

**A STUDY OF THE L1 AND L2 WRITING PROCESSES AND  
STRATEGIES OF ARAB LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL  
REFERENCE TO THIRD-YEAR LIBYAN UNIVERSITY  
STUDENTS**

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **A Study of the L1 and L2 Writing Processes and Strategies of Arab Learners with Special Reference to Third-Year Libyan University Students**

A number of studies have attempted to examine the writing processes of skilled and non-skilled native and non-native speakers of English. However, few studies have examined the writing processes of Arab university students, and none has been conducted on Libyan students' writing processes. This study examines the writing processes in L1 (Arabic) and L2 (English) of twelve Third-Year Libyan University Students (TYLUS), as they verbalised and produced written texts in both languages. The study investigates the process and product data separately to see if any relationship exists between an individual subject's process skill and product quality in either language.

Observation, think-aloud protocols, interviews, questionnaires, and written products have been utilised to gather data in a triangulated case study. The composing sessions were audio-taped; the tapes were then transcribed, translated, and coded for analysis, along with the drafts and the final written compositions.

The investigation into L1 and L2 writing processes was guided by one main and three sub-research questions. The main research question was: what writing processes do Libyan University students use while writing in L1 Arabic and in L2 English? Do they follow similar or different strategies? The first sub-research question was: how is the linguistic knowledge of the students reflected in L1 and L2 writing? The second was: does the Arabic rhetorical pattern affect the students' English writing?

And lastly, how does instruction influence the writing processes and products of these students?



The L1 and L2 protocol data yielded a number of interesting findings. Most subjects had a purpose in mind while composing their texts, but had little concern for audience. Individually, each subject displayed a unitary composing style across languages, tending to compose in the L1 and L2 similarly, with some variations in specific aspects.

As a group, the subjects' writing process differences were manifested in planning, time and content; writing time was shorter in L1 than in L2; reviewing in L1 focused on organisation and content, but on form, grammar and vocabulary in L2. Similarities were apparent in mental planning and reliance on internal resources as the subjects alternated between writing, repeating, and rehearsing. The L2 compositions gradually emerged with repetitions, pauses, and the use of L1, and seemed to be constrained by the subjects' linguistic knowledge and imperfect mastery of L2. This suggests that the composing knowledge and skills of L1 could potentially be transferred into L2 composing, and the subjects had employed many similar strategies deemed necessary for writing in both languages but were unable to apply accurately them in L2.

In addition, the subjects used L1 to facilitate their composing in L2. They tended to comment and repeat portions of texts in words, rehearse in phrases, and engage in other composing activities at sentence level. Translated segments occurred at almost every level but mainly at phrase level. Finally, and interestingly, some subjects made more errors in L1 than in L2.

A tentative composing process model showing the locations in which L1 was used during the writing process is proposed. Implications for EFL, particularly for Libyan University students, and suggestions for further research are also provided.

## DEDICATION

***To The memory of My Father  
and to My Mother***

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***Author’s Declaration***

I certify that, to best of my knowledge, all the material in this thesis represents my own work and that no material is included which has been submitted for any other award or qualification

***Signature***

.....  
**Date:** .....

## ABBREVIATIONS

<b>CA</b>	Classical Arabic
<b>CA</b>	Contrastive Analysis
<b>CoA</b>	Colloquial Arabic
<b>CR</b>	Contrastive Rhetoric
<b>EA</b>	Educated Arabic
<i><b>EA</b></i>	Error Analysis
<b>EFL</b>	English as a Foreign Language
<b>ESL</b>	English as a Second Language
<b>ESP</b>	English for Special Purposes
<b>L1</b>	Mother Tongue (Native Language)
<b>L2</b>	Foreign Language (Non-Native Language)
<b>LTM</b>	Long-Term-Memory
<b>MSA</b>	Modern Standard Arabic
<b>NCES</b>	The National Centre for Education Statistics
<b>SA</b>	Spoken Arabic
<b>STM</b>	Short-Term-Memory
<b>TESOL</b>	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
<b>TYLUS</b>	Third-Year Libyan University Students
<b>WM</b>	Working-Memory
<b>WP</b>	Writing Process
<b>WSs</b>	Writing Strategies

Note: Italicised abbreviations are intended to distinguish between similar labels.

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Introduction

*A writer caught in the act looks much more like a very busy switchboard operator trying to juggle a number of demands on her attention and constraints on what she can do:*

*She has two important calls on hold.*

*(Don't forget that idea.)*

*Four lights just started flashing.*

*(They demand immediate attention or they'll be lost.)*

*A party of five wants to be hooked up together.*

*(They need to be connected somehow.)*

*A party of two thinks they've been incorrectly connected.*

*(Where do they go?)*

*And throughout this complicated process of remembering, retrieving, and connecting, the operator's voice must project calmness, confidence, and complete control.*

*(Flower and Hayes, 1980b, p. 33)*

The switchboard operator metaphor suggests that the dynamics of the composing processes are intertwined, highly complex mental operations. In attempts to discover the inner operations of the writer, in recent years scholars and researchers into composition have shifted the focus from an examination of the product of composition to an investigation into the composing processes.

In First Language (L1) composition studies, it has, for sometime, been clear that writers plan, write, and revise in a recursive and interactive pattern (Flower and Hayes, 1981a, 1981b).

Studying the composing process has been a major focus of L2 writing research for the past several decades (Cumming, 1998; Grabe and Kaplan, 1996; Krapels, 1990; Silva, 1993). Basically, such research has investigated various aspects of L2 writing processes for different groups of participants with different L1 backgrounds. Since some researchers were interested in the notion that L2 writers' strategies were similar to those used for L1 writing, many studies from the late 1980s onwards have also

compared the same participants' L1 and L2 writing processes. Most of these studies adopted thinking-aloud protocol data as the main source of data for analysis (see, e.g. Arndt, 1987; Jones and Tetroe, 1987; Pennington and So, 1993; Sasaki and Hirose, 1996; Uzawa, 1996; Whalen and Menard, 1995).

Although second language (L2) research into the composing processes is a comparatively new field, studies conducted to date suggest that L2 writers' composing strategies generally resemble those of L1 writers (Lay, 1982, 1983, 1988; Raimes, 1985, 1987; Zamel, 1982, 1983, 1987). Recently, however, composing process studies have begun to discover differences between L1 and L2 writing (Arndt, 1987, 1993; Cumming, 1989, 1998; Raimes, 1987).

Since researchers have realised that L2 writers' strategies are similar to those used for L1 writing, many studies from the late 1980s on have compared the same participants' L1 and L2 writing processes, using the think-aloud protocol as the main source of data for analysis in most of these studies. In most cases, the participants' L2 has been English, apart from a few studies such as those of Cumming et al. 1989, where L2 was French, and Whalen and Menard, 1995, where L2 was also French and the L1 has generally been a European language: Polish (Skibniewski, 1988), French (Cumming, 1989), Spanish (Jones and Tetroe, 1987); a South east Asian language (Bosher, 1998) Japanese, Chinese (Arndt, 1987), and Turkish (Kamisli, 1996).

In spite of the noticeable individual differences found in such studies (e.g. Arndt, 1987), L1 and L2 writing strategies were seen to be basically similar, which means that L1 strategies are transferable into L2 (Uzawa, 1996; Whalen and Menard, 1995). Subjects' L2 writing processes seem negatively affected by lower linguistic proficiency (Silva, 1988; Whalen and Menard, 1995), and the quality of written L2 texts is more strongly associated with the quality of the students' L1 and L2 writing



strategies rather than with their L2 proficiency (Cumming et al., 1989; Jones and Tetroe, 1987; Whalen and Menard, 1995).

In view of the concentration of focus on European and Asian L1, in other languages, this researcher saw a need to discover more about the L1 and L2 writing processes and strategies used by Arabic native speakers, with special reference to third-year Libyan university students.

## **1.2 Statement of the Research Gap**

L2 composition research mainly involves writers who study English as a second language (ESL) away from their homeland, in the setting and culture of the target language. Despite the prevalence of composing process studies, very little research has been done on the composing of non-native speakers who study English as a foreign language (EFL) in their native country. In addition, ESL writers are usually asked to compose only in the L2 in order that their composing strategies may be compared with those of native English speakers. That is, data on ESL writers' composing in the L1, their native language, are not generally gathered (see, e.g. Martin-Betancourt, 1986, Raimes, 1985, 1987). There has not, thus, been sufficient comparative analysis of the composing processes in both the L1 and the L2 for the same EFL writers. If we want to know how the EFL students compose in the two languages, whether the strategies used in L1 and L2 are the same, and how strategies may be transferred from L1 to L2 (Kobayashi, 1992), we need actually to observe the students' composing processes in both their L1 and their L2.

Another interesting question in ESL composition research concerns the use of the L1 when ESL writers compose in the L2 (e.g. Alam, 1992; Chelala, 1981; Jones and Tetroe, 1987; Lay, 1982, 1983, 1988; Raimes, 1985, 1987; Zamel, 1982, 1983). Generally speaking, ESL writers have been observed to resort to translation because



they lack sufficient L2 vocabulary. Some researchers, such as Chelala (1981), have found that the use of translation is an unsuccessful strategy, whereas others report the contrary. In the case of EFL writers, one may assume that composition problems will be multiplied, since these students have less, or even no, exposure to L2 outside the classroom, and even inside the classroom, when class numbers are high, students' opportunities to communicate with either teacher or peers are few. It is therefore important to explore in detail the extent to which and in what manner EFL writers use the L1 while composing in L2.

Furthermore, an elusive but key issue involves the thinking processes of EFL writers. To what degree, for instance, do EFL Arabic writers think in the L2 when they compose in the L2? As long as individual writers consciously and subconsciously employ a variety of strategies and thinking patterns while composing, an understanding of these mental processes should be of great interest to the composition instructor.

Unfortunately, research devoted to a comprehensive study of Arabic-speaking university level EFL writers in terms of composing strategies and thinking patterns is almost non-existent (except for Alam, 1993; Aljamhour, 1992; and Halimah, 1993, 2001) and no study has yet been concerned with Libyan university students. Therefore, there is a need to find out what strategies Libyan Arab EFL university students use and what problems they encounter when composing in both Arabic and English.

The present study, therefore, attempts to help fill this gap in research by describing and analysing the composing processes and strategies of Libyan Arab EFL writers in real-time processing, that is, as they complete writing tasks in the L1 (Arabic) and in the L2 (English).

### **1.3 Purpose and Methodology of the Study**

The current study is designed to explore the composing processes and strategies of a group of Third Year Libyan University Students (TYLUS) when they compose in Arabic and in English. The research question and sub-questions investigated in this study are as follows: (the main research question)

- (1) What writing processes do Libyan University students adopt while writing in L1 (Arabic) and in L2 (English)? Do they follow similar or different strategies?

(Sub-research questions)

- (2) How is the linguistic knowledge of the students reflected in L1 and L2 writing?
- (3) Does the L1 rhetoric pattern affect the students' L2 writing?
- (4) How does instruction influence both the writing process and the written product among Libyan students?

In order to obtain data for this composition study, the researcher has employed a triangulated methodology, which uses a variety of instruments: think-aloud protocols, observation, questionnaires, interviews and written products. In the protocols, the subjects verbalised everything they had in their minds while they were performing composition tasks. Observation was aimed at assessing the subjects' physical behaviour while producing their writing compositions. Interviews were intended to elicit information concerning the subjects' academic background and their attitudes to writing and writing instruction in both languages. Questionnaires revealed the subjects' attitudes towards different aspects of language teaching and instruction, and showed how they reacted to the writing process approach, which was assumed to be very new for them. Written products provided evidence of the writing competence and linguistic knowledge of the subjects in both languages.

#### **1.4 Significance of the Study**

This study is significant in several ways. First, it is the first in-depth protocol-based investigation of the composing processes of third-year Arab EFL university students, and the first of its kind in Libya, in which the students composed in both the L1 and the L2. Second, the information obtained from the study could contribute to a better understanding of composing strategies and shed light on the problems of university EFL writers. Third, it could provide new knowledge that would pave the way for the development of effective composition teaching methods and materials. And fourth, it is hoped that the study will offer helpful findings for the building of a more complete ESL/EFL composition theory.

#### **1.5 Scope of the Study**

The aim of the study is to present a very detailed portrayal of the L1 and L2 writing processes of a group of 12 students. The triangulated methodology gathers information through five different instruments, which generate a vast amount of data. However, the small sample means that the findings may not be generalisable to a larger EFL population, unless they are supported by findings from additional studies similar to this one or in other contexts. Another limitation is in the nature of the composition tasks. The study focuses only on the composing processes and strategies of two descriptive tasks, written in both languages, by this small sample of subjects. It does not attempt to explain all aspects of the composing process of EFL writers or all modes of EFL writing. However, the study has the potential to offer unusual and detailed insights into the composing strategies of non-native speakers of English.

#### **1.6 Organisation of the Study**

The thesis is presented in nine chapters, of which this introduction is the first. Chapter Two is concerned with the nature of writing and includes a definition of

writing, and an examination of the differences between writing and speech. This chapter also contains a review of literature dealing with L1 and L2 writing processes, as well as of the studies conducted on Arab students in a variety of Arab countries. Criticism of the writing process model is also discussed. Chapter Three deals with the teaching of writing in an EFL environment, mainly in the Arab countries. It also sheds light on the factors affecting the writing process, and contains a summary of the most common approaches to teaching writing. Chapter Four investigates the factors causing difficulty in L2 writing. It also presents an examination of the contrastive rhetoric in writing, with a brief look at contrastive and error analysis. Error correction and feedback in writing are examined in Chapter Five. Chapter Six deals with the Methodology of this study, introducing the triangulated case-study approach. Chapter Seven presents the data analysis, in which the research questions are analysed through the think-aloud protocols, observation, interviews, questionnaires and written texts. Planning, writing, revision, and writing strategies, which are the subject of the main research question, are given a particular emphasis and analysed in detail. The results and discussion of data analysis are presented in Chapter Eight. The last chapter, Chapter Nine, contains the conclusions, findings, implications, and recommendations for further research.



## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **THE NATURE OF WRITING**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

The ability to express one's thoughts in written form in a second language with reasonable accuracy and coherence is no mean achievement, since even many native speakers of a language never truly master this skill.

In this chapter we begin by introducing 'the nature of writing', and show how writing differs from certain other productive and perceptive skills by being only, like reading, acquired through formal learning and practice. This difficulty imposes far more responsibility on the teachers in their efforts to help students make fruitful use of the writing processes and produce accurate written tasks. This chapter also revises the relationship between L1 and L2 and argues for the importance of pedagogical practice, as well as providing an overview of the history of L1 and L2 composition theory and teaching.

#### **2.2 Definition of Writing**

Before we embark on a discussion of writing as both a process and a product, we shall first introduce various definitions of writing from different sources. Writing has been defined as "a group of letters or symbols written or marked on a surface of something as a means of communicating" (The Collins Dictionary, 1987). Although such a definition explains the meaning of writing, it does not assist us very much. Writing has also been considered to be "a system of written symbols which represent the sounds, syllables or words of a language" (Richards et al., 1985:313). This definition seems to emphasise the graphical features and linguistic elements of writing at the expense of other aspects. For instance, it does not show that the purpose of writing is

communication. Neither does it say anything about the meaning of writing, nor does it have relevance to Arabic-speaking students learning English as a foreign language.

It is worth mentioning that the word writing has also been given in various functions. Smith (1989) uses the term 'writing' to refer to the act of writing, only when used as a verb, and 'the piece of writing' when used as a noun. 'Writing' has been distinguished from 'composing' by Ingram and King (1988). The former refers to an activity suggested by the teacher and employed by the students in a particular session, whereas the latter means a long-processed operation. The distinction between writing and composing has been echoed by Kaplan (1988b), who employs both terms as complementary constituents of writing as an activity. His argument concerns the idea that writing is a process that takes place in written works that abide by the conventions of companies and journalism, etc., while composing occurs within the function of writing as an heuristic act, as in writing novels, stories, theoretical and philosophical treaties etc. Furthermore, Halliday (1989) makes distinctions between writing and the written language. By the former he means "the symbols and their function in the language" whereas the latter refers to "what is produced in the written medium" (pp. 42-43). Despite the above-mentioned definitions and terminologies, the current study aims to employ the term writing as generic when referring to the concept of writing as a composing process phenomenon of language behaviour.

As far as non-native speakers are concerned, difficulty in writing derives from a number of obstacles that must be overcome all at the same time. For instance, in order to express his ideas, the writer must consider at least four structural levels: overall text structure, paragraph structure, sentence structure, and word structure.

Since our concern is with the writing process, it is important to note that this concept has been used in other fields of education. Syllabuses of language have been divided



into two spheres: Type 1 and Type 2. The first type is concerned mainly with the product of learning, what is being learned, while the second type concentrates on the process of learning, how learning takes place (White, 1988).

