do agree with those who support the unity because the countries with bigger land they are strong in Army and economies for example United States and China. Therefore the religion should not be a problem to support separation the country but the problem is power and how it can be divide among many regions. Now we did signing a Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) four years ago there is not anything in south. I mean the government of Southern Sudan. I think we can create a unity to give them a chance to run it and to develop it very fast. The second thing is that if the south separate they have not what we called in Arabic (Mina) to export any oil to another countries of the world but when they need to export they will pay for Kenya to export it to Mombasa port but if we are united we have Bashir port in Red Sea to export our oil free.

Yes opinions are divided however sometime that is good. The south is land locked state they haven’t a sea though they have rivers and south have a rich natural resources for example bigger land for agriculture, wild animal, Gold, oil etc. But the government of the Southern Sudan and all of those in high authority they don’t support the minding and the use of this resources the evidence is that leader of government and vice president of the Sudan open a factory of Bear in Juba instead of any other company. Most of leaders in south government only drink the wine all the time and do not think of the development. They have no good idea that can push up any country. Furthermore, the example given by those support the separation of land locked countries like Uganda their economic is not better than Sudan, this country is very poor. Therefore the choose of unity it should be best than separation. One hand could not clap itself together we could build big and strong economic country.

For religion it is not important if you are Muslim or Christian we should all be Sudanese. I don’t agree that only Muslim be president of Sudan why? Sudan is the land of the black and black are majority some Muslim some Christian. Arab are not majority therefore have no right to control the power in the Sudan and say no to others. I want the president of Sudan to be from any region to make unity strong. See USA is strong and it have different people Arab, black, white, Asia all together no complaint why we don’t be like that. I agree that separation lead to fighting between southerners. Big tribe will dominate the small tribe. See in Juba ministers and all power in hand of one tribe they take everything. Other people have small power but big one is for them. If south separated fighting will happen between the big tribe themselves like now Dinka and Nuer. So instead of peace and stability they hope for they will find themselves fighting each others. And there are lots of evidence in the recent history.

I want unity and also justice. I want strong united Sudan south and north. I don’t want people divide by religion and fighting. I want president to be from south and Nuba Mountain, Blue Nile and Darfur. I don’t want jihad. I want Sudan to be strong like US and this is can come by unity not separation.
Appendix 7 (A): Sample of Written composition, pre-test (Good Student)

Pre-test
Me as Sudanese and all Sudanese wish the best for our country, both even if they are from the north or from the south. That is for sure. And me as an individual given a chance to choose between unity and separation I am so sure I will choose unity. Certainly I will.

I think separation is not the solution for our problems as Sudanese, the truth is, it’s not a solution for anything, because we were taught since we were kids, that unity is the best for everything.

When we try to discuss the disadvantages of separation we will find countless of them. In my opinion separation is not going to be the end of the hostility between southern side and the northern one, because more problems will show up. When we take Abeyi area as a living example we will know that there is going to be a trouble. Border demarcation and resources in them will be fighting areas between the two sides. On the other hand Sudan is such a rich country because of it is wide. It is a large country that’s why we have a great economic wealth between North and South, and this is a strong point for Sudan- we have resources as well. We have sea ports and the most important wealth “water”. Also we have fertile land for agriculture. We have all these good things as one country as one state as Sudan including north and south. Therefore when we separate a part north and south is going to lose a lot. For example if we separate south will be land locked state so it will suffer from lack of sea port which will have a negative reflection in economic. Because it will mainly hamper it’s trading with other countries.

About economic, when we are together as one country we will have bigger markets to sell our products and the more important is we will have more products to be sold especially with “World economic problem” now therefore we need unity now more than ever we were and ever we will be.

In our South people are loyal to their tribal leader, I mean they are ruled by tribal leaders and people are so faithful to them. I think it is a good thing. But when we separate, separation will lead to the domination of bigger tribes over the smaller ones. This will be trouble and the idea of peace and stability they hoped for and dreamed with will be gone. And of course there is incidences in history that approve and support this view.

I think we should be together as one country and one family against the outside enemies who want to rule us and to steal our wealth because we are rich country. Really rich!!! especially with the financial crises these days. I am sure we should be Sudan. it is not about I am an Arab individual and I am a black African or I am Muslim and you are Christian. It is about us together, it is about our mother Sudan.

We all know that more sticks cannot be broken, but one stick will be easily broken. Therefore we want to be the more sticks.

Together we will develop, and we will improve ourselves and we can’t do that when we are separated.
Appendix 7 (B): Sample of Written composition, Post-test (Good Student)

Post-test
Southern Sudanese will vote in a general referendum in the speculation that Sudan in the year 2011 may split into two states in which they will vote either for unity or secession of north from the south.
Me as a Sudanese, given a chance to vote, honestly I will vote for unity for several reasons.

We all know about the hatred and hostility between the two sides which has been going on for centuries. People who argue or think that separation will end this hatred and lead to peace and better future simply they are mistaken because even if Sudan got separated instead of peace and stability they looked and hoped for, they will find themselves fighting each other for these two reasons. First, demarcating boundaries of some areas will lead for more fighting because each side – north or – south would say it is mine!!! We have the issue of the Abeyi is a living example of what I am saying. Second, Southerners and Northerners need each others to maintain balance since Sudan’s social structure is based on tribalism in which all people are really loyal to their tribal leaders. Therefore separation will affect this by leading to domination of the bigger tribes over the small ones so this will lead not to have the rest and comfort which we all looking for and eventually these people will find themselves fighting. For all the above I don’t think separation will end or reduce any fighting or even lead to peace.

In my opinion negotiation always lead to positive results like what happened after signing in the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) is that the two sides became more closer than ever before and security situation is now much better than it was before therefore the number of prisoners in Malakal prison now is double the number of them before signing the CPA in 2005. This indicate that there is security now and anyone who do crime can be arrested and send to prison. Before when there was no security police do not arrest people because there was arms everywhere. Some people who are against unity they claim that despite the signing of CPA still there is tension between the two sides. I think this tension is going to exist as a natural result of hating and mistrust that has been between the two sides for centuries. However, it is true that after the CPA that tension has reduced compared to before CPA, now there are a lot of Northerners in South than before.

On other hand when we discuss economic issues. Separation will lead to various economic problems. Opponent said that “if south Sudan is given a chance to make benefit of its own resources such as oil, minerals, water and animal resources, arable and fertile agricultural land then it will develop fast”. But how can they develop if they don’t have big markets for their products inside. They will find it very hard to make markets outside because southern state is a land locked state I mean, the lack of sea ports will actually affect the trading and economic very seriously in the region and its connections with the rest of the world. Therefore unity is really more needed than separation.

People in south consider themselves as black Africans, while others in north consider themselves as Arabs. And we know that they are religiously, politically and culturally they have no aspects in common. But why don’t we look at the bright and positive side of issues? Together we can make a great nation and unique one because we are all called Sudanese we all life in Sudan we all drink from the same River Nile.
There is a lot of example through the history of multicultural, religious nations such as United States of America (USA) is a living example nowadays. Why don’t we put religion aside and treat ourselves as citizen of the same country our beloved Sudan.

I think we should be together as one country and one family against the outside enemies who want to rule us and to exploit our wealth because we are rich country. Other countries want to see us weak and divided so that they exploit our resources. For example China, US and British all wants the fight between the south and north to continue so that they can loot our oil. Therefore it should not be about whether I am an Arab or I am a black African or I am Muslim and you are Christian. It is about us together, it is about our mother Sudan, it is about our resources, it about strength and above all it is about our next generation. I want to see the result of the referendum for unity so that together we can build our country.
Appendix 8: The Scoring System

The Script
UC (introduction)/ Southern Sudanese will vote in a general referendum in the speculation that Sudan in the year 2011 may split into two states in which they will vote either for unity or secession of north from the south.
C/ Me as a Sudanese, given a chance to vote, honestly I will vote for unity for several reasons.

C/ We all know about the hatred and hostility between the two sides which has been going on for centuries. CA/ (People who argue or think that separation will end this hatred and lead to peace and better future simply they are mistaken because even if Sudan got separated instead of peace and stability they looked and hoped for, they will find themselves fighting each other for these two reasons). R1/ First, demarcating boundaries of some areas will lead for more fighting because each side – north or – south would say it is mine!!! We have E/ the issue of the Abeyi is a living example of what I am saying. R2/ Second, Southerners and Northerners need each others to maintain balance since Sudan’s social structure is based on tribalism in which all people are really loyal to their tribal leaders. IntC/ R3/ Therefore separation will affect this by leading to domination of the bigger tribes over the small ones IntC/R4/ so this will lead not to have the rest and comfort which we all looking for and eventually these people will find themselves fighting. FinC/Con For all the above I don’t think separation will end or reduce any fighting or even lead to peace.

C/ In my opinion negotiation always lead to positive results E/ like what happened after signing in the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) is that R1/ the two sides became more closer than ever before and R2/ security situation is now much better than it was before Con/ therefore the number of prisoners in Malakal prison now is double the number of them before signing the CPA in 2005. E/ This indicate that there is security now and any one who do crime can be arrested and send to prison. C/ Before when there was no security police do not arrest people R1/ because there was arms everywhere. CA/ Some people who are against unity they claim that despite the signing of CPA still there is tension between the two sides. I think this tension is going to exist as a natural result of hating and mistrust that has been between the two sides for centuries. However, Con/ it is true that after the CPA that tension has reduced compared to before CPA, now E/ there are a lot of Northerners in South than before.

C/ On other hand when we discuss economic issues. Separation will lead to various economic problems. CA/ Opponent said that “if south Sudan is given a chance to make benefit of its own resources such as oil, minerals, water and animal resources, arable and fertile agricultural land then it will develop fast”. But how can they develop if they don’t have big markets for their products inside. R1/ They will find it very hard to make markets outside because southern state is a land locked state I mean, the lack of sea ports will actually affect the trading and economic very seriously in the region and its connections with the rest of the world. Con/ Therefore unity is really more needed than separation.

C/ People in south consider themselves as black Africans, while others in north consider themselves as Arabs. App-cred/ And we know that they are religiously, politically and culturally they have no aspects in common. But why don’t we look at the bright and positive
side of issues? Together we can make a great nation and unique one because we are all called Sudanese we all life in Sudan we all drink from the same River Nile.

R1/There is a lot of example through the history of multi cultural, religious nations such as E/United States of America (USA) is a living example nowadays. App-aff/Why don’t we put religion aside and treat ourselves as citizen of the same country our beloved Sudan.

C/I think we should be together as one country and one family R1/against the outside enemies who want to rule us and to exploit our wealth because we are rich country. R2/Other countries want to see us weak and divided so that they exploit our resources. E/For example China, US and British all wants the fight between the south and north R3/to continue so that they can loot our oil. App-aff/Therefore it should not be about whether I am an Arab or I am a black African or I am Muslim and you are Christian. It is about us together, it is about our mother land Sudan, it is about our resources, it about strength and above all it is about our next generation. Con/I want to see the result of the referendum for unity so that together we can build our country.

Keys
C: claim
UC: Unsupported Claim
R: Reason
E: evidence
CA: counter-argument
IntC: intermediate conclusion
FinC: final conclusion
Con: conclusion
App-aff: Affective Appeal
App-cred: Credibility Appeal

Final Score
Number of Claims: 5
Number of reasons: 12
Number of Evidence: 6
Number of counter-argument: 3
Number of conclusions: 5
Number of Affective Appeals: 2
Number of Credibility Appeals: 1
Number of Rationale appeal: 0
Number of fallacies: 0
Appendix 9
A Sample of Guided Letters Writing
Taken from Sudan Practical Integrated National English (SPINE) Book 3
Appendix 10
Students’ Raw Scores in the Three Tests

Table 1 Shows Pre-test Result - Comparison Group (First Rater)

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<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Evidence</th>
<th>Counter-argument</th>
<th>Conclusion</th>
<th>Rationale Appeal</th>
<th>Credibility Appeal</th>
<th>Affective Appeal</th>
<th>Fallacy</th>
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Table 2 Shows Pre-test Result – Comparison Group (Second Rater)

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Table 9 Shows Delayed-test Result –Comparison Group (First Rater)

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Table 10 Shows Delayed-test Result –Comparison Group (Second Rater)

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Table 11 Shows Delayed-test Result – Experimental Group (First Rater)

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Table 12 Shows Delayed-test Result – Experimental Group (Second Rater)

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Appendix 11 A: Transcript of the First Group Pre Focus group Interviews

Transcription Symbols

( )  Pause
[ ]  Translation from Arabic to English
=  Utterances delivered at a quicker pace than the surrounding talk
( )  The beginning and end of interruption
uh  Audible sounds not necessary words
(())  Analyst notes
:  Sound extension of a word (more colons demonstrates longer stretches)
Capital letter  indicate loud voice

Facilitator: thank you very much for your coming ( ) we are going to deliberate on
certain questions ( ) the intention is to have information about your English
teaching background in Senior Secondary School ( ) so feel free to express
yourself as you wish ( ) say whatever you want to say and no body will have
access to this information except me alone and even your names as you can see
were not registered simply is ( ) to hide your personality ( ) and if you find
difficulty in expressing yourself in English ( ) you have the right to express
yourself in Arabic for I only want to collect some information ( ) can we start?
((Students nodded their heads in approval)) ( ) my first question is ( ) critical
thinking seems to be a new concept here in Sudan ( ) what do you understand by
critical thinking? ( ) Do your teachers encourage you to be critical when writing
your assignments in senior secondary schools? ( ) I mean ( ) what do you
understand when somebody says critical thinking? ( ) What do you understand by
critical thinking? ( )

Student 1: [I mean from] credit?
Facilitator: what?

Student 1: is it from credit card?

Facilitator: to think of something not only to take facts as they are but to go beyond
facts ( ) try to analyse something instead of being given something and then you
take it as it is ( ) you try to analyse it {analysis and judgment} oh yeah
Student 1: {analysis}

Facilitator: so what is your understanding of critical thinking?

Student 1: to think more {

Facilitator: {raise up your voice}

Student 1: ((continues)) if you critical thinking if you take information as it is just
[that is you memorise it as it is] it wouldn’t be so useful and it wouldn’t
make a move and critical thinking is so useful ( ) because it make us ( ) which
make our creativity because it make us think more and cultivate more and
be more creative

Facilitator: good ( ) good ( ) really very good points

Student 2: OH when I talk about critical thinking ( ) when I talk about education ( )
we are studying in high school only the grammar {

Facilitator: {raise your voice a little bit

Student 2: ((continues)) we study grammar points and listening and not encourage us
to be imaginative in our study [I mean all of it] grammar

Facilitator: [all of it] grammar? They don’t ask you to analyse ( ) critique

Student 1: I think all ( ) what our teachers are concern about in our high school is
49: Student 1: ((continues)) yeah without changing anything

50: Facilitator: OK:: very good () very good point () you feel free to say what you think

51: Student 2: ((continues)) yes don’t fail in exam () you must get 50% in exam and

52: Student 1: ((continues)) yeah I have just to put perfect answer () without}

53: Facilitator: ( ) continue in fact you ((for the whole group)) mention very nice

54: Student 2: ((continues)) yes don’t fail in exam () you must get 50% in exam and

55: Students: [English result is scale up] {yeah I have just to put

56: Students: {students responded by saying Yeah

57: Facilitator: OH scaling [so not to fail] {

58: Students: {yeah

59: Student 2: {uh}

60: Student 1: [اختصاص] [go on] ((giving chance for student 1 to continue))

61: Facilitator: OK:: () continue in fact you ((for the whole group)) mention very nice

62: point

63: Student 1: in my opinion of our teachers () thought if the student get high scores ()

64: they are () the teacher is successful but I think if student get high score in

65: examination without understanding what they wrote in examination the teacher is

66: not successful teacher

67: Facilitator: so you find that the English you learn in classes has no connection with

68: English that you use in your daily life?

69: Students: ((responded together)) yeah

70: Facilitator: OK:: very nice () OK:: () OK:: () now let me move to this section which

71: is writing () I know writing is a problem here and I read some reports when I

72: was going through some documents () that our students are weak in both English

73: and Arabic () so there is problem in languages () So:: I just want to know what is

74: your attitude towards writing () Writing in general () DO you really write a lot?

75: () What is your attitude when you are asked to write an essay () do you feel

76: comfortable () Do you like writing?

77: Student 1: I don’t like writing ()

78: Facilitator: No:

79: Student 1: ((continues)) I like reading more than writing () I like searching for the

80: meaning of the words in dictionary () but not [not I mean

81: to memorise their spellings] () I know a lot of words by just saying them because

82: I had seen them before but if you tell me to write them down () I write the

83: spelling wrong and that change the meaning of the word itself

84: Facilitator: yeah

85: Student 2: ((in a low voice)) serious problem
Facilitator: ((continues)) even I myself I'm very poor in spelling but the goodness is correct it itself.

Facilitator: yeah ( ) sound systems are completely different.

Student 2: different ( ) example by ERA ( ).

in English even if I write I mean I would have written it wrongly.

Students: ((together at one time)) computer can correct it itself.

Student 4: ((first part unaudable))

written but in Arabic there is correspondence between the pronunciation of a word and its written form.

Student 1: I think in Arabic ( ) in Arabic if you ask me to write a word ( ) I can write it depending on what you said and I can ( ) I may write it right even if I don't know it before ( ) but in English if you give me a word ( ) I can write it but the spelling is wrong.

The way a word is pronounced in English has no relation with the way it is written but in Arabic there is correspondence between the pronunciation of a word and its written form.

Facilitator: that is true ( ) yeah ( ) [Do you have any addition?]

Student 2: different ( ) example by ERA ( ).

Facilitator: and in fact you find sometimes like the word Writing ( ) you find W at the beginning and then you don’t pronounce it ( ) it is silent.

Students: ((all together)) silent.

Student 1: in English there are a lot of sounds ( ) two letters together can make a new sound from nothing but in Arabic it is not that much.

Facilitator: yeah ( ) sound systems are completely different.

Student 2: different sounds from that of English.

Facilitator: even in Arabic ( ) do you like writing ( ) writing composition ( ) writing letters ( ) writing reflections ( )

writing compositions ( ) do you write a lot?

corrections ( ) essays ( ).

Student 1: we write and we don’t face any problem but at the end we write accurately but in English even if I write I mean I would have written it wrongly.

Facilitator: ((laughter))

Students: ((laughter))

Facilitator: would you like to add anything ( ) you face any problem when you are asked to write?

((Directing the question to student 5))

Student 5: in English?

Facilitator: in any of the two languages.

Student 5: Arabic no problem ( ) but in English my spelling ( ) very bad.
Facilitator: {very bad} ( ) so you don’t like writing ( ) so I can say ( ) all of you dislike writing in English?

Students: ((all together)) yes

Facilitator: UH ( ) all right ( ) and again ( )

Student 2: I tried to write a sing a song ( )

Facilitator: {Oh to compose a poem?}

Student 2: it was a nice trial ( )

Facilitator: good ( ) good ( ) and then apart from spelling ( ) what else do you find difficult in writing? Just leave aside spelling ( ) what else do you find difficult in writing? ( ) writing in general whether in Arabic or English ( ) what do you find difficult?

Student 2: for me it only spelling

Facilitator: only spelling?

Student 2: yeah ((other students nodded in approval))

Facilitator: OK ( ) let me put it in this way ( ) if you want to write something ( ) a letter ( ) a composition ( ) everything ( ) what are the things that you do at the beginning before you finally put down your ideas ( ) what do you do = because here I’m quiet sure each one of you have different way of what of ( ) of activities ( ) pre- writing activities ( ) what do you do before you start putting your ideas down ( ) doctor ((looking at Student 3 who was silent throughout the discussion))

Student 3: oh not yet

Facilitator: [you become doctors already] منين يقينا لا [no:: no:: we are not yet]

Students: (laughter and all responding))

Facilitator: (more laughter)

Student 1: [you have already been enrolled] ( ) what do you find difficult ( ) what are the steps that you do even before you start writing? ( ) OK let me give a hind ( ) OK it is said that writing is a very difficult skill {yeah ( ) yeah

Students: (responding)

Facilitator: (continues)) because it is not just a matter of writing down ideas but you need to think a lot about the order of ideas ( ) organisation and arrangements ( ) to arrange your ideas ( ) some people do have this kind of putting down points first then later on elaborate on these point and then keep on changing the organisation and all these things ( ) I don’t know whether you do all these steps before you start writing ( ) what do you do first ( ) then second and then just as general things that you always do when you want to write something [قيلما تفكر تكتب عن ما خلافين نكتة هسه] موضوع قيلما تكتب ما هو الانتبه بتقوم بها في ذلك قبل ما تكتب

Student 1: افساك بالعربي بعدد إن ابتداء الترجم الى اللغة الإنجليزية بعدد: 1 اكتب بعدد إنك تحظى انتاج إنجليزية الكتابة

Student 2: [I think in Arabic first then I translate into English then when I finish writing I revise it]

Facilitator: you think first ( ) and then you don’t think in English because mostly you think in Arabic and you then translate ( ) alright ( ) and then you put down your ideas first ( ) OK and then you think about these ideas and then sometimes you cancel some of them and sometimes you do add more is it? And then sometimes you see that this one does not follow this one ( ) then the flow is not good ( ) then you keep changing ( ) do you do that even in Arabic?
182: Students: ((were nodding in approval while the teacher was explaining all the above
183: steps, occasionally some would say yeah))
184: Student 1: I think once you read the address of composition ( ) some ideas jump
185: once you read it and then you try to put these ideas in order
186: Facilitator: ALL RIGHT ( ) yeah student 4 ((calling her by name))
187: Student 4: ((correcting the facilitator and pronouncing the name correctly))
188: Facilitator: YES
189: Student 2: ((calling her by name ( ) especially if you are writing something to be
190: read by other people ( ) do you
191: Facilitator: student 4 ((correcting her by name as she was impatiently wanting a
192: chance))
193: Student 4: [I try to read the paper
194: composition examination if there is mistakes in grammar I revise them {I try to read the paper
195: composition examination if there is mistakes in grammar I revise them {I try to read the paper
196: Good ( ) OK:: ( ) DO you bear in mind the following when writing
197: when you are writing any writing not particular writing alone ( ) English even
198: in Arabic ( ) when you are writing ( ) do you always consider these points ( )
199: these areas ( ) one the main purpose ( ) do you decide the purpose first before you
200: start writing ( ) do you consider this first ( ) the purpose
201: Student 2: PURPOSE ( ) (I mean for example...)
202: Facilitator: while you
203: ?first
204: [Before you start writing while you are preparing yourself ( ) do you think about
205: the topic of your writing first?]
206: Student 2: yes ( ) yes ( )
207: Facilitator: you think about it first?
208: Students: ((all nodding in approval)) yes yes ( )
209: Facilitator: do you always think about the audience ( ) I mean your readers ( )
210: especially if you are writing something to be read by other people ( ) do you
211: always consider readers in your mind?
212: Student 1: yeah ( ) I think ( ) yeah ( )
213: Facilitator: yeah go on
214: Student 1: if someone is going to read it ( ) that is why I should think about him
215: when is going to read it ( ) I think that he should have a good idea about what I
216: wrote
217: Facilitator: student 4 ((calling her by name as she was impatiently wanting a
218: chance))
219: Student 4: ((let me say it in Arabic))
220: Facilitator: ((smiling)) yeah
221: Student 4: ((let me say it in Arabic))
222: انا قبل ما اكتب لأزم أفكر و لما لما تكرر الكلمات ده صح ولsubstring: ( darft
223: اكتب أقدم بمراجعة في زول يجي يجيل يقوم بقرأ بالعربية ممكن تكتب كوبس كوبس له ما يعرف
224: اكتب أقدم بمراجعة في زول يجي يجيل يقوم بقرأ بالعربية ممكن تكتب كوبس كوبس له ما يعرف
225: (before I write I must think first ( ) and when I write I revise the draft properly ( )
226: look at the structure of words is it correct or incorrect ( ) maybe somebody may
227: take it and read it ( ) in Arabic you can write the words well however if you are
228: not careful the reverse may occur if you don’t know how to write well your
229: sentence may convey a different meaning]
230: making your ideas clear ( ) that when you are writing something ( ) do you

336
always exert a lot of effort in order to make your ideas clear ( ) when you are reading it you revise it again and you revised it again

Facilitator: then do you always think that the reader may ridicule ( ) I mean he might help you about it sometimes

Student 2: ((continues)) may help you about it sometimes

always exert a lot of effort in order to make your ideas clear ( ) when you are writing ( ) simplified your ideas ( ) you need to put forward really strong evidence ( )

Facilitator: OK ( ) there is a say that the more you make multi-draft ( ) I mean multi-draft ( ) more than one draft [you write ( ) read it you revise it again and you revised it again] [several times Yeah ((group of them together))]

Facilitator: ((continues)) so several times you make your ideas clear ( ) do you do that?

Student 2: yes= yes

Facilitator: ((repeating the same statement)) do you do that?

Student 1: yes

Student 2: if there is still enough time for the exam [no I am talking in general] without examination

Student 1: [like a person who is writing a book he starts with the first page then the second]

Facilitator: has anyone of you written an essay for public or audience unknown to you ( ) unknown readers ( ) have you written to unknown audience for example

Student 1: yes ( ) I wrote it on internet for fun

Facilitator: in Arabic?

Student 1: NO: in English ( ) just for fun

Facilitator: WONDERFUL

Student 1: just for fun

[just for fun abbreviated words something like that which he understand like I write your ur]

Facilitator: have you received any feedback from your readers ( ) have you received comments ( ) especially those who chat on the net

Student 1: yes only on youtube ( )

Facilitator: YOUTUBE ( ) you use to visit this website

Student 1& 2: ((together)) yes yes

Facilitator: good ( ) good ( ) and facebook

Student 1&2: [yeah ( ) yeah]

Student 1: I have a friend in facebook
280: Facilitator: OK:: ( ) then what do you think because there is a say sometimes ideas might be clear to you but the way you write ( ) you put down your ideas might not be clear to the reader
283: Students: ((all together saying)) yeah yeah yeah
284: Facilitator: have you experienced this before?
285: Student 2: yes ( ) I think ( ) I talk to a person ( ) I can use signs but by writing that thing is [is something missing]
287: Facilitator: so you find there is difference between speaking to a certain person and writing ( ) writing is difficult is it? Is really difficult ( ) OK and when you are writing say for example a complaint to your headmaster in school or to your dad in states ( ) do you always feel that you need to support any claim you make with evidence ( ) do you do that ( ) supporting your claim with evidence ( ) say for example ( ) you run short of money {
289:  writing say for example a complaint to your headmaster in school or to your dad
288:  writing is difficult is it? Is really difficult ( ) OK and when you are
290:  in states ( ) do you always feel that you need to support any claim you make with
291:  evidence ( ) do you do that ( ) supporting your claim with evidence ( ) say for
292:  example ( ) you run short of money {
293:  writing say for example a complaint to your headmaster in school or to your dad
294:  writing is difficult is it? Is really difficult ( ) OK and when you are
295:  in states ( ) do you always feel that you need to support any claim you make with evidence ( ) do you do that ( ) supporting your claim with evidence ( ) say for example ( ) you run short of money {
296:  given a budget that this budget should last for one month and then you found
297:  yourself you have spent your money before the end of the month ( ) do you
298:  always give reasons why you spent your money before the end of the month?
299:  Students: (yes ( ) we must do that ( ) [They will not give us again]
300:  (laughter)
301:  Facilitator: you always do that?
302:  Students: ((all to gather)) yes
303:  Facilitators: in school when you write your assignments ( ) were you given
304:  assignment in English? You don’t ( ) you were not given assignment in English isn’t it?
306:  Student 2: assignment means…
307:  Facilitator: assignment is
308:  for marking [you are given something like a research and work to write at home then you
309:  bring it back to the teacher for marking]
310:  Student 2: only composition ( ) composition
311:  Facilitator: you don’t do this?
313:  Student 1: [in English no but in بانجللیزی لا لكن فی المواد التانیة زی تاریخ عربی بیدونا الكتابة: یعنی
314:  other subjects such history Arabic language we were given written works]
315:  Facilitator: but do you feel that you need to support your claim with evidence?
316:  Student 1: summary
317:  Facilitator: SUMMARY?
318:  Student 2: yes summary
319:  Facilitator: only summary that you do?
320:  Student 1: summary is difficult
321:  Facilitator: yes it is really difficult
322:  Student 1: I don’t like summary
323:  Facilitator: it is ( ) it is part of writing ( ) because it tests your understanding of the
324:  passage ( ) you don’t like summary?
325:  Student 1: summary is the only place where you should express yourself but in
326:  [I mean] definitely definitively that is why it is very difficult
327:  Student 2: summary is depended only on vocabulary {
328:  Facilitator: {vocabulary?}
329: Student 2: ((continues)) I can see two words given to me if have good vocabulary I...  
330: can do ( ) I can say one word to give me the meaning of the whole paragraph  
331: Facilitator: do you want to add something?  
332: Student 4: in Arabic ((smiling))

333: Facilitator: yes in Arabic كل زول يتكلم free Arabic English [everyone one is free  
334: to speak in any language Arabic English]  
335: Student 4: summary ما صعب لأنو انت تطلع الكلمات مهمه من القصعه من القصعه البديلوك له يعني انت  
336: تشوف الكلمات يعني هناك كلمات زانده انت من طريقه فرانكل بتعرف انو زانده اذا انت  
337: فاهم القصعه اصلا كوس و لكن اذا انت ما فاهموا انت يتشوف صعب ده الفرق فوق:  
338: [summary is not difficult because you extract the important words from the given  
339: passage from the excerpt that is there would be extra words which you can  
340: identify through your reading that they are unimportant if basically you  
341: understood the  
342: passage well but you will see it difficult if you did not understand the passage  
343: this the difference]  
344: Facilitator: do you feel the same  
345: Student 5: yes  
346: Facilitator: you agree with her?  
347: Student 5: yes  
348: Facilitator: OK:: [do you feel that] summary is ( ) is ( ) easy if you have the  
349: vocabulary ( ) then you can do it  
350: Student 5: very easy  
351: Facilitator: what about understanding the passage because it is not a matter of just  
352: writing down ( ) what about understanding the passage and writing it in your own  
353: words  
354: Student 5: you read  
355: Facilitator: because [in] summary اخصره مستخدم كلماتك He says well if you understand  
356: [because in summary you would be instructed to understand the passage then  
357: summarise it using your own words]  
358: Student 5: [they don’t bring a difficult passage]  
359: Student 1:  
360: كلماتك بطرقاتهم بجيبهما سهله يكون في 1 او 2  
361: [The issue is that in answering you may not use your own words they bring it  
362: easy there would be either 1 or 2]  
363: Facilitator: OK:: ((smiling)) competing for marks?  
364: Student 1: yes  
365: Facilitator: Alright ( ) let us go ahead ( ) wh ( ) let us talk about multi-drafts ( )  
366: making many drafts ( ) do you always do that ( ) Do you write many drafts?  
367: Student 2: drafts?  
368: Facilitator: many drafts ( ) first writing then you read through and then you change  
369: you make another one until you are satisfied  
370: Students: yes ( ) yes ( )  
371: Facilitator: Ok:: ( ) when you are given a work in Arabic ( ) in English in any  
372: subject ( ) are you required to ( ) do you always give your own opinion ( ) when  
373: you write your work in senior secondary school are you required to give your  
374: voice ( ) to express your understanding of anything you write about?  
375: Student 1: we don’t do so  
376: Facilitator: YOU ( ) you are not required?
[we must do it on their own ways in order to get marks () I can do it on my own way in which I could partly be right or wrong and loose a lot of marks but if I follow the teacher's way ]

Student 5: [model answer]

Student 1: ((continues)) [model answer and good you get it all correct]

Student 5: ( ) primary school we answer to avoid punishment only in history I will tell you no on what basis you have brought this () even if you support it with evidence they will still give you wrong

Student 2: [do you have the same feeling

Anthr] so which ( ) so: which {}

Student 2: [they will provide you with model answers and ready solutions]

Student 1: Evidencylets say if you give back what you were given [you give back what you were given without adding or omitting anything is that true?] { by a student A who bring this information ( ) you are required to give answers within a limited boundary that is if you add or omit from your own and the information is outside the textbook it would be wrong but if it is in the book it would be right]

Student 2: in primary ( ) primary school we answer to avoid punishment only in secondary to give correct answer

Facilitator: ((laughter)) just to give correct answers and to look for marks

Student 2: so that you move to the next class

Facilitator: and what about subjects because you are science students ( ) what about subjects like history and geography in First and Second Year Senior Secondary School ( ) were you allowed to express your own ideas ( ) were you allowed?