The development of writing has led researchers to distinguish between writing which involves composing from other types of writing, such as lists or application form writing. Such a distinction is useful for this study, which is concerned primarily with composition. Composition involves combination of structural sentence units into more-or-less unique, cohesive and coherent larger structures. That is, such a piece of writing contains surface features that connect the discourse and the underlying logic of organisation, which reveals more than the meanings of the individual sentences. Furthermore, composing, per se, can be divided into telling/retelling writing, and transforming writing. The former signifies writing which is already known to the author such as narratives and descriptions, and at the planning stage involves only recalling and reiterating. Transforming, on the other hand, refers to writing for which no blueprint is readily available. Planning, here, requires a complex juxtaposition of various pieces of information, including rhetorical options and constraints (Beretier & Scardamalia, 1987).

### **2.3 The Nature of Writing**

Writing is a relatively recent invention if historically compared with speaking, i.e. its age is a little more than “6000 years” (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996). Scholars argue that the written word, culturally rather than biologically, is the externalisation of the thought process. It is a visual representation of thought, which, unlike speech, is acquired only through formal learning. Writing, thus, is a technology and a set of skills that “must be practised and learned through experience” (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996: 6), and which make writing a complicated task and a source of many problems

for learners, since they do not constitute natural abilities and are not learned with maturity. Rather, they require training, instruction, practice, experience and purpose. Kroll (1990) considers writing to be a difficult skill which presents a challenging task for both native and non-native speakers.

### ***2.3.1 Writing differs from Speech***

Writing differs from speech in a variety of ways such as: a) the writer shares no immediate environment with the reader; b) the writer does not know whether he has clearly and completely conveyed the message to the reader; c) the writer does not have immediate access to motivation either to continue creating the text or to diversify when necessary, and d) the writer must plan, in advance, what he intends to achieve, the sequence and selection which will lead to effective communication (Harris, 1993). Kress (1982) differentiates the grammatical structures of speech from those of writing as follows: “speech, typically, consists of chains of co-ordinated, weakly subordinated clauses and adjoined clauses; writing, by contrast, is marked by fully subordinated and embedding” (cited in Harris, 1993: 4). This distinction characterises writing as being more complicated than speech. It is also an extremely complex cognitive activity, “which requires from the writer to demonstrate control of several variables at once” (Bell & Burnaby, 1984, cited in Nunan, 1991: 6). Writing requires more thematic unity, logical progression, and grammatical linkage between sentences ‘cohesive ties’. Thus, as mentioned above, composing contains surface features in order to “connect the discourse and an underlying logic of organisation which is more than simply the sum of the meanings of the individual sentences” (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996: 4). Halliday (1989) argues that writing exhibits a great deal of ‘lexical density’, i.e. the proportion of structure words to content words within the text. He means by that that writing should bear more content words than structure words to display

meaning because “written language displays much variation of lexical items to total running words” (p. 61).

Writing, according to Nunan (1989), is the most difficult macro-skill for users of a language, no matter whether the language in question is a first, second or foreign language. Although normal children have no difficulty comprehending and speaking their native language, very few of them can manage to read it, and even fewer can write fluently and legibly, unless they are taught how to. White (1981, cited in Nunan, 1989) differentiates between writing and speaking as follows:

*“Writing is not a natural activity. All physically and mentally normal people learn to speak a language. Yet all people have to be taught how to write. This is a crucial difference between the spoken and written forms of language. There are other important differences as well. Writing, unlike speech, is displaced in time. Indeed, this must be one reason why writing originally evolved since it makes possible the transmission of a message from one place to another. A written message can be received, stored and referred back to at any time. It is permanent in comparison with the ephemeral ‘here one minute and gone the next’ character of spoken language- even spoken language that is recorded on tape or disk” (p. 36).*

Writing, accordingly, is a very difficult cognitive task and goes far beyond putting words and ideas on paper in a straightforward way. That is, it is not “simply a direct production of what the brain knows or can do at a particular moment” (Smith, 1989: 33), but it requires “an expense of effort disproportionate to the actual results” (Widdowson, 1983: 34). Moreover, writing is a complex cognitive activity, which forces the writer to demonstrate control of a number of variables simultaneously. Such an effort imposes a great burden of responsibility on the writer to get thought down on paper. In other words, writing is a task that cannot be performed without thought, discipline, and concentration (White, 1987).

Therefore, the writer is constantly struggling with his available cognitive experience, searching, generating, organising, revising and shaping ideas into the best manner and structure to convey the message to his audience in a logical, precise and unambiguous



style. Hedge (1988) sees the production of a piece of writing as ‘crafting’: “the way in which a writer puts together the piece of the text, developing ideas through sentences and paragraphs within an overall structure” (p. 89). All these processes indicate that writing is not an easy task but a very demanding one. Writers often discover something new and unpredicted at the moment of writing. They sometimes discover a real need to find the right word and the right sentence (Raimes, 1985). Hence, there is a close relationship between thinking and writing; Flower and Hayes describe writing as a “set of distinctive thinking processes” (1981: 366). Widdowson (1983) states that writing activity may lead to an unknown destination as a result of unplanned directions, “one frequently arrives at a destination not originally envisaged, by a route not planned for in the original itinerary” (p. 41). The same point was made by Flower and Hayes (1981) when they emphasised that writers usually “start out writing without knowing exactly where they will end up; yet they agree that writing is a purposeful act” (p. 377). This, in fact, agrees with Perl’s (1979) claim that “writers know more fully what they mean only after having written it” (p. 331).

Researchers who advocate the writing process approach, however, have tended to investigate writers as “they went about their work” (Nunan, 1989:36). This supports Zamel’s (1982) observation that composing evolves through several stages as writers discover what through the writing process. That is, writers never put down their own ideas in a ‘readily’ linear fashion, but on the contrary, often seem uncertain of what to do before starting to write and only refine their ideas, develop and transform their thoughts while actually in the process of writing and rewriting.

## **2.4 The Writing Process**

### **2.4.1 *Introduction***

What is the process of writing? What does a writer have to do when involved in the process of writing. Nighitingale (2000:135) claims that every writer knows that: good

writing is “*complex*”, “*messy*”, and a “*problem-solving activity*” comprising “*many different activities that*” eventually result in that product. The word “*eventually*” correctly implies that good writing takes time.

More than three decades ago, researchers and teachers of writing to native speakers of English were beginning to explore the processes which create the written text. They found that writing was generally regarded as a complex process, made up of a variety of sub-processes that happened to occur not consecutively in a strict linear sequence, but cyclically and in varying patterns. Moreover, differences in the writing process were discovered in terms of expert and non-expert writers. This new discovery had an impact on teachers of writing, and supported the rising dissatisfaction with “*traditional approaches*” in America and Europe. As a consequence, writing teachers shifted their concern from the written text that students produced to helping students write better, by aiding them in the actual process of writing, by finding the source of their problems in creating good written texts, and helping them to overcome those difficulties. Such ideas also accorded well with thoughts being expressed in the late 1970s and early 1980s in numerous articles such as those of Murray (1980), whose ideas emphasised the importance of a series of drafts in the writing process, as the writer gradually discovered through writing what it was that he wanted to say.

Therefore, a “process approach” was born, making it clear that the teaching of writing should focus on the “*writing process*” rather than on the “*final product*”. But this was a teaching approach, not a teaching method, and pedagogical methods and means were not laid down or even clearly implied by most of those who conducted empirical research into writing processes.

In this study, the Hayes and Flower’s (1980) ‘Model of Writing Process’ is adopted as a general framework for understanding and teaching effective written compositions to



the third-year university students majoring in English as a foreign language. This model is examined and adopted because it is a comprehensive model of the writing processes inasmuch as it is multi-level, discourse-specific, and data-and goal-driven. Such a model is applied, with some modification because the researcher thinks that these students still need a lot of interaction with their writing teachers if they are to be effective and capable writers. It will also help them comprehend and apply the stages they go through in the writing process, such as planning, drafting, editing, reviewing, and revising. It became apparent that these students had not been taught L1 writing accurately, a fact that was reflected in their L1 writing competence, and which also affected their L2 writing. The researcher thinks that the application of this model may help Libyan university students to use the right procedures and techniques in composing. Although such a model requires certain technical instruments such as tape-recorders, and small-size classes, it would be very effective if teachers and departments were to allot attention and time to it.

#### ***2.4.2 Definition of Writing Process***

Montague (1995) defines writing process as “a teaching approach that focuses on the process a writer engages in when constructing meaning”. That is, the writer learns a particular sequence of activities in the writing process. The National Centre for Education Statistics (NCES) (1996) describes the process involved in writing as “several pre-writing activities or strategies may precede the actual writing, such as topic analysis, audience consideration, brainstorming and planning followed by drafting, revising and editing”. This, in fact, means that writing is not a mere meaning conveyor but goes beyond that for it helps students think more clearly. Cannon (2000) assures that “the very strong relationship which has shown to exist between writing

and learning. Writing has been shown to function as a tool for clarifying and expanding thought” (p. 30).

#### **2.4.3 Research into Writing in English L1 contexts**

Four different but integrated trends have characterised research into writing in L1 contexts. The first trend has been concerned with literacy development, ‘*acquisition of writing*’. The second trend has focused on the “*cognitive aspects of writing*”. The third trend has concentrated on investigating “*the text construction*” within the framework of ‘text linguistics’ or ‘discourse analysis’. “*Rhetorical*” patterns of writing have been the fourth trend of this research. Attention has been paid to composition, applied linguistics, and literary criticism in order to examine variations in writing skill as a function of writing purpose, topic, genre, audience and social construction in writing (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996). From this brief overview, one may assume that writing instruction has changed markedly at all levels, i.e. from elementary to post-university professional contexts. Not only has writing instruction been changed but so also has writing assessment and evaluation.

### **2.5 The Writing Process in L2**

Studying the composing process has been a major focus of L2 research for the past several decades (Caudery, 1995; Cumming, 1998; Kraples, 1990; Silva, 1993). Basically following the design of the L1 composing process, researchers have investigated various aspects of L2 writing processes for different groups of participants (Sasaki, 2000). Because of reliance on L1 writing process procedures, these researchers have not developed any tangible theory specific to the procedures of L2 writing.

Jones (1990) notes that no comprehensive and complete theory of ESL/EFL writing has been developed, and that there is still a need for such a theory to distinguish

writing in ESL/EFL contexts from writing in English as a native language. Silva (1993) notices that “there exists, at least at present, no coherent, comprehensive theory of L2 writing” (p. 668). Such observations have been repeatedly echoed in the works of other leading researchers and theorists (e.g. Grabe and Kaplan, 1996; Jones, 1990; Kraples, 1990, Krashen, 1984, 1992; Leki, 1992, Raimes, 1991).

Second language writing research has relied heavily on L1 writing process research designs. That is, many L2 studies have adopted the analytical criteria of L1 such as those of Perl’s (1979, 1980) coding system, in which she categorised writing process behavior; Faigley and Witte’s (1981) investigation into the influence of revision on meaning; Pianko’s (1979) attention to research in general. Such studies are described neatly by Zamel (1984) as illustrating that “research into second language composing process seems to corroborate much of what we have learned from research in first language writing” (p. 198).

The shift in pedagogical focus has gained prominence and encouraged researchers to provide a useful historical account of how L2 writing theory and practice have evolved since the 1960s to achieve their own status. Raimes (1991) presented the “reflecting parallel” of the development of L1 composition and rhetoric in order to explain how approaches to L2 composition can be categorised through the following four foci:

- a) Focus on form and current-traditional rhetoric in 1966 during which writing served to reinforce oral patterns of the language and test learners’ accurate application of grammatical rules, i.e. the emphasis was on the production of well-formed sentences through controlled composition.
- b) Focus on the writer, 1976, in which the concern has been directed to what L2 writers actually do as they write, i.e. how they plan, draft, revise and edit their texts.
- c) Focus on content and discipline, 1986, encouraged by Horowitz’s (1986a) claim that how writers construct personal meaning overlooks the need of many ESL writers to compose texts with particular expertise. This has led to a shift in methodology to emphasise the



direction of the knowledge and written genres characteristic of ESL writers' disciplines.

- d) Focus on the reader, 1986, through which the emphasis has been put on the importance of the social construction (Swales, 1990). This perspective has seen that writing construction must be "centered on identifying, practicing, and producing the implicit features of written texts aimed at particular audiences" (Ferris & Hedgecock, 1998).

Relatively recently, researchers have begun to examine writing from a process-oriented perspective. Unlike L1 process studies, L2 studies are descriptive in nature, and have produced inconsistent outcomes because of the diverse criteria utilised to select subjects and methods for analysing data. However, Silva (1990) suggests that in order to approach L2 composing systematically we need to have "purposeful and contextualised communicative interaction, which involves both the construction and transmission of knowledge" (p.18).

Research into the EFL/ESL writing process has been concerned with a wide range of topics. Some research has analysed the writing processes of skilled and unskilled writers (Jacobs, 1982; Jones, 1982; Raimes, 1985, 1987; Zamel, 1982, 1983) whereas others have compared the results of the conducted studies (Raimes, 1985, 1987; Zamel, 1982, 1983) with those relevant to native speakers of English (Emig, 1977; Flower and Hayes, 1980; Perl, 1979; Pianko, 1979; Rose, 1980; Sommers, 1980; Faigley and Witte, 1981). The main and overall conclusion that may be drawn from research to date into L2 composition and from a comparison of the results with those of research into the L1 composing process is that the composing skills of skilled and unskilled L2 writers are similar to those of skilled and unskilled L1 writers.

More recently the notion that the L1 and L2 writing processes are interrelated has gained prominence among process-oriented researchers and prompted a series of studies investigating EFL/ESL writers' L1 and L2 writing processes. While some cross-language studies have concentrated on a general analysis of composing

processes (Arndt, 1987; Chelala, 1981; Edelsky, 1982), others have focused on text planning (Akyle, 1994; Cumming, 1987; Friedlander, 1990; Jones and Tetroe, 1987; Lay, 1982) or revision (Gaskil, 1987; Hall, 1990).

The profiles obtain reveal that there exists evidence for the transfer of some L1 knowledge and writing skills to L2 e.g., knowledge of spelling and manipulation of style (Edelsky, 1982), using cohesive devices (Chelala, 1981), planning content (Cumming, 1987; Jones and Tetroe, 1987), and utilising thinking strategies (Cumming, 1989). Furthermore, Arndt (1987) in her study of the L1 and L2 writing processes of six Chinese EFL students found that despite slight differences in their L1 and L2 writing processes particularly with regard to vocabulary, the L1 and L2 writing processes of each individual writer were generally similar.

Some studies focused on revision strategies and transfer across languages (Gaskill, 1987; Hall, 1990; Akyl and kamisli, 1996) or analysed revision strategies as well as other writing strategies like taking notes or using cohesive devices (Chelala, 1982), and these studies produced some contradictory outcomes. For instance, Chelala's subjects did less reviewing and revising during L2 composing, whereas Gaskill's subjects reviewed and revised almost equally in L1 and L2.

More interestingly, research has turned attention to the effects of writing process instruction on ESL students' writing abilities, and has pointed to the advantages and benefits of process-oriented composition instruction for L2 learners (Edelsky, 1982; Spack, 1984; Urzua, 1987).

## **2.6 Models of L1 Writing Process**

### **2.6.1 *Flower and Hayes Model***

Writing process represents a shift in emphasis in teaching writing from the product of writing activities, the finished text, to ways in which a text may be developed: from



concern with questions such as *'What have you written?'* *'What grade is it worth?'* to *'How will you write?'* and *'How can it be improved?'*.