Student 1: in history ( ) I came with a statement I said something ( ) don’t agree with me so: what will you do ( ) will you go and look for evidence
just to make sure that my statement is correct or normally you just use your common sense and then give answer

Student 4: I will oppose you immediately [انا بعارضك طولى]

Student 2: if I write () if I write surely I have a prove

Facilitator: you have to prove?

Student 2: yes () I have to prove () if I’m surely of what I am going talking to you about

Facilitator: in writing normally you look for evidence because you can’t say that this is wrong without saying why

Student 2: to look for indicators

Facilitator: yes student 4 ((calling her by name))

Student 4: if for example I don’t agree with you in a view I will oppose you and tell you my opinion [امض على الرأي في الدراسة]

Facilitator: will you support your opinion with evidence or you will present mere talk

Student 4: yes with evidence I cannot oppose you without evidence I must have evidence [نعم بالانك اذا ما بقدر اعارضك بدون أدلة لازم يكون عندي أدلة]

Facilitator: OK:: ( ) you cannot in fact criticised something without giving evidence alright

Student 5: I agree with you in Sudan you cannot express your views I mean for example if the doctor ((referring to the lecturer)) in front of you says something and you oppose him surely you will find yourself getting [لا يوجد من في السودان يمكنه التعبير عن رأيه]

Student 1: he will tell you that I studied for the whole of your age [(laughter)]

Student 2: they will put you in blacklist [لا يوجد من في السودان]

Facilitator: UH blacklist?

Student 1: if you said your views and he heard them he will ignore them he will only follow his own views he heard your views and he will never make you feel that he heards them

Facilitator: but as an attitude [كونه من] as kind of attitude what do you call it in Arabic

Student 2: attitude?

Facilitator: attitude [كونه من] as kind of behaviour let us put it just say something wrong or when you have an opinion () Do you always back it with evidence () do you feel so () of course there are people who will say whatever comes in their mind he doesn’t care whether it is wrong or right do you feel as an individual do you feel that you should always give evidence when you are [ما في كل حاله هناك بعض الحاجات ما تحتاج]

Student 1: in some situations you don’t need to present evidence you say it and stick to it

Facilitator: alright () alright do you feel the same?

Student 2: yes () I have the same feeling () facts do not need evidence

Facilitator: some of the things do not need prove () that you have to accept
Student 2: all facts
Facilitator: all facts ( ) you don’t question facts?
Student 2: yes ( ) you don’t need to
Facilitator: but what about the fact that what is true today might not be true
tomorrow or what was true yesterday it might be true today ( ) so what would be
your reaction to this
Student 1: not all of them [I mean]
Facilitator: OK: but we all agree that giving evidence is very important?
Student 1: is important
Facilitator: and supporting yourself with evidence is very crucial ( ) is it?
Student 2: yes
Facilitator: OK ( ) thank you for that ( ) Ok how do you maintain your focus when
writing ( ) let us ( ) let me put it in this way ( ) if you are writing in Arabic ( ) in
English in whatever language you use ( ) what do you do in order to keep
yourself in line not to go away from your main focus ( ) what do you do that when
you are writing you have topic and then you keep on writing your topic and you
make sure that the flow of ideas ( ) the first idea ( ) the second idea and the third
idea must have connection with what ( ) with the main idea ( ) how do you do that
when you are writing {
Student 5: توضيح يعني بعض المعاني ما واضحه [explain I mean some
meanings are not clear]
Facilitator: OK let me say it to you in Arabic} ((the facilitator repeats
the question in Arabic))
Student 2: I have two method of doing so
Facilitator: two methods?
Student 2: yes ( ) I have a programme to outline the paragraph I talk what in I want
what really needed and second method questions
Facilitator: questions
Student 2: yes ( ) I ask question then I answer it {
Facilitator: [and then you answer them
Student 1: Paragraph
في نطق لانه عندما تكتب حتى لو خرجت في الموضوع ما يكون له علاقه مثلاً لو بدأت في كلمة أنتميتي
ختمتي لآن ما بيدت في كلمتي تاني حتى لو طلع شويه من الموضوع حتى نحن ان نبت موضوع
كل كله وراء بعض بيدت في شكل نقاط
[tthis the best way of paragraph writing because even if you deviated from your
topic there will still be some connection for example if you started a point and
you finish you put full stop ( ) you start the second point even if you digressed a
little bit from your main topic you will still feel they are connected because you
wrote following a sequence and was in form of points]
Student 2: اسئله تسال نفسك سواء تجاوب عليه: 2
[q questions you ask yourself a question and answer it]
Facilitator: Tجاوب عليه [you answer it
Student 1: Composition
بيدوننا فر في شكل اسئله تحل الامثلة تكتب كل الافكار: 1
[in Primary we were given composition in form of questions ( ) answering the
questions you find you wrote all your ideas]
Facilitator: [in Zulu when you write [anyone with a different method] how to maintain
your focus?
Student 2: [this is probably the best way for you to ask yourself and then write your
524: statements down and then think again]
525: Facilitator: wh=wh{
526: Student 2: [Headwords]
527: [head words system in examination where you are provided with some meaning]
528: of the words to help you when writing]
529: Facilitator: [but apart from the examination do you
530: have any other issue?]
531: Student: [nothing else will stop you
532: except at the end you go back and revise it]
533: Facilitator: [do you revise your writing that is putting down your draft for one or two days
534: and then come back to it again or you just begin writing from the start up to the
535: end]
536: Students: [(all together unaudible)]
537: Student 1: [we have only exams provision]
538: Student 2: [we have only in exam]
539: Facilitator: [I mean your writing is only connected with
540: examinations?]
541: Student 2: [only with examinations and mostly
542: examination scores]
543: Student 5: [by English no [only in Arabic but by English no]
544: Student 1: [where exams the best way is to leave it for a while and comeback
545: to it later because by that time you will have new thoughts you might be engaged
546: with something at the time of writing therefore you will have no time to consider
547: other things]
548: Facilitator: [I remember when we were in intermediate school of course you haven’t pass
549: through it ( ) it was a link between primary and secondary we used to have Art
550: forums which was always attended by parents and we were required to present
551: some topics for discussion ( ) you write your topic and then deliver it before the
552: audience and then they would ask you questions have you had such forums (]
553: have you had such cultural forums in your schools?]}
554: Student 1: [it was just symbolic once we were
555: given an activity we just go and play]
556: in the primary schools there were Arts forums for
557: example constantly every month and all the village would gather some students
558: would present songs and sketches]
559: Facilitator: yeah ( ) so in most cases all your writing are just connected with the
560: schools and examinations so you don’t write a lot outside
561: Student 1: sometimes you go to internet and find topic
562: [that is we don’t write even in Arabic we write
563: in colloquial Sudanese Arabic on things which are not very important]
573: Facilitator: OK [that is] in our schools ( ) Ok go on ((giving chance for student 2
574:  who wanted to say something))
575: Student 2: I think the problem of English language is only policies of government
576:  only
577: Facilitator: policies?
578: Student 2: the government policies ( ) we are learning everything in Arabic and all
579:  things maybe you have in a week one class for English
580: Facilitator: alright you think it is policies ( ) one class
581: Student 2: one class in a week
582: Facilitator: not six classes
583: Student 2: no one class
584: Facilitator: one class?
585: Student 2: yeah yes ( ) in our school we have one class in a week
586: Student 1: I think sometimes it depend on the teacher ( ) the teacher is the to force
587:  you to perform better ( ) sometime the teacher don’t let you to say anything
588:  نحن ما نناقش حاجه بالذات بتاع الإنجليزى نقول كلمه يقطعه تسمع بس
589:  we don’t know anything
590:Facilitator: particularly in English you say something you will be interrupted we just listen
591:  زمان في الثانوى بدونا زي 6 حمص في الاستو هي يعني كان الراضيات أو اللغة العربية و
592:  اللغة الإنجليزية ده كانو حاجات ثابتة كل صباح واحد فيهم
593:  when we were in High School we use to have six lessons per week and
594:  Mathematics English and Arabic seem to be like constant subjects every
595:  morning)
596: Student 2: [this in primary]
597:  في الأساس: [there is many subjects in Basic School]
598: Facilitator: Student 1: [عنى بدوك حصة اللغة الإنجليزية مرة واحدة [so you take English once a week?]
599: Student 2: نحن يومي عندها الأ مرة واحدة بس ما عندهاgui الإنجليزى: 4
600: Facilitator: [we have English daily except
601:  one day a week]
602:  which school is this?] 603: Student 4: [which school is this?]
604: Facilitator:  كمبوني: [Comboni]
605: Student 4:  كمبوني بالانجليزي: مدرسة خاصى: [Comboni in English ( ) private school]
606: Facilitator:  كمبوني عربي: [Comboni in Arabic]
607: Student 4:  مواد كلة عربي الإنجليزى مادة واحدة: [all the subjects in Arabic English is only a
608:  subject]
609: Facilitator:  بدوك مره في الأسبوع ولا كل يوم: [do you have English everyday or once a
610:  week?] 611: Student 4:  في الأسبوع كلة في الإنجليزى ما عدا يوم واحد: [we have English throughout except
612:  one day a week]
613: Facilitator:  oh is the opposite
614: Student 7:  الثانوى صعب نحن كان بيدونا مواد كثير نحن في الثانوى خرنا 21 مادة و كانت صعب جدا
615:  (21 subjects taken in each academic year for a period of three years)
616: Facilitator:  21 subjects?
617: Student 4:  في الإنجليزى و فرنسيى: 1 [including English and French]
618: Facilitator:  ما حل مشكلتنا مع الإنجليزى بدوك تاني فرنسيى [they have not solve our problem
619:  with English again they give you French]
620: Student 4:  ده مدرسه خاصى و كلاها مدارس خاصى: [this is a private school and all are private
621:  schools] 622: Student 2: [private schools?]
We were taught how to write in the school when we were taught. This is the popular method among the teachers. Did the teacher say if you have a question by what which questions you must go to the paragraph and take the word after stop aah after the comma and to:: stop all the way write.

This is the introduction and the conclusion.

[laughs] In letters especially in letters you just memorise.

In the topic there would be the introduction and the conclusion and then you write the body.

Letters are taught in school and letters are supposed to be expressed in something in school and in school we memorise them.

The problem is not the syllabus but the teachers who teach.

The problem is not the syllabus but the teachers who teach.

This is a problem.

We would be made to memorise the introduction and the conclusion in particular formal letters.

We would be made to memorise the introduction and the conclusion.

This is a problem.

[laughs] This is the popular method among the teachers. Did the teacher say if you have a question by what which questions you must go to the paragraph and take the word after stop aah after the comma and to:: stop all the way write.

Yeah yeah even from the first start they will tell you to look for the related word.

To the question then copy the lines above that word and below it sub-paragraph.

The correct answer lie somewhere there I mean in the middle in High School.

They use to give us the previous composition topics from previous examinations.

The teacher will write model and we have to memorise these models as they were written including commas and full stops and if brought in exam we pour them down exactly as was given on the examination paper sometimes there may be slight differences you may have written something which have no relation to the exam question and this will make you lose some marks.

Students: teaching is teaching for scores I mean to obtain good scores but no more.

Student 2: body

In the topic there would be the introduction and the conclusion and then you write the body.

Letters are taught in school and letters are supposed to be expressed in something in school and in school we memorise them.

You find the book is written in form of squares you memorise what is written in a square including the address that you want to send the letter to ((laughter))

Students: talking all at one time in approval of what the student said.

Student 1: letters

We were taught letters’ writing in the school when we were taught we were made to memorise letters and letters are supposed to be to express yourself that is to complete something to approve something but in school we memorise them.

We find the book is written in form of squares you memorise what is written in a square including the address that you want to send the letter to "((laughter)).

Student: talking all at one time in approval of what the student said.

Student 1: letters

We were taught letters’ writing in the school when we were taught we were made to memorise letters and letters are supposed to be to express yourself that is to complete something to approve something but in school we memorise them.

We find the book is written in form of squares you memorise what is written in a square including the address that you want to send the letter to "((laughter)).

Students: talking all at one time in approval of what the student said.

Student 1: letters
Professor: dictionaries you use that you usually use

Student 3: what problems you encounter when you enter universities for the first time

Student 1: that is why our students suffer when they go and study in universities abroad

[OK let us move to: they suffer a lot they suffer a lot]

Facilitator: they suffer a lot they suffer a lot OK let us move to: it is really very very interesting it is really very interesting do you think there is any relationship between reading and writing skills as an individual do you feel that reading and writing have relation whether in Arabic language or in English do you feel that there is relationship between these two skills (skills are mahara) (confirming the meaning of skill in Arabic to students who said yes) 

which students said yes they go and study in universities abroad 

then through the strategies that you used in reading then the skill is mahara (confirming the meaning of skill in Arabic to students who said yes) 

Maha the reader and the reader in the future in this language and in the future for why they enter universities for the first time

Student 1: there may be relation but we are not quiet sure of it

Facilitator: relation: you are not sure but there is a relation

I can read a book in English I can read it all but there will be some difficult words which will hinder my full understanding of the whole novel or the story

Facilitator: when you search a word in dictionary do you look for explanation in Arabic or explanation in English?

Students: (all together) in Arabic

Student 1: translation in English because in English translation you find difficult words

Facilitator: you find another difficult word

Student 1: another difficult word (s) difficult [suddenly] difficult

Student 2: that is the best that is the best OK and what are the dictionaries that you use that you use always I do you want a name

Facilitator: aah
719: Student 2: {you want a name?}
720: Facilitator: Jawan?
721: Student 2: you want a name to it?
722: Facilitator: yeah a name yeah
723: Student 2: مورود [Mourad]
724: Facilitator: مورود [Mourad] yeah مورود [Mourad]
725: Student 2: وفي الواقي [there is Alwafi]
726: Facilitator: ([repeating the same statement]) وفي الواقي [there is Alwafi]
727: Student 1: ألوافي الأحسن: [Alwafi is the best]
728: Facilitator: so you don’t use the advanced learning dictionary ( ) Oxford advanced
729: learning dictionary you don’t use it?
730: Student 1: لونه أسود [black in clour?]
731: Facilitator: aah
732: Student 1: لونه أسود [its colour is black]
733: Facilitator: يعني أوكسفورد انجلزى إنجليزى
734: [I mean oxford English English ( ) OK:: ( ) OK:: good ok what about this because
735: in ( ) we see sometimes the relation between reading and writing is on meaning
736: ( ) what we call meaning construction
737: يعني واحد من العلاقة بين القراءة و الكتابة هو ماعرف يصنع المعاني
738: [that is the relation between reading and writing is on what we called meaning
739: construction]
740: Student 1: {what does it mean?}
741: Facilitator: بحاول يطلع معاني من الكلمة ده نطقه بربط القراءة و الكتابة لأنه في reading
742: some of the graphs into something meaningful
743: meaningless] and particularly when you
744: [you try to extract meanings from a word that is one of the common point of
745: relation between reading and writing because in reading you translate some of the
746: graphs into some meaning words for a person who is illiterate he sees this
747: meaningless] but for you when you look at this thing and you know what it means
748: then you are translating this thing into meanings ( ) in writing you are putting
749: ideas into words and graphs ( ) so people say that meaning is the common ground
750: between reading and writing because in reading you try to get meaning out of
751: words ( ) and then when you are writing you put meaning into words sorry into
752: form of graphs ( ) so: what is your opinion on this ( ) do you feel that it’s good
753: yeah ( ) there could be some relation? ( ) do you comments [do you
754: have comments in this]
755: Student 2: vocabulary [also it depends on vocabulary]
756: Facilitator: vocabulary?
757: Student 2: vocabulary عشان كلمة عشان نجيب معنى كلمة نحتاج نحفظ كلمات كثيره: [2
758: [also it depends on vocabulary because a word because to obtain a meaning of
759: a word you need to memorise a lot of words]
760: Student 1: [I can speak to you with a
761: word that I know its meaning but I don’t know how to write it]
762: Student 2: عشان كلمات مثلا الكلمات العربية بتاعتها طويلة بلبعتها بيكون صعب: [5
763: [there are words for
764: example with long pronunciation and their writing would be difficult]
765: Facilitator: وي الخاصه بعدا تدخلوا الطبل بتقالي كلمات لا ننتبه طويله: [and particularly when you
766: start your medical studies you will encounter long Latin words]
767: Student 1: yes كلمات طويلة [yes long words]
767: Student 3: in English the word in English in is many meanings

347
Facilitator: alright then OK::
Student 1: yes
Facilitator: yes in normal English English that you use in daily life ( ) do you
find sometimes there is a word being used and it has different connotation the
way it is being used is completely different from the meaning that you know?
Student 1: yeah
Student 2: I think we have a lesson in high school present verb
Facilitator: yes present
Student 2: present verb ( )
Facilitator: yes
Student 2: yes is same as ( )
Facilitator: alright then OK::<
Student 1: صعب الدرس ده: [this lesson was difficult]
Facilitator: yeah
Student 2: yes
Facilitator: UH
Student 1: CHEBON DBOK MMENTIN DDO OK: bi meaning
Student 1: [this lesson is difficult two words
Facilitator: together will give you a new meaning]
Student 2: Yes) صعب لكن بساعده [yes is difficult but it helps you]
Student 1: carryout لغ [carryout new words]
Facilitator: are you really exposed to English language? Do you read in English or
listen to news ( ) I know you like films is it?
Students: ((all together)) yes yes
Facilitator: American films
Students: ((all together)) yе:س yе:س
Facilitator: what is called MB2
Students: MBC2
Facilitator: Oh MBC2 ((laughter))
Student 4: fox and action
Facilitator: action movies و ثاني و and again] fox movies you always watch these
movies
Students: ((talking to each other and making noise in the class))
Student 1: لكن ما يستفيد منها: [but we don’t benefit from them]
Student 2: بنصر على الصور: [we concentrate on the pictures]
Facilitator: OK you always focus on pictures
Student 1: نقل الصوت عشان ما تعزع الناس: [we put the sound on mute to avoid disturbing
other people] ((laughter))
Student 1: لكن هناك يكون في كلمه الاستاذ في الاسم ينطقها بطرقه و الثاني بطرقه أخرى و الفيلم بطريقة: 
الفلام الأمريكي يقوله بطرقه و البريطاني بطرقه أخرى و الجامعي يجي يقوله بطريقة:
[but you find a word pronounced by primary school teacher in a way and by a
high school teacher in a different way ( ) American film says it in a way and the
British in another different way and the university teacher says it in a different
way]
Facilitator: yeah pronunciation differences ( ) yeah different accents
Student 1: إذا كان مثلا أمريكي أو بريطاني R R و البريطاني يحرف R و البريطانيين يتكلموا كيف كيف: 1: 1
Facilitator: how do you judge or know that it make sense ( ) how do you know if there is

Student 1: yes

Student 2: culture

Facilitator: yeah yeah there is different accent ( ) it is really confusing and in fact {

Student 1:

Facilitator: yeah how do you judge?

Student 2: judge mean discuss or what?

Facilitator: yes oh yes yes that is true but as somebody who speaks English you have
to acquaint yourself with these different accents ( ) how do you judge let me ask

Student 2: problem of spelling too ( ) I think

Facilitator: alright anybody who wants to add something to that ( ) how do you
judge حتى في الكتب أو مثلاً بتقروا جرائد طبعاً اه ما بتقروا الجرائد

Facilitator: [the word the Americans write it with E and the British with I and the word]

Facilitator: [I think the word]

Facilitator: [evaluation evaluation]

Facilitator: [I will assess according to the relation of course]

Facilitator: so you depend on your common sense

Student 1: yes

Facilitator: ((confirming what the student said and encouraging to continue)) yeah

Student 2: it depends on culture

Facilitator: culture?

Student 2: culture

Facilitator: yes culture ( ) how ( ) how does it depend on culture?

Facilitator: in my opinion ( ) if I want to judge I make out believe not culture

Student 2: I give some relation ( ) it depends to it ( )
865: Student 1: [books possible but newspapers no]
866: Facilitator: 
868: [even books how do you judge and evaluate that this writer is good and that one
869: is rubbish how do you judge] ( ) what do you do?
870: Student 1: [through feeling only] (laughter)
871: Student 4: [through his expression]
872: Facilitator: التعبير OK: [according to the
expression OK: the expression can be excellent but empty speech]
874: Student 1: final the writer can [the writer can
use figurative expression and draws the final say from it]
875: Student 2: 2 [sometimes they use
merats يستخدوا عناوين كبيره و جذابة لكن بداخل كلام ساكت: 2]
876: bold and attractive headlines but inside is just useless talk
877: Student 1: [like Aldaar newspaper they would
just persuade you to buy the paper]
879: 0: [this what I meant]
880: Student 2: [this is not my opinion]
881: Student 1: [you get big headlines but
inside there is no other issue] (laughter)
882: : [not true]
883: Facilitator: alright OK my last question ( ) have you ever experience a moment
884: where you found yourself disagreeing with account of an author ( ) author [كانت
كتب]
885: ( ) have you ever found reading a text reading something written by somebody
886: else and then you find yourself that you really =you really don’t accept the
887: evidence that he gave ( ) have you experience this kind of thing ( )
888: Student 2: agreement with كاتب [author?]
889: Facilitator: [mean in cases بتقرا مقال و نحن أن الكاتب ده الكاتب ده الكاتب ده الكاتب ده الكاتبического الص
890: [that is to say sometimes you read an article and you feel that this writer this
writer what he wrote is not true]
891: 7: [not true] { 
892: Student 1: 0: [not my opinion]
893: Facilitator: ما صح يعني ما سليم هل اختبرت كلام زي ده في حياتك [not
894: true I mean not correct have you ever experience such kind of thing in your life?]
895: Student 1: [in English or Arabic]
896: Facilitator: both بالإنجليزي و بالعربي [both in English and in Arabic]
897: Student 1: [in Arabic when you feel upset you take
a book and read]
898: 0: في ناس بيكووا مالا عندهم روية مختلفة عن الحاجة ده فين اتين عنده روية مختلفة بعدين اتين
899: تقول انه ده ما صح وهو يراه أنه ده صح
900: [there are people who for example may held different views about something and
then you have different view then you say this is wrong and he sees it as right]
901: Facilitator: OK [I remember a point] very important issue of opinion ( )
902: وقت تقرأ مقال هل تحاول تراجع خلفيتك عن المقال ده قبل ما تبدا يعني هل تعمد على فهمك السابق كريس
904: للمواضيع و للمجال تقول ما تستمر يعني تحاول أن
905: [good when you read an article ( ) do you try to relate the information you read to
your background about the topic ( ) do you relay on your previous understanding
of the topic and of the field that is before you continue reading ( ) to try I mean]
906: ( ) when you get an information and then you try to search your mind and then try
to see ( ) compare it with whatever you have in your mind ( ) do you always do
907: that?
912: Student 2: yes
913: Student 1: [books possible but newspapers no]
914: عندما انكم لن موضوع واحد عندما انكم بذكري موضوع زمان: 1

350
914:  when I talk about one topic when I talk ( ) it reminds me of the previous topics
915:  Facilitator: alright
916:  Student 1: [for example one topic will remind me of other topics]
917:  Student 2: which they don't like they will not publish it unless you make your own
918:  Facilitator: yes alright
919:  Student 3: [background] ( )
920:  Facilitator: background [background] IS it very important?
921:  Student 3: yes ( )
922:  Facilitator: do you {
923:  Student 3: [when I read a story I imagine myself as part of the topic part of the story]
925:  Facilitator: yeah
926:  Student 3: [I imagine myself part of the story]
927:  Facilitator: when you look at the class book you have read the journal articles
928:  Student 1: in the sudan in sudan in sudan you are back to back and back
929:  Facilitator: but sometimes do you feel that some writers especially when you read daily
930:  newspapers here in sudan there are some writers who write long articles and
931:  the evidence they present are weak even the reality would never support them}{
932:  Student 1:
933:  [completely a lot of talk and at the end you]
934:  come out with nothing and it would be a waste of time]
935:  Facilitator: and normally do you feel really like being moved to say something or to
936:  write something ( ) do you find yourself like to say no I am going to reply and
937:  say {
938:  Student 1: [there is no way]
939:  Student 1: [there is no way ( ) and unfortunately particularly here in sudan the newspaper
940:  will invite suggestions but will never published them]
942:  Student 1: [you write something]
943:  which they don’t like they will not publish it unless you make your own
944:  newspaper]
945:  Student 1: [there are Television sessions whereby they would invite people to participate in
946:  their upcoming sessions and if you wrote something against the government they
947:  would not publish it especially if it is against the government]
949:  Facilitator: OK قبل ما اختتم دير اسأل سوال
950:  Student 1: [before I conclude I want to ask a question] there is a say that Sudanes
951:  Intellectuals ( ) they don’t read
953:  Student 1: yeah ( ) they don’t read
954:  Facilitator: do you agree? ( ) both in Arabic and English ( ) do you agree with this
955:  statement?
956:  Student 1: it is normally a genuine statement
957:  Facilitator: is it a genuine statement?
958:  Student 1: it is genuine [after we have possessed other
959:  facilities]
960:  Student 2: [Multimedia is wide spread you ]
963: have media facilities radio is convenience more than reading and the television
964: is easier than reading and internet is more convenience than reading and the
965: multimedia way is also easier and nicer than reading]
966: Student1: I sawed a program talk to us about an animal if I watch it on the television is
967: far better than reading about it in a book]
968: [I
969: Student: if I look at the program in the life several problem in the universities we don't teach
970: also a lot of other life problems for example a person completes his studies he
971: starts to work he stops working goes back to study there is no even if there are
972: people who have no freetime that there is no time to read books and increase your
973: knowledge]
974: Facilitator: do you have anything to add ( ) anything to say to add to what we said
975: [is there any question] before we go?
976: [we blame our teachers in the
977: deterioration of our English standard]
978: Facilitator: You blame them?
979: [the teachers not prepare his lesson well you can not be ready for it]
980: Student 1: yes get a lot of other life problems in the universities we don’t teach
981: yes not only English teachers but also teachers of other subjects if
982: the teacher has not prepared his lesson well you can not be ready for it]
983: Facilitator: yeah and again we have also problem in the universities we don’t teach
984: really our teachers how to teach subject [that is like] phonetics [we blame our teachers in the
985: deterioration of our English standard] [that is like] phonetics [we blame our teachers in the
986: deterioration of our English standard] [we blame our teachers in the
987: deterioration of our English standard] [we blame our teachers in the
988: deterioration of our English standard] [we blame our teachers in the
989: deterioration of our English standard] [we blame our teachers in the
990: deterioration of our English standard] [we blame our teachers in the
991: deterioration of our English standard] [we blame our teachers in the
992: deterioration of our English standard] [we blame our teachers in the
993: deterioration of our English standard] [we blame our teachers in the
994: deterioration of our English standard] [we blame our teachers in the
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1000: [we blame our teachers in the
1001: [we blame our teachers in the
1002: [we blame our teachers in the
1003: [we blame our teachers in the
1004: [we blame our teachers in the
1005: [we blame our teachers in the
1006: [we blame our teachers in the
1007: [we blame our teachers in the
1008: [we blame our teachers in the
1009: [we blame our teachers in the
1010: [we blame our teachers in the
1011: [we blame our teachers in the
1012: I mean there is a teacher who moves and you feel I mean if you feel sleepy you
can move your eyes with him ( ) I mean like that ( ) normally they (referring to
those who sit on chairs) concentrate on his right or people in front close to him
and the poor who are behind he doesn’t care about them] { مشاكل اللغة الإنجليزية في 
[problems of English language in Sudan]

[and I mean they are arrogant if you ask they will tell you we studied for your age]

[ I don’t think teacher is the only problem also the syllabus is all about grammer]

[now people who studied long time ago they studied for three years and their standard is good]

[Readers (Readers is a series of Textbooks)]

[Readers كورس في الإنجليزية]

[yes those who studied Readers their standard is good in English]

[literature: literature disadvantage]

[their standard is good and then you have disadvantage that you didn’t have literature you were not taught literature]

[junior book in which use to be taught in Intermediate ( ) teacher was it written by Sudanese]

[ there were books designed as syllabus for Sudan suitable for Sudanese environment]

[who designed them I mean]

[there is like Nile Course] 

[yes Nile Course can people buy it?]  