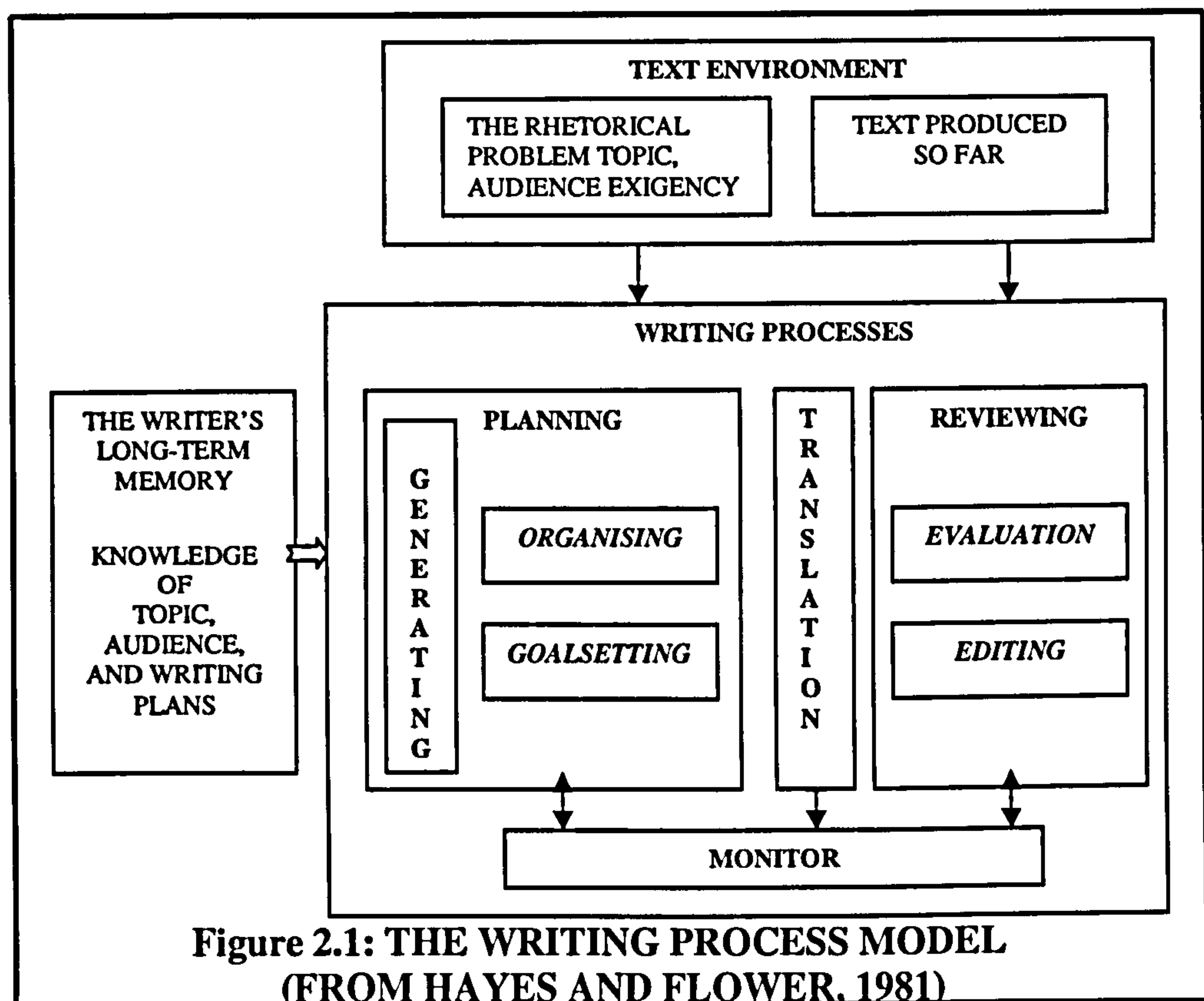
The study of writing was dominated by the linear approach during the 1970s and earlier. Within this approach, writing was perceived as a linear activity that consists of distinct stages such as: pre-writing, writing, and post-writing. This period was characterised by its emphasis on the end product and by its neglect of how the written task was produced, the process of writing.

Dissatisfied with this model, researchers began to look for an alternative. A model comprises the whole process of thinking and activity involved in writing to include insights into the difficulties, strategies, and behavior of writers. Thus, research has revealed the complex, non-linear, and recursive nature of composing, i.e., of 'the writing process'. In this new model 'planning, translating and reviewing' apparently occur as a recursive activity (Flower and Hayes, 1981).

The related studies have used ethnographies, case studies, surveys, and protocol analyses and challenged both the methodology of writing research and notions about teaching writing within the framework of L1, and have consequently influenced L2 writing research, mainly by using L1 research methods. This is the reason why the relevant L1 writing research is reviewed in this study.

Rohman (1965) developed the idea of pre-writing. He claimed that the writing process involves three stages: prewriting, writing, and rewriting. Emig (1971), concerned with the paradigm of L1 composing, used protocol analysis to analyse the writers' behavior while composing. She noticed that planning takes place before and during writing. According to this finding, Emig contributed the theory of the non-linear and recursive nature of writing.

Refining Emig's work, Flower and Hayes (1980) developed the new paradigm and extended the picture of the mental process in the writer's mind during writing (see figure 2.1). Flower and Hayes argue that writers go through various stages such as generating, translating and reviewing when writing. A full description of the writing process model was introduced through a variety of publications during the years 1977, 1980, 1981, 1983, and 1986.



### 2.6.2 A general Description of the Hayes/Flower Model

This model divides the writer's world into three main areas: a) The Task Environment, b) The Writer's Long Term Memory (LTM), and c) The Writing Process. The first and second areas are the context in which the model operates.

The first area-the task environment- includes everything that is outside the writer that influences the performance of the task. The task environment includes, for example, the writing assignment (for instance, if the writer is a third-year English student

whether the assignment is an in-class essay, a take-home essay, or outside-class memorandum that requires research, etc.) It also includes a description of the topic and the intended audience (for instance, an exam problem about the difficulties of foreign language learning etc.). It includes as well information relevant to the writer's motivation and the text which the writer has produced so far once the writing has begun (whether it answers the question asked if the task is an exam problem, whether it is relevant to the assignment, whether it is cogent, etc.).

The second area-the writer's LTM- includes the writer's knowledge about the topic, the writing process, generalised and specialised plans, effective strategies, the applicable grammatical rules and content organisation for standard writing language, etc. (for example, narrative schemes for presenting the fact pattern, genre grammars and structures for presenting a descriptive essay as we have in this study).

The third area-the writing process- includes a number of interactively self-monitored skills and operations. While their function will be described in detail below, in general their interaction is recursive and allows for a complex intermixing of stages. Individual differences in composing styles, moreover, are described through minor variations in the control structure-the self-monitoring processes.

The Hayes/Flower model structures the three major processes and their sub-processes to function in interactive ways, namely: first, the planning process consists of three sub-processes: generating, organising, and goal setting. The function of the planning process is to take information from the task environment and from long-term memory and to use it to set goals and to establish a "*writing plan*" to guide the production of a text that is supposed to meet those goals. Secondly, the translating process acts under the guidance of the writing plan to produce language corresponding to information in the writer's memory. Thirdly, the reviewing process consists of two sub-processes:

reading and editing. The reviewing process aims to improve the quality of the text produced through the translating process. Such improvement might be obtained by detecting and correcting weaknesses in the text with regard to language conventions and accuracy of meaning, and by evaluating the extent to which the text accomplishes the writer's goals.

Flower and Hayes (1981) adopted think-aloud protocol techniques to collect data from native speakers of English in order to see how valuable this new model was with regard to their introduction of this technique, Flower and Hayes argued that think-aloud protocol captures a "detailed record of what is going on in the writer's mind during the act of composing itself" (p. 368). The think-aloud protocol is a technique in which students verbalise whatever comes to their minds while writing their compositions. The verbalised thoughts are tape-recorded, transcribed, and then analysed.

Flower and Hayes frequently used the terms planning, translating, and reviewing when describing and referring to the process of writing. They argue that these processes do not occur in a linear routine, but rather go in a recursive way throughout the act of writing. In their preliminary preface to this model, Flower and Hayes defined the three terms as far as was necessary to understand how the whole process works.

*Planning* refers not only to the making of a detailed plan, but also to the process by which writers "form an internal representation of the knowledge that will be used in writing (ibid., p. 372). Planning is "not a unitary stage, but a distinctive thinking process which writers use over and over again during composition" (Zamel, 1982). That is, planning, per se, includes more than one process of generating ideas, organising (or listing) them, and reaching goals. Generating ideas means accessing



information in the memory of the writer while organising means confirming that the information reached is relevant to the task in hand. In addition, “all rhetorical decisions and plans for reaching the audience affect the process of organising at all levels” (Flower and Hayes, 1983). With regard to goal reaching, the writer establishes a set of goals and purposes in addition to what he has in mind and has given himself space to work out how he manages to achieve them. Planning is a broad activity which includes “deciding on one’s meaning, deciding what part of the meaning to convey to the audience and choosing rhetorical strategies” (Flower and Hayes, 1983: 209). In other words, planning refers to thinking activities prior to putting words on paper. We must note that although planning continues throughout composing, it may not be feasibly encoded in an articulated form.

*Translating* refers to the stage in which thoughts are put down into recognisable language. That is, emerging information from the planning stage is represented by different symbols, which do not require a specific language. Translation is used to express what planning includes in written form. But this does not mean that it is easy to determine when writers progress from planning to translation because the writers do not necessarily have a final meaning which is easily expressed. Thus, the act of translation “can add enormous new constraints and often forces the writer to develop, clarify, and often revise that meaning” (Flower and Hayes, 1983:209). Moreover, writers feel that they need to re-plan when they are hampered in translating their thoughts, in case they get more facilitating ideas.

When the translating model is applied, it typically shows two characteristics: it produces complete sentences and it is often associated with a protocol segment that contains an interrogative that reflects a search for the next sentence parts.



*Reviewing* is the final stage of the writing process, in which revision and evaluation of what has been written or planned are included. Reviewing leads to revision but not vice versa. Both sub-processes, revising and evaluating along with generating, share the special distinction of being capable of interrupting any other process.

When the reviewing model is applied, it produces one more step forward, i.e. it shows that the writers have internalised basic as well as common writing conventions which, in turn, help the writers recognise inaccuracies in standard language and know both what to do with them and when to do it. The reviewing process helps the writers evaluate their texts to determine whether they are meeting their goals or not.

*The monitor*, as an additional activity, determines the boundaries of each stage and when to switch. The monitor is stable but functions differently from one writer to another. For instance, some writers move from the planning stage to the translation stage as soon as they are able, while others are more patient and wait until every piece of planning seems complete. Furthermore, writers whose written task appears easier and shorter do not usually rely on planning in order to undertake the task. Rather, they are more likely to start writing from the outset (Flower and Hayes, 1983). When the monitor model is applied, it shows the individual differences in goal-setting which are reflected in differences in the students' writing styles.

The three mental processes occur in different contexts. The first occurs in the rhetorical context, in which the writers deal with the purpose with regard to the audience. The text, as the second context, gives the writers the opportunity to assess whether the plan includes everything they need. The final context is the memory, in which recalled information and previous experiences are integrated with language structures and ideas.

Sentence composition has been investigated in more concentrated studies by Kaufer, Hayes, and Flower (1986). The focus of one of these studies was on how students compose sentences, construct them from parts, establish consistent grammar in generated sentences, and choose words. Their findings show that students are more likely to construct sentences from parts, which are marked by pauses in the verbal protocols. This study confirmed Flower and Hayes's (1980) distinction between the processes of planning and translating. That is, writers made full plans, but such plans were repeatedly modified throughout the translation process.

## **2.7 Criticism of Writing Process Model**

### ***2.7.1 The Beretier and Scardamalia Models***

As it gained its prominent reputation as a new trend in the teaching of writing, the writing process approach was subject to criticism. Faigley and Witte (1981) criticised the writing process model for relying on the artificial nature of protocols. That is, writers are asked to write, and describe what they are thinking at the same time. Cooper and Holzman (1983) have criticised the process of writing model because it is not applicable to all writers, as only "those particularly trained to perform this trick, or those with special talents in this direction can be a source of data" (p. 290). Another criticism is that Flower and Hayes assume only a single processing model whereas processing, per se, should include different models for the various developmental stages of writing (Beretier and Scardamalia, 1987). That is, expert writers and novice writers do not exhibit similar writing processes. Expert writers employ an efficient kind of writing process which cannot be employed by novice or unskilled writers. In order to explain this more efficiently, Beretier and Scardamalia propose two writing process models to account for this diversity among writers.

Beretier and Scardamalia describe the factors which cause unskilled writers to compose differently, instead of highlighting the common features of all writers. In this

case, they consulted other research studies related to this issue and generated testable hypotheses to elaborate and extend their model. This notion, particularly, contrasts with Flower and Hayes, who argue for an exploration of data as a means of developing theories of writing, while testing is the responsibility of others, to prove or disprove what they have assumed.

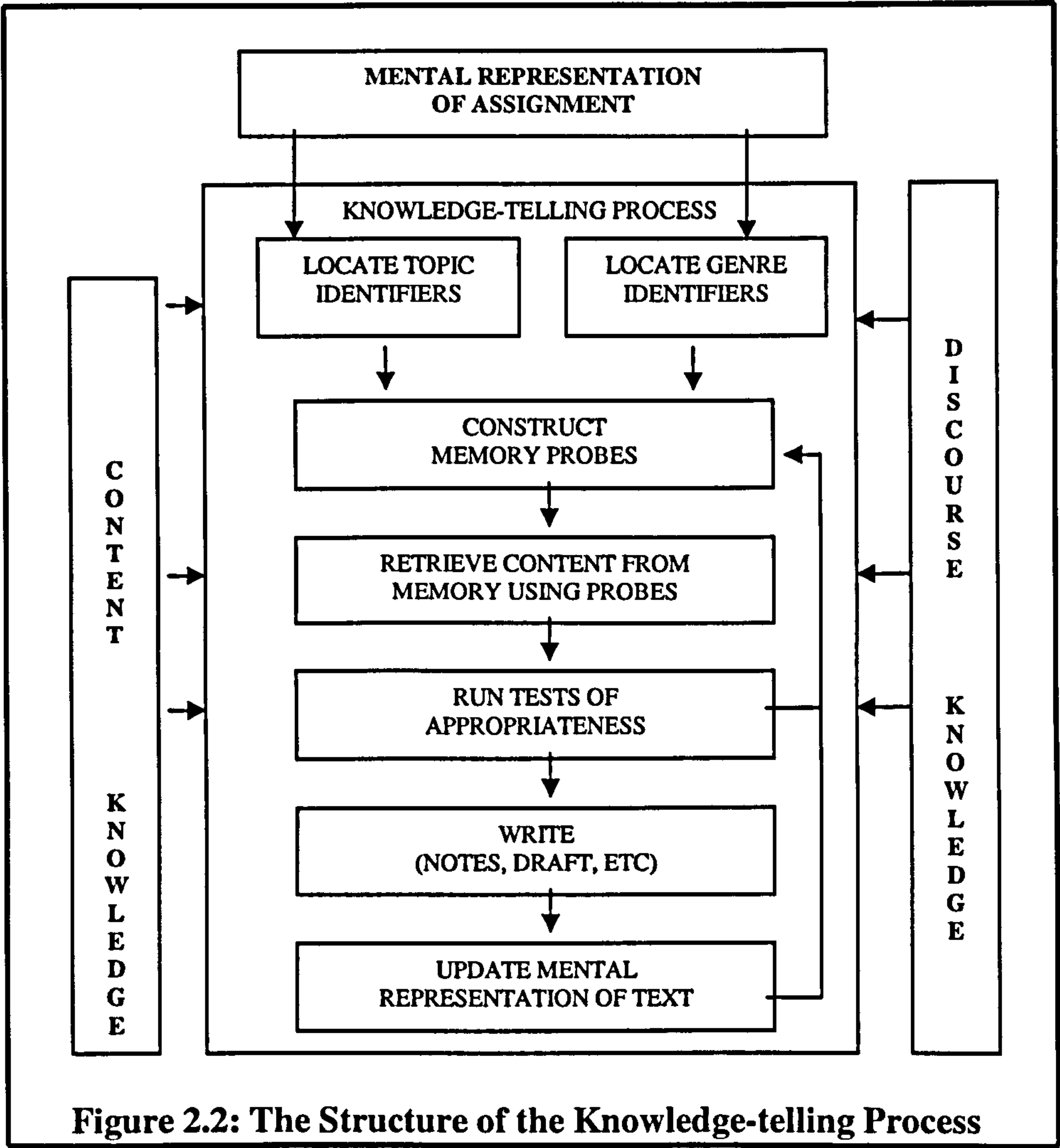
Beretier and Scardamalia suggest a mechanism that may be used to explore these issues. They propose that since composing is a mature and skilled process, it requires a more sophisticated interplay of problem recognition and solution. This sophisticated behavior is obviously a distinctive feature of skilled, as opposed to unskilled, writers. They explain the basic difference in their two writing process models: “*Knowledge-telling*” and “*Knowledge-transforming*”.

### ***2.7.2 Structure of the Knowledge-telling Model***

Beretier and Scardamalia argue that children and less-skilled writers usually start writing much sooner without any remarkable initial planning because they merely tell what they have to convey in a simple way. Furthermore, they attempt to make the task relatively uncomplicated to show they are competent and successful. When they write, they shift from ‘dialogues’ in which a partner (reader) is hypothesised, to a ‘monologue’ in which they imagine no partner but write to themselves, or in the way that they perceive. In other words, children and less-skilled writers usually have a tendency not to generate enough useful information from their internal resources because their primary goal is to ‘tell’ what they have retrieved (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996).