[لكن الآشكا ليه و كله بحولوا أو كله بعد فترة بحولوا أو بعدو أو بطوره]

[yeah but the problem is that every year or after every period they try to or reproduce or modify it]

[lieca انو ليه وفروا الكتب من السودان]

[اسباب لماذا هؤلاء الكتب في نيال]

[كان كورس اننا شخصيا ما دست الأخير Nile Course]

[ليه وفروا الكتب من السودان]

[they observed when I read some excerpts ( )

[sometime I find myself reading Arabic written in English there is no anything]

[the language must be linked to its culture that is there are things in their culture we don’t have ( ) we are given to understand the language in its own right how it is pronounced and how these people behave and their mentality]

[meaning activities meaning is a book containing activities and meanings for a person to understand ( ) it possible from the beginning because it is started in Class Five]
Facilitator: [now your English is very good]

Student 1: you speak English all the time and travel a lot and people talk (no one speaks Arabic (all of them English and I just keep looking at him]

Facilitator: [in this I am quiet sure that all of you have a problem that is feeling shy to speak]

[followed by a question in Arabic: if you do not know how to say it in English]

Student 4: [to reply in English is very difficult unless you translate it into Arabic]

Facilitator: [plus that there is shyness (shyness is not a factor]

Student 5: [not shy in Arabic I mean words for example that you know their meanings then you encounter one word that you don’t know its meaning and the sentence will be difficult to structure you keep on wavering until you have to say it in Arabic]

Facilitator: [in case you have difficulty to speak in English, you can speak in Arabic]

Student 1: [my English is not very good be patient (Laughter) then after you try to explain to him]

Facilitator: [if you want to ask for something first you tell him my English is not good be patient I mean ((there was laughter)) then after you try to explain to him]

Student 1: [any question or anything (OK what I’ll say (thank you very much for your contributions and time (bye bye]
Appendix 11 B: Transcript of the Second Group Pre Focus Group Interviews

1: Facilitator: OK: thank you very much for your coming ah and as I explained in Arabic  
2: I’m just trying to collect more information about your experience of English  
3: teaching in Senior Secondary Schools and below a:nd I want also to know how  
4: far you were satisfied or dissatisfied with the ways you were taught ( ) you see ( )  
5: if you cannot express yourself clearly in English then you are also allowed to talk  
6: in Arabic ((the teacher repeats the same instruction in Arabic)) feel relax ( ) no  
7: pressure and no any other third party will have access to this information ( ) OK::  
8: ( ) shall we begin? ((Students nodded their heads a sign of approval)) ( ) first  
9: there is one thing I would like to know ( ) have you ( ) have you ever heard about  
10: critical thinking ( ) critical thinking skills ( ) in your Senior Secondary Schools  
11: [have you heard] critical thinking skills ( ) have you ever heard about it?  
12: Student 6: uhh at my basics school  
13: Facilitator: business school?  
14: Student 6: BASIC school  
15: Facilitator: B::asic school  
16: Student 6: yes ( ) I heard the: I heard uhh we have five skills = four skills reading ( )  
17: writing listening and speaking ( ) my basic school is good because I learned at  
18: Comboni Girls School ( ) I learn it eight classes but after that I start Secondary  
19: School at three Schools all of them they are different at the uh uh uh at the uh uh  
21: ( )        {  
22: Facilitator: { the way they 21: teach English}  
23: Student 1: ((continues)) the way to teach English language in one it is uh first school  
24: there is no more important that language in it  
25: Facilitator: English was not important?  
26: Student 6: ((continues)) yes because we are at the first year and we don’t need  
27: English at our subjects and the two class there is not more important but it is  
28: important because we take that English at our third class  
29: Facilitator: yeah ((as an encourage for her to continue))  
30: Student 6: ((continues)) and the ( ) they took example A plus B is equal to C there is  
31: no explaining {  
32: Facilitator: {OK:: OK:: no comments illustration}  
33: Student 6: there is no discussion and no communication ( ) knowledge richer no  
34: stories ( ) also the teacher take care of the subject also and she doesn’t explain {  
35: Facilitator:  
36: she doesn’t 35: explain concepts and rules}  
37: Student 6: ((continues)) and the meaning at the lecture talk by Arabic we talk  
38: meaning by Arabic not by English ( ) in my secondary I forget all my English  
39: because we are not ( ) {  
40: Facilitator: ((interrupting)) {taught  
41: Student 6: ((continues)) taught ( ) we are not take enough English  
42: Facilitator: ALr::ight ALright ( ) but have you ever heard of critical thinking skills?  
43: Student 6: I’m not understand what is the meaning  
44: Facilitator: yeah critical thinking is that ( ) do your teachers when they give you  
45: assignments or when they give you home works ( ) do they always tell you that
you don’t need to give the things they gave you that you need to add your own
voice you need to say something at least related to what he gave you but add
some more
information into it

Student 6: ((continues)) no there is =is bad ( ) to say to teacher wrong ( ) many of
teachers not like that ( ) I’m saying many of them ( ) I’m not saying all of them ( )
but many ( )

Facilitator: then if you say ( ) if if you are in a class ((student 2 wanted to say
something the teacher stopped and gave him a chance)) DO you have something
to say?

Student 7: when I’m start to learn I learn as Arabic part ( ) this my first problem ( )
because when from Basic School until at eight class with Arabic pattern this was
in government school ( ) when I start Senior Secondary School also I’m start by
Arabic pattern but I saw that Arabic pattern at the future will be a problem

Facilitator:                                                                 {
\text{took some courses in English}}\endgroup

Student 7: ((continues))

three month from other teacher at that time that teacher know how to teach
students who want to learn English ( ) I’m remember that have ( ) he have three
kind of learning uh uh how you to write= to learn to write and how to learn you
to read or how to discuss with another person until that at third year =at third year
at school that teacher which is teach us teach us in third year will not explain uh
uh give you some words and explain in Arabic

Facilitator: alr::ight ((a sign of encouraging him to continue))

Student 7: ((continues)) not translate these words at in English itself and it translate to
Arabic and so this is the problem to start ( ) when we are sitting all together in
society around us many people are talking Arabic and this is the problem {
Facilitator:                                                                 {the surrounding
environment is all Arabic}\endgroup

Student 7: ((continues)) yes it can not give some person how to talk more in
English ( ) this the second problem what I’m facing

Facilitator: but have you ever heard the concept of critical thinking?

Student 7: a critical thinking ( )

Facilitator: have you ever heard about it?

Student 7: ((continues)) that teacher I remember ((referring to the teacher who taught
him a course for three month)) he will give you some assignment or or homework
if you do it he will need from you what to add what you are seeing about this
programme or this passage {
Facilitator:                                                                 {yeah}\endgroup

Student 7: ((continues)) yes I remember that teacher was give us some uh uh some
information about something like that {
Facilitator:                                                                 {some critical thinking but not all of it but
only little of it}\endgroup

Student 2: yes not all ( ) yes =yes some information
Facilitator: especially when you were taught history uh uh history normally ( ) DO
they ask you to add your own opinion? ( ) when you were in Second Year Senior
Secondary School
95: Student 7: (continues)) when I was in Senior Secondary School ( )
96: Facilitator: yeah
97: Student 7: (continues)) I think that history ( ) history I mean history by Arabic {
98: Facilitator: [yeah]
99: Student 7: (continues)) not by English {
100: Facilitator: [yes of course]
101: Student 2: (continues)) I will talk but there is some vocabulary I don’t know in
102: English
103: Facilitator: yes Ok:: 컴퓨유한 민주적 교육에 대한 이유는 학생에게 알맞지 않거나 그 모양을 가리키는
104: 라고 하여 학생의 글쓰기 기술에 대한 이해가 필요하다고 할 수 있습니다. 때문에 그
105: 학생의 글쓰기는 전반적으로 좋아요 ( ) he wants to teach you about what he know = he knew ( ) because if you
106: are going out side will ( ) he will think that you you want to provoke him
107: Student 7: (continues)) not all of them {
108: Facilitator: OK:: OK:: 컴퓨터 교육 시스템의 학생이 만일 그 모양을 가리키거나 그 모양을 가리키고자 하는
109: 학습 상황을 잘못 이해하기 때문에 그 모양을 가리키는 학생의 글쓰기 기술에 대한 이해가 필요하다고 할 수 있습니다. 때문에 그
110: 학생의 글쓰기는 전반적으로 좋아요 ( ) do you like it or or even he did not know what you mean by that word
111: Facilitator: exactly () alright () very good yeah () do you have anything to add? ()
112: do you have anything to add? () you can talk in Arabic () there is no problem ()
113: OK:: let us go to this question () all of you know about writing () as a skill
114: Student 7: (continues)) because what you know that something being added it not
115: or even he did not know what you mean by that word
116: Student 7: (continues)) writing in general
117: Facilitator: yes
118: Student 7: (continues)) I like to write but some word you say I don’t know meaning
119: of it
120: Facilitator: your attitude?
121: Student 7: attitude () yes ()
122: Facilitator: yes your attitude towards your attitude towards
123: Student 7: behaviour?
124: Facilitator: yeah it is your behaviour () it is like () do you like or dislike it? Because
125: there are some people if you give them say for example a composition he/she
126: doesn’t like to write if you give him/her a paper write even application () no I
127: don’t want writing but he/she can read he/she can listen he/she can speak () so:
128: you () do you really like writing?
129: Student 7: (continues)) yes concerning me I like to write
130: Facilitator: you like to write?
131: Student 7: yeah
132: Student 6: I like writing what I know {
133: Facilitator: [about what you know]
134: Student 6: (continues)) that topic I want to write it but I don’t know I don’t want to
135: write it I don’t like
Facilitator: when you are given a topic that you don’t have an idea about ( ) you don’t write it?

Student 6: yes

Facilitator: OK::

Student 8: I like writing because ( ) when I write my writing uh uh the quality of my writing will be good

Facilitator: yeah = yeah ( ) yeah

Student 8: ((continues)) when I write I can keep the their meanings on my mind = in my minds

Facilitator: OK:: when you write ( ) it means then this is the way of consolidating and understanding something better?

Student 8: yes

Facilitator: GOOD OK::

Student 9: I like writing but in Secondary School the teacher not give me the topic for writing uh uh not in Secondary School or in Primary = in Primary ( ) Basic

Facilitator: in Secondary School?

Student 9: yes

Facilitator: OK::

Student 6: only in schools

Facilitator: but outside?

Student 6: outside ( ) we don’t write ( )

Facilitator: يعنى هسه ما ينكتبو لى الجرائد أو المجلات أو حتى تاملاتكم الخاصه

Student 6: within a limit

Facilitator: we write but within a limit within a limit] only in schools?

Student 6: only in schools

Facilitator: outside?

Student 6: outside ( ) we don’t write ( )

Facilitator: I mean now you don’t write to newspapers and magazines or even your private reflections ( ) no one keeps a] diary

Student 7: is about the party = party if they want to read or something or write something about parties that is I think uh uh it is very easy ( )

Facilitator: OK::

Student 7: but concern about all the whole about the country how to write about it ( ) to it will need how to ( ) it will need the language which you belong.

Facilitator: but I mean in Arabic ( ) even in Arabic?

Student 7: even in Arabic there are some more problems if you know the language you cannot complete language ( ) you get some problems there ( ) vocabulary of any language ( ) I’m think that problem you cannot know all vocabulary of a language

Facilitator: ((mentioning student 2 by name)) you want to say something

Student 7: about

Facilitator: writing in general

Student 7: I write

Facilitator: you write in Arabic?
201: Student 7: the first time is to think about what your passage or you want to look for
203:  with this passage I want to read { 
199:  about the topic then I wonder whether you do all these activities ( ) do you do
194: Facilitator: 
216: Facilitator: about the surrounding 
215:  topics ( ) I write about myself about my needs about ( ) do you know a paragraph?
233:  ( ) do you consult others about what you write?
235: before you write a paragraph ( ) do you jot down your ideas before you write a paragraph?
233:  ( ) do you know a paragraph?
234: Students: ((students’ responding in unison)) yes
235: Facilitator: paragraph [ życie]
236: Students: yes
237: Facilitator: before you write a paragraph ( ) do you jot down your ideas first and
238:  then write a paragraph or you just start writing a paragraph and then you go on
239: Student 7: concern me when I want to write a paragraph I write at another paper 
240: Facilitator: OK:
241: Student 7: ((continues)) when I got it I will put in a different paper ( )
242: Facilitator: yes
243: Student 7: ((continues)) if there are some mistakes or not ( )
244: Facilitator: yes
245: Student 7: ((continues)) if I get some mistakes I will correct it ( )
246: Facilitator: yes
247: Student 7: ((continues)) before I put it at the paper which I want to submit it with ( )
248: Facilitator: Alright Alright ( )
249: Student 7: ((continues)) it mean that I have to prepare the issue of the paragraph
250: before I write it
251: Facilitator: Alright Alright ( ) OK: you see ( ) feel free in answering these
252: questions there is no wrong or right ( ) everything you say is right because we
253: have individual differences like me when I start writing I have to make a lot of
drafts ( ) put down ideas ( ) the first one make organisation ( ) change and again
read ( ) change and reorganise ( ) so for me it is a very tedious work ( ) if you ask
me to write something Oh you are really giving me a lot of headache because it
takes a lot of time for me
255: ( ) I don’t know ( ) do you do the same?
256: Student 6: it seems that is difficult
257: Facilitator: is difficult ( ) writing is difficult?
258: questions there is no wrong or right ( ) everything you say is right because we
259: Student 6: it seems that is difficult
260: Facilitator: is difficult ( ) writing is difficult?
261: Student 6: \[no\] not writing but to put the points and ( ) the: uhh recommendation
262: something like that I want to write ( ) I write too general
263: Facilitator: too general?
264: Student 6: not to think about uhh uhh not to look about point and ( )
265: Facilitator: uh you don’t consider points?
266: Student 6: NO::
267: Facilitator: OK:: ( ) normally you don’t consider points?
268: Student 6: RIGHT
269: Facilitator: you just take your pen and {  
270: Student 6: {write}
271: Facilitator: Oh nice Alright that is good ( ) DO you do the same? ((Directing his
272: question to the whole group)) ( ) remember it’s just normal discussion for
273: everybody ( ) it is a chance that you can practice your English ( ) there is no
274: wrong or right ( ) you see ( ) and everything you say I understand it OK and will
go and translate it in a proper way = I just want to know about your background in
276: English ( ) OK let us go on ( ) now ( ) do you always bear in mind the following
277: when writing? ( ) when you are writing ( ) when you are writing ( ) when writing
278: it is always said there is a lot of steps or a lot of things that you have to bear in
279: mind ( ) that you have to keep in mind while you are preparing yourself for
280: writing so:: one of these things that before you start writing people say that you
281: must have a main purpose ( ) I don’t know do you think it is important when you
282: are writing?
283: Student 7: Main what?
284: Facilitator: main purpose ( ) you must have a purpose for writing
285: Student 7: PURPOSE?
286: Facilitator: you must have a reason ( ) or a title or a topic ( ) DO you think it is
important? Do you always keep this in mind when you are writing something?
288: Student 6: I think so
289: Facilitator: you think so?
290: Student 6: yeah ((a sound in approval))
291: Facilitator: (calling student 3 by name)) do you think so?
292: Student 8: yes I think so
293: Facilitator: you think so?
294: Student 8: it is important
295: Facilitator: OK is it important?
296: Student 2: if you have no a reason why you are going to write?
297: Facilitator: exactly ( ) so if you don’t have a purpose then there is no reason for
298: writing
299: Student 7: yeah ((other students responded similarly by saying yeah))
300: Facilitator: very good ( ) very good ( ) OK:: do you always consider the audiences
301: ( ) audience these are readers ( ) do you always consider the readers in your mind
302: when you are writing ( ) those who will read your work ( ) have you ever written
303: a work for some other people to read? For you = you might have ((refereeing to
304: student 6)) isn’t it?
305: Student 6: I don’t understand it
306: Facilitator: OK:: I mean when you are writing for a different group of readers ( ) do
307: you always keep the readers in your mind? ( ) those who will read your work
308: Student 6: (said something inaudible)
309: Facilitator: (explains the same point in Arabic) (يعني وقت تكتبي أي مقال هل تتضمن في الاعتبار
310: القراء الحايفرو الماده بتعت الكتبه)
311: Student 6: the needs of the students in particular those of the audience who will be
312: reading the text ( ) of course I must avoid hurting the feelings of others ( ) things like this
313: can agitate people ( ) but for my private writing] I don’t give to anybody look
314: about it
315: Facilitator: you don’t consider it necessary { }
316: Student6: {yes}
317: Facilitator: even your brothers and sisters ((there was laughter)) is it the same with
318: you? ((Throwing the question for the whole group))
319: Student 7: yes this is the same
320: Facilitator: you do the same? ((Directing the question to student 7))
321: Student 7: yes the same
322: Facilitator: OK:: because ( ) OK:: when you write to your teacher because
323: sometimes if you have a problem the teacher may ask you to put it in writing ( )
324: do you always keep in mind Oh let me write in this way because ( ) oh this
325: teacher knows better than me and then he might correct me and then you will be
326: very careful in looking at your work ( ) do you do that?
327: Student 7: if I want to write something which concern teacher told us to write it ( )
328: yes I will ( ) at the first I will see how to read {
329: Facilitator: {how to write}
330: Student 7: yes because there teacher will give you some marks ( ) because when you
331: are writing even when you make mistakes ( ) also there is no problems because
332: this is the teacher who is there to teach you he will correct that mistake you are
333: making
334: the most important is to know your scores or how importance is
335: some mistakes [he will
340: correct them because] this is his job to correct your point and to correct what you
341: are learning
342: Student 6: I want to say the teacher not look about what you want to say but uhh uhh
343: to put in what is in her his mind if you write it you get right if you don’t write it
344: that you get wrong
345: Facilitator: it means there is ready information if you don’t include this information
346: in your writing you get less marks and if you include what the teacher gave you
347: ( ) then you get high marks and if you brought something from outside then you
348: get a big cross
349: Students: ((responding all together at one time)) ye::s
350: Facilitator: you get less mark so you are not allowed to be creative? Isn’t it? ( ) you
351: are not allowed to be creative?
352: Student 7: if you give something outside but it is concern {
353: Facilitator: {(related
354: Student 7: ((continues after the interruption)) it is concern this paragraph this point
355: teacher will give you also the mark
356: Facilitator: OK:: do you have the same experience? That if you wrote something and
357: it was not included in teacher’s notes but you brought something which is related
358: to what he gave you will he give you marks or he will cross it?
359: Student 7: أستاذ أنا يذكر مره في الأساس :
360: [teacher I remember once in primary {
361: Facilitator: {your voice a little bit}
362: Student 7: مشيت عندي درس ماتاناه مشيت لأمي طبعا الناس القادما ما زى ناس
363: الجد الطريقة من مستوى لمستوى يختلف مشيت لها سرحت لي حبيت على حسب ما سرحت لي
364: اللي أدراأنا له الأستاذ بعيدن الأستاذ قال لي إنه ه دا الحلة دا الزين في يعني ما زى القيم
365: النهاية الإجابة كانت صحيح المنهج القديم والمنهج الجديد ما سوى حبيت تأتي
366: الديدنا ليه الأستاذ بميلو و بختو زي ما هي :
367: [I had a lesson which I did not complete then I went to my mum of course older
368: people are not like younger ones the method differ from one level to another ( ) I
369: ask her to explain it to me which she did then I solved the problems following
370: her method that was different from that of the teacher and then the teacher said
371: this is not the way I taught you though my answers at the end were correct it was
372: just that the old and the new syllabus were not the same from there onward I
373: began to take whatever the teacher gives us and return it as it was given]
374: Facilitator: عندكم نفس آل في واحد فيكم مر نفس التجربة ؟
375: [do you have the same = is there any one of you who encountered similar
376: experience?]}
377: Student 9: in Secondary School my teacher ( ) uhh learning style uhh ( ) writing the
378: point about the composition about narrative ( ) comparative writing and uhh uhh
379: example told me to write about school in your school and give me some points
380: but if not uhh if I don’t put the point in my writing give me wrong
381: Facilitator: OK:: so you have to include only what he says and if you deviated you
382: go outside what he said he will give you wrong
383: Student 6: but you don’t go out
384: Facilitator: do you have anything to say?
385: Student 8: uh ( ) I mean I have a subject such as] Physics أستاذ بيجي
386: [عنى عندي مثال في مادة ( ) يمنع تعريف معين تحفظ التعريف دى زى ما هو لكن لو اشتقنا طريق
387: [the teacher would come ( ) he would give us a particular definition you
388: memorise it as it is if we do it in a way] another way دينا[he would give us
389: 437: Student 7: how to write letters is the first thing that we are taught
390: Facilitator: and do you write letters?
391: Student 8: yeah
392: Student 6: صحيحة التغيير في الكلمة في العربي
393: في كلمات كثيره يمكن تكتب مثالا المعنى الحنا هو اي في الكتاب فيه لكن أنت عارف بمعاني تأتي وقت تزول
394: Facility: [even a change of a word ( ) in Arabic there is a lot of synonyms you can write
395: for example a word which mean the same it might be in the book but you know
396: its synonym when you write that synonym he will give wrong]
397: Student 8: will give you wrong
398: Student 9: it is important to explain ( ) audience ( ) written an article for audience out side school is that true?
399: Facility: OK:: ( )
400: Student 8: yeah
401: Facility: OK:: ( ) what is your opinion for example] ( ) Ok: of
402: course you have not written to a big = large or say large audience ( ) but making
403: your ideas clear for the reader ( ) do you think it is important to make your ideas
404: clear to the readers ( ) do you think it is important?
405: Student 8: yes:
406: Student 6: it is important
407: Facility: it is important ( ) and do you always do that do you always keep that in
408: your mind when you are writing?
409: Student 6: yes
410: Student 7: yes
411: Facility: [I mean when you come to write of course no one among you has ever written for
412: audience ( ) written an article for audience outside school is that true?]
413: Facility: (continues) yes
414: Facility: (continues) ( )
415: Facility: (continues) ( )
416: Facility: (continues) ( )
417: Facility: (continues) ( )
418: Facility: (continues) ( )
419: Facility: (continues) ( )
420: Facility: (continues) ( )
421: Facility: (continues) ( )
422: Student 9: it is important to explain ( )
423: Facility: Alright {
424: Facility: Alright {
425: Facility: Alright {
426: Facility: Alright {
427: Facility: Alright {
428: Facility: Alright {
429: Facility: Alright {
430: Facility: Alright {
431: Facility: Alright {
432: Facility: Alright {
433: Facility: Alright {
434: Facility: Alright {
435: Facility: Alright {
436: Facility: Alright {
437: Student 7: how to write letters is the first thing that we are taught

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438: Facilitator: even in Arabic = even in Arabic?
439: Student 7: yes even in Arabic or English
440: Facilitator: you write letters? ((Directing the question to student 7))
441: Student 7: yes
442: Facilitator: and do you feel always ( ) it is important to make your ideas clear to
443: your reader?
444: Student 6: you write ( ) you write that you know it but { it is important for you to
445: explain all what you are talking about to explain let him to understand what you
446: need or what you want from this paragraph when you write it
448: Facilitator: YES ( ) very good ( ) OK:: OK:: let me go to this one ( ) DO you always
449: support your argument with evidence ( ) when you are writing to your friends ( )
450: do you always support whatever you say with evidence say ( ) I’m saying this
451: because of this and this ( ) do you always do that?
452: Student 7: yes ( ) I think that is yes ( ) this is when you write it you explain and you
453: want to tell him that this for this something ( ) and if this and you explain about
454: the situation ( ) for you want to explain that you travel without informing him and
455: the events which happen to you { all the events that occurred during his absent
457: Student 7: ((continues after the interruption)) yes yes
458: Student 8: for example if you want to critique books any book you must support
459: your critique with evidence evidence
460: Facilitator: so you thing it is important
461: Student 8: it is important
462: Facilitator: OK:: do you always make a lot of drafts before you produce your ( )
463: your final work ( ) do you always write a lot of draft say for example I have this
464: attitude or many writers in fact they say when they write something they will
465: make the first draft they will revise it then they will put it down ( ) they will
466: come back days later they will come and revise it again make some changes even
467: in organisation add
468: some ideas ( ) remove ideas and then ( ) they go again they leave it for some times
469: they come to it again and then you will find that somebody writing more than one
470: draft ((explain the same concept in Arabic))
471: Student 6: [oh is there]
472: Student 9: [is there]
473: Facilitator: do you always do that?
474: Students: ((all together)) yes
475: Facilitator: Alright yes yes you go on [anyone who wants to say
476: something]
477: Student 8: I think if any person want to write something must revise the writing
478: because may be this writing [may hurt
479: the feeling of a particular people I mean I write in a simple manner] because all
480: people want to understand to you say in your book ( ) [may hurt
481: I mean in Arabic at least you must respect the
482: feeling of others your expressions should not be] [may hurt]
483: Facilitator: اما ما يبدو أن برومو مهم حتى لتوضيح أفكارك لأبو مرات أنت تكتب كلام [it is also
484: important for explaining your ideas ( ) for sometimes you write something] and
485: when you come back to it you find this is too stupid it is not good let me change it
486: هل تعامل زي ده [do you do something like that?]
Students: ((all together)) yes ((followed by laughter))

Student 7: yes even your change = to change your point it means that () you are to
read the advantage because you are to change it () means that this advantage or
this advantage () it will be () it will be concer () it will be good if the
disadvantage is not good you have to change that point
Facilitator: ((call a student by name) [you seems to want to say something] regarding changing and making many drafts
 Students: (all together) yes ((followed by laughter))
Facilitator: in assignment

Students: ((all together)) yes ((followed by laughter))
Facilitator: [in this way understanding would be better than memorising]

Student 7: [this cannot be]

Facilitator: [this cannot be]

Student 7: [because this will help you] how to summarise the paragraph

if you have to understand

Student 3: I think good for every writer must add his voice more than quotations أكثر من

Facilitator: [more than quotations]

[encouragements]

Facilitator: OK:: OK:: let us go to question No. 4 in fact we have 8 questions OK::

just be patience I know you are tired you have been sitting for two hours but be patience please ( ) what do you do when you are faced with a view point or argument which you don’t agree with ( ) which you don’t agree with ( ) do you look for evidence first before making your point or you let yourself to be led by your conscience and beliefs ( ) I mean to say when somebody come with an argument ( ) with a point with an idea and you don’t agree with this idea = you don’t agree with it ( ) do you always give yourself time to go and look for evidence in order to support your position or you just jump into the topic just led by your own common sense and what you believe to be true OK نشرح بالعربي ولا واضح [shall I explain it in Arabic or it is clear]

Students: واضح [clear]

Facilitator: ([addressing student 6) هل تعبت؟ (are you tired?)

Student 6: لاأ [no no]

Facilitator: ([addressing student 9) هل تعبت؟ (are you tired?)

Student 9: [no]

Facilitator: OK:: [The idea is clear?]

more than quotations, more than quotations
Students: yes
Facilitator: OK:: what do you do when you are faced with such a situation ( ) you
are against a certain idea ( ) do you always try to look for evidence in order to
support your position or you just express yourself just giving reasons that you
think is ( ) reasons that you think are right without bothering yourself looking
whether they are convincing or not ( ) what do you do normally?
Student 7: evidence ( ) what does it mean evidence?
Student 8: (interpreting the meaning in Arabic)(دلايل و براهين)
Facilitator: ((repeating the same thing in Arabic))
Student 2: OK::
Facilitator: يعني وقت يكون مثلًا في وجه نظر
Student 7: [I mean when for example there is a view point] {
Student 7: evidence means statement?
Facilitator: uhh uhh
Student 7: [means statement ( ) evidence?
Facilitator: uhh أي أي أي التأكيد
Student 7: evidence ( ) evidence
Student 8: (براهين ( (translating the meaning of evidence in Arabic))
Student 7: also statement?
Facilitator: evidence ( ) statement can be general because statement can be
بس يمكن نقول عليه شنو بالعربي يمكن كلام [what should we call it in Arabic ( ) it could be
expression] you are not required to give anything but evidence لازم يكون [you must] لازم يكون برهان حاجه مؤكد كوييس
evidence] something tangible الآخر حاجه يفتح الطرف الآخر[which one?]
[something that should convince the other side]
Facilitator: evidence ( ) statement can be because statement can be
Student 6: sometimes بنكلم عن مثلًا الموضوع ده زاتو لنا عارف أن براهينه موجودة يقول له أنا اقتنع
كان بها و لو ما اقتنع ما يقطع عليه لأن كده كده عندك افكار و قوانين مقتنع بيه عشان كده يقول لي ده لكن لو كان:
Facilitator: [I’m talking for example about this topic itself ( ) I know that even if evidence
exists I will tell him first if he got convince then that is fine and if not I will not
try to convince him because he must have other reasons which he believes in
because of this I will just tell him what I have and know but if that person is a]
[teacher] [I can not convince him]
Student 6: sometimes [I mean you will not try to search for] evidence ولا كده تقول
[or you just talk] {
Student 6: [for my] teacher ما بقتنع له
Facilitator: I will search for evidence
Student 6: نقول مع زملائك يعني مثلًا زول جاب ليك معلومة قال لك في الطب الطبي مفروض يعمل كده
وكده أو الطالب المتمتنن الشهادات السودانية مفروض يعمل كده و كده و انت بتشوفه انه كلام ده ما سليم
[let us say with your colleague someone brought you information and tells you as
a physician you should do this and this or say a student who is sitting for Sudan
school certificate should do this and this and you feel that what he is saying is
incorrect] will you give evidence
Student 6: [Or just have a normal discussion] لا نمس يكون نقاش عادي
Student 7: اكيد أنا ما أقدر ما أقدر في كلام ده أذا أذا أذا أذا أذا أذا أذا براهين 6
for sure I can’t =
[for sure I can’t do anything unless I have evidence and verifications]
Facilitator: very good OK:: OK::
Student 7: if you have the background issue or and your evidence = if you don’t
know the evidence of this issue you have to return back to take or to find the
evidence and ( ) come in another day to tell him that I’m go and I’m get this this = 

this ( ) this is the evidence I am telling you about it

الموضوع ما داخل في الجدل الجدل بالكلام المش مه مه كده وانت انت ابحث عن الادلة تعاقدك وخلاياك

I mean simply if you

don’t have any background about the topic don’t get involve in the debate leave

the debate vague like that and then go and look look for your own evidence and

then come again and say last time I had no evidence but now this is my evidence

this and this]

Student 8: if someone criticise you and said

مثلًا في زول نفاذ في حاجة معي من مش تقد انت ل انك

[for example if somebody criticise you on a particular

group of people and you] when you

want to reply him your reply must include the evidence documentary

['])

documentary

Facilitator: documented ( ) yes

Facilitator: this is important

I mean ما تقيي مدونين البيقانو ساكت الواحد ما يكون عندك

[BS you not become Sudanese who would just argue without] evidence

[who would just insist this is right this is still

right]

Student 6: whether right or wrong it must be right

such attitude is wrong]

Facilitator: (written in Arabic) |

غفل صحب كده صح ما كورس دله غلفه

6: 6

Facilitator: this is important

I mean ما تقيي مدونين البيقانو ساكت الواحد ما يكون عندك

[BS you not become Sudanese who would just argue without] evidence

[who would just insist this is right this is still

right]

Student 6: whether right or wrong it must be right

such attitude is wrong]

Facilitator: (written in Arabic) |

غفل صحب كده صح ما كورس دله غلفه

6: 6

Facilitator: this is important

I mean ما تقيي مدونين البيقانو ساكت الواحد ما يكون عندك

[BS you not become Sudanese who would just argue without] evidence

[who would just insist this is right this is still

right]

Student 6: whether right or wrong it must be right

such attitude is wrong]
شئ إذا مثلا الزول يكتب قالو ليك مثلا اكتب عن جامعه اعلي النيل قول بس عن تدرس بجامعه اعلي
كيف تحافظ أنك ما تختر من تدرس بين تتكلم عن التدرس. بجامعه اعلي النيل وما مشي في العمل
و لا النيل تمشي في أي حاجة تاني بس في حدود ده كيف
تحافظ على أن تمسك الفكره و تمشي بدون ما تختر منه

[How do you keep the focus I mean what do you do? Or what should you do if
for example somebody asked you to write about Upper Nile University or say
about the teaching in Upper Nile University ( ) how will you make sure that you
talk only throughout your text about the teaching and not included other unrelated
issues to teaching ( ) just limiting yourself to teaching and taking that line of
thought throughout your writing]

: I will write on a different paper]
: you write the chief points]

النقاط الرئيسية اخذ تاني ورقة تانيه القسم احل النقاط داتو براه واحد وراء أنه ذاته حتى ما
اكتب الموضوع كامله بعد داك الموضوع يجي يقرأه كله بسهول إذا كان
في غلط أو حاجة ناقصه كده يكتبنا أجي اتفعل في ورقه تانيه وأقدمه

[yeah the chief points then I will take another paper and elaborate on these points
each separately until I cover the whole topic then I will read it all and see
whether there is mistakes or incomplete thought then revise it ( ) like that and
then I rewrite it again in a final paper and submit it]

هل تتكلم عن هيئة التدريس ما امشي اطلع في المباني التناس

[OK their teaching method ( ) and the universities

where they graduated from]

[how will you make sure that

you have not digressed from the main topic?]}

[when I talk I talk within the structure]

[what in football is called gone

outside the line?]

[I will talk about teaching

staff I will not go to discuss the infrastructure?]

كيف كيف تحافظ خاصة وقت تكتب كيف يتحافظ يعني تحصر نفسك حتى لا تختر من عنكم له
الموضوع

[how how to keep especially when writing ( ) how do you maintain I mean
when preparing yourself for writing to avoid derailing from the topic do you have
a] technique [يالأس لحست مع المجموعة الأولي قلول أن]
yesterday I set with group one and
they said] they keep on saying إنه ينادي بسياس اسمه [I mean some of them
said always they ask] asking themselves questions [أنا بيكبك] [while writing] they
keep on asking questions ( ) do you do the same?

عثمان ما تطل من الموضوع يعني مرات وقت

[بكتب ف طو بقول ما علاقة هذه الفقره بالقرفه الفرد أو بالقرفه الثاني و بحقه في
so that

you don’t deviate from your main topic I mean sometimes when writing a
paragraph they ask what is the relation of this paragraph to the previous one and
the following one and if there is a] link [then they continue]
Student 8: I thinking it is important ( )
Facilitator: yeah
Student 8: I think it is important you must join the paragraphs together
Facilitator: weren't you given in Secondary School [were you given in Secondary School]
composition? ( ) by the way []
Student 7: {some test or something like that or [is there] composition in
examination}
Student 6: No:: just as a lesson
Facilitator: let us say in first = First Year Senior Secondary School Second Year
Secondary School [were you given free composition ( ) you go and write] about any topic
Student 6: no:: there is no free composition they give you a topic or to choose one of them
School in First or Second year were you given free composition where you write
[free composition was there until 2005 first it was in Sudan School Certificate
composition ( ) you go and write] about any topic
Student 6: no:: there is no free composition they give you a topic or to choose one of them
Facilitator: OK [I mean you are given only the address ((she meant the title)) then after you write
composition was there until 2005 first it was in Sudan School Certificate
they use to bring free composition but during our time 2007-2008 it became
guided composition ( ) you are given points and you insert them in the
programme]
Student 6: yes:: there is no free composition they give you option ( ) option ( ) option
Student 6: no:: there is no free composition they give you option ( ) option ( ) option
you choose what you can write about it
Facilitator: but that is = that is the free composition
Student 8: not free composition it give you ( ) three or four you must write one of
them one of them or to choose one of them
Facilitator: but are you being help with some point in each topic?
Student 8: yes they will give some points
Facilitator: [I mean for example whenever you were given say like three topics and you
choose one are you provided with points on every topic to help you in writing?]
Student 6: no:: is there a free composition this means free
Student 8: [you are given] a topic and you write it the
way you like] there is a second composition that is guided ( ) here

انت ملزم انت ما

[you are oblique ( ) you don’t have option ( ) one topic for all people with some

[there was] compositions

points provided so which one of these were you taught in First or Second Year

High Senior Secondary School or you never had composition?]

Student 6: [basically in First or Second year] there is no

composition

Student 8: in first year and second year {

[basically there is no] composition

Student 8: there is but one but one

Facilitator: you wrote one? 

[Of course there are

differences from one school to another]

Students: yes yes

Facilitator: why you like [there is a second composition

دكتير في مدرستكم

في ناس دوهم مثلا

[some of you have written a lot of compositions in their school]

Students: Yes

Facilitator: Ok:: can you remember how many? ( ) One?

Student 8: one = one NO I think four or six times in the whole year

Facilitator: in the whole year? ( ) first and second year?

Student 8: yes

Facilitator: OK:: yes ((mentioning a name of student 9 who wanted to say something

but was shy))

Student 9: in primary school I study composition in Comboni = Comboni

Facilitator: yes

Student 9: (continues) yes you give ( ) the teacher give many composition and you

be ( ) you = you will be three ( )

Facilitator: OK:: to choose one

Student 4: (continues) yes but in Secondary School the first ( ) the first study I

didn’t write any composition {

Facilitator: (you didn’t write? ( ) sorry didn’t write any composition?

Student 9: yes

Facilitator: OK:: even in Arabic?

[even in

Arabic you were not given lessons for example the] composition

Student 8: [expression expression expression] ((it is a new term in

Arabic for composition, this word literally means expression))

Student 6: the students ما عندهم زمن تعبير فيه نعم لكن ماكل الناس يدرسون يعني أنا في الاعدادي نعم فيه لكن

في الثانوي ما في تعبير

[teachers have no time ( ) yes composition is there but not all

people teach ((people refers to teachers)) I mean in Primary School it was there

but in High School there was no composition]

Student 8: [expression expression] ((referring to composition))

Student 6: [there is no composition]

[we were given]

[we were not given] ((followed by laugh))

Student 8: [you write for example ( ) about a

/particular topic]

Student 6: تكتب تعبير مثلا ( موضوع معين تكتب عنه التعبير انا لائقني في الامتحان في الامتحانات بين

[you باللفظي في امتحان الفترة الأولى و الثاني و الثالثة و النهاية ينعى تاني مالائقني ينعى في الحصص

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Student 6: language he would come and teach us how to write a composition about a topic

Student 9: you who were given composition have you had a lot of them?

language he would come and teach us how to write a composition about a topic

how to avoid writing a shallow text ( ) how to use grammar rules and punctuation marks and he would give us for example four topics during the week and he would instruct us to submit them after a week ( ) he would mark them and later give you feedback where you were wrong or right

Student 8: [a complete lesson is allotted for composition] [that is how we have 3 lessons in the week] [a complete lesson is allotted for composition]

Student 9: [do you have a notebook for composition?] [I had a notebook for it]

Student 6: [this was] in Secondary School or [or] in Basic?

Student 4: this was in Secondary School itself ( )

Student 8: I think education in Sudan is in crisis now because it graduate students unqualified

Student 8: unqualified?

Student 8: because they don’t write a lot?

Student 8: yes

the experience I have now about writing I got it at intermediate level ( ) in intermediate we use to have composition lesson once a week and we had note book for it ( ) I remember sometimes the teacher would take us outside the class during the wed season to see the green then instruct us to write about what we feel and the beauty of the nature ( ) we write and submit our works at the end of the day ( ) have you had such thing?

Student 6: I had such experience in Primary School

Student 8: in =in primary school we had but not optional ( ) for example you would be given a topic to go and write about it ( ) and you would be given a period of one week or something like that to complete and submit it but it was not like your
system where you are taken out to see the beauty of nature { ما يستمرار و ما كل مره }

[Student 8: (continues)]

[Facilitator:]

[Yes that is true]

[In order to get] full marks

[Facilitator: I mean you work for exam] ( ) is just to get full marks?

[Student 8: compositions]

[like our English teacher wrote four topics for Sudan Certificate he wrote to us]

[Facilitator: I had composition lessons in Primary School but in High School I never had any lesson not only composition but we had not been taught anything no Arabic no English no Mathematics no Chemistry no Physics not anything ( ) in fact government schools are very poor very poor]

[Facilitator: OK:: the free composition in نطقه طريقه زكير لي]}

[Student 6: in order to get] full marks

[Facilitator: I mean you work for exam] ( ) is just to get full marks?

[Student 8: compositions]

[like our English teacher wrote four topics for Sudan Certificate he wrote to us]

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[Facilitator: I mean you work for exam] ( ) is just to get full marks?

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[Student 8: compositions]

[like our English teacher wrote four topics for Sudan Certificate he wrote to us]

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[Student 8: compositions]

[like our English teacher wrote four topics for Sudan Certificate he wrote to us]

[Facilitator: I had composition lessons in Primary School but in High School I never had any lesson not only composition but we had not been taught anything no Arabic no English no Mathematics no Chemistry no Physics not anything ( ) in fact government schools are very poor very poor]

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[Facilitator: I mean you work for exam] ( ) is just to get full marks?

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[like our English teacher wrote four topics for Sudan Certificate he wrote to us]

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[Facilitator: OK:: the free composition في نطقه طريقه زكير لي]}

[Student 6: in order to get] full marks

[Facilitator: I mean you work for exam] ( ) is just to get full marks?
Facilitator: is that true?

Student 6: yes

Facilitator: OK:: your father talks with you in English

Student 6: yes

Facilitator: at home?

Student 6: yes

Facilitator: OK::

Student 6: I want to talk but I am not able

Facilitator: ((smile))

I studied English almost for six years moving from course to course but I never found somebody in streets to speak to in English so that I can be] fluent in English I never found anybody I did not [but I know a lot of words but] how to arrange them and to speak is difficult this is the problem

Facilitator: ((calling student 2 by name who seems to be wanting to say something))

Student 7: my father new English but always he is not around in the house {

Facilitator: {alright

yeah

Student 7: his job { }

Facilitator: {he is working in different places}

Student 7: if he is around in the house it will get me or he may not get me { if he get me I will talk to him in English but all my friends talking in Arabic { how can I talk to them by English?

Student 8: also we are not use = use to speak English we are use to speak Arabic always

Student 6: مثلاً انت هسه عاز عتتكم معي بالانجليزي و لكن وقت امشي انكم مع زول ثاني بيقول الزول ده مسلم شديد {for example you now want to speak with me in English but when I go and talk with somebody else he would say this man is showing off]
Facilitator: OK: [proud?]

Student 6: [yes in order to avoid this you speak normally in Arabic]

Facilitator: [in Arabic] في في برعل جامعه قاللي عندما يشاهدو الاعمال فظلنو دائما بختو الفهم في: [some of your colleagues mentioned that when they watch English films they always put the sound on] silence [and follow only the translation] ( )

is that true?

Students: [(laughter in approval)]

Facilitator: let me ask you ( ) do you ( ) because all of you ( ) you are familiar with the skills of reading and writing am I right? Reading writing listening speaking: but do you feel that there is any relationship between reading and writing? Do you feel that there is any ( ) that reading and writing are very close to each other ( ) are they very really related to each other and how?

Student 6: [I mean let me give you an example?] There is a say that both of them concentrate on meaning construction [معني الأخرين يركز على صنع المعاني يعني في] in another words both focus on meaning creation that is to say in reading we try to extract meanings from a] text وفي [we try to] [in and in writing we try to put meaning in form of] graphs في أي حاجة تأتي يتذكرك أنه يكون علاقة مبين الآخرين أو أنم مقنعين أن عدمه أي علاقة بينهم?

Student 6: if I read I will collect many vocabulary to write any topic

Facilitator: Alr:right and then when you you consolidate this [معني مثلا وقت تجي تكني] [I mean for example when you write] vocabulary you gain through reading you come and write it down and therefore understand it better ( ) is that true?

Student 6: yes

Facilitator: OK: do you do the same? ( ) do you have some things to add?

Student 8: I think uh writing is better than read

Facilitator: than reading ( ) you like writing better than reading?

Student 8: yes

Facilitator: why?

Student 8: because انت بطبع اي حاجه من عند لكن داك انت بتسلح حق ناس لكن ده انت بطبع بتطرح [you bring something of your own but that you take from others property but this you produce you express your ideas but reading you take other people’s ideas]

Student 6: [both of them you produce] vocabulary

Facilitator: but no {

Student 1: [basically words]

Student 8: [I don’t mean English I mean for example in some Arabic books like that]

Facilitator: كل عامة ( ) لكل برضو ما يتفس من ما في زول بدر يعرش للقدم أو يحسن مشا الفهم: بدون قراءان لان حتي الآراء التي نحن نحتاجه من الآخرين و بعد ده بنجي نصيده تعمل له اخراج ثاني

Student 7: yes

Student 6: Yes
Facilitator: okay what is your feeling in the university do you feel

that the two skills are very close to each other

[Of course you haven’t yet started your studies but do you feel that the two

have some things in common?]

Student 7: I prefer read than writing because = because when you are reading you

to get some information words = some information vocabulary and you are

you have to save it in your mind ( ) means that you are going to take more

vocabulary if you are ( ) have ( ) if you have more vocabulary it means you know

how to speak it mean that ( ) reading ( ) also writing have ( ) have some writing

is important but the reading is important to them writing because if you know

about something writing will be easy for you

Facilitator: do you want to say something ( ) yes

Student 7: readers one up to two

Student 6: back ready made that is why we don’t benefit from our scientific discovery and

you must read first and understand it well then you come and write it in this I

information do exist if you don’t read and know it you can not write it therefore

Facilitator: OK::

Student 6: secondly there is something in Sudan ( ) secondly ( ) you see a person for

example who discovered something it will not be applied immediately except

after lapse of sometimes or he takes it abroad and apply it there then brings it

back ready made that is why we don’t benefit from our scientific discovery and

for you to discover something and only others to make use of it is impossible =

difficult not impossible but difficult

Facilitator: what is your feeling in the university do you feel

that the two skills are very close to each other

[Of course you haven’t yet started your studies but do you feel that the two

have some things in common?]
1074: Student 7: [newspapers on daily basis]
1075: Facilitator: You read daily? [you read daily?]
1076: Student 7: Yes daily particularly Alwatlon or Ray [yes daily particularly Alwatlon or Ray]
1077: Alshaab] [these are names for daily newspapers]
1078: Facilitator: Ok:: Ok: [there is a say that
1079: educated Sudanese don’t read]
1080: Student 6: They don’t read [they don’t read]
1081: Facilitator:ماريو [they don’t read]
1082: Student 6: Where do they get information ( ) where do they get information
1083: Facilitator: If you watch TV and listen to radios but no one takes a book and reads
1084: it from cover to cover]
1085: Student 6: What is the question that we could ask why Sudanese don’t read ( ) because books are
1086: expensive I mean the price of books is high I mean if you bring a book from
1087: abroad is more cheaper but because there is increase in taxes ( ) today if I
1088: Student 6: What will I get the 45 pounds to read it]
1089: Student 7: [Whilst] I mean the press it is still expensive and I mean the price of it if I
1090: read like us students who are not working ( ) no one nowadays buys political
1091: newspapers their prices have increased from 60 pence per newspaper to one
1092: pound]
1093: Student: Yes:: [in approval]
1094: Student 6: Some people say that
1095: Student 6: Another]
1096: Student 7: [in approval]
1097: Student 6: [in approval]
1098: Student 6: [in approval]
1099: Student 7: [in approval]
Student 9: مثالاً: "لا يوجد دليل على أن المقال يعبر عن وجهة تنظيمية أو تفسيري على نطاق الوحي...

Facilitator: [I think the writer who wrote the article cannot write in vacuum he must have
written based on some background information]  

Student 9: [you can not express your views freely because if you criticised a particular]

Facilitator: [it might be a repeated]

Teacher: alright yes [sometimes it may be] is a matter of different opinions

Student 9: 

Facilitator: yes Good

Student 6: [secondly you are not free even the newspapers there is no free newspaper ]

Facilitator: [I think this is a private Sudanese problem]

Student 6: [Sudanese have got a lot of problems which will never get resolved]

Facilitator: [or your article will not be published]

Student 6: [you article will not be published]

Facilitator: [if you commented on a particular issue in your book or article]

Student 6: [it is a political problem]

Facilitator: [political all of our problems are meddled in politics]

Student 7: [I have experienced a moment where you found yourself disagreeing with account of an author]

Student 8: in Sudan there is no free expression

Facilitator: [our last question ( ) have you ever experience a moment where you found yourself disagreeing with account of an author]

Student 8: yes background ( )

Facilitator: very good so you have background information so you will try to compare this with your background

Student 8: yes
1172: Student 9: account of [what?]
1173: Facilitator: account of an author author author [معناه الكاتب] ((translated into Arabic))
1174: Student 7: account معناه شنو [what it means]
1175: Facilitator: [equivalent Arabic word for author the teacher then repeated]
1176: the question in Arabic)
1177: Student 6: yes
1178: Facilitator: you experienced?
1179: Student 7: if he looks at it critically if he finds something that is different he will change it
1180: [NO I mean that for example you find a person who writes say for example
1181: Student 7: Facilitator: you experienced?
1182: [NO I mean that for example you find a person who writes say for example
1183: events you may have background on the message which he is talking about and
1184: you may not differ much but about future events differences are inevitable]
1185: Facilitator: but don’t you see even in interpretation of the past events sometimes people
1186: differ someone may interpret them in this way and other in another way is that
1187: Student 8: [I mean there are wrong interpretations which do not carry the same meaning
1188: therefore any translation has got translators nowadays anything has got specialist
1189: and some translators do it for specific purposes] for their own purposes
1190: Facilitator: لا أنا أصدق هنا شنو يعني مثلاً يكتب بيزا في زول يطبع بتفسييره يختلف عن تفسير شخص
1191: يكتب مثلاً يعني يقرأ لكل الكاتب كل الكتاب يعني المؤرخين في زول يطبع بتفسييره يختلف عن تفسير شخص
1192: Student 8: [but don’t you see even in interpretation of the past events sometimes people
1193: differ someone may interpret them in this way and other in another way is that
1194: Student 8: I mean there are wrong interpretations which do not carry the same meaning
1195: therefore any translation has got translators nowadays anything has got specialist
1196: and some translators do it for specific purposes] for their own purposes
1197: Student 8: [I mean there are wrong interpretations which do not carry the same meaning
1198: therefore any translation has got translators nowadays anything has got specialist
1199: and some translators do it for specific purposes] for their own purposes
1200: [NO I mean that for example you find a person who writes say for example
1201: say The Mahdi Revolution if you for example () read different books written
1202: about the Revolution you will discover that the historians have different
1203: interpretations on this same event () don’t you see that this is also a way of
1204: expanding knowledge and enriching the topic with ideas and different opinions?]
Facilitator: OK:: which means ( ) OK:: which means we have different outlook so
1225: Student 8: yes
1226: different visions ( ) because every person complement others
1227: Student 9: yes
1228: because even brothers in the same house do have
1229: are all the same still their reaction to these points would be completely different
1230: Student 8: all are the same still their reaction to these points would be completely different
1231: Student 7: [but the aim is one]
1232: Student 8: [the aim is one]
1233: Facilitator: OK:: before we conclude this session do you have anything to say?
1234: any addition to all the issues we discussed or
1235: clarification or you have a question] ( ) OK:: thank you very much group 2 first
1236: session and I hope to see you next week and I wish you all the best ( ) thank you
1237: very much ( ) Bye
Appendix 11 C: Transcript of the Third Group Pre Focus Group Interviews

1: Facilitator: thank you very very much and welcome to our session group three uhh uhh
2: as I told you this is just a kind of informal discussion in which I am just going to
3: ask you some few questions just to have some knowledge about your English
4: background () and then how writing skills was taught during Senior Secondary
5: School () and also to ask about your experience and your opinions over different
6: issues that I am going to ask you about () so don’t feel shy feel relax and it is just
7: a kind of informal discussion OK:: ( ) again I know it is not easy for you to
8: express yourselves in English () so also feel relax if you find difficulties in
9: explaining a certain concept in Arabic then you can use English Arabic sorry ( )
10: in English you can use English then you can use Arabic is that OK:: ( ) shall we
11: start ((students nodded their heads in approval)) Alr::ight ( )
12: nowadays there is this concept of critical thinking whether it is in reading
13: whether it is in writing you ( ) we hear a lot of critical thinking ( ) do you have
14: any idea what critical thinking means? [I mean we hear it
15: being said there is] critical thinking عن هل عندكم خليات عن [do you any background
16: about] critical thinking? What do you understand by critical thinking?
17: Student 10: yes critical thinking it may ( ) it can be uh thinking that is going to an end
18: Facilitator: coming to and end?
19: Student 10: yes
20: Facilitator: yes ((to encourage him to continue))
21: Student 10: (continues) there is a problem facing you
22: Facilitator: OK:: a problem solving skills?
23: Student 10: yes
24: Facilitator: ALr::ight ( ) yes
25: Student 10: a problem solving skills
26: Facilitator: YEah a problem solving skill معناه لحل المشكلات [it means for solving
27: problems]
28: Student 10: yes
29: Facilitator: OK:: ( ) yes [is there any addition] you can talk in English ( )
30: you can talk in Arabic feel free
31: Student 11: I have no idea in this
32: Facilitator: you don’t have any idea about it?
33: Student 11: yes
34: Facilitator: Alr::ight alr::ight
35: Student 12: I have no idea
36: Facilitator: if you don’t have any idea OK: let me put it in a very simple form
37: يعني مثالا في المدارس وقت يجي يدرسوكم هل يطلبوا منكم ان يكون عندكم القدرات التحليلية اجود المعلومات
38: يقولو لبك تحللو كوبس لو ادرك كلام في ملحص في الانتبه ما تنتل نفس الكلام زي ما هي تحاور تضيف
39: رأيك كلام ده القدرات التحليلية التفكيريه والنفوذ عندكم له خليات في المدارس الثانويه وفيه:
40: [for example in school () when you are taught do your teachers often required
41: you to apply your analytical abilities on the information they teach you ( ) do they
42: say we teach you this but in the exam don’t copy it as it is but you must add your
43: opinion such thing is what I meant by analytical abilities ( ) critical thinking ( ) do
44: you have any background about it in high schools?]
45: Student 10: there is in certain schools but it is in poor manner ( ) it is in poor form
46: Facilitator: OK::
47: Student 10: ((continues)) because there is no ( ) there is no much to do ( ) if the ( ) that
48: kind of work is given is very very narrow idea ( ) so not vast
49: Facilitator: OK:: not ( ) vast ( ) so it is not taught as a clear concept but it is included
50: in some subjects
51: Student 10: yes
52: Facilitator: OK:: do you all agree with what is said [do you agree with
53: him?]
54: Student 12: [only if it is in Arabic] ((there was laughter))
55: Facilitator: [in Arabic yes speak in Arabic]
56: Student 12: طبـعا بعض المواضيع ممكن تكون موجود لكن مما تلقـاه مـره واحد يعـني مرتين في:
57: السنة حتي وقت دروسك تنتهي من السنة ممكن بدوك ليه مرتين فاانت ما قدر تدر تمعل أي حاجه بعدين
58: انجلزي في المدارس الثانوية علي ما اعتقد ضعيف يعني حتى هسه في باقي ناس واحد من مستوي
59: الثانويه للمستوى الامامه ما يعرف يكتب اسمه
60: [of course some issues (referring to the abilities)) might exist you encounter this
61: occasionally I mean twice a year even when you are taught you finish the year
62: and you may have it only twice a year and you can not do anything with it ( )
63: again English in high school as I think is weak ( ) even up to now some people
64: move from high school level to university level and cannot write their names]
65: Facilitator: [in English?]
66: Student 12: [in English]
67: Student 10: uh I may add something also uh I know so far there should be all these
68: four skills = must be practice ( )
69: Facilitator: yes
70: Student 10: but what we are taught to write ( )
71: Facilitator: yes
72: Student 10: and how to read and try to guess some meanings ( )
73: Facilitator: yes that is good
74: Student 10: guessing meaning we do guess and then about speaking is not much ( )
75: Facilitator: alr::ight
76: Student 10: speaking is suppose to be there ( ) there is a department or association
77: among students for debate ( )
78: Facilitator: alr::ight
79: Student 10: so that you group yourselves then you practice what the teacher has
80: taught in a class ( ) in a group as in a form of of ( )
81: Facilitator: that is called group discussion
82: Student 10: yes::
83: Facilitator: or debate
84: Student 10: the topic is given then the first group has to go and propose the topic ( )
85: and the other group has to oppose it ( )
86: Facilitator: yes::
87: Student 10: but we found that = that kind of thing is not there
88: Facilitator: OK::
89: Student 10: so anyone with his own idea uh according to me ( ) I have done a lot I
90: tried a level my level best ( )
91: Facilitator: yes:
92: Student 10: looking here and there ( )
93: Facilitator: yes ( )
94: Student 10: searching for this I managed to get something but I’m not up to date
94: Facilitator: alright but is it being practice in schools? ( ) in school where you were
96: Student 10: some schools yes ( ) in our school there was but it was not up to date
97: Facilitator: Ok; yeah not up to that {we did it in first year ( ) started my school in St.
99: Augustine
100: Facilitator: St. Augustine oh yeah St. Augustine
101: Student 10: then I set for Sudan School Certificate in Alyab Senior Secondary
102: School during the beginning of St. Augustine we use to have association or group
103: for debate one per week we use to do that but little by little things with
104: administration of the school began to ( )
105: Facilitator: deteriorated
106: Student 10: Yeah that is what happen
107: Facilitator: OK: = OK: [do you have in schools ( ) were you given debate opportunities in schools like] debate حوار [organised discussion]
109: Student 10: {we did it in first year ( ) started my school in St.
110: Student 12: لا [NO]
111: Facilitator: your teachers in [I mean can I describe
112: your teachers in Senior School that they always ask you to produce what they
113: gave you ( ) just to memorise things ( ) learn things by heart and then write them
114: on the paper and then you don’t need to add your voices into is that so?
115: Student 10:  março [NO] no they don’t so = they don’t do so but they give us some ideas
116: and they talk about ( ) they taught all the tenses and then they bring ( ) they bring
117: some exercises on this topic ( ) anyway we have to solve it using all these
118: tenses {}
119: Facilitator: { using all the rules you have been given}
120: Student 10: { and then composition they use to give us guided
121: composition free composition is not there { OK:: alright free composition is not
123: there}
124: Student 10: Oh yeah
125: Facilitator: only guided composition?
126: Student 10: yes you know guided composition sometimes someone fear particularly
127: myself I fear ( ) to loo = to loose the points which is given in the compose in this
128: point in this composition so you are given 1 2 3 5 so you are guided by these
129: points in order ( ) if you go out of these points is is mess up so that is why I am
130: always within these points but free composition is actually good {}
131: Facilitator: {but you have not been given free composition}
132: Student 10: we have not been given yes if we are given free composition you can
133: talk as you like ( ) you can construct as you like with the evidence
134: Facilitator: OK:: will come to that point later
135: Student 10: but if you just given guided it will be a problem ( ) that is what the thing
136: facing us
137: Facilitator: يعني نقدر نقول بالعربي كده إذا انت ما فهتم الكلام ده انو الاستاذة في المرحله الثانويه
138: قول مثلا في سنة أولى و ثانيتى أو سنة ثانيتى أو أولى ثانيتى جغرافيا تاريخ بيدوكم مقاولات و بيقولوا لكم نفس المقاولات
139: تكتبوا زي ما في الامتحانات زي ماهي بدون أي حرف أو اضافة:
140: {I mean ( ) let me say it in Arabic if you did not understand ( ) that your teachers
141: in High Schools often instruct you for example in first year and second year in
142: subjects for example Geography History ( ) they give you articles and essays as
143: ask you to write these essays in exam as given without omitting or adding
144: anything is that true?
145: Student 10: [NO no it was not like that]
146: Student 11, 12, 13: [yes this is true]
147: Student 10: [NO NO it was not like that]
148: Facilitator: [let me hear about your experiences in your schools]
149: Student 10: yes the language [ ] the statement the whole sentences you can change
150: Student 12: [I mean you just memorise the essay unless if you = unless if you see there is
151: some trivial things which you can omit but you cannot add anything]
152: Facilitator: [you memorise them and put them in exam as they were ( ) you cannot add
153: anything]
154: Student 13: [I mean you cannot add anything]
155: Student 11: yes that is true
156: Facilitator: alright OK:: [in St. Augustine the picture is
157: different view on this particular point]
158: Student 11: yes that is true
159: Students:: [not not not at all]
160: Facilitator: OK:: do you feel the same student 2? ((calling him by his name))
161: Student 10: yes the language ( ) the statement the whole sentences you can change
162: but ( )
163: Facilitator: [but keep on keep on the meaning]
164: Student 10: yes the meaning of the context
165: Facilitator: alright alright ( ) that is the different St. Augustine [of
166: course the school is] operating in English and it is a private = a private school ( )
167: OK: OK: let us go to the second question ( ) I wonder whether you like or dislike
168: writing all of you ( ) do you like writing? What is your attitude towards writing?
169: Writing in general whether it is in Arabic or in English? ( ) And if you like or
170: dislike writing why?
172: كل زول يّكون عليه (each one has his own special way towards] certain skills
173: في ناس (some people like) writing and don’t like for example reading ( ) some
174: people like reading and don’t like writing ( ) so: what is your attitude towards
175: writing ( ) do you like or dislike it and why? [Is the question clear?]
176: Students: [yes clear]
177: Facilitator: OK::
178: Student 12: [sometimes of course I am talking
179: about myself]
180: Facilitator: OK::
181: Student 12: [in some subjects]
Facilitator: [yes]

200: I can write continuously but in some subjects I mean I would never never bother
201: reflections like writing letters like writing essays do you like writing?
202: Student 12: NO:
203: [You don’t write except in school?]
204: Student 12: [only in school] (this was followed by laugh from the
205: whole group)
206: Student 13: [I like writing a lot]
207: Facilitator: [you like writing a lot?]
208: Student 13: [yes]
209: Facilitator: Ok::
210: [do you write essays out side the school work I mean for readers who are not
211: teachers () readers out side the school]
212: Student 13: [NO no just I
213: only like to write about things () about my own private things or school work]
214: Facilitator: [school work? But you don’t write
215: for people outside this boundary]
216: Student 13: [NO NO]
217: Facilitator: Yes student I ((calling him by name as he appeared wanting to say
218: something))
219: Student 10: yes I like it
220: Facilitator: you like writing?
221: Student 10: I like writing () it is the best skill all because there is a chance when you
222: write as writer () there is a chance of correcting yourself () correcting mistakes
223: but () there is a chance but the one of the skills is speaking () you can () it uh
224: when you say the wrong thing you cannot correct it
225: Facilitator: but but there is a say that it is good when you are speaking you can =
226: you have different ways of making your meaning clear () but in writing there is
227: only one way or what do you mean of making yourself clear?
228: Student 10: uh yes I mean I mean I mean that while I am () when I am writing when
229: I write all what I mean to write the piece is there I may just sit and pass over it
230: whether there are some mistakes or not then I correct the mistakes then I make
231: the final draft which is the {
232: Student 10: ((continues)) which is clear without mistakes then I present to the one
233: who wants it but if it is speaking () I am just here to give out or say it out if it
234: come out wrong () it all wrong for the other side () there is no way of changing
235: it unless I have to apology to those who listen () that please if I said something
236: wrong you just accept it or try to correct me no problem and so on () so that is
237: the different
238: Facilitator: Oh clear yeah very clear very nice point
239: Student 11: yes I like writing but in Arabic I write well in () in English I like
writing but what I can write for

Students: laughter ((there was laughter from the group))

I have no general ideas ( ) I begin to write there is

more different sentences ( ) tenses but uh uh if I see it I be angry I cancel it

Facilitator: you cancel it because you don’t have enough vocabulary and you are not

sure of what you are writing?