Such a technique may be acceptable when the writers are dealing with personal experience and/or expressing certain feelings, or for narratives. Cumming (1991) anticipated the ‘*knowledge-telling, knowledge-transforming*’ models when he

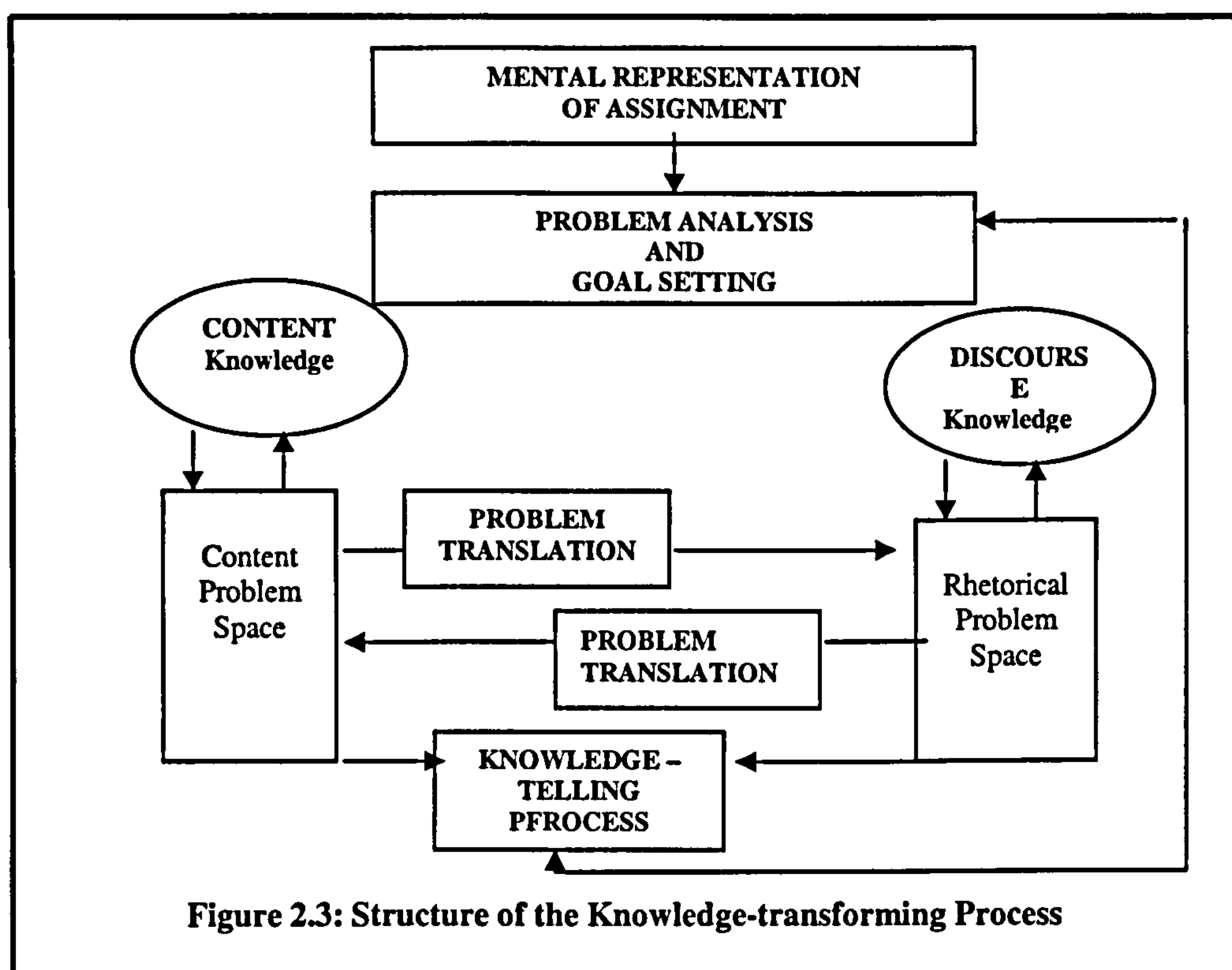
investigated the writing strategies of two different students, an Arab student and a French student. He found that the Arab student demonstrated the features of the knowledge-telling model whereas the French student adopted the knowledge-transforming model. The Arab student “does not refine that knowledge, use it to achieve new goals, or to transform his thinking” (p. 379) whereas the French student displayed a mental challenge as “a way of solving a mental problem she has set for herself clarifying her own thinking” (p.380). The following figure (2.2) illustrates what actually happens.





### 2.7.3 Structure of the Knowledge-transforming Model

Problems in this model are solved consciously and directly because the writing task leads to problem analysis and goal setting. Such goals and problems force the writer to plan before starting to write. Writers adopting this model easily figure out whether the problems are of content generation, content integration, audience expectation, linguistic, stylistic, or organisational. Even if the generated content results in new rhetorical problems, writers using this model create suitable ways to organise their information. Furthermore, once the problems are resolved they use the knowledge-telling component to generate writing (see figure 2.3).



In addition, although collecting concurrent verbal reports is an effective way to obtain real-time data on the participants' writing processes (Ericsson and Simon, 1993), this model contains various inherent problems (Smagorinsky, 1994). Most of the criticisms focused on the following factors as negative results of the thinking-aloud protocols when used as the primary data collection instrument:

- a) It is not always easy for potential writers to produce 'think-aloud' data while writing in L2. Moreover, it appears even more difficult when they are asked to speak in L2 (e.g. Raimes, 1985, 1987) because these



- writers often think in their L1 while writing (Cumming, 1989; Cumming et al., 1989; Uzawa, 1996).
- b) Although writers were allowed to speak in any language, some expressed difficulty with the task (Whallen and Menrad, 1995)
  - c) Although some researchers could manage to obtain analysable data from participants, there was always the danger of “reactivity”.

However, these criticisms of the use of protocol analysis have recently been called into question. Ericsson and Simon (1994) concluded that they found no evidence that thinking-aloud protocols changed the course or the structure of the task being studied. Ransdell (1995) found that there was an effect for the protocol analysis method on the rate, but not on the nature, of the process involved. Although she measured such things as words per minute, total numbers of words and clauses, etc. she ignored all process information. Stratman and Hamp-Lyons (1994), looking at revision processes, suggested that the protocol analysis method affects only the quantity of certain kinds of verbal processing, but not the quality of what is written. Janssen et al. (1996), using pauses as measures on two tasks, found that an effect exists for the protocol analysis method, which appeared to be stronger on a knowledge-transforming task than on a knowledge-telling one, indicating reactivity. The protocol analysis method is still endorsed because of the richness of the data it produces; however, researchers are basically required to build in empirical checks to make sure their results are untainted.

#### 2.7.4 EFL Writing Ability Model by Sasaki

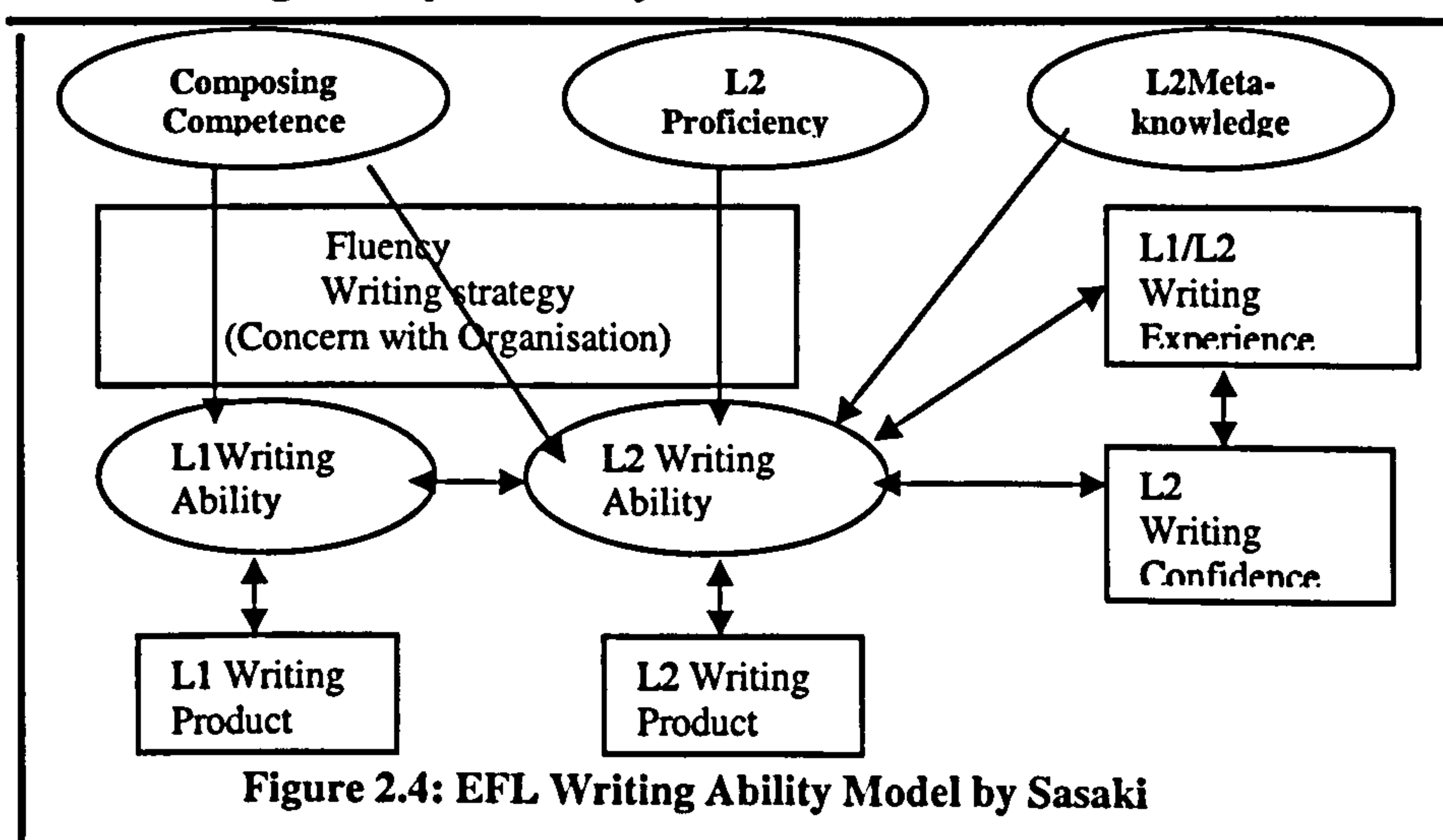


Figure 2.4: EFL Writing Ability Model by Sasaki

Sasaki (1996) investigated the factors that might influence Japanese university students' expository writing in EFL. On the basis of his results, he proposed an explanatory model, as shown in Figure 2.4, that would reflect EFL writing ability. The model indicates that there are three explanatory variables: L2 proficiency, L1 writing ability, and L2 meta-knowledge, which affect L2 writing production. He postulated writing competence as the main factor influencing the L1 and L2 writing ability. He confirmed that the use of L1 writing ability manifested itself as a writing strategy for producing L2 texts, although other writing strategies might also affect these texts. He indicated that integrated writing experience in L1 and L2, and L2 writing confidence might also facilitate the writing production of L2.

This overview of the L1 and L2 writing process provides a background to the following review of previous studies on both L1 and L2 that were either entirely or at least partially concerned with the shift to the new paradigm of writing.

## **2.8 Research into the Writing Process**

### **2.8.1 *L1 Writing***

The non-linear, recursive nature of composing was the interest of Perl (1979), Pianko (1979), and Sommers (1980). These researchers found similar composing behaviour when they investigated unskilled and remedial writers among their subjects.

Perl (1979), using a case-study method, tape-recorded five unskilled L1 college writers and then analysed their activities during composing. Perl found that although unskilled writers also go through recursive processes while composing, they seem more concerned with mechanics and surface errors when they reread the texts and/or pause. She commented on this, noting but "premature and rigid attempts to correct and edit their work truncate the flow of composing" (p. 22).

'Retrospective structuring', or shuttling back and forth during composing was found in Perl's (1980) study. She also found that weak writers frequently tend to look for

rules and mechanics but are unable to anticipate their readers' needs. This phenomenon is called 'projective structuring', which has similarities to what Flower and Hayes (1980) referred to as rhetorical context.

The composing processes of a cross-section of college freshmen and remedial writers were investigated by Pianko using a different methodological approach. Pianko (1979) observed and video-taped seventeen volunteers writing five essays for the study. Immediately after the completion of one of the writing sessions, each student was interviewed about the behaviour exhibited during his composing experience in order to elicit the writer's views on particular types of behaviour. Although observation, video-taping and interviews were used in this study, Pianko did not mention that he had analysed the think-aloud protocols or at least, used them as a technique; nevertheless, it is implicitly obvious in his discussion.

Pianko pointed out that his subjects had done little self-initiated writing with very little commitment to it. He attributed the slower pace of remedial writers to their tendency to concentrate on mechanics and usage as well as correct wording on paper. Pianko stressed that, during observation, many of the remedial students "hesitated while writing, they did not pause", and when they were questioned about the reasons behind this "they most often responded that they were worried about their spelling" (p. 13). The fluent writers, on the other hand, paused twice as much as the remedial writers. The fluent writers paused in order to plan and prepare what to write next, and to check if their plans fulfilled the purpose of the task, whereas the weak writers paused merely to revise grammar and mechanics.

Using a case-study approach, Sommers (1980) investigated revision strategies. She randomly chose forty-writers twenty experienced and twenty freshmen or upper-level writers. Each subject wrote three essays and rewrote each twice, producing nine

written products in draft and final form. Each subject was interviewed three times. After coding the written information and analysing the verbal reports of the interviews, Sommers found that weak writers revise in a very limited way, i.e. they were mainly interested in lexicon and teacher-generated rules but rarely modified the ideas already written down. These writers consider the revision process as preparing what they have written for typing. This result confirms Pianko's and Perl's findings. On the other hand, the fluent, skilled writers viewed revision from a more global perspective. Such writers revise the whole text, to find and create chunks, to discover meaning and to contribute to the development of the whole essay. Sommers neglected the think-aloud protocols, which seem very helpful in eliciting more immediate information about what is going on in the writers' minds while revising. I believe that the think-aloud protocol is necessary in this type of study because it helps the researcher to determine what exactly goes on during revision, and because revision is a real situation in which the writer verbalises his own thoughts by asking himself questions, making comments, pausing, etc.

Children, on the other hand, have been found to be less likely to revise, or to have more than one way to apply their revision process. Calkins (1983) observed third and fourth graders and found that these children sometimes do not revise at all but move on to next ideas instead. However, on other occasions, they elaborate what they write by making minor changes to spelling, punctuation, and vocabulary items. Calkins attributed these shortcomings in terms of revision to children's lack of knowledge of how to revise. I think the observation approach seems the most appropriate for this type of writer, since it is difficult for them to use the think-aloud approach, or to answer the questionnaires, or even to respond properly to the interviews.



Twelfth graders' revision seemed to be characterised by word and surface changes, according to Bridwell (1980). She found two distinct groups with different revising strategies. Students in the first group focused on changing surface features but did not change at other levels. The second group of students made more comprehensive changes, mainly at the word, phrase, and sentence levels, but did not do a complete text level revision.

The main implications that may be drawn from this brief review of the L1 studies can be summed up as follows:

- a) There is a contrast between novice and expert L1 learners with regard to strategies of revision.
- b) Novice writers attend to grammatical rules, lexical items, surface errors, and mechanics in general.
- c) Expert writers revise their written tasks much more deeply with more focus on organisation and meaning, and when they pause they are more likely to plan and prepare what they write next on the basis of the readers' needs.
- d) Novice writers spend a very limited amount of time in planning before they start writing their compositions, whereas expert writers plan carefully and clearly identify the purpose of the composition.
- e) The composing strategies adopted by novice and expert writers seem ultimately similar, with slight differences that might be caused by the personal differences among the writers.
- f) The shift from seeing writing as a linear product to writing as a cognitive process has shown that certain strategies are used at various stages to complete the task.

Comparisons here were made with within-subject studies i.e. how L1 writers perform their written tasks. Although the current study makes use of the conclusions of the studies conducted on L1 writers to a certain extent, it proceeds a step further to make a comparison not only between skilled and unskilled writers but also between their use of two languages, Arabic and English. Differences and similarities between both languages will be specified, and it will be shown how these affect the writing process

of Arab student writers; we shall also investigate whether Arab learners follow similar strategies when writing in both languages or whether they behave differently according to which language they are using.

The studies mentioned above reveal the non-linear and recursive nature of composition writing. It is worth mentioning that these studies affected not only the composition research in L1 during the 1970s and 1980s but also most of the L2 composition research which was conducted according to the designs and methodologies used in these studies.

### **2.8.2 *L2 Writing***

Chelala (1981), modelling Perl's (1979) method, investigated the L1 and L2 'composing aloud' behaviour of two Spanish-speaking women. She "identified effective behaviours and ineffective behaviours" (Kraples, 1990: 39) of her subjects. The women were found to be using L1 in pre-writing and switching back and forth between L1 and L2 during the process of writing per se. Chelala was not able to determine any definitive trends, however, she remarked that her study had "opened more questions than it provided answers" (p.183). She concluded that use of L1 did not facilitate L2 composing for several reasons such as difficulty of L2 and the inevitable interference of L1 which more likely changes the meaning in L2 essays.

Lay (1982) investigated the compositions and think-aloud protocols of four adult Chinese-speaking students. She also interviewed her subjects about their writing background and current attitudes toward writing. The main objective of this study was to examine the "interplay of the native language in the writing process" (p. 406). However, she forgot, or neglected to mention, which coding system was used to record the behaviour, but she found that her subjects had incorporated L1 into L2 writing although the assignments were purely in L2. She concluded that the use of L1

in writing “depends on the relationship between the writers’ experience and the topics” (p.406). In an extended study, Lay (1983) noticed that those of her subjects who made more L1/L2 switches in the protocol produced better writings. This study revealed that some subjects preferred to use Chinese characters when making planning notes for their L2 composition.