Student 11: yes not sure but in Arabic I like writing

Facilitator: uh and then when you are writing ( ) because writing is a very slow kind

of what ( ) process it has ( ) you have to go through a certain processes ( ) so

what are the activities you do before you put down your ideas before you put

down your final ideas ( ) what are the activities that you do = what we call pre-

writing activities have you heard of pre-writing activities? ((some students said

yes) like for example if I want to write something I will read first ( ) read about

the topic ( ) then put some points down ( ) listing thinking then keep on

reorganising my points changing first second third so ( ) these are pre-writing

activities that go on in your mind when

planning what are the steps that you do as individuals when you want to write?

Student 11: translate it please

Student 13: I did not understand

Facilitator: OK:: ((the teacher repeat the question in Arabic))

[ I put my ideas in form of points]

[your voice a little bit]

[ in form of points first I mean I don’t

write just from the start]

[ in form of points?]

[ that’s it]

[ in points then later you put the points

and write]

Student 13: I mean

[do you make many] drafts

[what it means]

[I mean for example you write

leave it for sometime and come back again to revise it]

[possible if I remembered an idea I will come and add it to my listed points and

then after that I will come and write about each point separately]

Facilitator: OK:: in addition

[any addition?]

[ in fact sometimes I write if I found an important point and if I put a point and

later on realised that this point should follow or precede another point I could

leave that paper and get another paper and rewrite the points in new order I will

put the first point and the second and the third]

[ of course I always write the topic I come]

and after that

[I come and reorganise it reorganise it]

[I mean you just start writing non
318: Facilitator: ((interpreted what student 1 said in Arabic))
297: you ( ) so the one I know I have background in it and I take it ( ) then I reflect
315: Facilitator: allright
310: there are what is in the book the way of it is different ( ) maybe the one who the
322: mind some = some few things am I right? When you are writing when you want
320: Students: NO NO ((followed by laughter))
291: stop and without thinking?
292: Student 11: [I just write and then
293: after that I will come and organise it if there is more to be added then I do that]
294: Facilitator: OK:: for you {
295: Student 10: {for me the topic if there are number of topics given so ( )
296: there if there is a choice ( ) for the topics that choose the one which is reliable to
297: you ( ) so the one I know I have background in it and I take it ( ) then I reflect
298: back on my previous ( ) {
299: Facilitator: {previous knowledge}
300: Student 10: ((continues)) ideas about that topic then I write in form of points ( ) then
301: I enlarge the point from point to point ( ) so it makes piece of writing that is one
302: ( ) two if the topic is vague {
303: Facilitator: {vague}
304: Student 10: ((continues)) I don’t know or there is no choice for that topic is just one
305: topic :::r two ( ) and they are vague all so for me ( ) I have to do research first to
306: go and look for ( ) if there is a reference then I go to library o::r anywhere to look
307: for that reference ( ) I pass over then I have not to write the same thing that I got
308: there ( ) I just to get some ideas from the topic there ( ) then with that I ( ) idea it
309: will help me to do what I would like to do ( ) or what is needed there ( ) because
310: there are what i::s in the book the way of it is different ( ) maybe the one who the
311: examiner ( ) who gave us this is after something but just got some certain ideas
312: there so:: that I have to add mine to it ( ) to make it a piece of writing
313: Facilitator: that is uh good ok ( ) have you been a teacher before
314: Student 10: yeah I have tried ((laughter from the group))
315: Facilitator: alright [I hope you understood all the
316: points he mentioned have understood all what he said]
317: Some students: شو جزء منه: [little part of it]
318: Facilitator: ((interpreted what student 1 said in Arabic)) [do you do
319: the same?] (do you always consider this when writing ( ) for example the
320: main purpose of your writing?] Do you always consider this when you are
321: Facilitator: let us go to question 3 ( ) when you are writing sometimes you bear in
322: mind some = some few things am I right? When you are writing when you want
323: to write about something you always keep in mind certain things some steps
324: some planning am I right? Do you all do that?
325: في الاعتبار بعض الامور هل تبسطها في الاعتبار وقت زول يجي كيف لکن الهدف الرئيسي للكتابة:
326: I mean before you start writing ( ) do you try to organise ( ) do you try to bear in
327: mind some things = do you always consider this when writing ( ) for example the
328: main purpose of your writing?] Do you always consider this when you are
329: writing?
330: Student 11: yes yes I do
331: Facilitator: yes ok no more? [no addition] ((laughter))
332: Student 12: لا طباعا الموضوع ما ممكن تكتب عن موضوع بدون ما تذكر فيه او لا طباعه طبعا 12:
333: بيكون فيه الهدف الرئيسي يتناع طبعا الهدف الرئيسي بتاعه تحتوي و تصفيه له حاجاتة و بعد داك تخت
334: في النهاية كلام بتاعك يعني كرايك الشخصي طبعا بيكون دائما بيكون في النهاية حتى بعد ه تصفيه لحليكي أراء
335: الاخرين طباعا لابد ان تفكر اولا انا كتب شنو يعني ما ممكن بدأنا تزل بدون ما يكون عندك
336: [NO ( ) of course you can not write about any topic without first thinking about it
337: ( ) of course the topic should have its main purpose and you put the main purpose
338: aside and add some other things to it ( ) and after that your analysis at the end as
part of your own personal view ( ) of course often it would be at the end and after
that you add others’ opinions ( ) of course you must first think of what you are
going to write about you can not start writing without having] without having a
purpose
Facilitator: alright any one to elaborate?
Student 13: [surely there should be a main purpose]
Facilitator: OK:: good
Student 10: yes I consider them
Facilitator: OK:: alright
Student 10: if I want to write there must be a reason or objective of writing ( ) that =
that piece of writing whether it is a letter friendly letter or official ( ) so: in
introduction if it is friendly then I introduce I greet the friend ( ) that I am writing
to ( ) then I enter into the body = within the body all the objectives will be there
all the purpose coming to the conclusion ( ) then you may bring something
which you mentioned in the introduction ( ) which is greeting then you conclude
this is in case of friendly letter ( ) if it is official ( ) then also you do like that
but the way of greeting of official letter is different from the one of friendly
letter ( ) got two addresses yours and the one of the department you are writing to
also if it is just a piece of writing ( ) the piece of writing ( ) composition just
as I have said ( ) you have to introduce what is it ( ) what is that topic ( ) then
two lines = three lines ( ) then you come to the theme of the or
objective of the topic ( ) then you write ( ) then you add some suggestions to the
objectives ( ) then from there that suggestion may can be the: ( ) the:: conclusion
(can be the conclusion
Facilitator: good = good OK:: ( ) do you always consider the audience? ( ) When
you are writing do you always consider the audience ( ) I mean the readers those
who read your work ( ) do you always bear them in your mind? ( ) OK:: let me
say when you are writing to different people ( ) do you always consider them in
your mind when you are writing?
Student 10: yes I consider them
Facilitator: you consider them?
Student 10: I put myself in a: as if I am one of them ( ) if I am one of those people
am I not to:: I have no talk ( ) or to say bad things to them
Facilitator: yes ok: respect their feelings
Student 10: respect their feelings ( ) so I have to address them in good manner
Facilitator: very good
Student 10: so that they have to accept my ideas ( ) or when they read they feel
pleased in the piece of writing that I have wrote
Facilitator: OK:: good [do you consider your readers when you write] (directing the question to the other students)
Student 13: [surely sure sure]
Facilitator: YEAH
Student 12: [of course if you don’t consider your readers you did nothing]
Facilitator: OK:: in the consideration you not what do if you consider the questions you not be doing works
in the consideration you not what do if you consider the questions you not be doing works
in the consideration you not what do if you consider the questions you not be doing works
in considering your readers what do you do? ( ) to make sure that you have bear
in mind the readers when writing ( ) how do you do that? ( ) what are the steps
that you do to ensure that you have considered your readers? ( ) your colleague
said for example he puts himself in place of the reader that is to say he try to act
as writer as well as reader at the same time do you have any other suggestions?
Student 12: therefore I void hurting him in any way feeling or dignity and illogical thing ( ) therefore I always think of the reader in a
one ( ) then you have to talk according = according to their words which are
when those audience they are = they are middle medium standard ( ) or the last
facilitator: very good very good = are writing to ( ) when they are in certain standard ( ) you talk according to their
common to them ( ) so that they understand ( ) otherwise when you talk with
have to imagine or you have to to make adjustment to those to whom you are you
= are writing to ( ) when they are in certain standard ( ) you talk according to their
standard ( ) you write according to their standard ( ) when they are this in the
middle ( ) they are on the top you write according to their standard ( )
facilitator: very good very good ((the teacher summarised some of the points
student made in Arabic) [is that clear this is
just in a summary do you agree with what he said?]
students: [yes
facilitator: alright OK: ( ) bearing in mind certain things [we are
still in the same question] making you = your ideas clear for the reader ( ) do you
always feels concern that you must make your ideas clear to the reader? ( ) Do you
always feels concern that you see when I read = when I write I must make sure
Facilitator: Yeah (to encourage him to go on)
( ) I put bracket then I make an explanation ( ) this means this word before = before

Student 13: yes

Facilitator: how = how do you feel concern about it ( ) you can speak in Arabic no

Student 13: [I don’t know I don’t know let someone
else start]

Facilitator: OK::  يعني هل بتطلع شديد جدا انتخلي النطق الآراء بتاعتك ان يكون واضحة بالنسبة:
لقاري بتعلع شنو عشان تخلي الآراء ده واضحه.

[do you feel very concerned to make your ideas clear to the reader? ( ) what do
you do in order to make your ideas clear] ((the teacher repeats the question in
Arabic to make it clear))

Student 11: uh I write a writing no false true or a general things uh and I can not go
to = I can to get to religion or something is not good for special persons ( )

Student 10: {if it is a new idea?}

Facilitator: { if it is a new idea?}

Student 10: ((continues)) if it is a new idea then I explain the meaning in a bracket
( ) I put bracket then I make a explanation ( ) this means this word before = before

Facilitator: Yeah (to encourage him to go on)

Student 10: ((continues)) so this how for me this how ( ) I can make it clear for the
one who uh reader

Facilitator: good point

Student 13:  تدبيهم الموضوع بطريقة مبسطه طبها ما الزول ما يميل للتعقيد يعني يكون واضح

write the topic in a simple way of course a person should avoid complication ( ) I
mean it should be clear

Facilitator: هل يتضمنا ب ب يعني ب ب بتدوا يعني مثل الحاجات يكون واضح الشخصية طبها

[do you always consider the the give for example the the you give ( ) I mean to
clarify things ( ) put aside the personal things which you may not allow others to
go through ( ) but general things ( ) do you give your writing to another person
to read it for you ( ) do you do that ( ) proofreading [do you do that]

( ) say read it for me and let me see if I made myself clear ( ) do you do that ( )
do you do that for example?

Student 13: yes

Student 10: basically this is there
Facilitator: exist?

Student 10: ده اصلوا موجود [this is basically there]

Facilitator: موجود [is there]
494: [this could be a general thing if you know that this is going to be read by different audience you should ( ) if you have some of the trusted friends in the field ( ) you can say friend ( ) could you read this ( ) and see if I have express myself clearly ( ) then he reads ( ) and may say ( ) this is good but if you do this and this it will be better ( ) then to another person ( ) then you gather this information which they said and add it to your own ( ) because this represent part of the opinion of those persons over there ( ) if you just stick to your opinions and ideas ( ) this could not be ( ) it would not be for others ( ) it would be personal things ( ) because in this way you impose your views on them ( ) they can read it patiently ( ) but if you want others to read it ( ) it should pass through many hands ( ) this will add this that will omit this and you take all the suggestions and improve it ( ) thus anyone 505: who reads it will say this is good enough]

506: Facilitator: very good ( ) in fact that is one way of making your ideas clear is that you give it to a second party or third party to read it ( ) so that if he or she has got some observations ( ) then he or she will tell you that it is unclear here you should make it this way ( ) this is a way of checking yourself ( ) whether your ideas really = you have express your ideas in a clear manner that can be understood by a third party or a second party ( ) OK:: OK:: we go [still in the question] ( ) Do you always support your argument with evidence? ( ) وقت تكتب أي كلمام خاصه وقت تكتب [When you write anything especially when you write ( ) do you always feel concerned that ( ) I must if I say something ( ) I must give a prove ( ) why I am saying this ( ) do you always do that?]

516: Student 11: repeat the question

517: Facilitator: OK:: say for example ( ) if you are writing something ( ) you are saying something against ( ) there is a certain opinion and then you are arguing against that opinion ( ) do you always support what you say with evidence ( ) you give some document you give some prove that you are saying this because of this this and I have this prove ( ) do you always do that in your writing?

522: Student 13: yes

523: Facilitator: translate the question in Arabic

524: Student 13: لازم الزول يدي أثبات عثمان الموضوع يكون أقوي [a person must present evidence to strengthen his topic]

526: Facilitator: uh عثمان الموضوع يكون أقوي [to strengthen the topic] ( ) good

527: Student 10: is not always

528: Facilitator: is not always?

529: Student 10: (continues) yes it is some times when they are required

530: Facilitator: when they are required?

531: Student 10: (continues) but if they are not required you can just give give uh the piece of writing they read it ( ) and then may ( ) they may just accept it like that ( ) but if they are required then you can give more evidence
Facilitator: [someone would like to add something]

Student 11: [it is not very important but if a person presented evidence that would be better]

Student 10: برضا في بعض الحالات مثلاً انت دادر تاكتب لجماعه كده حتى ولو شخصي يعني مثلاً

الشخصي ممكن ما محتاج لآليات لكن انت مثلاً حني و لو ما محتاج لآليات انت يعني ما طلب منك

لكن انت دادر تاكتب لجماعه كده لازم انت دادر تقولهم لو بعدو حاجة الفالابل لازم تدبرهم الآليات و لازم

آليات لو يعملوا كده يعملوا كده لو كده يكون كده بعدو كده لازم تثبت لهم و بعد دا عيان آليات تدعهم

مفهم لهم وحيله لو يقدر يستوعبو وا زول قول راه يقول كلام ده يحصي كلام ده ما مصح موضوعه

بعض يلقوا الصح ووين و و الغلب وين بكون حتى منافشوا مع

[also sometimes for example you want to write to a group of people] even if it is not personal for example personal you may not need to prove but if you are writing for other people even if they did not ask for evidence and you want to convince them of something you must give them evidence you must present evidence that this was done this way because of this and this as a result you must prove it to them in order to make your topic clear to them and they can understand it well then each can say his opinion whether this is wrong or right anːd they can discuss it among themselves and here you can have a clear picture of where you were right or wrong

Facilitator: و خاصاً انت الآن مقبلين على الدراسه يعني تقولوا انت في دراسة الطب والتمريض وكل

العمل وقت تكتب لأсанدا تباعك في الامامان تكتب كلام لازم تثبتوا بحجة كده انت دادر تقول كلام

بخلاف الكلام ده تقول الحجة بيقول كده وانا بدي كده كده الكلام ده نستخدموا كثير

[specially now you are approach your university studies] you will discover that in the field of Medicine Nursing and all sciences when you write to your teacher in exam you should support your statements with concrete evidence and if you want to express a counter opinion you say it has been said that this and this is this but I think this not true because of this and this do you use this a lot?

Students: yes

[also what I said before that it is not always]

Student 10: ده الآثاء قولت قبل ما دانمه [this is what I said before that it is not always]

Facilitator: [yes not always]

Student 10: لكن في مجالنا ممكن في مجالات أخرى ممكن ما دانمه لكن في المجال العلمي في الآثات

موجود لكن في مجالات أخرى ما دانمه لو طلب منك انت تثبت مثلما في مجالات القانونيه و لو قلوا في:

حاجه حصل كده قانونه في حاجه حصل كده كده ما انت تقوم تثبت أو تدي فقط بحاجة الآثات لكن لو طلب منك

ده في مجال ده لو ما طلب منك

[but in our field it is possible in other fields it is possible but not always but in scientific field evidence are there they exist but in other fields not always]

if you are asked to prove something such as in the legal field you have to prove it (but if it is not required) keep silence prove for us here to prove to give some evidence proving that this saying I said it because of this and this and that

Facilitator: OKː we are still in the same question do you always bear in mind do you always do many drafts before the final one and I think you mentioned something about it that you write the first draft you put it down you read it and then you go through it again you make some amendments and changes and then until you are satisfied with it and then hand it over to the teacher or do you always do that draft بالعربي معاده شو أنا ما عرف [I don’t know what draft means in Arabic]

Student 11: [first draft]

Facilitator: explain it in Arabic
Student 10: for me if I am not ( ) if I am not well prepared the topic I make copies ( )
594:   many drafts as I can ( ) because I am after the the a clean piece of writing ( ) but
595:   if I am well prepared the idea I am going to put down ( ) there is no need of drafts
596:   because I am well prepared ( ) for that is just put them down in the orderly form
597:   and then right form and every thing will be alright ( ) with the good hand writing
598:   I am well prepare for that ( ) but not only being just ask to write something like
599:   this ( ) then I am given paper and pen and then ( ) I may write and think ( ) also I
600:   make a plan in mind then I write some points down ( ) then I try to make a draft
601:   after making this ( ) I try to check which idea is suppose to be first and so one
602:   second ( ) try to re-arrange them ( ) and then and many draft will come out from
603:   that ( ) but if I am well prepare for that topic or I am reading for exam ( ) then I
604:   come to exam I just write and I don’t go through

605:   Facilitator: yeah because you don’t have time OK:: ( ) when you are doing
606:   correction in your drafts do you always concentrate on the structure ( ) the
607:   language the grammar ( ) or do you feel ( ) do you concentrate on content ( ) let
608:   me repeat it ( ) when you are making your drafts changing ideas ( ) do you always
609:   concentrate on the structure the grammar or you look at the content?! ((The
610:   facilitator repeats the question in Arabic))

Student 10: yes for me the content of the text must be ( ) I must care for the both the
611:   content and also the grammar ( ) the two has to go together ( ) BEcause sometime
612:   sometimes if I: the grammatical construction is not correct ( ) it may mean
613:   something else

614:   of course = of course first of all when you start writing ( ) of course you can not
615:   start by concentrating more on the grammar ( ) you concentrate first on the
616:   subject itself ( ) alright ( ) you concentrate on the subject itself and then after
617:   when you come and read it ( ) of course you will find mistakes grammatical and
618:   linguistic ( ) then you try to correct them]

619:   same thing that I have to say in hierarchy
620:   subject itself and then after
621:   when you come and read it ( ) of course you will find mistakes grammatical and
622:   linguistic ( ) then you try to correct them]

623:   Facilitator: Yeah

624:   of course first of all when you start writing ( ) of course you can not
625:   start by concentrating more on the grammar ( ) you concentrate first on the
626:   subject itself ( ) alright ( ) you concentrate on the subject itself and then after
627:   when you come and read it ( ) of course you will find mistakes grammatical and
628:   linguistic ( ) then you try to correct them]

629:   feel concerned with first ( ) and then the other is the second ( ) which one will
630:   you put first?

631:   I will put uh uh the meaning of the text

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632: Facilitator: content
633: Student 10: yes content yes
634: Facilitator: content itself
635: Student 10: yes then therefore I will look for the grammar
636: Facilitator: then grammar will come after
637: Student 10: yes the grammar after
638: Facilitator: [have you understood what he said]
639: Students: [yes]
640: Student 13: [we concentrate on the content most]
641: Facilitator: [do you do that?] ((Question to the whole group))
642: Student 13: [of curse we concentrate on the content]
643: more ( )
644: Facilitator: [continue continue]
645: Student 13: [have you understood what he said]
646: [because if we focus on grammar the ideas will scatter ( ) I mean a person should]
647: concentrate on one subject which is the original topic ( ) and then when he comes
648: to read it several times ( ) he will discover grammatical errors]
649: Facilitator: [of curse we concentrate on the content]
650: Student 13: [have you understood what he said]
651: [because there are people I remember some of my colleagues they]
652: concentrate a lot on grammar ( ) and sometimes you find a topic is well written in
653: a good language] grammatically correct
654: [but when you look at the content ( ) you find the content good but full of grammatical errors so people]
655: have difference preference]
656: Students 10: [but I prefer to have]
657: grammatical mistakes than content errors]
658: Student 13: [have you understood what he said]
659: [but we concentrate on the content]
660: Students 10: [and I add my own things uh ( )]
661: taking ( ) from others
662: [have you understood what he said]
663: Student 11: [I do ( )]
664: Facilitator: [Is that clear?]
665: Student 11: yes I do it
666: Facilitator: you do?
667: Student 11: yes ( ) and I add my own things uh ( )
Student 10: yes.

Student 10: I do because if I am just writing what others said ( ) or something like ( ) I see I am quoting them that is quotation ( )

Student 10: you are stealing?

Student 10: of course a problem ( )

Student 10: it is called plagiarism = plagiarism

Student 10: you are stealing ((there is laughter)) of others ( ) so you have to do with ( )

Student 10: your own words is better ( ) you add yours more than others ( ) if there is saying ( )

Student 10: by others you quote it ( ) and you say this word is not yours but you have yours ( )

First ( )

Facilitator: OK: [in our schools] we are just like parrots... (laughter)

Student 10: [do you know what it means? ( )]

Facilitator: some of our students are made to memorise things and repeat the same things ( )

Facilitator: when they write without adding their own views ( ) do you agree with this ( )

Facilitator: statement? ( ) Do you think that this is what is going on in our schools ( )

Facilitator: nowadays?

Student 13: yes.

Facilitator: in our schools we do the same thing ( ) you write down what you were given without ( )

Student 10: adding or omitting anything? ( )

Student 10: in our schools you are not required to add your opinion ( ) I mean you are only ( )

Student 10: required to write exactly the same issue as was given ( ) I mean if you are given a ( )

Student 10: topic you write it ( ) I mean if you are given a topic do not deviate from it ( ) you ( )

Student 10: must write within it [composition ( )]

Facilitator: alright... (it is said even the) composition by the way ( ) have ( )

Student 10: you been taught composition high school for you (pointing directing this to student 1)) I think you had been taught but guided

Student 10: yeahed

Facilitator: guided composition ( ) not free ( ) but do you have free composition in ( )

Facilitator: are you given composition in your schools? In English

Student 11: NO

Student 12: NO

Student 13: YES [in English yes]

Facilitator: free?

Student 13: YES [yes]

Facilitator: free composition ( )

Student 13: your write about any topic]
Student 13: [we write] free composition [in the exam of course they decide for you but when we come to] composition? [say in first year and second year were you given free]

Student 12: free [say I mean even in normal lesson they would give you limited things I mean ( this unless you write it on your own and give it to the teacher)]

Student 13: in the number of the subjects they do not give you topic but when we come to issues which they give you ( for example do you instruct you to write about an issue without providing you with points to follow or you give you points and ask you to strictly follow the sequence)

Student 13: [say in normal teaching they would just give you the topic and then you go and write about it they would not provide you with points but in exam they provide points to help you]

Student 12: [of course school are not all the same]

Facilitator: [say yes they are not all the same]

Student 12: the school is different in the school we learned I don't think they give something like that to write about even if you are given they would be provided with points to follow I mean they would give it as a general topic supported with points I mean it would not be necessary to deviate again the problem in fact is that there are no many activities in English]

Facilitator: [in Arabic were given a lot of composition lessons composition (saying the last word composition in Arabic)]

Student 12: [say we do have in Arabic you can be given a topic and they would tell you they would give the title and after that you go and write about it]

Facilitator: [in Arabic we do have ( in Arabic you can be given a topic and they would tell you ( they would give the title and after that you go and write about it)]

Student 12: [say we have on a regular basis I mean for example in first year did you have a composition lesson every week even in Arabic you had this]

Student 12: [say we have on a regular basis I mean for example in first year did you have a composition lesson every week even in Arabic you had this]

Facilitator: [in fact it could be week after week because it is connected with other issues I mean I mean the composition lesson could be combined with Style and Usage (a branch of language which teaches students to write and speak eloquently)] I mean you must have the Style and Usage of course if you are given the Style
778: and Usage () one lesson would not be enough () I mean they must complete the
779: syllabus ok () on the other hand they want to give you extra topics to write
780: about)
781: Facilitator: OK:: خليل: Aa أب c أب ك: "I think if we wrote many it would be
782: and Usage ( ) one lesson would not be enough ( ) I mean they must complete the
783: كتب زي 20 موضوع في السنة أو خمسة أقول
784: [OK:: let me take this issue again () if you have something to add please do so ()
785: in first and second year () did you have composition notebook where you wrote
786: on a regular basis all the topics that you were given? () let me say () you wrote
787: like 20 topics per year or five?
788: Student 12: [I think if we wrote many it would be
789: approximately five topics in the whole year]
790: Facilitator: في السنة كامل [in the whole year?]
791: Student 12: [yes in the year]
792: Facilitator: في فصل واحد [in one class]
793: Student 12: [in one class]
794: Facilitator: سنة أولى و سنة ثانية [in first and second year]
795: Student 12: [in first and second year]
796: Facilitator: بالعربي [in Arabic?]
797: Student 12: [yes in Arabic]
798: Facilitator: بالإنجليزى برصو [also in English]
799: Student 12: [NO NO in English we had but not
800: often and not important]
801: Student 13: في السنة كلها بالعربي يعني يكون زي 8 9 كده بالعربي السنة كلها انجلزي ده 5 سنة كامله:
802: يس كراس فيه 4 انشاء:
803: [for a whole year in Arabic () I mean there could be like eight or nine like that ()
804: in Arabic for a whole year () in English it could be four or five for a complete
805: year () a notebook with only four compositions ()((Laughter))
806: Student 11: اننا إضافه حقي للمدارس اللي أنا قربت فيه طبعا أنا قربت في الجزيره في شيخ لطيق فا أصلا:
807: الهدف الأساسي كان الوحيد ما كان التعليم أصلا بل درجات أنك كيف تكسب درجه عبان تمسي قدام و ليس
808: كيف تتعلم فذاك يازم داه أنا واحد من الناس البكره انجلزي
809: Student 10: my addition for the schools where I studied ( ) of course I studied in Algageera
810: in Shiekh Lutfi Secondary School so () the main aim was not to learn but
811: basically to obtain marks ( ) how to get marks in order to progress ( ) and not
812: how to learn ( ) therefore in those days I was among those who hated English] we
813: have a teacher is very lazy (laughter) he say if you don’t want my lesson go out
814: ((laughter)) the hostel is very near the school ( ) you go to sleep
815: رد السبب الوحيد اللي ( )
816: بخيلما ما نهتم ( ) this is the only reason why we neglected] English language grammar
817: و لا أني حاجة ما تهتم بيه و الا أنا الدوك
818: اني anything we don’t care () unless given something] grammar composition
819: حاجه
820: عمليه ده الإسبايب الوحيد فذاك اني لزم تكون مفيد بالنقاط اعمل كده كان طلعت منه يعني الاستاذ ما
821: حديدك درجات لو طلعت منه [where you are compel just to pass ( ) because for a lot of
822: reasons you need to progress ( ) or to protect your position or to convince
823: yourself that you did something () these are the reasons ( ) therefore you must
824: be obliged to follow the points ( ) do this do this if you deviated ( ) I mean the
825: teacher will not give you marks if you digressed ( ) you will fail (laughter) hateful و لو
826: لله دايرتو ما يعني انك تشغيل بالمنهج نفسه الصيغة و انت غيرت الصيغة الآدوك ما حا ينافع ممك لازم
827: بتاعه بفكه بذاعه.
Facilitator: GOOD good ( ) do you want to add something go on

student 10: anyway what i know is that ( ) mostly in the curriculum of the Sudan
they change the whole syllabus ( ) is got a lot of problems ( ) the way the way
how they construct things ( ) it let to what are now after = we are now in
problems which ( ) we are now in ( ) and they change all things last time the those
topic or the this poems

Facilitator: poems?

student 10: and literature

I mean they have to complete certain topics within
[there is a rule that teachers are obliged to follow ( ) that is within this period you
cover a particular area ( ) i mean they have to complete certain topics within
a particular period ( ) here teachers find themselves under pressure that is they
may have only one or two periods per week ( ) because of the pressure ( )
must complete the syllabus on a particular time ( ) here they can not digressed and
bring extra topics for the benefit of students ( ) their focus would be on how to
finish their syllabus]

Student 10: [may be three or four times]

Sudan School Certificates ( ) then they would remove some words from within

the composition

[and they will list these words on the top ( ) and then they would instruct you]

complete = complete the composition below ( ) fill in the blank with the words in

red pen in a suitable place

[you remind me of a point = you remind of a point] which was mentioned by some of your colleagues

[that even in the schools ( ) teachers write] composition and then ( ) they

would give them just ready written to students to memorise [I mean
even] the composition [is given ready written] then to go in exam

and they

will tell students to just memorise them ( ) and you see students going to English

exam with six or seven cram essays ( ) (laughter)

14: Student 13: [even in Sudan School Examination]

15: Facilitator: [Sudan School Examination?]

Student 13: [Sudan School Examination itself those who do not know English ( ) will always
be given an introduction to memorise as it is without knowing even what it
means ( ) just to memorise the introduction and the conclusion ( ) they will tell
you ( ) write the introduction and the passage which you were made to memorised
paste it in the middle ( ) you will be given a conclusion ready written and you
write it at the end]
Student 11: [the body part you can]
Facilitator: yes
Student 11: [just write whatever]
Facilitator: OK:: Ok let us go to question = question four ( ) what do you do when
faced with a view point or argument which you don’t agree with ( ) do you look
for evidence first before you make your point or ( ) do you let yourself to be let
by your own conscience and believe [I mean] if somebody presented a point
of view =a point of view ( ) would you first go and look for evidence in order to
refute that point of view or ( ) you just talk ( ) let yourself to be let by your
commom sense and your beliefs
Student 2: translate it
Facilitator: (repeats the question in Arabic)
Student 11: طيب يعني أولاً أنا في كنفسي الشخصي أنا بحاجة باستعمال له كامل هو: قصدت شنو
[Ok first personally I will try to listen to him ( ) and what he means]
meaning immediately because if
[what he means I can not react]
انا رديت له بفعل مباشر ممكن يحصل خلاف أو غضب أنا ممكن اكون
معه في حاجة لذاك أنا نفسي مهله عesan أنا أقدر النقاش وأوريه الكلام الحقيق أو غضب عسان أنا ممكن
أناك لو أحا فاقحة لأبو إذا أنا ما اقتحت أنا بعه ما أخليت ما أخليت أنا يه تحق ما أخليت يخليت بعون في نفس ال
[because if I did so we may quarrel or get annoyed ( ) I may get angry (]
because I don’t agree with him in this issue ( ) therefore I will give myself time to
listen to him ( ) I will tell the truth and convince him ( ) I should make sure to
convince him ( ) if I haven’t convince him and I came back to him again he will
not listen to me]
Facilitator: [even while try to convince
him would you try to look for evidence?]
Student 11: yes
[I will try to look for evidence to prove that I am right and to convince him at the
same time]
Facilitator: طباعاً إلا إذا كان بيكون ما عندك خليه إذا ما عندك خليه عن الكلام الهم يتكلم فيه يتكلم فيه في 12:
حاله ده ممكن تالل النقاش ليوم تالل النقاش لوقت تاني عسان تمشي تشوف البراهين هه تمشي تشوف
ده ه هحصيت احم خطأ و البالع بيلون حاجه خلا ده ما إذا ده حاجه خليه:
الموضوع الهم يتكلم عندها ممكن يتناقل و ممكن تتحب براهين ما طبعاً بيكون عندك براهين و كلام
الموضوع الهم يتكلم فيه إذا كان معاه توربه براهين و ادلهنا معاكس باليه عندلنا في
الفلاليه لأن في مجل الفلاني ده وكان كده الفلاليه بسبب
[of course if you don’t have any background ( ) if you don’t have background
about the issue he is talking about ( ) in this case you can postpone the discussion
for a day = you postpone it for another time ( ) so that you can go and look for
evidence ( ) you go and see whether he is right or wrong ( ) and what makes him
wrong or write ( ) but if you have background about the issue ( ) normally you
can discuss it with him ( ) and you can bring evidence because of course you
should have evidence and prove on the issue ( ) if you oppose him then ( ) you can
tell him the evidence and prove why you oppose him ( ) I oppose you on this and
this because of this and this and in this place there is this and this]
Student 10: [I agree with him]
Facilitator: OK:: good
Student 10: [I agree with him ( ) but I would like to add a little bit if it is of course a topic
that you don’t have background]
974: Facilitator: [your voice]
975: Student 10: you have no background on that topic ( ) or that saying you can just uh
976: you can accept = you can accept in other way round ( ) but you will say I am not
977: quite sure I will look for that later on ( ) but if you have uh {
978: Facilitator: {good background}
979: Student 10: background about that case then ( )
980: تقوم تطاعل الآله بتاعك الادلة تطاعك له هو الطبع بالوضع يبيك عندله ادلة اكثر ملك فحص تنسيع بالله
981: تطاعع اول تقول له باخي
982: [you show him your evidence ( ) your evidence ( ) because he is the one who
983: initiated the topic ( ) he must have more evidence than you ( ) it would be better
984: to support yourself with his evidence first ( ) you tell him brother] what is the
985: evidence of saying that ( ) meanwhile you know the more you know some ( ) you
986: want to add the other evidence and then from there
987: انت تقارن بين الموجود معه لانو عندك خليفه
988: بتاعع:
989: الموجود معه انت تقوم تقول له انت قلت الكلام ده بابي اسباب ممكن تدينا براغين أو سبب هو لم يديك
990: يتفق انت تقارن في انتبه هو قاعد يقول الكلام ده انت بتكون قاعد تقارن الفكر السباب تطاعع مع الفكر
991: حقك حقك انت قاعد تقارن من هو بتجتى طولى انت عرفت موقفه بتاعع من حقك ممكن تستسلم بعد ده كل
992: يبني حقك اكبر من حقه انت فارقه في راسك تقول له لا لا لا دا ما فاكيا للابسابة
993: كد كذ كذ تعلم حقك بعد داك
994: [you then compare between the evidence he has and yours ( ) because you have
995: background on the topic ( ) you then tell him that you said this was your
996: evidence and prove for it ( ) while he is talking you can compare the evidence he
997: is producing and the one you have ( ) and when he finished immediately you
998: produce yours ( ) and if his evidence are stronger than yours then you can
999: surrender ( ) but if yours is stronger then while you are comparing you can tell
1000: him no no no ( ) this is not so or so ( ) because of this and this and this]
1001: Facilitator: Ok:: let us go to the next question ( ) how do you maintain your focus
1002: when writing ( ) when you are writing ( ) how do you maintain your focus ( )
1003: OK:: if you are writing ( ) you are always guided by the topic am I correct? Guided
1004: by the topic then ( ) and you produce the first paragraph according to what ( ) it
1005: must be related to what ( ) to the topic and then the second the third paragraph
1006: until the end ( ) so there must be a flow of ideas from first up to what? ( ) Up to
1007: the end ( ) all these ideas must be connected and you should not deviate from
1008: what? ( ) From the topic ( ) so how do you keep when you are writing ( ) how do
1009: you keep the focus ( ) how do you keep yourself within the topic and not to
1010: diverge out of the topic ( ) not to digress from the topic ( ) how do you keep that
1011: focus when you are writing?
1012: Student 13: [could you say it in Arabic]
1013: Facilitator: (repeats the question in Arabic)
1014: Student 13: انت من البداية بخته في نقاط صح؟ النقاط ذاتها بترتبها على حسب الموضوع بعدما ترتيب النقط
1015: بتجي بتكلم عن كل نقطة براه كده الموضوع يكون أترتب
1016: [at the beginning you put it in points right? ( ) you arrange the points themselves
1017: in order ( ) when you finished putting the points in order you then come and talk
1018: about each point separately ( ) in this way your topic would arranged and
1019: connected]
1020: انا يوجدنا في الترتيب انا يقولوا في الترتيب لانو اليوم اذا انا داير اكتب عن موضوع ملا
1021: البطاقه الشخصية انا لازم اكتب الاسم و مكان الميلاد و السكن و كده عشان انا اقد أجي اكتب الاسم فان
1022: الفلاني سكن هنا الفلاني و تاريخ الميلاد كده عشان انا ما أطلع
1023: خارج الموضوع عشان كده انا و يوافقنا

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I agree with him on the arrangement = I agree with him on the arrangement.

because today if you want to write about a topic for example identity card I must write the name and place of birth and residence and like that so that I can come later and fill up the name Mr X date of birth like that to avoid deviating from the topic that is why I agree with him.

Student 10:

Facilitator: OK: (to keep the focus on some of your colleagues said sometimes) they keep on asking themselves if I is in form of questioning is this related to this and how (then if he felt satisfied that it is really related to this then he will keep on writing so this idea of keeping on asking questions about how these ideas relate to the first or to the next) you do like that?

Student 13: [they put it in mean in form of questions?]

Facilitator: (repeats the question in Arabic)

Student 10: (answer)

[basically it is there (the issue of questions) is there but sometimes how it is done I mean if you for example a point to point of the points in the topic (you can) I use to do mine like for example to this point to connect it with the topic I discuss it first in detail all the things that it should contain and the things that relate to it I will put them then I add my own and then expand it while connecting it with the others and in this way move from one point to another and I connect these points with] conjunctions

[there is relation between them all I ask myself what is the relation between this and this in this way I look at the internal relation between issues as well as external relation (and I will continue in that way till the end]

Facilitator: you think there is any relationship between reading and writing skills do you think there is any relationship any link any relation between reading and writing?

Student 10: [there is relation]

Student 13: reading leads you to the writing itself.

Student 12: [of course they may have relation]

Facilitator: YEAH

Student 12: [there is relationship]
they have relation ( ) because if the topic was not basically written ( ) you wouldn’t read it ( ) you can’t read a blank page ( ) therefore it must be written on in order to read it ( ) of course also it is a means for people who are far away from you ( ) I mean you cannot communicate with them except through writing ( ) you must write and then they read your writing ( ) that is why I think there is relation between them]

ناء حا جنبيه كيف اذا اذا ما يقدر بقراء لذلك حا يكون في مشكلة لازم اذا حا قدر أعرف انو الكلمه ده أقرأ كيف لذلك أثناء القرأ حا أقدر اكتب انو الحرف الأول بيجي هنا و الثاني بيجي هذا و الثاني و الثاني و الثالث: [how can I bring it ( ) I cannot read it ( ) therefore ( ) there would be a problem ( ) I must know that this word reads like this and then I can write it ( ) and know that the first letter is here follow by second letter here and the third letter there]

[Student 10: YAH] [I can say] yes there is no different but there is different

Facilitator: there is relation? Student 10: the relation is there ( ) relation is what my colleagues have said ( ) but writing ( ) today if I don’t know to read something ( ) how can I spelt it ( ) how can I spelt it

Facilitator: Ok:: let me take you further ( ) there is a say that the relation ( ) one of the relationship between reading and writing is that both of them ( ) they concentrate on meaning creation ( ) that is meaning construction ( ) I don’t know whether you agree with that ((the teacher repeats this points in Arabic))

Student 10: yes I agree ( ) yes this is what I said ( ) but I said it in another way round

Facilitator: OK:: there is a say that is:: in both reading and writing ( ) background information is very important ( ) do you agree with that?

Student 10: NO I don’t

Facilitator: they said when you are reading or writing you need to have some background information

Student 10: yes there is in part of reading ( ) there is a background information very related ( ) but in writing it needs a lot of efforts

Facilitator: what about background information?

Student 10: a lot of effort of background information

Facilitator: which means that both of them use {both of them use background information because you ever = never ( ) you have not ever seen a word before ( ) for sure you cannot pronounce it well ( ) you may pronounce it wrong ( ) but if you have seen it before and you read it for sure you will read it
1122: Facilitator: what about strategies?

1123: Student 10: what?

1124: Facilitator: strategies () the strategies that you use in reading and writing () do you

1125: think that strategies are similar? ((Teacher repeats the question in Arabic))

1126: Student 10: [they are closed]

1127: Facilitator: [Yes]

1128: Student 10: [they are closed] when you are reading () you read () when

1129: you read you will look side by side looking () then you look at those uh uh semi

1130: colon punctuation I mean

1131: Facilitator: punctuation yes

1132: Student 10: you look at punctuation if there is full stop () then you stop for a while

1133: and then you go on by what () when there is a comma then you breathe

1134: Facilitator: yes

1135: Student 10: you give a breathe then you go on reading () so far writing also when

1136: you write you write then you have a look side by side looking that () so that you

1137: have to design your piece of writing in paragraph form () looking and making

1138: comma full stop semi colon and all these you do that during writing () so

1139: there is relationship there is a common factor between the two

1140: Facilitator: Good () Ok:: let us move to question seven () this is the question

1141: before the last () how do you judge whether or not any information you have

1142: collected from a reading passage is accurate or in accurate () I mean () if you

1143: read a text or a passage () how do you judge that this one is correct () any

1144: information contained in that passage is correct or incorrect () how do you judge?

1145: ((The facilitator repeats the question in Arabic))

1146: Student 11: [information or the structure of the writing?]

1147: Facilitator: معلومات و لا صيغة الكتابة: [information or the structure of the writing?]

1148: الجامعه حا تمشوا تلخيصوا من الكتاب صح بدك محاضره و بعده نمشوا فكيف انت بتحتار انو المعلومات ده اهم

1149: و المعلومات ده بسيطه

1150: [information and information in the book () I mean how I mean () now you be

1151: given () later in the university you will go and take notes from books true? You

1152: will be given lectures and will be required to collect information from different

1153: sources how would] judge

1154: وينعتت بكوان انو دين ده دللمعه دممكن اشله ده دللمعه اخليه

1155: [that this is important this is not on what ground would you based your judgment]

1156: انا بالنظره لي يتوفر على المجتمع اللي انا قاعد فيه اذا اللمعه دا يواكب المجتمع حقي انا حا 11

1157: اقدر اشله عشان اوصله للناس و الناس يستفده منه و اذا كان حاجه ما ماعن ما حا اقدر اشله

1158: [for me it depends on the community () in which I am living () if the

1159: information is in line with what the community expects () I can take to pass it to

1160: the people and the people benefit from it () and if it is not good I will not take it]

1161: Facilitator: وقت يكون عنده علاقه بالدراستك مثلا في ماده ميتا ما مثل كوركس يتغير تحكم كيف

1162: ده معلومات سليمه و انو المعلومات ده ما ميم

1163: [when it has link with your study for example in a certain subject say for example

1164: anatomy OK () how will you judge that this information is relevant and this one

1165: is not] 11

1166: Student 11: Fعالا انا حاجه بدوني ليه مهم لانه هو يعني يقوني للنجاح بقوني لتعلم اذا كان انو شاكي

1167: في حاجه مات صحيح انا بمشي للوسائل اخرى مثلا منصب حا يقدر يساعدني في حاجات ده و

1168: المراجع [basically anything I am given is important and will lead me to progress

1169: ( ) if I am in doubt of something for example that it is not true ( ) I will check the

1170: other sources such as internet it can help me ( ) and the references]
Facilitator: or place in your notebook that you will write or think about the content relevant to the point then I will look at the content relevant to the point and collect the major one leaving the minor ones.

Student 10: I will read the passage or the essay then I will see content that is included in the passage, and I will immediately jot them down. I will collect the major one leaving the minor ones. I will divide the passage or the essay after I will start sorting them out. I have to divide.

Facilitator: classify

Student 10: or I have to see content relevant to the point then I look at the content relevant to the point.

Facilitator: [any addition?]

Student 10: for me whatever the teacher gives me I will go and just write the same things.

Facilitator: the teacher gives you sometimes in lecture he just talk and at the end he will ask you to go to the library.

Student 10: [that is what he says is the most important]

Facilitator: the teacher gives you sometimes in lecture he just talk and at the end he will ask you to go to the library.

Student 10: [that is what he says is the most important]

Facilitator: [yes what he says is important or you would be given] handout.[are you waiting for handouts?] [Laughter]

Student 10: you can decide what is the most important even in school even in school you may be give a piece of history and you would be asked to summarise it because if you do so you will fill up your notebooks with only few pages of the essay and you will not benefit you will instead need many notebooks therefore you read the topic take the important points and leave the trivial ones

Facilitator: OK move to the last question have you ever experienced a moment where you found yourself disagreeing with the account of an author? I mean have you ever encountered have you ever met a situation have you ever been in a situation sorry in a situation when you are reading a certain text and then you found yourself that you really don’t agree with what the writer
mentioned ( ) have you ever found yourself in that situation?
Student 11: it is not clear

Facilitator: have you ever found yourself ( ) say for example you are reading an
article ( ) and then you discover that all the points that the writer mentioned and
the way he explained these points ( ) you don’t agree with ( ) have you ever
found yourself in that position?
Student 10: yes I have found ( )

Facilitator: have you understood the question? (‘The teacher repeats the question in
Arabic)

Student 10: fiction stories that
sometimes I don’t agree with them ( ) when I read it ( ) I read it and ( ) I
get angry with them ( ) I say ( ) what is this? ( ) something of that kind
Facilitator: OK [in scientific information]

Student 10: [NO NO scientific information = the scientific information is complex ( )
sometimes ( ) but not to that extend ( ) because they contain evidence ( ) I like
scientific things ( ) because they are proven they give you evidence ( ) you read
them like this and you feel comfortable ( ) but if you cannot understand
something this is where it can be complex ( ) but as the time passes by you revise
and concentrate on topics ( ) you concentrate on the information ( ) automatically
you understand it quickly]

Facilitator: any one to add something?
Student 12: [of course when you are oblige you are oblige ( ) that the topic is very important
for you if ( ) you see that this issue is not correct ( ) you can go and make a
search ( ) you go and search for issues that makes it wrong to prove and show
them ( ) because the topic is not written for you alone that you must reply with
the reverse ( ) so that your reader knows where the mistake lays ( ) so that the
reader can compare and know where the mistake is ( ) because the issue is a
scientific one ( ) of course it might have been proved and there must be evidence
( ) so you must not also believe that since I was given this topic then I have to
trust it ( ) if you are able to search and investigate it you should do ( ) so that you
are convince of its trustworthiness]
Facilitator: in any case you mention the notes for the next question as you formulate a
question a point you forget to mention before ( ) do you
have anything to say about all the issues that we discussed ( ) (laughter) you got
tired ( ) OK:: if you don’t have any question ( ) thank you very much for the
1267: wealth of information that you have given me ( ) and I thank you for your patient
1268: and tolerant ( ) thank you very much and I wish you a good and nice day
Appendix 11 D: Transcript of the First Group Post Focus Group Interviews

1: Facilitator: thank you very much for your coming and we are now coming to the end of our study ( ) so I would like to conduct this focus group and as I said before ( ) feel free to answer or express yourself freely ( ) because all the information that I am collecting about you here ( ) will never be disclosed to what? ( ) to any third party ( ) and I need this information because it will help me specially ( ) when I start interpreting my result ( ) so I can help myself with the outcome of this one ( ) so the focus group is a repetition of what we did before ( ) so it is just testing to how far as a result of intervention ( ) you have improve your understanding and then ( ) I will see your reaction and evaluation because you are part of this process and then ( ) your comments and reaction whether positive or negative is of great help ( ) to assist me in revising and updating these strategies ( ) so now I think within this period ( ) can you really define what is critical thinking ( ) what do you understand by critical thinking? Student 16: I understand by critical thinking it means analyse something ( )

Facilitator: to analyse something?

Student 1: uh share something with group ( ) and evaluation of your study ( ) and give something is new = not very new ( ) after analysis and evaluation ( ) give something new

Facilitator: after you analyse ( ) and then evaluation ( ) and you apply reasoning { } and study give something ( )

Student 16: study give something ( )

Facilitator: you add something to what is there?

Student 16: yes

Facilitator: now ( ) do you think that when you study or writing ( ) you will be able to analyse ( ) and apply all the things we did in your assignments?

Student 17: yes but not all at the same time ( ) some need to be done at a certain time ( ) when the topic is given requires some parts of what we have done to be used ( ) and another should not be used depending what is required ( ) then you narrow down things you may not apply all ( ) you may think some part and apply it next
Facilitator: {your voice please}

Student 16: (continues) I think uh yes I can add these skills we learn in this study in secondary School or high school we cannot learn that so I think it is very new something but in in uh when write or read text that is uh it depended what you know what your background what evidence what your reasons all sort so it is very different we cannot learn that this type of the read or write text in our secondary School or high school we cannot learn that so I think it is very new to us.

Student 17: yes for me uh actually there were this type of this thing were there but there were not in the way that we you pronounce it to us clear uh that there...
critical thinking or ( ) there is this the logical analysis ( ) but they were given in
such a way that for instance ( ) you have to express yourself including write
about the facts and all these ( ) but they were not given the title in such a way we
are doing ( ) we are doing it in other ways ( ) in some exercise you are given some
lines to write a composition ( ) some composition deserve description ( ) some
deserve uh some of the one the future uh and all this ( ) but we are not given the
title like what is now it is given ( ) but in a narrow manner = in shallow manner ( )
but now it is wide and clear ( ) I am sure it will help us a lot
Student 18: they give you some some uh some steps ( ) and you follow it to write ( )
and they not give you uh your freedom to write how ( ) what you want to write it
and there is not uh you must not write evidence or date something like that ( )
you mustn’t write it at uh ( ) composition in English writing
Facilitator: alright ( ) yeah
Student 16: uh you know the the Sudanese is not active way to convince another
side ( ) because that I think ( ) how we that is way uh we have learn it is uh very
good to convince another side
Facilitator: so which means ( ) we can say though critical thinking is there ( ) it is
not been clearly spelt the way we do uh we did it in our study
Students: Yeah
Facilitator: and do your teachers always ask you to be analytical when you write
your assignment? ( ) when you were in High Schools ( ) to analyse ( ) to look
very carefully all these points ( ) do they do so?
Students: NO::
Facilitator: OK:: let us move to the text question ( ) now what is your attitude
towards writing? ( ) Now all this time uh we did some writing OK? ( ) now what
is your attitude? ( ) is it still the same attitude you had before ( ) or you feel that
there is a change as a result of what we did in this study? ( ) and I mean here your
personal attitude because there is differences
Student 17: for uh uh the feeling of this write these skills ( ) it differs from the one
of before ( ) last time we were given tasks maybe guided composition ( ) and here
we have = we have learned a lot some critical thinking to write logical and ( )
then for I creative writing ( ) and then narrative and descriptive all these types ( )
meanwhile when we were in in uh Basic particularly in Secondary uh we were
busy uh the narrative and descriptive piece of writing ( ) but the argumentative
and creative writing we got it here in a wider way ( ) it is actually ( ) I enjoyed it
it is the best and I have still having a problems ( ) but I the time of this course
is very short ( ) if it was to be extended I hope somebody will = will be ( ) will
learn a lot ( ) but the period of course is very short cannot do the all these things
in this time ( ) so: that I have seen good by the way very nice
Student 16: uh I think this this type of learning ( ) and what is addition to me in this
parts ( ) of the lesson is organising thinking and critical thinking ( ) planning
what you write and what you read = what you write what you read so:: that is a
big addition to me ( ) uh it is very good and a big addition to:: I think that
Student 19: I think uh my another lesson in the last = in the last one ( ) I don’t
understand anything about the writing ( ) because every teacher said follow this
step to write composition ( ) but in this course or this lessons I think I addition
this skills from ( ) now I am very ( ) not very good for excellent ( ) but good
minded to write ( ) or to read
Facilitator: so now based on what you have learn now ( ) so: do you think that pre-
writing activity is important in approaching writing task? ( ) I mean by pre-
writing planning ( ) listing ideas ( ) arranging and the jotting down the main ideas
( ) do you think these are now important? ( ) based on your understanding
Student 17: of course = of course they are important ( ) because without these things
you may not organise your writing uh writing will not come in organise form ( )
because pre-writing is good uh because when you put the point down ( ) then uh
in form of plan then after that you pick which one come first ( ) when you write
about each point you look ( ) then you re-arrange which one will make them
coherence ( ) link them together ( ) will be good ( ) but if you just write without
making pre-writing or making plan ( ) it will be just a piece of writing in
disorganise manner ( ) and disorganise actually ( ) it is got a good grammatical
and all these sentence construction good ( ) but the idea will be gumbling
jumbling from one point to another point ( ) but if you make pre-writing you will
see that this this point uh uh you may ( ) when you come to make a draft after
making a plan ( ) when you come to make the first draft ( ) you will = you will
see that which one point from this plan I have to bring it first ( ) and then which
next come and next so ( ) then you make it in the coherent piece of writing ( )
otherwise if you take them without making plan ( ) you will get that you are just
writing incoherent piece of writing ( ) so that I have ( ) it is very important
( ) pre-writing is very important ( ) in writing any assignment
Student 16: uh actually uh actually this step very important ( ) organisation and any
part ( ) any text included these steps ( ) viewpoint and reasons ( ) it is just mere
talk think at it as just mere talk ( ) we cannot convince another side ( ) we cannot
explain yourself that is ( ) what I want to say that is this point is very is very
important ( ) organisation and these steps
Student 18: I think it is important ( ) because it is teach to write arrange your topic
and it is easy ( ) it is easy for a person who read your writing to understand what
you want to say ( ) if you don’t want to write in this way the person who read
your topic ( ) it may not understand what you want to say and not read your
writing
Facilitator: good ( ) OK:: now ( ) as a result of what you have learned from this
course ( ) will you bear this in mind when you are writing ( ) will you try to keep
this in mind when you are writing ( ) I mean the main purpose of your writing ( ) I
mean here that ( ) will you bear in mind the following when you write ( ) as a
result of what we did during this course ( ) will you keep this in mind when you
are writing ( ) that you must have a purpose for your writing?
Student 16: YES YES
Facilitator: and why do you think it is important?
Student 16: it is important to organise to ( ) I say that to convince the other side
organise ( ) don’t jump from the point to another without convince ( ) and make
all the additions in this part uh that is organise ( ) planning is good for your
reading and your writing and your talk ( ) so I think it is very important
Facilitator: so when you have your purpose ( ) it will help you in your organisation?
Student 16: yeah it will help me
Student 17: yes uh yes if I have my purpose in writing ( ) it will help me to convey a
message ( ) to the audience or to whom I am addressing ( ) the addressee ( ) it
may help me to convey the message in a good way and even the reader or the uh
the reader of that passage maybe ( ) attentive and attractive to the piece of writing
otherwise when he looks at it like this if I don’t apply all these ideas he says
what is this? He just throw it way ( ) it may not be attractive ( ) but if I put this
organise form of writing ( ) it may let him say what ( ) he has mentioned some
points what is the writer wants to say ( ) may try to follow until he finish with
piece of writing ( ) but if I put it in a way which is not organised ( ) for sure it will
not attract him and the message will not be in a good manner ( ) and may not be
interested to do for a reader to read
Facilitator: OK:: and then the second point audience ( ) do you think it is important
to bear in mind or to keep in mind audience? ( ) those who will read your work
Student 17: what?
Facilitator: do you think ( ) it is important that when you are writing ( ) you have to
also put in your mind your readers?
Student 16: yes
Student 17: yes yes is important ( ) if because = if some of things are not clear =
bracket or semi colon to explain some of things to the reader ( ) otherwise if I put
it in a very tough language uh terminology ( ) he may not understand it uh may
be good only for those who have uh the vocabularies uh uh may be interested to
them ( ) those who are of low standard may not ( ) but if I try to explain some of
the words in bracket ( ) simplify some of the words in bracket it may be clear to
them ( ) and then that is why I have to bear in mind the audience while writing ( )
when I write something ( ) I have to think that the one whom I am writing to uh
uh he should have to understand by all means ( ) by simplifying myself to the
extent that it is clear
Facilitator: I think anyone who don’t want uh criticise by a reader ( ) he puts what’s
the reader in in uh uh what the main ( ) what the point of the reader ( ) what the
main point of the reader in his mind ( ) so that it make your text uh is well
organise ( ) well planned ( ) so I think you don’t make = you don’t uh don’t faces
criticise by the reader ( ) you will improve your text and your paragraphs
Facilitator: a way of avoiding your reader to criticise you?
Student 16: yes
Facilitator: so you will do something ( ) so that they understand it well?
Student 16: yes
Facilitator: GOOD ( ) good ( ) then supporting your argument with evidence ( )
supporting your argument with evidence is it important?
Student 17: it is important yes while when you are writing creative and
argumentative uh piece of writing ( ) creative and argumentative piece of writing
supporting with evidence must be there uh for the description this narrative ( ) is
just merely telling the stories ( ) just saying has happen in the past ( ) so there is
no need for some evidence may be that evidence it can be there already for that
reason ( ) then you just put down there like that but the one which needs
argumentative and persuasive writing ( ) this uh uh an evidence must be there ( )
to attract the one who you are persuading to accept your ideas
Facilitator: now as a result of this study can you distinguish between argumentative
narrative and descriptive writing? Can you differentiate between them?
Student 16: yes I can distinguish
Facilitator: yeah
Student 16: yes I can distinguish uh before this course uh before this course we
ignore that’s point ( ) that point we ignore evidence ( ) but after the course we
have seen its importance ((there was interruption a worker just came in looking
Facilitator: alright yes

Student 19: I think evidence is very important uh for the uh reader and the writer the reader is uh explaining your point to the writer explaining your point to uh to the reader

Facilitator: then what about making several drafts is it a good way of writing? making more than one draft

Student 16: it is very hard but it is is it is uh a way to write something but it is hard because you when you write and read it again and go to work and read it again is very hard but it is it is a suitable way to do draft

Facilitator: what is difficult in it?

Student 16: it is takes several it is take time ((laughter))

Student 18: it takes many time ((more laughter))

Student 17: actually I want to say something I actually I love making several drafts is is good to come out with a good piece of writing but tedious uh uh takes time is boring tedious and boring because you do this and repeat some of things you omitted meanwhile that thing before you omit it maybe it is important sometimes it depend on how you judge things because while you write things then again when you come you omit some of things if you are not carefully and having wisdom you may have no wisdom you may omit the one which is important and take the one which has got no uh which has no nothing to do and leave it there in the piece to make the piece of writing meaningless so sometimes writing uh several drafts is good and it is bad in that manner if you are not careful and having a wisdom you may omit some important points because writing several drafts you write the first then you read it again you read it again then see whether they are coherent or not then again you come and write some of things which are not there you insert it and some which are not suppose to be there (my problem here is that to omit the one which is suppose to be there sometimes I omit the very important points this is the problem which is facing me but it is good it is good to come out with a very nice writing for the people to enjoy reading it yes

Student 16: uh I want to say if I want adds small small word or small paragraph if going to write that I needed to to write all topic again small piece or paragraph let me write all topic again so: it is = it is a suitable way to us to:: we are in in uh in uh in a low level in a write = we needed to write again and again it is suitable way to us but it is very hard ((laughter))

Student 18: it is not helpful to write the summarise topic it is not helpful you to write the summarise

Facilitator: it does help to summarise topic?

Student 18: to summarise topic

Facilitator: but don’t you think that when you give yourself time and you come and revise this one you will really think better far better than the first one?

Student 17: yes of course yes of course

Student 16: yes yes

Facilitator: even if you omit something important still you put also instead something more important than what? The the first one don’t you think that?