Rhetorical concerns and composing interested Jones (1982), who investigated both the written products and the writing processes of two writers, classified respectively as ‘poor’ and ‘good’. The two writers were linguistically and intellectually different, a graduate level Turkish speaker and a freshman German speaker. Jones’ findings indicated that his writers’ rhetorical structures were entirely affected by their writing strategies because, as he explained, the poor writer was “bound to the text at the expense of ideas” whereas the good writer made her ideas generate the text. He concluded that the poor writer was ultimately unable to compose, and attributed this to a lack of composing competence as the primary source of difficulty in L2 writing.

Zamel (1983), unlike Chelala and Lay, did not use the think-aloud approach but instead observed her subjects while they composed. Although her objectives were stated as being to examine “the composing processes of ESL students” (p. 168), it turned into a comparison of these subjects’ behaviour with that of their counterparts from other process studies. She noticed that there were a number of similarities in the behaviour of L2 and L1 writers. For instance, both groups demonstrated recursiveness and generation of ideas. She also noticed that unskilled ESL writers were more likely to be concerned with making errors than with generating meaning.

This study did not mention what types of behaviour had been selected or classified which made it difficult to formulate generalisations about the relationship between the students’ writing and their actual writing behaviour. Furthermore, this study was

severely criticised by Raimes (1985) for not providing a clear-cut definition of the terms 'skilled' and 'unskilled'. Raimes has contended that "any examination of unskilled must.... clearly address the question.... unskilled relative to whom and according to what criteria" (p. 232).

Zamel (1982), concerned with linguistic and composing competence, investigated the proficiency of eight university-level students. She interviewed her subjects in order to gain a clear picture of her subjects' "writing experiences and behaviours" (p. 199), as a retrospective account of writing processes. She also collected the students' drafts for the production of one essay each. Her findings were similar to those obtained in L1 studies. She concluded that L1 writing process instructions might be effective for teaching L2 writing. She maintained that when students understand and experience composing as a process, their written products will eventually improve.

The question of whether L2 writers compose similarly to L1 writers motivated Zamel (1983) to adopt a case-study approach, observing her subjects while composing, interviewing them upon conclusion of their writing, and collecting all of the written materials of each essay. The methodology of the study was characterised by direct observation. Also the subjects were her university-level students, classified as 'skilled' and 'unskilled' based on an evaluation of their essays. The 'skilled' writers were keen to revise more and spend a longer time working on their essays than the 'unskilled' writers were. The skilled writers concerned themselves first with idea generation, revised discourse, exhibited recursiveness in writing process, and put off editing to the end of the process. These strategies were entirely similar to those of L1 writers described in L1 writing literature (see, for example, Pianko, 1979; Sommers, 1980). On the other hand, the unskilled writers spent less time writing and revising, more interested in trivial bits of their essays, and started editing from the outset to the



end of the process. The strategies adopted by the unskilled writers seemed very similar to their counterparts in L1 (see Sommers, 1980). In this study Zamel intended to examine how second language writing affected the composing process. Although her subjects' responses were not totally persuasive, her overall conclusion was that writing ability in L2 did not necessarily have a major influence on the composing process in general. Such a conclusion echoed what had been found in Jones (1982).

Unlike Zamel (1983), Raimes (1985a) found that the 'act' of L2 writing was somehow distinct from that of L1 writing. Such a finding left the door half-open for researchers to examine the factors, mainly the relationship between the two processes, behind this.

Such assumed differences have obviously inspired researchers to investigate fully the similarities and differences between the L1 and L2 writing processes. The similarities and differences between L1 and L2 writers, the role of L1 use in L2, and the influence of L1 writing processes on L2 writing processes have gained in interest, as well as the influence of L2 writing instructions as being 'bi-directional' on L1 writing processes.

Edelsky (1982) conducted a longitudinal study to investigate a common finding in L2 studies i.e. writers call on their previous L1 knowledge when write in L2. She investigated the written products of twenty-six bilingual school children from the first, second and third grades. She collected four samples from each child's written products over one school-year period. She found that L1 knowledge forms "the basis of new hypotheses rather than interferes with writing in another language" (p.227). She also implied that basic L1 composing processes seemed to be applied to L2 composing.

Cultural and linguistic features as influential factors in L2 composing were ethnographically investigated by Gavaln (1985), using ten doctoral students as

subjects. From analyses of data from interviews, and assessments of writing skills, and levels of bilingualism and biculturalism, he observed that the subjects' L2 writing was generally influenced by both their L1 thinking and culture and their L2 thinking and culture. This switching between two languages and two cultures caused his subjects' composing processes to be full of pauses and doubts.

Research into composing processes in a second language has also investigated the relationship between extensive reading and writing in L1 and its impact on L2 writing. Brooks (1985), in her investigation of the writing processes of five 'unskilled' college writers, found that students who had read and written extensively in their L1 were able to use those competencies when writing in L2, including a sense of audience, and a variety of composing strategies.

Planning activity is another area that has gained the attention of researchers. Using a protocol analysis approach, Jones and Tetroe (1987) investigated the planning behaviour of six graduate Spanish-speaking L2 writers. Data were collected over a six-month period. They found that their subjects made significant use of their L1 in their L2 writing. They also noticed that the subjects did less writing performance in their L2 than in their L1. Although they argued that L2 composing is not a "different animal from first language composing" (p.55), it was found that the subjects had transferred L1 writing strategies to L2 writing. Jones and Tetroe concluded that the use of L1 decreased the level of writing performance of the subjects and that the lack of L2 vocabulary resulted in L1 use.

A comparison between the L1 and L2 composing processes of Puerto-Rican college students was the topic of a study by Martin-Betancourt (1986). She found similarities between the two composing processes except in the case of two types of behaviour: using more than one language and translating. Using protocol analysis, she found that

her subjects were involved in solving linguistic problems and using L1 during L2 writing. With regard to the use of L1 in L2 writing, she found inconsistencies among the subjects. Lack of vocabulary in L2 was one of the major problems that the subjects faced. These results supported the findings of Raimes (1985) and Arndt (1987). Martin-Betancourt concluded that some subjects relied heavily on Spanish, while others used Spanish more frequently, in some cases incorporating translation from L1 to L2 into their writing processes.

In a study of six EFL Chinese-speaking graduate students, Arndt (1987) observed that the writing processes of the subjects in L1, Chinese, were similar to those used in L2, English. Each subject wrote one essay in Chinese and one essay in English for the study. This study is one of the few studies done with EFL students using think-aloud protocols and Perl's coding scheme. Arndt found differences in L1 and L2 writing processes for each subject, particularly in the area of vocabulary. She found that the subjects "revised for word-choice more in the L2 task than in the L1 task, but rehearsed for word choice more in L1 task than in L2. This suggests that they felt less able to try out alternatives and less happy with decisions in L2 than in L1" (p. 265).

Urzua (1987) observed 4 Southeast Asian children as they wrote and revised various pieces of writing in English as a second language. He found that the children appeared to have developed three areas of writing skill: a sense of audience, a sense of voice, and a sense of power. He also found that both the cognitive and the social aspects of literacy develop for ESL children in ways that are similar to those of native speakers when developing literacy in their L1. He concluded that these subjects had developed in exactly the same way as native English-speaking children do.

A tendency to rely on L1 in generating ideas in the L2 writing process was clearly found by Cumming (1989) when examining six of his Francophone Canadian adult

subjects. The subjects were asked to write three different tasks personal, expository, and academic. Data were drawn from composing-aloud tapes, observational notes, and questionnaires on the subjects' educational and personal backgrounds as well as their own assessment of their L1 writing. Cumming observed that the expert writers used L1 for generating content and reformulating style, while the novice writers consistently used L1 to generate ideas. This implies that the expert writers did more thinking in their L1, French.

Friedlander (1990), interested in the effects of L1 on composing in English as a foreign language, tested the hypothesis that "the first language will assist retrieval of information on certain topics" (p. 111). He investigated the responses of twenty-eight Chinese-speaking university-level students. The students were asked to reply to two letters; for only one of the letters the students were asked to generate a written plan in their native language, Chinese; they were also asked to plan both letters in English before they started their actual writing in English. Students were instructed to brainstorm, and organise the ideas for the letters. The Chinese plans were translated into English and all the plans and essays were graded to gather data for the study. Friedlander found that using topic-related language to plan content resulted in better planning and, ultimately, in better writing. Regarding translation from Chinese to English, Friedlander observed that "translation from the native language into English appears to help rather than hinder writers when the topic area knowledge is the first language" (p. 124). This study supports the findings of Lay (1982), and Gavaln (1985), regarding extensive use of L1 if the topic is related to L1 culture.

Hall's (1990) findings indicated that there were more revising and reviewing episodes during the L2 composing process than during L1 composing. Hall also found that some revising strategies were unique to L2 with regard to recursiveness, which "took



on an additional function in L2 composing” (p. 56). Hall commented on these outcomes and observed that despite these differences, there were also striking similarities with regard to revision of both linguistic and discoursal features. Hall concluded that L1 revising strategies may be transferred to L2, and suggested that more concentrated research is needed to investigate whether or not instruction in L2 writing does affect L1 writing strategies, suggesting that the process of transfer is more likely to be “bi-directional and interactive” (p. 56).

Concerned with writing apprehension, Wu (1992) investigated the relationship between L1 and L2 writing, and its impact on the Chinese student learners’ attitudes. Wu conducted this study to determine the relationship between the attitude one holds about writing and one’s writing proficiency, and the impact of L1 writing proficiency on L2, and also to examine linguistic background and other possible factors associated with one’s writing proficiency. Wu collected data from 30 Chinese college students enrolled in an ESL programme. Data were collected through written samples of both L1 Chinese and L2 English essays. A questionnaire was administered primarily in order to gather information about the learners’ linguistic and academic backgrounds, and descriptive and correlational statistics of the learners’ apprehension regarding writing tasks, and the effect of L1 writing proficiency and linguistic differences between L1 and L2 on L2 writing. Wu found that his ESL Chinese college students had shown different attitudes towards the L1 and L2 writing tasks. He also found a significant relationship between the students’ attitudes towards writing in L1, Chinese, and the scores they obtained in these essays. This relationship was also observed between their attitudes towards writing in L2, and the respective scores. He concluded that there was a possible relationship between Chinese college students’ L1 and L2 writing proficiency. However, a close comparative analysis of Chinese and

English writing samples had revealed several linguistic difficulties or gaps in interlingual transfer in the areas of passive voice, modifiers, and some phrasal and sentence structures.

Leibman (1992) investigated the differences between Arabic and Japanese rhetorical instruction. She surveyed a total of 89 students –35 Japanese and 54 Arabic students enrolled in intensive English and freshman composition classes in a Southern U.S. state-founded, urban university. Using a questionnaire made up of both open-ended and closed-form, she asked the students to recall the writing instruction they had received in their native countries in their native languages. She wanted to examine contrastive rhetoric, focusing not only on finished written products, but also on the contexts in which the writing occurred and on the processes involved in its production. She commented that there were two limitations existing in the early theory and research on contrastive rhetoric: a) they had a narrow view of rhetoric, considering only the organisation of finished texts, and b) they had a narrow view of Western rhetoric. She found that rhetorical instruction does differ in the Japanese and Arabic cultures. That is, Arab learners and teachers' instruction emphasise the transactional function, whereas Japanese rhetoric instruction focuses on the expressive function, of writing.

Pennington and So (1993) conducted a study to investigate how 6 Singaporean university students produced written texts in Japanese as a second language, and in English or Chinese as their primary written language. The study examined the process and product data separately to see if there was any relationship between an individual writer's process skills and product quality in the two languages. The study proved that the 6 subjects had developed non-linear writing processes involving a complex interplay of thinking, writing, and revising throughout the processes. Also, the

subjects frequently paused for the purposes of thinking, planning, and revising as they proceeded in their production of the written texts. The researchers found no clear relationship between process and written product data in the L2, Japanese. They discovered that the pattern of the writing process and the level of writing skill of each individual subject were similar in both L1 and L2, a result consistent with the research of Arndt (1987), Cumming (1989), Edelsky (1982), Hall (1990), and Jones and Tetroe (1987). Furthermore, Pennington and So found that the quality of written products in the L2 showed a consistent relationship to the subjects' general L2 Japanese proficiency, rather than to the quality of the written products in the L1, English and Chinese. These findings seem consistent with the conclusions of Cumming (1989), that 'writing expertise and second language proficiency are psychologically different' (p. 118) and that proficiency in a second language is an 'additive factor, enhancing the overall quality of writing produced' (p. 81).

In a study based on four case studies of native Malay speakers of English as a foreign language, Rashid (1996) investigated the composing processes and strategies of 4 adult undergraduates. This study aimed to examine the students' L1 and L2 composing processes and the strategies adopted to perform the written tasks in both languages. The study used protocol techniques from both think-aloud procedures and retrospective interviews. Audio and video recordings of the students' writing were made to analyse the participants' writing behaviour patterns and compare the time spent on each sub-process during the writing processes.

The results of this study revealed consistent patterns when a comparison was drawn between the writers' L1 and L2 writing behaviour, with some differences evident between advanced and intermediate student writers. That is, advanced writers tended to be more concerned with organising and content material, whereas intermediate

writers tended to be more interested in syntax, mechanics and vocabulary, in both L1 and L2. Moreover, translation processes were differently utilised. The advanced writers thought in L2 and did not use L1 translation. In contrast, the intermediate writers relied on their L1 thinking and on translation to sustain their L2 writing. None of the participants experienced major writing breakdowns during their composing processes. Rashid concluded that his subjects tended to transfer their L1 composing processes to their L2 and that they seemed to be influenced by a mixture of social, educational, and psychological elements when writing both L1 and L2 compositions. Interested in second language learners' L1 writing process, L2 writing, and translation from L1 into L2, Uzawa (1996) compared these processes in 22 Japanese students who had been learning English as a second language at a Canadian post-secondary institution for Japanese high school graduates. The subjects were taking academic courses such as academic writing, translation and interpretation, when the study was conducted. The subjects had studied English in Japan for 6 years before they came to Canada. Uzawa adopted a case-study methodology using thinking-aloud protocols, observation, interviews, and written samples to elicit information. He found that most students used a "what-next" approach both in L1 and L2 writing tasks but a "sentence-by-sentence" approach in the translation tasks. He also found that attention patterns in the L1 and L2 writing tasks were very similar, but quite different in the translation tasks. Moreover, he found that scores on language use in the L1 and L2 writing tasks were similar, but scores on language use in the translation tasks were significantly better than in the L2 writing task.

Unlike many researchers, and interested by Hall's (1990) proposal that L1 writing might be affected by L2 instructions and transfer which occur as "bi-directional and interactive" behaviour, Akyle and Kamisli (1996) investigated the relationship



between L1 and L2 writing processes, strategies and attitudes in an academic context. Eight Turkish-speaking students enrolled in the freshman English composition course in the Department of English, Istanbul university, volunteered to participate in this study. Data were drawn from analyses of think-aloud protocols, student compositions, questionnaires, and semi-structured interviews. Akyle and Kamisli found that the type of writing instruction they received helped the student writers improve their EFL writing strategies. These findings confirmed those of previous studies conducted in EFL contexts (Diaz, 1985; Edelsky, 1982, 1984; Spack, 1984; Urzua, 1987). Akyle and Kamisli also found that the writing instruction positively affected the student writers' writing strategies in L1, Turkish. Such a finding lends a positive answer to Hall's (1990) question that as to whether gains in L2 writing strategies can be transferred to L1 strategies: i.e. whether the process of transfer is bi-directional and interactive. They concluded that there were more similarities than differences between L1 and L2 writing processes. That is, there were some differences in terms of revision strategies. These results confirmed those of the studies of Arndt, 1987; Chelala, 1982; Cumming, 1987; Gaskill, 1987; Hall, 1990; Jones and Tetroe, 1987.

Concerned with native language interference in learning a second language, Bhela (1999) investigated the features of interference of L1 in L2 and were the effects of L1 on the syntactic structure of the written tasks in L2. She observed 4 Spanish, Vietnamese, Cambodian, and Italian-speaking subjects' writing. She used a descriptive case-study methodology to uncover the complexity of language use in this particular sample of language learners. The subjects were given two sets of sequential pictures, one at a time, and were asked to write a story beginning with the first and ending with the second picture. She also interviewed and tape-recorded the subjects after they had finished the writing tasks, when they were asked about how and why

they had used a specific L1 or L2 structure if there was an error identified. She found that the subjects had experienced gaps in their L2 syntactical structures, which they tried to adjust by using the L1 structures. The subjects brought the form and meaning from both L1 and L2 into closer alignment in order to minimise the L2 syntax. The subjects translated every L2 word into an L1 equivalent which implies that 'thinking in the mother tongue is the only way a learner can begin to communicate in a second language' (p. 11). Bhela also found that her subjects had adopted their L1 structures to help them in the L2 texts. Finally, L2 writers had accumulated structural entities of L2 but demonstrated difficulty in organising this knowledge into appropriate, coherent structures.