Student 16: yeah sure

Student 17: actually yes it is right it needs time if someone gives himself he can
do that ( ) if your study is only writing read then you write read you write you can
290: do that ( ) if there are other things need to be done experimentally ( ) then you
291: will have no time to come again and write
292: Facilitator: or maybe sometimes because you are using hand written things ( ) so:: if
293: it is on computer it will be easy to change and adjust
294: Students: yes yes
295: Facilitator: without re-writing it again ( ) but now since you are using hand writing
296: so ( ) to start the topic again () whole topic ( ) it means you have to change that is
297: why it is {
298: Student 16: {hard
299: Student 17: tedious and tiresome ( ) anyway it is a good way of doing things
300: Facilitator: what about making your voice clear ( ) that you don’t need only to repeat
301: what others say ( ) but you need to add your own position = add your own
302: viewpoint to what you are writing ( ) is it important?
303: Student 17: very important indeed because what you have just learned from the
304: teacher ( ) or you have heard from someone listen to you ( ) digest it ( ) you
305: understand it ( ) then you digest it so output of it comes out that ( ) it has been
306: digested by you in different form ( ) you bring it out in different form so that will
307: be not just quoting what someone said ( ) but you express it in different way ( ) it
308: is good
309: Facilitator: no addition? ( ) In making your voice clear ( ) if you have something you
310: don’t like ( ) you say this is my own position ( ) this is what I think ( ) you are
311: given a topic you don’t just repeat what was said ( ) but add something ( )
312: analysis it ( ) and you come out with something that represent your own view
313: Student 16: I think if I write about a problem ( ) if I take side uh uh that makes me to
314: improve to uh to improve ( ) if I write why I write the question is why I write = I
315: write to convince ( ) to improve something in the community ( ) if I am writing a
316: problem to uh I write uh I write to explain and take position ( ) it is a kind of uh
317: uh uh يعنى نقول بالعربي قسم من الناس يعنى أنا أكتب مجموعه ذه يعنى الناس المعي يعنى
318: Some kind of
319: [that is to say in Arabic group of people uh uh I mean if I took certain group I
320: mean those who support me I mean] some kind ( ) they uh take side {
321: Facilitator: {you take
322: side?
323: Student 16: yes
324: Facilitator: but I mean if you are given in your university study ( ) go and write
325: about this topic ( ) will you go and just write whatever you get ( ) or you will try
326: to analyse the information you have from the sources?
327: Student 17: I can give my own view about that why writing what I have found ( )
328: topic ( ) then I want to visit library ( ) then I get some of things I take some points
329: from there not all of them then I ( ) re-write it again in a different way ( ) then I
330: say ( ) I conclude that out of all what I said there is alternative ( ) alternative I
331: bring it out of my own ( ) this my point of view about the all what else which was
332: said by those people ( ) by the others ( ) but my point of view is like this ( )
333: different from the two aspects which are there in the the topic ( ) so I can do like
334: that ( ) it is important so that to make the one whom you are submitting these to
335: you ( ) to make sure that you have understand this ( ) but if it were to be you you
336: would have done it in that way the way that you said ( ) that your point of view is
337: like this is good
Facilitator: we had a discussion last night and I think I told you that we had some kind of presentations.

Students: yes.

Facilitator: and one of the things that we discussed was that in our universities students when they go when they are given topic for an assignment they just go copy and paste that is you take what you get and you put it in your assignment no change and then you submit it do you think that that attitude is good?

Student 17: Oh it is not good.

Student 18: it is not good because you cannot uh you cannot uh write you cannot get out your ideas you want to write you express the ideas of person who write that work uh that is it.

Facilitator: so you are saying that it is better that you give your own experience instead of just copying things as they are?

Student 18: yes.

Facilitator: GOOD let us go to the next question when you are faced with a view point or argument which you don’t agree with will you give yourself time to look for evidence or you will just jump to the conclusion led by your own conviction and what you think is right? if there was a problem in our debate last time do you think if somebody mentioned something and you don’t agree with that view point will you give yourself time to look for the evidence in order to reply back or you will just start talking based on what you think is right?

Student 17: actually I will give myself time will give myself time because the evidence of what he has raised or what I am going to convey it to him or to them uh there are many evidence but I will look I will give time like while if he is talking in debate may give some few uh few minutes to think over the evidence so that then I select the best one but if in piece of writing if I get some evidence and they are not related then I look I search I read some books to get some evidence then I translate it on my own point of view then I write it so that there should be something concrete the evidence must be concrete supporting the what I am saying it should not be any evidence because any evidence = the evidence maybe may have no relationship with the conclusion or the topic which we are saying so that if I don’t give time for myself to give evidence then I may not give a relevant evidence to the topic I may be giving the irrelevant evidence so the time must be there to think over which one is suitable for this so so since it support it is a evidence.

Student 16: from the so side = from the side of don’t follow all the people all the time from this side I give myself time to read all what you write and criticize you just to to blindly follow all the people there is not one suitable way for life be to to be good in life you must have your way so I will not follow you in your writing I criticize you that is not = that is make you very surely if you make a decision that in another community or society you can explain about yourself since if you read all the topic and search about evidence and the that proves that improve your argument in a good way.

Facilitator: OK:: now if you are writing how would you maintain your focus how would you make sure that you are on the right track in writing if you are given any topic to write about it how would you make sure that you have not gone out of the topic you are just within the topic you are writing about
what you plan ( ) what will you do to maintain your focus?

Student 17: in the introduction in order to maintain the: ( ) my focus on writing ( ) in
introduction ( ) I will = I will introduce some of the the controlling ideas you are
introduce them ( ) they may be three or four and while coming uh when I
introduce them in introduction ( ) I introduce controlling ideas they maybe three
or four so ( ) while coming respectively the paragraph which will come will go
respectively according to ( ) the controlling ideas which I mentioned in the
introduction ( ) I will take one by one uh one by one in a paragraph ( ) then it will
lead this uh piece of writing and focusing on ( ) I will not diverge ( ) I will not go
away from it because I will be writing after finishing introduction ( ) I mentioned
the controlling ideas comma comma comma they are about three or four that
means ( ) my piece of writing will be of four uh four paragraphs ( ) I will come
after finishing introduction ( ) I will take this first controlling ideas ( ) write about
it and link it with the next goings like that systematically ( ) which means I will
not diverge out of what I have plan

Student 19: I think ( ) I think not all the time but uh in uh not all the topic ( ) some
topics you need to uh explain something go out of the focus and explain it ( ) and
you go back to your topic in your focus

Student 16: I think if I if I give myself time in planning and organisation just uh
make map before you write ( ) map of all what you want to write about ( ) and
clarification that is what you want to write in steps ( ) and write that in
paragraphs using controlling ideas ( ) that is improve way to write and decrease
your re-writing ( ) decrease you to re-write
Facilitator: to make many drafts

Student 16: yeah if I if I take it I give myself time myself time in mapping ( ) or
organisation before I beginning to write it ( ) is improve my write
Facilitator: do you think there is any relationship between reading and writing? ( )
do you think there is any relation between reading and writing?

Student 17: there is a relation yes ( ) there is a relation because what you write is
write it ( ) for the first time it will be a problem ( ) unless you read it before ( ) or
if somebody just pronounce it out ( )say the word and you are listening ( ) you
have not come across it you may write it wrong = you may write it wrong ( ) but
if you surely pass over the piece of writing and the word which he has said ( )
you come across it and he is saying it you may spelt it right ( ) this is the relation
but there is a different ( ) this is the similarity which I have talked about ( )
but there is a different ( ) the different is that if while you are reading you are just
merely reading saying what somebody have written ( ) but what the writing here
is ( ) you are the = you are the factor ( ) you produce you manufacture you
produce something about what you have read ( ) but reading is something
prepared by somebody is just for you to vomit ( ) to say it out looking at it and
saying it out ( ) so that is the different ( ) but the similarity is that for you to spelt
the word right to write ( ) it right ( ) correctly you have read it before ( ) you have
come across it before that is the similarity ( ) but the different is what I have
mentioned before

Student 16: I think the big relationship between them is the writer won’t talk ( ) no
write and read = writer and reader ( ) if the writer put in mind reader ( ) that is
improve his topic ( ) because that is the big relation between them ( ) but in a
different side ( ) I think the writer make connection between things ( ) the writer
Facilitator: extract

Student 16: yeah layout of this

Student 18: the writer cannot see his weakness () it is the reader who see it () and

Student 17: yes that is a common factor () because while writing () you

Facilitator: and so you think that reading and writing should be taught together? Do

Student 16: yes together?

Student 16: reading and writing should be taught together at the same time?

Facilitator: yes

Student 16: yes () I think when I write () you said to me use () you said to me use

Facilitator: separate

Student 16: separate between them and I think the writing uh the the reader () I

don’t know the reader () who is the reader what is background about the study ()

Student 17: yes I can agree () also additional to that () is uh read reading and

writing can be taught at one time () can be taught at the same time that is what I

have experienced from my teachers when they give lesson () sometimes he reads

for us and he give us chance to write () or while he is reading = while is teaching
Facilitator: OK:: how do you judge whether information you have collected is
accurate or inaccurate? ( ) How will you judge that ( ) if you read a certain book
( ) that the information in that book is true or not true ( ) how will you judge?
Student 17: I will judge that ( ) information by looking at the evidence of that and
the controlling ideas ( ) yes ( ) I will look at the evidence reasons and the
controlling idea three things ( ) evidence uh reason or reasons evidence and
controlling ideas ( ) I will look at them ( ) then I judge that topic based on that ( )
because we have given in our teaching we were given a number of evidence ( )
and then how to reason and: how to make when you want to write ( ) we make
pre e pre pre-writing with some controlling ideas there ( ) so if these things are
not there so:: I may judge it uh bad piece of writing
Facilitator: but if these things are there ( ) but the problem is the quality of
information itself like fallacy ( ) it is a good writing ( ) every thing is there but is
not uh strong kind of thing ( ) how will you = how would you know this
one is a good writing and this one is not? ( ) like the one we did in the: in the
assignment of passages ( )
Student 17: yes when the reasons and not supporting the conclusion ( ) yes which
the conclusion support does not support the reasons ( ) so:: therefore ( ) I can
judge it like that
Facilitator: ALr:right ( ) do you want to add anything? ( ) ALr:right ( ) let us move to
the last question ( ) what is your reaction to the:: to the study itself ( ) I need your
personal reaction ( ) I want you to be sincere you just tell me the truth ( ) what is
your own reaction to this one ( ) to the intervention itself? ((The teacher translate
the question in Arabic))
Student 19: I think it is good and big addition to me = to your own English skills
about it ( ) because I study in this course ( ) many things cannot know in another
study for the:: secondary school or the Basic School ( ) I think it is good
Student 16: I think you know ( ) we are all here we are students we are medical
students ( ) so the medicine it is logically it is specific it is uh this type of
learning uh uh we are study is put you in = in uh logical way ( ) in specific way
( ) so: that is it is uh suitable and best solution to our problems uh if the problem
we are facing in the past that is uh we are uh when uh when we are write ( ) I
write something like mere talk write ( ) and just write just write explanation
description ( ) don’t evidence no view point no reason no ( ) but in this learn after
this learn ( ) I think if I want to write something association with me uh uh a view
point new point evidence ( ) reason and conclusion ( ) all that make my paragraph
very or my uh assign or my my text very clearly very clear very specific ( ) that is
that suitable way for ours I think that
Facilitator: what about the level of tasks ( ) level of the work ( ) class work I used to
give you ( ) do you think they were ( ) were good ( ) works I use to give you
Student 17: yes uh the level of the work uh it is good actually ( ) but we are = we are not doing it in a ( ) save way ( ) that suppose to be done ( ) some of them we are not submitting them ( ) we don’t write uh reflection some home work are not there given to the teacher ( ) these are the weak parts which we have done actually but the lesson or the study was very effective and also ( ) the other part is that uh there should be punishment for us even ( ) we don’t do that should be give a punishment uh uh I don’t know the teacher level like that uh uh so that why people don’t write reflection ( ) yes so: ( ) we should have also do all these things ( ) there is a certain assignment I could not do it ( ) I tried my level best I wrote it in paper here ( ) but I have not written it in uh it was very tough actually so I could not manage to but it was very good by way ( ) yes uh it was very nice effective way of writing of teaching ( ) it help us a lot uh now will be ready for our Medicine study after ( ) when we finish the course ( ) it was very nice actually enjoyable

Facilitator: what about the strategies uh uh the class strategies ( ) the way we teach

starting with discovery then groups ( ) do you think it is a good strategies?

Student 16: yes

Student 17: very nice uh uh yes ( ) because first of all we are grouped ( ) then we discuss uh then from small groups we move to the bigger group ( ) which is the groups they joined together they unite their ideas then ( ) after that the ideas we elaborate it out ( ) so by that way is good to make those who are weak to come up with the uh with the others together ( ) is good ( ) because there are some proverbs saying that uh many hands make work light many hand work light ( ) so what I have seen that uh to do to start with small group and uh then join the bigger group and ( ) lastly the teacher ( ) it makes work light = it make other people to understand quick ( ) it is very nice = very nice actually

Facilitator: anyone who would like to add something?

Student 16: I think in a group uh in a group discussion or in a group debate ( ) that’s improve our pronunciation uh our our arguments ( )

Student 17: yes uh it also uh I have to add something also ( ) that to in uh debate form it should not uh it should not be only one it should be many times because uh ( ) some people they cannot = they can’t ( ) they have no courage within themselves to stand ( ) when people look at the people then ( ) you speak they will be shy and even trembling uh they could not say a ward even ( ) when they look at people =looking at them they will say I am going to say something wrong today uh and they will laugh at me and uh all this like that ( ) there should be a time to be given uh enough time for doing that ( ) for three to four times to let those who are having that ( ) in their capacity to remove it uh uh we remove it out by doing it three four times ( ) it will take that fear away and they will be able to speak in front of people ( ) without any problem only here

Facilitator: now as a result of what we we did in this course ( ) do you think your attitude towards reading and writing has changed and how? ( ) do you think as a result of this course has your attitude uh uh the way you look at writing has it change or is it still the same as before ( ) and if changed how?

Student 17: for me it has changed ( ) because last time when I was in Secondary ( ) I do write only when things are given to me and some points are there uh uh then I write about these points ( ) then like that then I move from point to point and then I don’t even think about what is uh what are the transitional words to use ( ) to connect these things together that was a problem from from this lesson ( ) I got
that ( ) I can maintain piece of writing coherent together by using transitional
words ( ) when to use this this when to use ( ) however when to use therefore and
for these reasons and all these ( ) since and all this we were just uh using it that
they are uh but now as far as ( ) this course I manage to deal with them in a way
uh if that not up-to-date uh can be good or fair in that situation better than that uh
was very poor and secondary uh was actually very poor indeed ( ) but now it
becomes fair pushing a little bit to good ( ) but very good but pushing from fair to
good in between fair and good ( ) hope that running time maybe ( ) better to very
good and excellent

Student 16: yes
Facilitator: any addition? The::n have you gain any insight as a result of all what we
did? ( ) something like insight uh something that you have learned and become
yours ( ) have you have some kind of insight from this study ( ) I mean uh I don’t
know how to put it in Arabic ( ) ((the teacher explain it in Arabic))
Student 17: [yes I benefited a lot of things] ( ) yes I have
benefited a lot from some words ( ) I have some vocabularies which I have not
seen before ( ) I found them it was very nice like fallacy uh I didn’t know what
was fallacy before uh I was just uh I have never come across it even ( ) just found
it in a paper this fallacy uh and this lan:nd
Student 16: types of evidence
types of evidence and all this ( ) it was not uh I don’t know what = I
could not know I can ( ) I know the evidence ( ) but I don’t how many types of
don’t know that there was intermediate conclusion and the final conclusion ( ) so:
these are the things I got it new ( ) a lot of them some words uh I got them and
vocabulary in point of vocabulary ( ) I managed to uh uh learned a lot from the
vocabularies
Student 19: I think in the last uh in past idea I think the English is very difficult ( ) I
don’t learn it but now I think the English is very good uh and it is easy to uh for
learning but some word for learning
Facilitator: so:: it is now ( ) English is a little bit clearer now than before?
Student 19: yes
Facilitator: alright now the last one ( ) do you have any suggestions of how we can
improve this course? Do you have any other suggestions? [suggestion?]
Student 17: yes ( )
Facilitator: do you suggest anything ( ) for me to do adjustment uh change anything?
Student 16: I think the course is very interesting it is to me uh very interesting
course and we are enjoy by that ( ) but I think it that uh re-write something we can
use another way to ( ) that mapping use mapping before you begin to write ( )
think that is the key and re-writing is what I am saying
Facilitator: OK you think that we should not ask for reflection?
Student 16: NO NO when I want to write about something
Facilitator: yes
Student 16: beginning by a map of something uh by a map of something uh planning
something and ( ) start by ( ) and start to read = to read this topic ( ) I want to
write that is decrease my re-write = my want to re-write again
Facilitator: yes OK:: yeah yeah still you don’t like this idea of producing many
copies ((laughter))
Student 16: NO I want to find solution to uh to it just
Student 17: yes my suggestion to the course was that uh uh the course is very nice
but uh uh the only thing which I faced ( ) or it makes point of reflection to be
tedious and boring because it has got a repetition ( )
Facilitator: UH so reflections became too many?
Student 17: too many many repetition some the same questions in the other in the
other lessons is repeated ( ) here so if someone comes to see uh he will say some
couldn’t I myself even couldn’t see the teacher is meaning the things which I
have written ( ) or what when he read it uh I got the same as the one in uh uh so I
could not judge it the problem that ( ) when I come to analyse I found that these
questions is apply for this paper only not for the other one before ( ) so: the
questions is the same but uh it is in different paper and then again also the the
the time of lecture was not enough ( ) because in reflection there we were given that
some reflection they say you have to do it in the class and we we are given it
to go home ( ) and there is a home work at the same to be done uh uh also we
take it all home ( ) when you go home we forget to write the home work ( ) we do
only part of reflection some are forgetting it ( ) so I think I suggest that next time
if there is a reflection if it is to be done in a class ( ) it has to be done in a class
them home work is to be taken home it has to be done at home and ( ) if it is uh if
you see that the the homework or reflection is too big students cannot do it in a
class ( ) that paper you have not to give homework uh uh you just give them
reflection ( ) they go and do it at home and ( ) if there is a home work it has to be
done as homework when home work is too big you give homework to them and
reflection is not to be there ( ) BEcause that is why people ignore some of things
a lot of homework I have not done ( ) I myself some reflections ( ) I have not
done it which is too bad because if we would have done all these there there
would no ( ) there is no problem ( ) but a little too problems and there ( ) but we
will come to fill it to deal with it later on after when we start our ( ) or when we
go home for short holiday ( ) we will be revising it this and manage to do that ( )
but you have not see it that is the bad side which you should have to see it ( ) so
that to see whether we have done it good ( ) but anyway no problem
Facilitator: uh sometimes it is not necessary for me to see it ( ) but it is just
encouraging you to keep on writing
Students: yeah yes
Student 19: I think the the course is good uh need not to change ( ) but some
addition uh in the course uh study writing and and [for example we
talk about] speaking [and we did not talk about] listening uh is very
important for the syllabus
Facilitator: to add something about listening?
Student 19: yes
Facilitator: OK:: ALr:ight listening part of it Ok Ok
Student 16: I think the course is a big jump to us uh from old English to developed
English ( ) I want to say here if you = if you increase the debate that is it will be
improve our pronunciation ( ) we have have faces a serious problem here ( ) in
pronunciation so:: in debate ( ) we can improve our pronunciation so:: increase it
Facilitator: ALr:ight ( ) so there should be more debates?
Student 16: yes
Facilitator: OK::
Student 18: I think in writing uh we need more vocabulary and ( ) the use of
680: punctuation in writing
681: Facilitator: do you have anything else before I close the session?
682: Student 16: I think uh that uh before we go to debate ( ) you can ask anyone to write
683: something about ( ) debate uh before he going to debate uh that is improve debate
684: too
685: Facilitator: OK:: so instead of saying prepare yourselves and read ( ) I should give
686: assignment first ( ) write about this?
687: Student 16: yes
688: Student 17: we thank you very much for the course
689: Student 16: the course if fact uh uh change not write not = not just write and read ( )
690: it change the way I think thinking about anything ( ) it very nice ( ) very good
691: Facilitator: thank you very much ( ) wish you all the best in your university studies
692: ( ) bye ( ) bye
Appendix 11 E: Transcript of the Second Group Post Focus Group Interviews

1: Facilitator: thank you very much for your coming to this post focus group session ( ) in fact ( ) I would like to say at the beginning that ( ) feel free to say whatever you would like to say ( ) express yourself freely and ( ) I want you to tell me the truth ( ) because there is some parts here in which I will ask for your personal opinion ( ) because unless I knew the truth I would not be able to adjust or make changes on these strategies and ( ) it is really very important that I should know your views on certain issues ( ) however in this session I am going to repeat the same questions that we discussed in the first focus session to really see ( ) whether you have got some changes in your answers to these questions than the previous ones ( ) so what I would like to start with is:: what do you understand by critical thinking? ( ) I mean define critical thinking based on what you did during this period ( ) what is now your understanding of critical thinking? ( )

13: Student 20: first of all ( ) what I observed about critical thinking {your voice please}

14: Facilitator: [your voice please]

15: Student 20: OK: first of all what I observed is that critical thinking means something you have to think deep and deep ( ) like when you think about something ( ) if you gave = you give or you give the the the result for it ( ) you have to think about it that result means ( ) you have to think deeply and deeply and deeply ( ) this is my opinion when I think about critical thinking ( )

20: Facilitator: any addition ( ) anyone who would like to add more?

21: Student 21: critical thinking is how to concentrate ( ) how to concentrate and focus about ( ) what we start and thinks about ( ) thinking about it deeply ( ) it is a hard = it is hot thinking

24: Facilitator: why do you think it is a hard thinking? ( ) Why?

25: Student 21: but it is ( )

26: Facilitator: is it because you have to think deeply that is why it is difficult?

27: Student 21: yes yes ( )

28: Student 22: OK: uh critical thinking it is important for everybody who uh want to do something ( ) because if I have any problem uh that I need solution for it ( ) it needs to think more that is critical thinking ( ) it is difficult because it take more time uh that is my opinion but it not uh{OK in addition ( ) critical thinking means something when you are starting something uh like if you what to be the the is call = you what to be the is call ( ) the scientic uh the scientist the scientific man ( ) or you want to describe something ( ) you have to think about something uh and to think from the evidence of it ( ) or to think about it uh when where where is the foundation of it ( ) and at mean that at = at and to bring uh something meaningful from the deeply thinking

39: Facilitator: OK:: good ( ) now ( ) from your understanding of critical thinking ( )

40: your previous and present understanding ( ) now do you think when you were in Senior Secondary School ( ) do your students sorry ( ) do your teachers ask you to be critical when you write anything? ( ) assignment o::r something like that ( ) do they really ask you?

44: Student 23: NO::

45: Facilitator: NO?
46: Student 23: NO:: yes
47: Facilitator: OK:: so () you think that they don’t always uh ask you to be critical in
48: what uh what you read or write?
49: Student 20: I have some notice that many = many uh many schools in Senior
50: Secondary Schools uh are not the same for the admins = administration of the:
51: kind of teachers there uh are not the same () because maybe () you will get some
52: teachers give you the assignments () and he needs you what? () to think about it
53: uh to bring more information to add uh at what he brought to you () but at the
54: other uh at the other schools maybe () you will get the teacher uh if the teacher
55: are not () or have not complete information about something () it means what he
56: want you to write something () that he gave you because () if you bring
57: something from outside uh and he doesn’t know about it uh he will not give you
58: the marks () which is uh which is brought to what? to () that degree because
59: uh he will put you to think about only the assignment uh he brought to you
60: Facilitator: SO: only give me what I gave you?
61: Student 20: YES: yes = yes
62: Student 23: yes
63: Facilitator: OK: it means based on your understanding () critical thinking is not
64: something being applied in Senior Secondary School?
65: Students: y::s
66: Facilitator: AL:right () let us move to this one () now what is uh now your attitudes
67: after we did this course () what is now your attitudes towards writing () do you
68: think that your perception of writing has changed or not changed uh as a result of
69: what we did?
70: Student 20: I am not understand your question
71: Facilitator: AL:right () my question is this () as a result of what we did during the
72: course () DO you like or dislike writing now? () DO you feel you like () or
73: dislike writing {
74: Student 20: {I like writing}
75: Student 23: I like writing
76: Facilitator: and what are the reasons? if you like it () why do you feel you like it? ()
77: and if you don’t like it why?
78: Student 1: in my opinion teacher () I like to write () because writing is
79: something very important in future () as you know () if you want = if you want
80: to write something about uh () if in my specialisation or my college () they are
81: going to give you some some call () some assignments uh if you doesn’t know
82: how to write () it will be difficult for you uh how to write it uh it means that ()
83: the writing is very important for who are to study something () and how to uh
84: describe something at uh a good way
85: Facilitator: but some people don’t like writing?
86: Student 23: NO: no () no people don’t like writing () no people uh don’t like writing
87: uh all of them they like writing () because this skill is found in any any subject
88: uh for this reason all all all people like writing () but the people don’t know uh
89: the step uh how to write this () how to uh how to write
90: Facilitator: they don’t know the steps of how to write?
91: Student 23: yes
92: Facilitator: SO: you think that () they don’t like writing just because () they don’t
93: know how to {
94: Student 23: {I like I like writing uh because I uh in this course () I study how to
95:  ( ) how to write ( ) to write any topic you want uh and the steps uh how to
96:  start the:: uh writing until you end the topic
97:  Student 20: also in addition teacher ( ) now there are no body want or uh no body
98:  dislike writing ( ) maybe everything now in the world ( ) it must take the writing
99:  ( ) also if you want to read the book uh you read the book uh if you want to go
100:  and practice it ( ) it needs the writing ( ) of course ( ) it is everyone it is ( ) it is
101:  [that's to say compulsory]
102:  Facilitator: what?
103:  Student 20: [compulsory]
104:  Facilitator: OK:: compel
105:  Student 20: yes it is compulsory for everyone going to study uh has to know about
106:  the writing ( ) how to begin it uh and how to end it ( ) because you are going to
107:  be graduate maybe ( ) it means that ( ) you are knowing something uh you are
108:  knowing something about how uh to learn something ( ) suppose to you that uh
109:  you have to know ( ) how to write if you want to uh like something ( ) if you are
110:  a doctor you are to write the the report for the the who are are illnes ( ) you have
111:  to know how to write something
112:  Student 21: writing is a very important skill ( ) but for me uh in the past uh I don’t
113:  like it ( ) but now I like it ( ) but the problem uh I face is ( ) how uh I could could
114:  try try it uh about the words uh the ways ( ) that is my problem ( ) but it seems uh
115:  it is a big problem ( ) but uh I don’t know uh how I overcome it
116:  Facilitator: so you think that uh as a result of this study ( ) there is a change in your
117:  attitude uh towards writing?
118:  Student 21: yes
119:  Facilitator: but still you find a lot of problem {on how to keep on writing}
120:  Student 21: {on how to keep on writing} yes
121:  Student 20: in addition teacher ( ) yes uh I agree with my colleague uh I am got uh
122:  some changing in the way of writing ( ) because in the past uh there is some
123:  challenges uh face of me of me of uh how to put the writing uh at a good way ( )
124:  began from what and end by what ( ) but uh now I’m seeing uh there this course
125:  ( ) some there are some results uh I am got it ( ) it is very well uh how to began
126:  this topic uh and how to end it uh and to make the reader ( ) to make the reader
127:  uh who are going to read uh make it to know ( ) yes ( ) there is something uh
128:  concern which the topic is talking about
129:  Student 22: OK for me writing is very important ( ) but uh there is a big change ( )
130:  uh at when I was in past and today ( ) in past uh I dislike writing because there is
131:  no ( ) incoherent idea ( ) ideas just uh if uh I want to write about something ( ) no
132:  controlling idea or no main idea uh putting them in all uh one wait after that ( )
133:  when I read uh there is no something good ( ) just uh I put them uh like that ( )
134:  but from now uh from the course that we did ( ) I know what uh uh how can I put
135:  the main idea ( ) how can I control the main idea uh also conclusion ( ) I can do it
136:  uh that make me interest in writing ( ) even uh I don’t know uh the dictation ( )
137:  but uh I can do it uh in simple way ( ) the writing
138:  Facilitator: AL::right then ( ) what are the activities that you do ( ) before finally
139:  approaching your writing task? ( ) before you start writing uh what are the
140:  activities that you do? ( ) say uh for example planning ( ) listing your ideas ( )
141:  reading if you don’t know anything about the topic ( ) DO you think these
142:  activities are important? As steps before uh you start writing about uh what you
143:  want to write about

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144: Student 20: can you repeat this question again
145: Facilitator: ((the teacher repeats the question in Arabic))
146: Student 20: actually yes ( ) it is important uh because you have to uh put your = you
147: have to put your writing uh at controlling way ( ) beginning with which is which
148: is what ( ) which is genuine which is genuine ( ) because you have to start with
149: uh something like when you ( ) get us or brought uh us with the way uh how to
150: put the the writing in a good way uh at the first first of all ( ) you have to think
151: about your topic uh and you have to collect your = your ( ) information about
152: what uh you are going to talk uh to write about it uh and after it uh you have
153: to make conclusion about what ( ) the topic you are talking about and also ( ) I
154: am seeing that uh you have to prepare yourself uh before you write something ( )
155: it is very important
156: Facilitator: do you normally do this ( ) before you start writing?
157: Student 20: before uh when I am not start this course ( ) I don’t know how to start
158: how to start to write something ( ) but when I start this course ( ) I know way the
159: way of start uh to writing something ( ) you have to prepare yourself uh before to
160: write something
161: Student 23: this is important uh for example if you uh if I want to write something
162: before ( ) I I start ( ) I put my main idea ( ) and I write in the another paper ( ) and
163: then uh I am not uh I am not put any all my thinking in this write ( ) I am go and
164: come and found = I find something uh I want to make uh to commenting ( ) I am
165: uh I find something uh I wanted addition to that ( ) for this uh I want to put in in
166: another another paper ( ) after that uh after that uh I come to write uh in the final
167: Facilitator: it means uh getting a lot of information uh before you start writing?
168: Student 23: yes
169: Student 20: after you getting a more information uh you have to come and put it at
170: the good sentence ( ) and organise it uh by the what? ( ) by the which uh call uh
171: genuine = genuine {
172: Facilitator: {yeah coherent
173: Student 20: yes
174: Facilitator: AL: right ( ) OK ( ) let us move to this question ( ) do you bear in mind
175: the following when writing ( ) when you are writing ( ) do you always keep this
176: in mind that you must have a purpose ( ) first of all you must have a purpose for
177: your writing? ( ) Do you always put this in your mind?
178: Student 20: purpose?
179: Facilitator: yeah
180: Student 20: purpose which what?
181: Facilitator: purpose which reason why you are writing ( ) objective of writing ( ) DO
182: you always think about this first? ( ) DO you always think about سبب البخليني اكتب
183: [the reason which makes you write]
184: Student 20: I’m seeing there teacher ( ) no one can write uh something without
185: reason ( ) if there are uh no reasons uh why you are going to write it?
186: Facilitator: SO: there must be a purpose?
187: Student 20: yes yes if you are going to write something ( ) it is really there there is
188: this ( ) reason there uh let you going to write something about it ( ) if there is
189: something uh if you want to write uh the letter for your friend ( ) you have the
190: reason ( ) that is why you wrote the letter for your friend ( ) because maybe ( )
191: you are ( ) you have a lot of time you uh not saw him ( ) this why uh it means that
192: uh it is a reason let you out uh to write something

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Facilitator: any addition? ( ) and also ( ) do you always keep in mind the audience?

I mean the audience ( ) readers when you are writing ( ) DO you always remember that you are writing to readers uh you must be careful because uh some people are going to read your work?

Student 20: yes uh when you are writing something ( ) for for your your readers uh you have to put uh the writing uh at the good way ( ) to get in to believe your what uh you are talking about ( ) because if you are not uh let in to believe what uh you are talking about ( ) people will not receive uh what you are talking about or ( ) to believe your message.