Cava (1999) analysed the writing processes of unsuccessful second language writers. She investigated the writing process of 4 subjects who were matriculated in a two-year college programme. She used a qualitative study in order to determine the characteristics of the unsuccessful second language writer. Questionnaires, think-aloud protocols, and interviews were employed to gather information about the metacognitive strategy use and knowledge of the participants. In contrast to previous research, she found that her unsuccessful subjects had done very little planning, had written in a simple straightforward manner, expanding their original plan in a linear manner, rarely made meaning-changing revisions, and made only surface-level grammatical corrections.

In order to establish an empirical model of the L2 writing process, Sasaki (2000) investigated three different groups, 4 subjects in each group, of 12 Japanese EFL learners, using multiple data sources, including the subjects' written texts, video-taped pausing behaviour while writing, stimulated recall protocols, and gave analytic scores given to the written texts. Methodologically, he adopted a research scheme that had

been effectively utilised in building models of Japanese L1 writing. He divided his subjects into three pairs: experts vs. novices; more experts vs. less experts; novices before and after 6 months of instruction. He compared the pairs in terms of writing fluency, the quality and complexity of their written texts, their pausing behaviour while writing, and their strategy use. The study found that a) the experts spent a longer time planning a detailed overall organisation before they started to write, b) the experts did global planning and did not stop and think as frequently as the novices, c) L2 proficiency seemed to explain some of the differences in strategies used between experts and novices, d) novices had begun using some of the expert writers' strategies after 6 months of instruction, e) experts wrote longer texts with more complicated development at greater speed, f) both global and local planning as well as monitoring guided the subjects' writing processes, and g) the experts' global planning and partial adjustment of such planning while writing was based on their elaborated but flexible goal setting and assessment.

From the above review it is apparent that researchers have covered many issues related to the second language writing field. For instance, L1 use in L2, revision strategies, text planning, general analysis, and L1 transfer have been investigated, and evidence has been produced that similarities and differences do exist, mainly among subjects, methods, and environment.

The following table summarises previously-conducted research into compositions by learners of different backgrounds in English as a foreign language. The table gives the author's name, year of publication, purpose of the study, methods and data collection instruments used in the study, number of subjects, and number of writings.



Author/ Year	Purpose of Study	Method/Data Collection Ins	Subs	Ws
Chelala, 1981	Use of L1 in L2	Case study, think-aloud	2	2
Lay, 1982	Interplay of L1 in L2	Case study, think-aloud, interview	4	4
Lay, 1983	Interplay of L1 in L2	Case study, think-aloud, interview	4	4
Jones, 1982	Rhetorical patterning	Case study,		2
Zamel, 1982	Linguistic & composing competence	Case study, interview	2	8
Zamel, 1983	Composing processes	Case study, observation	8	6
Edelsky, 1982	Interplay of L1 in L2	Case study, longitudinal	6	104
Gavaln, 1984	Culture, linguistics in L2	Case study, interview and assessment	26	10
Brooks, 1985	Reading/writing impact	Case study	10	5
Martin-Betancourt, 1986	L1 and L2 comparisons	Case study, think-aloud		
Jones & Tetroe, 1986	Planning	Case study,	6	6
Arndt, 1987	Writing processes in L1 and L2	Case study, observation	6	12
Urzua, 1987	Revision in L2	Case study, observation	4	4
Cumming, 1989	L1 impact on ideas generation	Case study, think-aloud, observation, questionnaire	6	6
Freidlander, 1990	Effect of L1 on L2 composing	Case study, written samples	28	56
Hall, 1990	L1 and L2 strategies of revision and reviewing	Case study, observation		
Leibmann 1992	Difference between Arabic and Japanese rhetorical instruction	Open-ended and closed form questionnaire.	89	89
Wu, 1992	Relationship between L1 and L2 writing apprehension	Case study, written samples, questionnaire	30	60
Pennington and So, 1993	Writing processes of 6 Singaporean university students.	Think-aloud protocols, interview	6	12
Rashid, 1996	Composing processes and strategies	Case study, think-aloud, interviews	4	8
Akyle & Ramisli, 1996	Relationship between L1 and L2 writing processes	Case study, think-aloud, composing, samples, questionnaire, interviews	8	16
Uzawa, 1996	L1 and L2 writing processes and translation from L1 into L2.	Case study, think-aloud protocols, observation, interviews, and the written products.	22	66
Bhela, 1999	L1 interference into L2	Descriptive case study, interviews,	4	4
Cava 1999	Writing processes of the unsuccessful L2 writer.	Qualitative case study, think-aloud protocols, questionnaire, interviews	4	4
Sasaki, 2000	An empirical model of the L2 writing process	Stimulated recall protocols, interviews, written texts	12	12

**Table 2.1: Previous studies conducted on ESL/EFL writing processes in different linguistic environments.**



## 2.9 Research into Arab Learners' Writing in English

We have seen how EFL students with different background approached their L2 composition (see section 2.8.2). This section is devoted to a review of previously-conducted studies on Arab learners of EFL. These studies have been concerned with writing and writing problems encountered by Arab students and teachers.

Concerned with errors committed by Arab University students in the use of the English definite/indefinite articles, Kharma (1981) investigated this type of error as made in the written tasks of Arab students learning English in Kuwait, in order to explain the cause of these errors. He employed three tools for gathering data of which the first was a test designed by the researcher to examine the meanings of the definite/indefinite articles when used by Arab learners. He also compared the Arabic/English uses of these articles as well as examining a number of essays written by the Arab students. He found that Arab students have difficulty with the particular use in English of 'no article' in certain idiomatic phrases, which have no Arabic equivalent. The definite article '*the*' seems to be the easiest for Arab students, whereas errors with the indefinite articles '*a/an*' appear to be less frequent than with the use of '*no article*'. Although "the use of the English definite/indefinite articles is a serious source of difficulty to Arabic-speaking students" (p. 341), Kharma attributed many types of error in this domain to Arabic 'interference', and wrong learning strategies, or over-generalisation.

Based on the assumption that the use of repetition underlies some of the problems encountered by Arab learners in writing expository or argumentative English, Al-Jubouri (1984) investigated the different types of formal device that these learners employ for expressing repetition and achieving rhetorical effect. He examined three Arabic texts collected from various newspapers and written by different writers to show where and how repetition is made. He found that repetition could be realised at several levels, mainly the morphological, word, and chunk levels. He concluded that

Arabic argumentative discourse has a “built-in mechanism for repetition, the manifestation of which can be identified at different levels” (p. 110).

This implies that Arabic discourse is different from English, and this results in difficulties and problems not only in terms of grammar, spelling and punctuation, but also in terms of organisation and coherence. That is, Al-Jubouri’s conclusion may be taken as a pretext for investigating the composing processes of Arab learners writing in English.

As a teacher and a researcher, Kharma (1985) examined some of the difficulties encountered by Arab learners of English at the sentential (discoursal) level. Data were drawn from a variety of written tasks performed in a normal way by Arab University students and the influence of Arabic on the students’ writing in English was discussed. Kharma argues that the causes of any problem are: lack of motivation, limited exposure to authentic English, inadequate command of English, teachers’ tolerance of students’ mistakes, and differences between Arabic and English rhetoric. He investigated the last cause of these problems, i.e. the rhetorical differences between Arabic and English. He compared and contrasted the rhetoric of both languages and pointed out the primary differences between the rhetorical principles and devices in Arabic and English such as paragraphing, punctuation, etc. He included some examples from Classical and Modern Arabic rhetoric. Although no detailed procedures for analysing these data were given, Kharma concluded, “all the types of irregularities or mistakes found in students’ writing are either totally or partially due to negative transfer from Arabic” (p. 23). Such a conclusion is not reliably accounted for because of the unknown methods used for analysing the data.

The most comprehensive study of the difficulties encountered by Arab students in the formation of relative clauses in written English was conducted by Kharma in 1987 in

which he investigated the errors in the free-essay compositions of secondary and university students, as well as in written translations by Arabic students into English. Errors in this study were classified into fourteen different types. He used translation and multiple choice elicitation tests. He found that '*relative clauses*' in Arabic and English are identical at the deep structure but different at surface structure level. He also found that Arabic students could overcome difficulties within short English sentences but were unable to do so when it came to longer sentences. He concluded that almost half of the errors committed by Arab students in forming relative clauses persist until the end of their careers as a result of the teaching they received. But he commented, "all errors made in this area are errors of form rather than use and they do not seriously affect communication" (p. 265). Here again, the problem appears to be that differences between Arabic and English result in difficulty with and misuse of English relative clauses by Arab writers, particularly in academic writing in English. Nevertheless, the majority of these studies have looked at the problems of writing by Arab students merely by examining the end product, and they concentrated the linguistic problems, which actually present only one aspect of the wider problem. Another area of concern in the teaching of English writing to Arab EFL students is the giving of feedback, and error correction. Teachers of English focus on writing as a final product and concern themselves with the linguistic features of the students' compositions. However, research into the feedback from Arab EFL teachers is scarce, the only two studies that could be considered relevant to this area have dealt with feedback in terms of the subject matter, setting, and the participating subjects, as we shall see below.

Doushaq and Al-Makhzoomy (1989) investigated the methods used by a number of Arab EFL Secondary School teachers to evaluate their students' writing. Two



instruments were used to collect data. They elicited the responses of ninety-five teachers through a questionnaire including twenty-one questions about the procedures they adopted to correct their students' compositions. The teachers were asked about error correction methods such as: supplying the correct form, using symbols, and giving marks, etc. The researchers observed the methods used by the teachers when evaluating the compositions, in addition to the marks given to each composition. The methods used by the teachers included supplying the correct form or indicating the types and classification of errors into linguistic, stylistic, or content errors. Doushaq and Al-Makhzoomy conclude that there is a gap between what teachers know and what they actually do. They also propose that there is no common criterion for evaluating the students' writing among the teachers and that the majority of their Arab EFL teacher subjects need adequate training in teaching and evaluating methods.

As the concern of this study was principally with the written product, it is difficult to compare it with a study like the present one, which is concerned primarily with the writing process. Feedback is likely to be given at the end of the writing process, when it is liable to be less effective and to produce no gains for the writers.

Another issue which attracted researchers concerned with Arab EFL students is that EFL teachers probably view themselves as judges of the students' final products. This view has been investigated by Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) who maintain that:

*“ in writing compositions, Arab students are often restricted to the ideas suggested by the teacher and therefore do not feel free to express themselves the way they like or have any special motivation for writing about the topic..... in teaching writing 'Arab EFL' teachers keep in mind an order of priority to which they implicitly adhere. This order reflects those teachers' interest in teaching first things first in order of importance. The following are normally the areas that dominate the teachers' thinking in both teaching and correcting students' written work: the mechanics of writing, handwriting, spelling, capitalisation, and punctuation; grammatical mistakes and topic development” (p. 187).*



This indicates that the topics of written tasks are usually imposed on the students without any consideration for their own interests, priorities, and ambitions, which, in turn, results in a lack of interaction between the students and their teachers, and, more importantly, between the students and the topics they are writing on. Thus, any type of motivation seems lacking and students appear more inhibited in creating ideas or expressing thoughts and beliefs they are enthusiastic about.

Halimah (1991) convincingly argues that although linguistic features are important, it is not sufficient to attribute the problems and difficulties of Arab students' writing to linguistic factors alone, because writing is not merely a final product. He investigated the problems encountered by Arab ESP writers when writing in English. He also used tests and questionnaires to elicit information from Arab ESP teachers and students at Kuwait Tertiary Educational Institutes. He analysed the answers to a proficiency test taken by one hundred students who belonged to three different institutes. The students were also given a questionnaire to probe their attitudes to different aspects of writing in English and Arabic. The students were asked to write on different ESP topics in both Arabic and English. A specific criterion was set to analyse the compositions written in English, whereas Arabic topics were evaluated by specialists in the Arabic language. Moreover, many teachers instructing ESP courses at different places participated in responding to a particularly designed questionnaire about teaching writing and about the writing of their students. Halimah concluded that Arab ESP students are not good writers due to linguistic, rhetorical, educational, procedural and psychological factors.

Alam (1993) investigated the use of L1 in various ways during L2 composing processes. Using the 'stimulated recall method' as the main instrument of collecting data, Alam examined the composing processes, 'pre-writing, writing, and revising', of

fifteen Kuwait University students majoring in English. He described and analysed the composing processes of the fifteen case studies on a 'cross-case basis' regarding the use of Arabic in English writing. He also interviewed the subjects about their cultural and educational backgrounds in Arabic and English. He found that students did plan in various ways and some of them used Arabic in their planning, pre-writing process. Some students thought in both languages. He found that students used Arabic extensively in the writing stage, i.e. when they felt unable to express themselves in English they sought help from Arabic. Furthermore, Alam attributes the use of Arabic in his students' writing in English to their lack of mastery of English, which compelled them to use Arabic at all the writing stages. Although the students were asked to write an essay, most of them wrote only one paragraph with a limited word count. This study conformed to Aly (1992) whose findings showed that the mean length of his Arab subjects' essays did not exceed 218 words. From this extensive investigation Alam concluded that L2 writers (Arabs) seek out help from their L1 during L2 writing as a result of their poor mastery of English; moreover, a teaching method based on applying rules is obviously one of the factors that inhibit students' essay writing.

In an attempt to investigate the methods and types of feedback EFL teachers employ in providing feedback to their students' writing in English, Asiri (1996) examined teachers' perceptions of their own practice and the students' reactions to their teachers' written comments. Data were collected from results of a number of protocols of written feedback provided by eleven Arab EFL teachers throughout one academic semester. Also, a questionnaire was designed to obtain information from forty EFL teachers to probe their perception of the effect of aspects of feedback and its provision on the compositions of their students. In addition, another questionnaire

was constructed in order to elicit the reactions of ninety-six Arab EFL students to their teachers' feedback on their compositions. The findings of this study show that the largest amount of teachers feedback pertains to error correction through related methods such as supplying the corrections, or indicating the type or location of the students' errors. Such correction was primarily directed at surface-level problems in the students' writing such as grammar and vocabulary. In other words, fundamental problems such as content and communicative aspects, were entirely neglected. Teachers were basically concerned with the linguistic accuracy of their students' written productions. One more important finding is that the main strategy adopted by the students was their entire reliance on their writing teachers, either in choosing the topic or taking notes, because these strategies do not require much time on the part of the students. Asiri attributed these findings to the adoption of teacher-centred approaches to teaching in general and in teaching writing in particular. These findings support those of Cohen (1987), where students reported attending extensively to teacher comments regarding grammar and mechanics.

Concerned with the differences and difficulties facing Kuwaiti students at the University of Kuwait and at the College of Technical Studies while writing English scientific essays, Halimah (2001) examined 100 native Arabic speakers' writing assignments in English and Arabic. He aimed to investigate the writing proficiency exhibited in the Arabic and English writing of these students and the effect of rhetorical duality on their writing. He used expository writing tasks, assessment tools and a teachers' questionnaire as the methodological procedure for data collection. He found that Arab students are not good writers "in either English or Arabic, not because of their lack of linguistic skills but rather of their inadequate grasp of rhetorical conventions" (p.13). Interestingly, he found that "the majority of Arab EST

students are better writers in English than in Arabic”. He also indicated that though his students had studied EFL writing for 8 years, and were judged to be fairly good at mechanics, lexis and grammar, they were experiencing significant difficulties in writing in a rhetorical style appropriate to science and technology. He attributed such a difficulty to “*rhetorical duality*” and the “*rhetorical transfer of Arabic discourse*” over into the English writing.

EL Mortaji (2001) investigated the writing processes and strategies of 18 University English major Moroccan students in EFL context. Using think-aloud protocols, interviews and questionnaires, she identified a variety of strategies. She also analysed her data quantitatively and qualitatively. She investigated the effects of these learners’ writing proficiency in Arabic and English, discourse types, language, and gender on the frequency of occurrences of composing strategies. She found that her subjects’ frequent strategies were reading, rehearsing, revising and planning. She also found significant differences between skilled and unskilled writers in English. With respect to Arabic, she also found significant frequencies in revising. Her qualitative analysis showed that the more successful and less successful subjects differed in their strategy use in terms of quality. Gender differences in strategy use were observed in the use of language switch.

The following table summarises previously-conducted research into the writing processes of Arab learners of English as a foreign language. The table gives the author’s name, year of publication, purpose/s of the study, the methods and data collection instruments, number of subjects, and number of writings.