Student 22: in addition to that ( ) and the people who read my passage or my uh to read it before to send it uh to people out to read it ( ) and to let himself like the reader ( ) to read to saw the challenge uh after challenge it ( ) he get the same challenge or the same mistakes ( ) he will uh change the same uh mistakes before uh to send it to another person.

Student 23: yes I put ( ) but I write something uh I feel uh don’t they feel ( ) but if I feel anything uh I can give him the evidence ( ) why I think this is right.

Student 20: OK teacher ( ) as you know many people have the way of how to write something uh for somebody ( ) maybe uh you will get somebody ( ) he will write uh something when you are writing ( ) he make himself that as a writer ( ) after uh he complete it uh and organise it uh and saw which is the challenge ( ) after all that uh he make at good way ( ) who will make himself ( ) that is a reader began uh to read it before to send it uh to people out to read it ( ) and to let himself like the reader ( ) to read to saw the challenge uh after challenge it ( ) he get the same challenge or the same mistakes ( ) he will uh change the same uh mistakes before uh to send it to another person.

Facilitator: (translates the question in Arabic when he felt students did not understand it well)

Student 23: yes I put ( ) but I write something uh I feel it uh don’t they feel ( ) but if he feel anything uh I can give him the evidence ( ) why I think this is right.

Student 20: OK teacher ( ) as you know many people have the way of how to write something uh for somebody ( ) maybe uh you will get somebody ( ) he will write uh something when you are writing ( ) he make himself that as a writer ( ) after uh he complete it uh and organise it uh and saw which is the challenge ( ) after all that uh he make at good way ( ) who will make himself ( ) that is a reader began uh to read it before to send it uh to people out to read it ( ) and to let himself like the reader ( ) to read to saw the challenge uh after challenge it ( ) he get the same challenge or the same mistakes ( ) he will uh change the same uh mistakes before uh to send it to another person.

Student 22: OK: in addition to that ( ) and the people who read my passage or my invitation card uh are different way of education ( ) there is uh professor and there is normal uh persons like in who in secondary uh in primary so ( ) when I uh write something uh I want to be care ( ) I want to take care of my way of writing ( ) because when uh I want to write uh to somebody like ( ) manage manager { manager }

Facilitator: ( manager ) I yes uh there is way of writing ( ) excuse me

[to move away ( ) it was said that somebody wrote to Dr Shadad then spelt the word football wrongly so ( ) what the man did was that he tore the letter ( ) if he was a normal person he would had guess what the writer meant ( ) but because he was a professor he was very meticulous] so uh I want to take care of uh my way of writing to somebody ( ) how to write it uh correctly

Facilitator: so: it means that ( ) you have to be careful about the way you will be perceived by your reader? ( ) so: that he/she should not have a negative ideas about you ( ) then what about making your ideas clear to the reader? ( ) DO you think it is important? ( ) That you make your ideas clear to the reader.
Facilitator: it is time consuming? it is very time consuming. down ( ) then you come back again ( ) you write it ( ) you make changes ( ) then them one draft ( ) when you are writing something ( ) you write uh you put it. call the high English uh uh maybe the readers are going to see this passage are maybe ( ) in Senior Secondary School uh maybe some of them are professors ( ) here you are going to be careful uh to write ( ) when you are going to send = to send some passage uh or some essay to people ( ) or when people are going to read it ( ) you have uh to take care uh like what my brother colleague said that ( ) you have to explain explanation of uh your ideas uh very clearly ( ) you let everyone which uh read your essay ( ) he will also ( ) you have to make it very very attractive to anyone uh who is going to read it ( ) uh to let him keep to keep read read it to uh understand what you are uh talking about.

Facilitator: AL::right ( ) and what about the system of multi-draft ( ) making more.

Student 20: yes ( ) it is very important to support your argument with evidence ( ) if you have no evidence uh who will believe your what? ( ) your ideas.

Facilitator: but don’t you think that ( ) even this uh this uh newspapers ( ) they are the ones doing this more than others because for a piece of news to come out ( ) it goes through many hands ( ) editors ( ) you sent your information in ( ) they go and make correction ( ) editing the language ( ) they pass it from person to person until they are satisfy that it is in good shape before it is uh then published ( ) so it

Student 24: yes ( ) very important

Facilitator: why do you think it is important?

Student 24: I think it is good ( ) but uh ( ) explain it at different way ( ) maybe uh a simple English ( ) and there are which reader = to the reader to be uh very clear ( ) you put it = you put the main idea. in addition teacher ( ) to make uh the to make your ideas to the reader = to the reader to be uh very clear ( ) you put the = you put the main idea ( ) and explain it very very very large uh even you explain it maybe ( ) you explain it at different way ( ) maybe uh a simple English ( ) and there are which. when you are writing something ( ) you write uh you put it. read read it to uh understand what you are uh talking about.

Student 20: OK: in addition teacher ( ) to make uh the to make your ideas to the reader = to the reader to be uh very clear ( ) you put the = you put the main idea. in addition teacher ( ) to make uh the to make your ideas to the reader = to the reader to be uh very clear ( ) you put the = you put the main idea ( ) and explain it very very very large uh even you explain it maybe ( ) you explain it at different way ( ) maybe uh a simple English ( ) and there are which. when you are writing something ( ) you write uh you put it. read read it to uh understand what you are uh talking about.

Student 22: I think it is good ( ) but uh ( ) explain it at different way ( ) maybe uh a simple English ( ) and there are which reader = to the reader to be uh very clear ( ) you put the = you put the main idea. in addition teacher ( ) to make uh the to make your ideas to the reader = to the reader to be uh very clear ( ) you put the = you put the main idea ( ) and explain it very very very large uh even you explain it maybe ( ) you explain it at different way ( ) maybe uh a simple English ( ) and there are which. when you are writing something ( ) you write uh you put it. read read it to uh understand what you are uh talking about.

Student 24: yes ( ) very important

Facilitator: why do you think it is important?

Student 24: yes ( ) very important

Facilitator: why do you think it is important?
Student 20: I’m seeing that maybe it will uh because there number of them are very high or they are very very major because it will uh pass from person to person uh it will not take the time because it pass from person to person you are uh going to revise it and to see the mistake but for person who are going to research uh something is difficult

Facilitator: NO:: in fact editors they do this revision regularly even if you submit your paper now to them they will go and edit it take out what is not important SO: they do it a lot

Students: yes

Facilitator: do you think when you start writing later on DO you think if you have time that you will continue doing this?

Students: yes

Facilitator: it is it is difficult when you are doing it uh using hand written work but if you are typing it is easy because you can type finish you come back uh make some changes until you are satisfy with it but when you are doing it manually it is really hard it takes time as you said but do you feel it is important? something important in its own right?

Student 20: yes it is important in my opinion it is very important uh because not to let you uh [embarrass yourself in front of people] ((laughter)) because you are a writer you be very strong on uh what you are talking about

Facilitator: what about this? the issue of adding your own views that when you are given an assignment you don’t go and collect information from others and put this information as you got it but you keep adding your own voice your own views what you think is true based on your analysis DO you think it is important? to have your own voice

Student 22: OK: adding information is very important but there is difficult because when uh I want to add uh my own information to assignment that need more evidence uh because uh I can’t add something without evidence that is a difficult of adding information but if it is just adding I can add my
view uh but evidence is necessary

Student 20: in addition to the point of view of my colleague ( ) yes I agree ( ) yes ( )
you have to make the evidence uh like if you want to add something to ( ) to
what? ( ) to your research or to your what ( ) you are going to write about ( ) you
have to make the uh evidence because uh if you add something ( ) the body or
somebody you are going to bring to it ( ) he want you to bring out the evidence ( )
why you add this uh and what is the relationship between them which means ( ) it
need you ( ) it need you ( ) it need the evidence from you ( ) that the new addition
you added is true

Facilitator: then in this what teacher ( ) what kind of teacher would you like ( ) the
teacher who will give you assignment ( ) go and write ( ) you go and write what
is there in the book without making changes ( ) or the teacher who uh if he ask
you to go and write something ( ) you go and make some changes ( ) and make
your own discussion ( ) and add your own point of view ( ) which one would you
like?

Student 20: in my opinion teacher ( ) I saw many students unlike the teacher uh
which is uh let you go to write something ( ) which in the book {

Facilitator: {which is only in
the book?}

Student 20: yes to write something which is uh which is is {

Facilitator: {copying copying}

Student 20: yes copying ( ) it is really broad or it is uh very very given ( ) you have
to take it and copy it ( ) and he will give you the marks ( ) but for those who uh
are going for those who uh are need the teacher ( ) and give them free to collect
information from other o:r uh let them to be like research for something ( )
maybe this the people who are ( ) this uh the people who are doing this ( ) maybe
they are genos {

Facilitator: {they are what?}

Student 20: genos

Facilitator: genius?

Student 20: yes ( ) genius to think about something ( ) maybe uh they are good
thinking uh or maybe they are going to be the scientific and so on ( ) but in my
opinion uh on what I know from students ( ) I am one of them ( ) I want
something given ((laughter)) yes given

Facilitator: SO: you want something ready?

Student 20: yes

Facilitator: so: to be asked to go and study ( ) why this is this and why that is that no

( ) you don’t like that? ( ) AL: right ( ) but do you think is it because that is the
way you were taught in our schools? ( ) is it because we were taught that in our
schools you just copy bring ( ) so if you were taught differently perhaps maybe
you would take up this steps?

Students: yes

Student 23: in addition to the point of view of my colleague ( ) yes I agree ( ) yes ( )
you have to make the evidence uh like if you want to add something to ( ) to
what? ( ) to your research or to your what ( ) you are going to write about ( ) you
have to make the uh evidence because uh if you add something ( ) the body or
somebody you are going to bring to it ( ) he want you to bring out the evidence ( )
why you add this uh and what is the relationship between them which means ( ) it
need you ( ) it need you ( ) it need the evidence from you ( ) that the new addition
you added is true

Facilitator: then in this what teacher ( ) what kind of teacher would you like ( ) the
teacher who will give you assignment ( ) go and write ( ) you go and write what
is there in the book without making changes ( ) or the teacher who uh if he ask
you to go and write something ( ) you go and make some changes ( ) and make
your own discussion ( ) and add your own point of view ( ) which one would you
like?
mean I should be allowed to investigate on my own the thing I am learning ( )

study it and explore what is there ( ) things that I feel not true ( ) what I need to add like that ( ) but in the school the important thing is you give back what you were given]

Student 22: OK: in addition to my colleague says uh when we was in Secondary School ( ) this way make us no advantages to us uh لما جينا الجامعة ندمتنا صراحة كده يا استاذ

when we came to the university frankly teacher we regretted ] he give you something ( ) and you just copy it إلزمه]because we are lazy students in Sudan ( )

they are lazy uh they like sleeping and uh doing more things is not uh important ( ) so here in the university ( ) I like teacher who give me uh more thinking uh to think about something ( ) but in the past you don’t know what uh where is =

where is is going to happen in future ( ) only teacher gives something to make marks uh no more than that

Student 21: I think it seem to me uh the way that in Secondary school ( ) experience is really very uh يعني ساعه أنو المشكله أنو ما عوننا الناس أنو بعشو يفششو

[I mean what exacerbate the situation was that we were not trained how to search for information] to research something ( ) I see it is this way in this strategy ( ) I see it is important it is really important to make = to make somebody uh to create and and go uh to research information ( ) but for example uh when we have fourth year in Primary we uh have a teacher uh that teacher gave gave = us gave us gave us uh passage and we uh read it and and and he explain with us ( ) but uh when we finished and uh we some anther I[I mean after two days] be uh came back and uh ask and and we uh tell tell us uh to read = to read again and uh he came to explain in the class uh and what uh we understand for really that uh I see uh يعني استفادنا منه بخصوصه عامة بس كان في الصف الرابع لكن وقت جينا قام ما لقينا دراسه زي دد [we benefited from him generally ( ) we benefited a lot but that was in fourth year and when we were promoted we never encountered a teaching like that]

Student 20: yes teacher ( ) uh in addition I want to add something for the strategy uh that which let you ( ) to bring or to add information for something ( ) I am seeing that uh it is very those people are uh or the or the those people uh are study something which benefit for them = to benefit for that way ( ) because you have uh this is the way you are going to benefit from them ( ) that it means ( ) you are going to learn more ways uh to collect information

Facilitator: good yeah ( ) OK ( ) let us move to the next question ( ) if somebody says something that you don’t agree with ( ) OK uh like in that debate if somebody says something you don’t agree with ( ) do you give yourself time to look for evidence or you just start talking based on your own believes ( ) what do you do? ( ) would you give yourself time to look for evidence in order to come up with a sound evidence أو:ك you just say whatever comes in your mind? ( ) you say it because that is your believe

Student 20: in my opinion teacher ( ) when I’m in Senior Secondary School uh and before I am come here = I came here ( ) I have I have no ( ) I don’t have uh that way ( ) when people are ( ) when we have uh debate with some people ( ) I don’t have the way that to bring to bring the evidence ( ) I do I don’t know about what evidence means at that time ( ) I will just talking randomly uh and on what I believe in it ( ) but when uh I ( ) but when I am study here uh some course I know the way of debate of persuade of argument with somebody ( ) I saw that in different way uh to leave somebody you are talking with أو:ك debating with to
believe uh what you are talking about ( ) you have to bring strong evidence ( ) that
is for him to believe ( ) but when I was in Senior uh I don’t think about that and I
don’t know what the evidence means at that time ( ) because I am still don’t know
which the debate means o::r uh which the benefit of argument ( ) but now I am
re::ally I know way uh how to debate with somebody uh when we have debate
o::r argument ( ) I have to wait just wait and overcome what your your what ( )
you are talking about ( ) and conclude it and thinking about it ( ) and give an
eexample and bring the evidence after after uh before to talk with you o::r to give
you the result
Student 23: I give you just to tell to tell me uh why you write uh why you write
things and uh uh what are your evidence to uh uh what you write
لأنه ما في زول يكتب حاجه من فراغ يعني عدد اذا مثلا كتب حاجه هو شايف حاجه ده صح لألو كده كده
أنا كده يتظره كل يومي حاليه ده بعد ده أنا أنجي اغلاظه موضوع ده ما صح و
دوما صح و أنا اديوه Evidence
[because no one who can write something from vacuum I mean he must have ( )
if or example he wrote something which he sees as true because of this this I
will wait until he gives me uh this then I will come and argue him that this issue
is not correct this one is not correct and I give him my evidence [I will not just
argue without evidence]
Student 22: OK: somebody who give himself time to think about argument uh who
another person give him is important ( ) because even somebody tell me uh in my
opinion tell me ( ) you are uh a dog ( ) I have to take time to think why uh he tell
me dog ( ) because if I am start uh go give him the opposite somebody who uh
listen to me he say uh you are a dog ( ) so if you give uh yourself time to think
about somebody uh you are not uh you disagree with him in something is
important
Facilitator: very interesting answers ( ) very interesting answers ( ) you have gone
dep into the heart of the question ( ) OK: let us move to question five ( ) how do
you maintain your focus when writing ( ) when you are writing how do you make
sure that ( ) you have not gone out of your main topic ( ) that you are still in line
with your topic ( ) you are still following the same design and plan of your topic
in writing ( ) how do you make sure that all your paragraphs are related?
Student 22: OK: ( ) for me I follow the point of view o::r main idea ( ) when I take it
and then uh I control the ideas and uh don’t add more information ( ) because it
will be no ( ) it is not important ( ) I need to summarise it and controlling ideas
Student 20: in my way that ( ) yes I will take the main ideas of main ideas of the
topic ( ) and controlling it and narrow it ( ) and make relate uh very strong with
the topic ( ) mean that uh I mean that to narrow uh the passage with main idea
uh over the topic and to conclude it with uh the very strong relation between uh
uh the conclusion and the main uh idea
Student 23: in my opinion ( ) first I put my uh I put my main idea and and and {
Facilitator: {controlling
idea
Student 23: the paragraph put in paragraph in any paragraph ( ) I put one of my main
idea and uh explain it and uh give the evidence why I think that ( ) and go to
another paragraph until uh I end the topic
Facilitator: do you think it is important ( ) it is important when you write something
( ) you give it to some somebody else to go and read it? ( ) Do you think it is
important?
489: Students: yes
490: Student 20: it is important teacher ( ) but I am never do that before ( ) I never do that
491: before uh when I wrote something to somebody ( ) when I am finish it uh I sent it
492: just send it ( ) I am not let somebody to know it
493: Student 24: مفروض اكون واقع من كتابتي ما ضروري أن زول تاني بقأه;
494: [I should be confidence of my writing and it is not necessary to give it to
495: somebody else to proofread it]
496: Student 22: for me I ( ) do this way ( ) I give it to another person to read it ( )
497: because maybe I make a mistake when he read it ( ) he says uh it is good uh why
498: you don’t change this to that and uh I want to add something uh like this and it is
499: uh it make it good ( ) and coherent everybody can read it in a good way
500: Facilitator: it is always advisable that ( ) if you write something as a way of making
501: sure that this is good ( ) instead of trusting yourself ( ) you ask one of your
502: colleagues whom you really trust to read it ( ) then if he says it is in line with the
503: topic ( ) then you can feel assured
504: Student 22: but just your friend ((laughter))
505: Student 23: [some people may not tell you the truth] I prefer
506: to give [not to anybody only a]
507: person who for example I have strong relation with and who will tell me the truth
508: that he read the] topic
509: [لا أنا كنت جمعة تاين ممكن يجاملوك (I wrote and tells me what he saw right and what I have written ( ) why he thinks
510: it should be change this will help me during the second writing when I come to
511: rewrite I can refer to what he said because no one who doesn’t make mistakes]
512: Student 20: in my opinion ( ) it is very important that ( ) when both are working in
513: the newspapers uh are doing that way ( ) if he wrote something he will bring it to
514: another worker and to overcome it ( ) but I am think that it is good ( ) but in my
515: opinion ( ) when I am study here in this course ( ) I am seeing that that way is
516: good and it suppose me to follow that way really
517: Facilitator: because sometimes you intend to write something just to find that you
518: wrote something else ( ) sometimes you don’t see your mistakes
519: Students: yes yes
520: Facilitator: let us go to question number seven ( ) Oh sorry number six ( ) do you
521: think there is any relationship between reading and writing skills? ( ) do you
522: think there is the relationship between these two skills as a result of the course we
523: did? ( ) DO you feel that there is relation between reading and writing? ( ) do you
524: think strategies you use in writing are similar to strategies you use in reading
525: you still think they are two different skills?
526: Student 23: because I am write I am writing something ( ) I read it before therefore
527: uh I think there is relation
528: Facilitator: no more comments ((directing the question to student five))
529: Student 24: [there is relation between them] [I mean] reading
530: [not] typically [like] writing نمَّكين [عندما نكتب في] [عندما] when I write in] grammar
531: [أنا أقرأ] [when I come to read in this way I connect between]
532: reading [and] writing
533: Facilitator: Ok:: in your reading when you read ( ) how do you make sure that this
534: information is correct or this information is not correct ( ) how do you judge that
this information is right or wrong?
Student 23: I look at the evidence you put in your topic
Facilitator: [you look at the evidence?]
Student 23: yes uh and I think about it if I uh if I find evidence very strong you give
I I find this is I find uh your information is right but you did not give us the the
strong evidence for this uh I did not find this is good uh because you did not
give us en uh enough evidence to what you write
Student 20: in my opinion is that () when I am read something () I will follow the
steps of the the the author which is write it because uh the evidence are many
types () maybe it will be at logical way o::r maybe it will be a personal
type ( ) I will know yes ( ) this is true yes ( ) this is not true and why this is
true and why this is not true ( ) I will compare uh and see the evidence uh which
is support this what I am talking ( ) yes it is true and uh why this is not true if
grammatically o::r is not true by uh which is the information come from ( ) yes
uh I just wait and overcome them which type of evidence all types of evidence
and so yes ( ) this is authority of this or not ( ) this is personal or a causal
exploration o::r not ( ) this is what I am do
Facilitator: any more comments ( ) OK:: let us move to the last question ( ) sorry I
have taken much of your time uh I think our discussion is very interesting ( )
what is your reaction to this study ( ) how do you feel about this study ( ) what is
your reaction ( ) the way you were taught and the strategies used {

الدراسة ممتعة و مفيدة
في نفس الوقت مفيدة كثير يعني بالنسبة لي أنا يعني زمان ما كنت ما كنت ما كنت يعني بعمل
[the study is useful and interested at the same time it is useful indeed that is to
say for me before ( ) I don’t write ( ) what I always do was] copy
لكن هسه يفكر بعدين
شجعني اني انا افتش معلومات بشي اقرأ بعض التس Dia Kده يعني زمان ما كان عدي تفكير زي ده
الله درجات و ما أكاديمي شديد
[but now I think then it encouraged me to go and search for information I read I
browse the net something like that I mean before I don’t have such attitude or
such thinking just marks and I was not very serious in academia]
Student 20: in my opinion teacher ( ) am seeing this way of teaching is very
important and very essential ( ) because uh when I am come here uh I am saw
that many many way of how to learn somebody ( ) who are going to start
something and the way that uh when I am in Secondary School ( ) there are
big different in my opinion ( ) when I am come here ( ) I am saw the way that
here uh you have to think more than you have uh the something is be given to
you you have to take it very seriously ( ) you have to take something uh very
seriously concern you about your thinking ( ) also when I am come here ( ) when
I am in secondary school really teacher ( ) I have I haven’t no vocabulary re:ally
( ) but now when I am here = when I analyse something ( ) my vocabulary here
is increased than uh when when I am in Senior Secondary School by what ( ) by
working hard of course and uh let somebody to going to thinking ( ) when you are
going to thinking if uh you think about something you will never forget it ( ) you
will keep it on in your mind ( ) this is why let me to keep some vocabulary now
in my mind and uh I am think re:ally it is very very important
Student 23: I agree with my colleague ( ) because uh in this this is really uh good ( )
because uh in this strategy I think I search something about something ( ) I search
something and don’t the teacher uh give me and don’t copy ( ) but I search
something I found uh

[Student 21]: it is it is good as for me uh before this this course ( ) I have not any
background about English really ( ) background about English and vocabulary
but now I ( ) just to try talking I am not talking before but now I ( ) tried ( ) I see
it is really good ( ) but it is it is difficult

[Student 22]: OK:: it is really ( ) it is really feeling for me = it is really feeling the way
we did it is very good ( ) my evaluation is very good because uh before we hate
English language ( ) because when the teacher give us something write about
something we don’t know how to write about it ( ) but when you teach us uh how
to write a paragraph ( ) we feel free to write it ( ) how to put the main idea and uh
how to conclude your assignment or your something secondly ( ) the teacher
before no uh teacher give you free free discussion uh uh when you discuss
something ( ) he give you just talk say this and say this this don’t go more than what I
do ( ) but here the teacher say very important things and you talk free uh you say
anything ( ) you don’t feel shy because you are free to say anything you want

[Student 20]: in addition to that teacher ( ) my evaluation to this course is that ( ) this
course uh uh are encourage the the somebody who are going to study something
uh like when you are come here at the beginning ( ) this course are encourage me
to go and read ( ) because when you are uh given us the sheet this sheet
everything is not given and uh when I am going to read it ( ) I am going to read it
( ) how can I understand what is within this sheet? OK:: at that time ( ) I am
seeing this sheet this sheet needs somebody to find the information ( ) need you
uh to think carefully and deeply ( ) and I am saw that ( ) I have = haven’t enough
vocabulary to understand what it means ( ) and so on and uh I’m keep on asking
myself ( ) why? How can I over overcome 0::r how can I overcome this problem
( ) no way I am return back to dictionary and uh to read literature and so on ( ) it
means now teacher ( ) this is something concern me ( ) when I am in Senior
Secondary School ( ) I am study course English for three years and those
vocabulary I got uh I got there is not enough ( ) maybe I will mention them ( )
when I am came here this vocabulary when I learned uh it here uh some
vocabulary different give us uh the very high vocabulary ( ) when I am listening
to the BBC English uh I am understand what the pub pub publisher has talking
about ( ) I am understand = I am very = I am very very happy glad ( ) because I
am understand people who are talking English ( ) but before I never = I will get
some some vocabulary uh maybe it will uh be this is and this is what I am
understand ( ) but now I am re::ally re::ally glad
Facilitator: OK:: (smiling at what the student said)  what about the tasks ( ) we use

colleague uh I don’t know his name ( ) he come just one day and he ran ( ) he
go out said Oh teacher

Student 20: yes teacher ( ) everything from beginning uh yes uh is really difficult ( )
yes everything from beginning ( ) because you will make you = will put some
fear in your = in your heart heart that maybe ( ) I cannot do this or: uh I can’t my
ability cannot do this ( ) when you are three you does something and: you done
and: do it hardly and hardly ( ) in future maybe ( ) you will see it will be very
simple than when you were thinking before you start it ( ) now ( ) yes it is not
difficult like when uh we had it before

Student 23: in the beginning uh I want to leave this course ( ) because I am not = I
am not understanding anything ( ) but I after ( ) this some
I continued in the so call what I found something is good to me ( ) to have
something about the vocabulary and uh the and uh the how to develop your
paragraph and uh something like that ( ) something I am not study in primary and
secondary

Facilitator: OK good ( ) good comments and uh what about strategies ( ) the
strategies we used like group work presentations and then teaching in small group
( ) what do you think about these strategies ( ) very good or boring?

Student 20: strategy ( ) I am got teacher ( ) strategy here here is students in class in
classroom not teacher in classroom ( ) I am got comparing between this strategy
and that strategy in Senior Secondary School ( ) I am got more lot or uh more
observe that here ( ) the student feel free to talk in the class ( ) but there you are
just listener ( ) but here you are the uh who done = who done uh more something
= more something than uh the teacher teacher is to tell you the way an: d you you
do it practically ( ) but at Senior Secondary School ( ) you are just listener keep or
to collect information not to bring out your what what you know about

Student 22: OK uh before uh in the beginning u h it is re::ally difficult even uh my
colleague uh I don’t know his name ( ) he come just one day and he ran ( ) he
said Oh teacher
Student 23: I find this strategy is good uh because if uh if in group uh something
something of my colleague tell uh tell us something ( ) we not we not knowing
before and I I uh get this information ( ) I uh think about and ask him what
evidence from this information and uh if you give evidence enough and and and
get this information [in this way I have learned an information from a different person] that is why uh this strategy is good
Facilitator: OK:: do you think as a result of this course ( ) your attitude towards
reading and writing has change? ( ) do you think because of this course ( ) your
attitude as you said before ( ) the way you look at writing is different ( ) some of
you said we use to hate writing but now with reading ( ) do you think there is
change in your attitude towards both reading and writing?
Student 24: yes there is a change in the [writing [that is I started to write in a way that is] in order مرتبتة شوية و بقيت ما يطلع من الموضوع
[a little bit organise I don’t diverge from the topic]
Student 22: OK it is really changing for me [for me there is a lot of change] because before ( ) we do this course uh we study book called Spine
in Secondary ( ) that Spine give you a topic and ask you about it ( ) why is this
good and uh when you go to topic uh you find the answer ( ) but here it need you
to think about something ( ) and when you think uh about something you want uh
to read more and uh write more that make me sure ( ) I change my ways of
writing
Student 24: إذا زمان يا أستاذ ما كنت بناش لكن همه لأي موضوع فيه نقاش بخش فيه لاني اكتسبت بعض [teacher before I don’t argue but now any topic for discussion I
participate because I gain some confidence and I participate with] evidence كده [like that]
Facilitator: OK another question which is very close to that one ( ) what are the
insights you have gained from this course ( ) what are the things that you have
really learned as a result of this course ( ) because you see something ( ) you try
to form some other ideas that relate to the thing ( ) what are the things that you
can go out with in this course?
Student 24: اهم حاجة أنو مفروض الزوال يفكر و يفتغ البرهان يعني مافي حاجة بهذه كمسائلات the most important thing is that one
should think and think and look for evidence I mean nothing should be taken for
granted it should be carefully thought of to see what is wrong or right and to
avoid [copy اخذ الأشياء الجاهزة [taking ready things]
Student 20: I think teacher ( ) thinking is something very important uh most people
are using thinking uh I analyse that ( ) maybe may be acquire the mistakes more
and you uh get the mistake they are done it will be some few mistakes not be
whole ( ) because he or she is thinking more than something because uh if he seen
something correct o::r something incorrect ( ) there he will uh put it and uh also
thinking it up again ( ) it means that uh you correct your mistakes for those who
are thinking they uh cannot believe you without evidence ( ) because when you
are talking about something to him ( ) he will just wait and think about what you
are talking about ( ) he will assess your talk whether uh logical or uh illogical and
what uh evidence provided ( ) thinking is very important to avoid mistakes
Facilitator: OK ( ) now the last one ( ) do you have any suggestions on how we can
improve these strategies ( ) would you suggest anything o::n how we can improve
the strategies ( ) something you want to be changed ( ) added?
Student 22: yes ( ) I think debate it is very good ( ) because everybody feel uh feel
733: ( ) to say something uh we need to add more debate that what I suggest
734: Student 20: yes uh I want to support my colleague ( ) my previous colleagues ( ) that
735: said the debate is very important because uh yes ( ) the debate is very important
736: to improve your language ( ) but we have to make the rule on debate even uh you
737: are going to debate you are going to present or to stand in front of your colleague
738: ( ) you will uh have the rule ( ) anyone who is going to talk uh is to remove the
739: Arabic stand to talk in English whether it is broken or in broken ( ) this is the way
740: uh how to improve your language ( ) if you still talk in Arabic means that ( ) if
741: you are thinking uh you are thinking also in Arabic way ( ) it means that uh you
742: have to talk in English if you want to think something ( ) you will think about the
743: vocabulary of English uh it means that uh you are improve your English ( ) I
744: agree with them
745: Facilitator: any other suggestions?
746: Student 20: also there is for example the issues that
747: would be discussed in] debate [I mean maybe at
748: the end people should come up with solutions] solution [which
749: may benefit the society]
750: Facilitator: Ok:: if you don’t have anything more { 
751: Student 20: I want to add something
752: Facilitator: OK OK
753: Student 20: because those group they said what they suggested debate but I sugg I
754: sugg ( ) I option that instead of debate uh vocabulary in debate to change it to
755: argument those suggest debate and I suggest argument ( ) I argument will be free
756: talking ( )
757: Facilitator: any more comments ( ) OK: I would like to thank you at the end ( )
758: thank you very much for this nice conversation nice talk and in fact ( ) I can see
759: there is difference between the way you express yourselves during our first focus
760: session and today ( ) as one of your colleague said but these two men (meaning
761: student 24 and 21) expressed themselves clearly in English and their English was
762: clear ( ) the problem is only when you feel shy ( ) but if you keep on practicing
763: you will see remarkable change in your English ( ) thank you once again