Author/ Year	Purpose of Study	Method/Data CollectionIns	No. of Subs	No of Ws
El-Khatib, 1984	Causes of lexical problems	Case study, written samples	4	4
Zughoul, 1991	Lexical choice	Case study, written samples	128	384
Kharma, 1981	Writing errors	Case study, test design, contrastive analysis, written samples	Unknown	Unknown
Kharma, 1985	Rhetoric differences between L1 & L2	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
Kharma, 1987	Grammatical errors in free composition	Case Study, Longitudinal, Written Samples	408	408
Halimah, 1991	Factors affecting L2 writing	Case study, tests, questionnaire, written samples	100	200
Doushaq & AlMakzomy, 1989	Feedback in L2 writing	Case study, questionnaire, test of composing	30	900
Alam, 1993	Use of L1 in L2 writing processes	Case study, stimulated recall, interview,	15	15
Aly, 1992	A descriptive analysis of four EFL teachers' treatment of writing errors and their feedback in an Arabic country	Case study, questionnaire, interview	4	8
Asiri, 1996	Feedback and reaction in L2 Writing	Case study, written samples, questionnaire,	40	40
Halimah, 2001	Rhetorical duality and Arabic speaking EST learners	Writing samples and teachers' questionnaire	100	200

**Table 2.2: Studies conducted on Arab students' Compositions in English.**

## 2.10 Conclusion

From the above review it is apparent that researchers have covered many issues related to the second language-writing field. For instance, L1 use in L2, revision strategies, text planning, general analysis, and L1 transfer have been investigated, and evidence has been produced that similarities and differences do exist, mainly among subjects, methods, and environment.

Although these findings have shed light on different aspects of the writing process, them has touched on the effects of L1 composing strategies on L2, or vice versa, in an Arabic context. Moreover, the L1 rhetorical impact has not been sufficiently investigated among university students majoring in English. Therefore, in order to understand the problems confronting Arab EFL learners, a contrastive rhetorical study

of both Arabic and English is needed. This study is the first of its type to be conducted on Libyan University students.

The next chapter presents the difficulties facing EFL student writers and how writing is being taught in these types of EFL classroom, though the main focus is on the approaches to teaching writing.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **Approaches to Teaching Writing**

#### ***3.1 Introduction***

The focus in the ESL classroom, for much of the past century, was broadly speaking “dominated by methods aimed at acquiring spoken language skills” (Caudery, 1995: 1). As a result, research into L2 teaching, including the teaching of writing, has taken its independent shape only during the last three or four decades (Wright et al., 2001). It was believed that what had been applied in L1 learning also applied in L2 learning. During the 1970s, the communicative approach to language teaching led to new attention being paid to, among other things, the teaching of writing (Caudery, 1995: 2). In the early 1970s, researchers attempted to apply L1 techniques to L2 instruction. The mid-1970s witnessed a new trend in that the focus was switched to the writer, then to the process of writing, which involved the writing and formative assessment of multiple drafts (Raimes, 1991: 409-410). From the mid-1980s, content was the focus of research, with some alienation between the pro-process and pro-product groups (ibid.).

The word ‘approach’ refers to “the theories about the nature of the language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language learning” (Richards and Rodgers, 1993: 16). Approaches which have been adopted in teaching writing in a second language are so numerous and their foci have varied according to the assumptions and objectives underlying each approach.

In this chapter I attempt to highlight the difficulties facing EFL/ESL student writers, and to discuss how English writing is taught to such students. Moreover, I will summarise the major approaches to the teaching of writing and demonstrate the core and concern of each approach in light of Flower and Hayes’ (1981) model of the writing process.

### **3.2 Difficulty of Learning ESL/EFL Writing**

Arab learners are not competent to write in English because they fail to do certain things, such as organising the passage or discourse in terms of antecedents and references. They are also unable to use the devices commonly applicable in writing like punctuation, capitalisation, and paragraphing correctly.

Writing purposes in ESL/EFL contexts are restricted either institutionally or personally. Writing can be used as an indication of successful learning or as the first step to learning. That is, teachers take good writing as an indication of successful work, and from their writing they diagnose the problems and difficulties facing their students and try to remedy them.

Widdowson (1983) describes the learning of writing in a second language as problematic because “learning to write in English when it is not your first, but a second or a third language poses its own problems” (p. 36). That is, writing in English is more difficult for EFL/ESL students because they are faced with the task of learning the language in addition to the cognitive and psychological difficulties of writing. Hopkins (1989) argues that to develop writing skill is the most difficult aspect of foreign language learning. Such a notion supports the view that the task of writing in a second language must be particularly severe, especially if students are expected to turn in a perfectly polished piece of work (McDonough and Shaw, 1993).

One of the major features of writing is that it is too complex an activity and too difficult a skill to be acquired without teaching. Thus, the teacher and teaching methods play a significant role in determining the development of the students’ writing. Piper (1989) emphasises this point by saying that “there is no doubt that instruction does have an effect on how the learners write both in terms of written output, writing behaviours and attitudes to writing” (p. 212). The purpose and



emphasis of the writing activities determine the methods of teaching to be adopted in the classroom.

Teachers must be aware of the difficulties encountered by their students while learning writing. Traditionally, primary importance has been given to listening and speaking skills rather than to reading and writing. This emphasis has had a negative influence on learners' attitudes towards writing. That is, writing is perceived to be a secondary skill requiring neither talent nor care because its communicative role has been devalued.

Thus, the first difficulty lies in how learners can distinguish between the spoken and written forms, between the ways in which both conventions are introduced and used, and how to learn the difference between the audience and purpose of writing and speaking. Writing must be seen as a crucial means of communication, but also as a distant form of communication, in which the writer lacks the feedback that might be available in spoken, oral communication.

Another difficulty appears when performing the written task, where the learner should be taught not to write random sentences, but rather to develop a connection between sentences in a logical order. This order facilitates communication between the writer and the reader. But ESL writers usually miss this point, although they are already acquainted with writing strategies in formal settings. ESL writers know that writing works as a type of discourse, a way of creating a meaningful interaction between the writer and a possible reader; however, they lack the ability to use the conventional patterns of organisation, which are different in the target language. ESL learners also encounter difficulty when it comes to how to choose appropriate grammatical and lexical systems when composing in L2. Widdowson (1984) explains that text generation causes a lot of problems for ESL learners because "with foreign learners,

however, it may be that often the central problem is textual rather than discursal. If the foreign learners have already learnt how to write in their own language, then they will have acquired the essential interactive ability underlying discourse enactment and the ability to record it in text.” (p. 79).

Thus, to achieve the goal of composition, teachers must be aware of the fundamental precepts that guide the current beliefs and practices in L2 writing, because current knowledge about composing processes and teaching them seem to be constantly evolving (Ferris & Hedgecock, 1998).

### **3.3 Teaching ESL/EFL Writing**

As we have earlier indicated (see section 3.2), concentration was directed on listening and speaking rather than on reading and writing. The central question for language teaching is, how similar is L2 writing to L1 writing? Although L2 writing research is still in its infancy, initial findings suggest that while general composing skills may be transferred from L1 to L2 (Arndt, 1987, among others), L2 composing is more constrained, more difficult and less effective (Silva, 1993). Most L2 writers bring with them knowledge and experience of writing in their L1, and this resource should not be ignored. However, they also bring the limitations of their knowledge of L2 language and rhetorical organisation.

Although we are far from a theoretically proven model of L2 writing (Sasaki, 2000) (see section 2.7.4), the developments in thinking about writing, outlined in section 2.3 have led to a variety of changes in the way writing is taught. The initial ELT cognitive process bandwagon was criticised by the English for Academic Purpose (EAP) movement for failing to meet the needs of EAP students (Horowitz, 1986). Teachers of writing need to encourage learners to think about and develop their writing process, and to consider their audience and the rhetorical norm of the L2 text.

Although there is not only one ‘process approach’, there are many useful writing process techniques which feed into a variety of approaches. White and Arndt’s (1991) diagram, (see Figure 3.1) offers teachers a framework which attempts to capture the recursive rather than linear, nature of writing. Collaboration between learners and teachers is essential. This results in changes in the roles of teacher and learner and has implications for teacher and learner training.

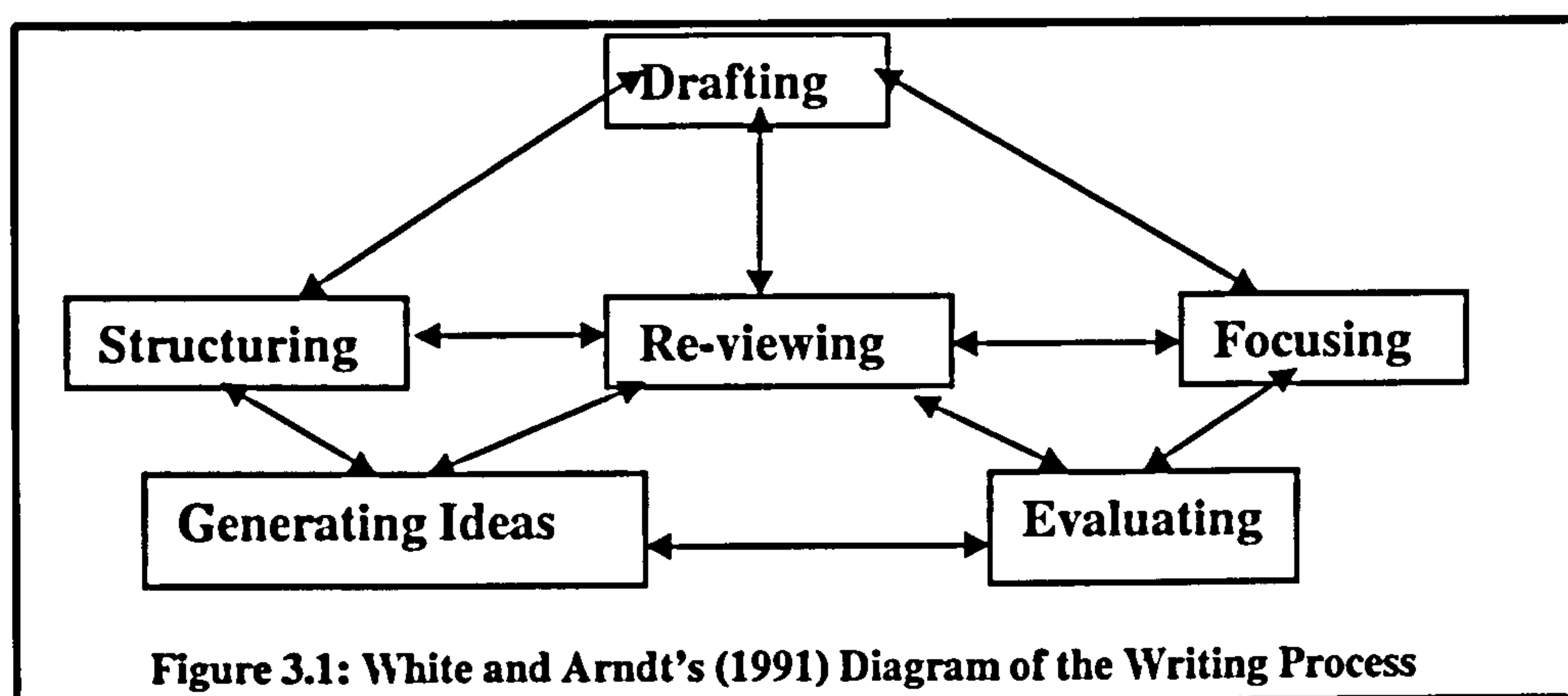


Figure 3.1 offers teachers a framework which tries to capture the recursive, not linear, nature of writing. Activities to generate ideas (e.g. brainstorming) help writers tap the LTM and answer the question, ‘What can the writer say on the topic?’ Focusing (e.g. fast writing) deals with ‘What is the writer’s overall purpose in writing such a topic?’ Structuring is organizing and reorganizing text to answer the question ‘How can the writer present these ideas in a way that is acceptable to the reader?’ Activities include experimenting with different types of text, having read examples. Drafting is the transition from writer-based thought into reader-based text. Multiple drafts are produced, each influenced by feedback from teacher and/or peers. Reformulation and checking list used in guiding feedback develop essential evaluating skills. Feedback focuses primarily on content and organization. When these are satisfactory, comments on language is given on penultimate drafts for final amendment. Reviewing stands

back from the text and looks at it with fresh eyes, asking 'Is it right?' The overall aim is to create meaningful, purposeful writing tasks that develop the writer's skills over several drafts. Collaboration between learners and with teachers is essential. This results in changes in teacher and learner roles (see, e.g., Leki, 1990).

As far as the concept of 'writing' in English as a foreign language is concerned, there is a long and widespread tradition of misconception about writing as a language phenomenon in Libya, the Arab world, and other countries. Such a misconception lies in the belief that writing is mainly product-oriented. That is, it has generally been assumed that the physical aspects of writing such as 'form' and 'content' constitute its cornerstone. The mechanics of writing such as 'handwriting', 'capitalisation', 'punctuation' and 'spelling', as well as 'vocabulary' and 'grammatical structures' are traditionally believed to be the major ingredients of good writing. Therefore, the empirical findings reported by linguistic field researchers, which suggest that writing is not only 'product' but also 'process', is the concern of this study, to probe the similarities and differences between Arabic and English.

Before embarking on a discussion of the teaching of writing to non-native speakers of English, it is important to clarify the distinction between the terms EFL and ESL. Although both terms are used interchangeably in the research, Ellis (1994) has given a clear-cut definition for each. He says "in the case of second language acquisition, the language plays an institutional and social role in the community" (p. 12). Crystal (1987) has distinguished between the mother tongue and the acquired languages, which are recognised as foreign language, second language, third language, etc. The aim here is on distinguishing between second language (SL) and foreign language (FL). SL is "a non-native language that is widely used for purposes of communication, usually as a medium of education, government or business" whereas



FL is merely the “non-native language taught in school but has no status as a routine medium of communication” (p. 368).

Teaching writing in an ESL/EFL context is based on an understanding of the attitudes and practices which have accompanied the evolution of writing and how it is taught. ESL/EFL composition teaching was originally dominated by a controlled composition model, whose origins lay in the oral approach, which emerged in the 1940s. Furthermore, teachers of L2 writing rarely encouraged students to produce a genuine and meaningful text, i.e. the emphasis was on language principles rather than on communicating with an audience (Kroll, 1991).

Therefore, the most significant transformation in the teaching of composition can be seen in the tremendous shift from a focus on product to a focus on process. Teachers are now required to provide their students with courses that teach them how to use a variety of strategies for composing texts, and to understand the purposes and goals of written communication.

It is important here first of all to investigate the factors that contribute to the problems and difficulties inherent in the teaching of writing to non-native learners of English. The dominating perspective among English teachers in the Arab world and other countries is that linguistic factors are the major problematic areas for Arab learners when they are involved in a writing task. This may be the primary factor that motivates teachers of writing to adopt product-oriented teaching methods.

The role of contrastive rhetoric in teaching English writing to non-native learners, and the needs of learners, have been looked at from different dimensions. The majority of the studies have focused on ‘linguistic duality’ and its complicated effect on the process of writing (see Chapter 4).

A great deal has been written on the subject of writing and how it should be taught (King and Rentle, 1979; Raimes, 1983; Zamel, 1983; Bowen et al. 1985; White, 1987; Jordan, 1988; Ingram and King, 1988; Imhoof and Hudson, 1988; etc.). The methods adopted in the teaching of writing may be divided into two major categories: 'product-based approaches' and 'process-based approaches'. The first category accords great importance to the 'overall' form of the completed work. That is, the form and content of writing are the primary aspects on which lexical, grammatical and organisation exercises are established and practised (Raimes, 1983). The second category is more concerned with the cognitive processing of writing. That is, it is primarily concerned with 'how' to write something. It is based mainly on conducting exercises, and drills, associated with all the mental activities that take place before and after putting words on paper.

Efforts to enhance learners' writing skills have so far been mainly product-oriented. Despite the shift from a concentration on the sentence-level to the paragraph-level as a basic unit of written discourse, the techniques used in teaching learners to write an English paragraph are still viewed traditionally. That is, writing a paragraph is taught via the completion of exercises and filling in the gaps or answering yes/no questions; conversion and transformation exercises (e.g. change the following into the passive voice, or into indirect speech); linking sentence exercises (e.g., arrange the scrambled sentences in a good order to make a meaningful paragraph) (Raimes, 1983; Widdowson, 1988). Needless to say, students must be competent and well-armed with the basic structures of English such as vocabulary, grammatical structures, how to connect two or more sentences together, but this is not enough. Any teaching approach considers that these paragraph-writing techniques suffer from serious shortcomings.

Widdowson (1988) has suggested that the 'gradual approximation process' be advocated in the teaching of writing. By this term he means that the student, before becoming capable of writing freely, must practise different exercises relevant to controlled paragraph writing, then, gradually, move to guided paragraph writing and finally arrive at free paragraph writing. Another technique was proposed to help learners proceed to paragraph writing. This technique was inspired by Widdowson's (1986) concept of 'information transfer'. Students are given a diagram with labels on it and asked them to create a paragraph out of the information labelled in the diagram. Other techniques have been suggested and applied to improve English writing skills. Doushaq (1985) introduced what he calls 'the essay question/model answer technique', in an attempt to help Arab learners improve their writing skills. Tremble (1985), although his focus was on writing English for Special Purposes (ESP), introduced an alternative called 'one-to-one procedure-tutorial' in order to meet the diversity of needs and interests of learners. He suggested a set of writing assignments catering to individual needs to promote the use of rhetorical functions and techniques. In order to explain the above in more detail, it is necessary to refer to some aspects of teaching writing which have separately been taken as cornerstones of the writing process in general.

### **3.4 The Controlled-Composition Approach**

This approach, sometimes referred to as the guided-composition, and/or model-oriented approach, has its roots in the audio-lingual approach, which dominated the field of second language teaching during the 1960s. It is also called the "structured writing approach" as it traditionally referred to drill-and-practice involving sentence, paragraph or essay copying and the correcting of erroneous sentences. The underlying ingredients of the audio-lingual approach are based on the notion that language is

speech and learning is a process of habit formation (Fries, 1945). This approach regards writing as a secondary skill and emphasises other skills such as speaking and reading: “even written exercises might be part of the work” (cited in Silva, 1990: 12). Unfortunately, classroom instruction for EFL students, particularly throughout the Arab world, generally follows this approach, in which lessons follow the drill-and-practice approach, based on hierarchical skill sequences, with few extended writing opportunities (Applebee, 1984, Zamel, 1987).

As the primary aim of this approach is to allow students to produce relatively error-free writing, it assumes accuracy on the part of the students, who are not allowed to commit any errors that may result from their L1 interference. It also defines the students’ task as being to manipulate and copy exercises based on previously written structures. The teacher’s role, which is considered as that of a reader, is to correct these exercises with regard to accuracy of overall language, with a primary emphasis on linguistic features. The text, which consists of lexical items and sentence patterns, becomes a ‘vehicle’ for language practising. This method neglects the main communicative components of the audience and the purpose of writing.

Although many believe that this approach is no longer operative, I think it is still somehow alive within contexts in which traditional methods of teaching are to-date still employed, either in classrooms or through textbooks based on student-centred learning and communicative approaches to language teaching. These textbooks defend this approach principally on the basis that controlled writing allows students to practise and utilise correct structures and thereby learn to write on their own. Dictation can be viewed as a kind of controlled writing because it encourages students to learn from a well-structured text as well as from imitation. The proponents of this method are not interested in the writer’s writing, his generating of ideas, expression of



his own feelings, the conveying of his ideas and thoughts, or the displaying of his own personal characteristics. On the contrary, they extol the virtues of controlled writing for it permits busy teachers with large classes to give daily assignments of writing exercises, bearing in mind that students will produce substantially correct work in an acceptable form. However, guided composition seems to be preferred mainly because it helps students use a wider range of text construction than a controlled task. Students are asked to produce a short text by answering directed, yet open-ended questions, which in turn provide a rhetorical structure for a student-generated text (Kroll, 1991).

At beginner levels the model-based tasks are more effective if they are used in conjunction with other types of productive skills. That is, model-based tasks can be integrated with grammatical aspects in the model, the dominant rhetoric patterns, and the communicative function of this model. Paragraph exercises may be exploited to help students activate their awareness about how sentences are linked to each other to make an expressive paragraph. The proponents of this model believe that these model-based tasks force students to imitate and produce model-like forms when manipulating similar structures. Although this procedure enhances the students' fluency and confidence, it unfortunately restricts the students' capabilities and willingness to express their own thoughts. Also, some students feel it is boring to follow others' steps in producing their own writings. However, this strategy may be supplemented by training the students to do "completion exercises" which exhibit more authentic and meaningful tasks and promote the students' awareness of linguistic and discursive patterns (Ferris & Hedgecock, 1998).

The model-oriented approach is not welcomed by researchers, nor by teachers or students, because it pushes students to attend mainly to rhetorical and/or grammatical form far too early which, in turn, makes students feel that writing involves putting a

simple rhetorical formula into a fabricated mould (Raimes, 1983b). Furthermore, imitation of others' models inhibits writers and prevents them from developing their own voices and productive compositional skills. Accordingly, models can be incorporated as a resource rather than an ideal, to help student writers learn how to use rhetorical and grammatical features effectively in authentic discourse contexts.

Errors, in this approach, are treated as a result of L1 interference, and in order to eliminate these errors illuminated, learners of L2 must be encouraged to learn new habits which exclude their L1 transfer, and must be taught how to avoid over-generalisations by engagement in a massive pattern practice by means of mechanical drills which have a low probability of error. We assume that our students could predict what type of errors they may encounter by using contrastive analysis hypothesis to identify the differences between L1 and L2. In spite of these preventative measures, some errors are still bound to occur. Teachers try to produce the form with errors corrected and ask the students to copy and practise the correct forms until they become a habit. Unfortunately, students are not given a chance to correct their own errors (Ellis, 1990).

This structured writing approach receives micro-level error feedback, i.e. feedback on individual errors in usage, mechanics, sentence structure and paragraph structure. Such a micro-level error correction or feedback is a possible advantage for students in terms of global analytical ratings. Furthermore students can learn from their earlier writing practices by noticing how much they have improved. Finally, the teacher and student can both gauge a paper's relative strengths and weaknesses.

At first sight, this approach seems inappropriate for the teaching of writing in general if we look at it from writing process perspectives. That is, it does not include the basic processes of pre-writing, writing, and revision. All these components are neglected,

with the student being encouraged to act to as a copying machine or tape-recorder which repeats what others say. Students do not have the opportunity to plan, review, or monitor. In other words, this approach “ignores the enormous complexity of writing process (pre-writing, organising, developing, proof-reading, revising, etc)” (Flower and Hays, 1980). Although there are some glimpses of the use of sentence combination which assists students in understanding the grammar of the sentence, this is not appropriate enough in the long run (Zamel, 1980).

### **3.5 The Free-Composition Approach**

The “free writing” or “unstructured-composition approach” advocates the idea that process of writing is much more important than the product of writing. Proponents of this approach believe that writing is a tool for learning and self-discovery, not just a means to demonstrate learning (Emig, 1977; Raimes, 1986), and that structured writing strategies blunt such purposes (Edelsky and Smith, 1989). Free writing may take the form of creative writing, diaries, journals, dialogues, versions of short stories, etc. In addition, topics, in the free writing approach, are not prescribed and the writing itself is not graded (Hillocks, 1986).

Proponents of this approach emphasise the importance of quantity at the expense of quality, i.e. fluency rather than accuracy. They maintain that frequent and lengthy writing tasks are effective in improving writing skill. Students, following this approach, are asked to write as much as they can on an assigned topic with relatively minimal error correction. This approach focuses on content and fluency (Raimes, 1983a). Its purpose is to “build writing fluency and creativity by stimulating thought and invention under uninhibited conditions” (Spack, 1984), which help students develop new knowledge and organise their existing knowledge in novel ways that turn out to be gateways to open competencies and to better writing.

This approach requires learners to create essays on given or 'self-selected' topics, mainly personal ones, such as: the learners' hobbies, what they do on holiday, interesting experiences and the like. In other words, these tasks aim to release students from the compulsion of writing accurately so that they feel much freer to put their own thoughts on paper without any obstacles and with more self-confidence. Students might compete to write as much as they can in less time, basically in shorter sessions. In this approach, students are freed from worrying about grammar and format, which helps them create a great deal of prose that provides useful raw material which may be used in addressing the writing assignment at hand.

Although this approach appears different from the controlled approach, within the free writing approach there are many writing schemes which lead learners through several stages, beginning with structure practice training on a sample composition and ending with asking students to use this information as the basis for their own compositions.

In this approach students start with manipulating language and content without being held back by grammatical or rhetorical constraints. Once students finish writing down their ideas, they are allowed to concentrate on the other aspects such as grammar and organisation. Although the ideas of writing as being an enjoyable experience and paying attention to "audience as well the content" characterise this approach, it does not follow the procedures of the writing process, i.e. students are encouraged to write as much and as quickly as they can, but are not given the chance to use any recursiveness. In order to use free writing effectively in EFL classes, teachers must be aware of the needs their students in terms of planning, practising, patience, and perseverance.

Evaluation and assessment are inappropriate in this approach because the aim is fluency in writing, rather than accuracy, and the focus is mainly on how much the



writer has written. Thus, many teachers do not even collect free-writing tasks but let the students behave as if they were the primary audience for these preliminary texts. Teachers interfere only as facilitators, prompting the students by asking them questions as leading or inspiring tools, such as “*what do you mean?*”, “*Can you give an example?*”, “*How are these ideas related?*”. In other words, error correction is directed mainly at content and meaning.

Some learners, particularly EFL learners, seem to dislike free writing as a result of its procedure which conflicts with their own capabilities as planners. Teachers may help to overcome such a feeling on the part of the learners by including free writing among other options for building writing fluency such as brainstorming and listing. Brainstorming, according to Raimes (1983), consists of

*“Producing words, phrases, ideas as rapidly as possible, just as they occur to us, without concern for appropriateness, order, or accuracy. As we produce free associations, we make connections and generate ideas. Brainstorming can be done out loud in a class or group, or individually on paper”* (p. 10).

Listing involves the unmonitored generation of words, phrases, and ideas, which give it a distinctive character not available in free writing and brainstorming. That is, students generate only words and phrases which will be classified and organised later on.

The most obvious advantage of free writing is that it provides students with the opportunity to write as much as they can without being held back by errors or mistakes of any kind. It also helps them build on their fluency and express their talent in a secure way. However, writing anything in a short time cannot be taken as an advantage because students are less likely to feel any sense of commitment to what they write, particularly when the topic is not clear or purposeful. Furthermore, although evaluation and assessment are concerned with meaning more than with form, it seems that this approach is not effective in achieving communicative purposes,

especially if we consider accuracy and how it affects communication in terms of grammatical and lexical constructions.

### **3.6 The Rhetorical-Composition Approach**

Previous experience as well as background knowledge and culture are the primary features that distinguish non-native learners from their native speaker counterparts. These features are manifested in different ways such as in students' responses to texts, topics and activities within writing classrooms, and, more importantly, in their familiarity with the rhetorical pattern of the language, either at a sentence or a paragraph level.

The lack of ability on the part of ESL/EFL students to produce written units larger than sentence level has led to the development of new approaches that introduce students to such larger patterns. Thus, the rhetorical approach, or the paragraph pattern approach, has evolved to bridge the gap between the controlled and free writing approaches. This approach emphasises the logical construction and organisation of the discourse form, the paragraph. Paragraph components such as topic, sentence, supporting sentence, transition, etc. are carefully attended to. Also, paragraph development features like illustration, exemplification, and comparison receive enough attention and care. This approach encourages students to copy, analyse, imitate, and form paragraphs from jumbled sentences, to write parallel paragraphs as well as develop paragraphs from topic sentences, in addition to writing outlines and compositions from these outlines. Moreover, this approach has focused on essay development (introduction, body, and conclusion) and organisational patterns or modes (narration, description, exposition, and argumentation).

The rhetorical approach has been criticised because of its perspectivism and linearity that discourage creativity in writing. Silva (1990) argues that writing according to this

approach is basically “a matter of arrangements, of fitting sentences and paragraphs in prescribed patterns. Learning to write, then, involves becoming skilled in identifying, internalising, and executing these patterns” (p. 14); however, this method is still alive and dominating many of ESL/EFL writing materials and classroom practices (p. 15). Furthermore, criticism has been made of this approach as being concerned with form at the expense of content, with the product rather than with the process.

### **3.7 The Communicative-Writing Approach**

Oxford et. al. (1990) espouse the communicative approach to language learning. The communicative approach was first developed in Britain in the 1970s, with a view to fostering competence in understanding and communicating meaning. American researchers called it the “proficiency” or the “proficiency-oriented” approach, in which the importance of active, communicative involvement on the part of the learner is stressed. In other words, the learners must avoid passivity, and assume responsibility for their own learning.

Oxford et al. list four principles of the communicative approach: a) communicative competence is the main goal; b) grammatical correctness should be subordinated to communication; c) the four language skills should be integrated in an holistic learning experience; and d) the focus should be on meaning, context and authentic language. Therefore Oxford et al. (1989) as well as Nunan (1987) recommend changes in the language classroom that will produce real interaction and more meaningful exchanges of information.

Once theorists came to see language as a system for the expression of meaning as well as in terms of its primary-function as a form of communication, the need for improving ESL/EFL writing and the limitations of previous approaches prompted an interest in this approach. It aims to “make communicative competence the goal of

language teaching and develop procedures for the teaching of four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication”, Richards and Rodgers (1993: 66). Another reason for the development of this approach was the concern was the desire to develop more flexible and responsive course design structures to meet the students’ interests and real world communicative needs.

As far as the ESL/EFL teaching of writing is concerned, this approach has some features of the process approach as it ensures that attention is paid to the purpose and audience of student writing. This approach stresses activities that involve practice and the exchange of information. In addition, motivation, self-expression, as well as interaction in classroom writing tasks, are highly encouraged in this approach (Byrne, 1988; Raimes, 1983a). It is also characterised by its focus on comprehension and meaning.

The teacher’s major role, within this approach, is to assist learners to develop and achieve communication. Hence, he is a facilitator of the communication process. Apart from and in conjunction with this role, the teacher acts as an independent participant. By guiding the learners in this way, the teacher discovers and investigates what is new for him in their behaviour. However, the communicative-composing approach concentrates on the students’ role, while the teacher’s role is given less significance, i.e. it is confined to organisation of resources as a process manager.

In order to achieve communication, learners must be involved in actual interaction in the classroom. Such interaction will be fruitful when carried out with a meaningful and authentic use of language. To make this possible, a range of activities such as problem-solving and role playing must be employed. Furthermore, Nunan (1989) has suggested three principal activity types: *information gap*, *reasoning gap*, and *opinion gap*.



From this review, one may summarise the distinct and practical advantages of the communicative approach over the other approaches as follows: a) It generally produces the four kinds of learning and teaching skills; b) It offers the learners the opportunity of using the language for their own purposes earlier than the other approaches; c) It is highly motivating, by encouraging students to put more effort into communicative situations; d) It is less wasteful of time, i.e. students are not abandoned to waste their time in irrelevant actions, but, on the contrary, they are guided from the outset to exploit their time scale in the relevant situations; e) In the long run, it equips the learners with the most appropriate skills for speaking the language in the real world.

As far as writing is concerned here, natural types of interaction in the classroom are produced by activities that are learner-based and that relate to aspects of the learners' own expectations, perceptions and social roles. In other words, teachers must step aside and give the learners the major role in controlling the content and flow of the exchange. For instance, students' own writings can be used as information-gap activities, which in turn promote the creation of non-artificial tasks that students are involved in during the oral interaction. When students write down their own ideas they feel more involved and ready to use them as a basis for oral information-gap activities. They can set the written tasks by writing paragraph essays about their own personal interests when they suggest the topics and plan these tasks. When they start writing they go through the writing process procedures, planning, rough drafts, revising, etc. As soon as students get their corrected written tasks back from the teacher they start reading the teacher's comments and try to reformulate what they have written by adding or subtracting.

Finally, despite the major influence of this approach on a world-wide scale, it has scarcely had any effect on the Arab world, especially in Libya. Teaching in Libya is still, unfortunately, dominated by other approaches and has acquired little or no knowledge of this approach or of other approaches that stress communication. Hence, lack of exposure to English outside the classroom means that students have no opportunity to practise what they have learned inside the classroom, and this might be a major reason why Arab EFL learners are not performing well. There is therefore an urgent need to explore such an approach and other new methods to see what they have to offer.

### **3.8 The Product-Oriented Approach**

Writing focus, in this approach, must be directed toward linguistic knowledge with appropriate concentration on the use of vocabulary, syntax, and cohesive devices. This approach also considers that learning writing ideally comprises four stages: *familiarisation*, *controlled writing*, *guided writing*, and *free writing*. The familiarisation stage seeks to make learners aware of certain features of a particular text. In the controlled and guided writing stages, the learners are given an opportunity to practise the skills with increasing freedom until they become ready and capable to write freely. In the free writing stage learners should have been prepared for taking the initiative to express themselves in their own words using their own skills and power to write down what they want as part of a genuine activity such as a letter, story, or an essay.

A typical product class may involve the learners in familiarising themselves with a set of descriptions, of houses, classrooms, schools, mosques, etc., especially written for teaching purposes. The learners identify the prepositions and the names of rooms and halls used for the described objects. For instance, in the controlled writing stage, the

learners might produce simple sentences about houses, schools or mosques, as given to them, or from a substitution table. The learners, at a later stage, can then produce a piece of a guided writing based on a picture of a house or a mosque. Then, at an advanced stage, the learners may be asked to use their own knowledge and skills to write about their houses, or nearest mosques in a form of free writing.

As we will see in the subsequent sections, the product-oriented approach has been used in opposition to process-oriented and genre-oriented approaches. That is, each of them has its advantages and disadvantages. The advantages of this approach can be seen in its recognition of the learners' need for linguistic knowledge about texts, and its understanding of the fact that imitation is only one way in which people can learn. However, the disadvantages of this approach cannot be ignored, in that it accords a small role to the main process skills such as planning, revision, writing, rewriting etc.; also it has the effect that the knowledge and skills the learners bring with them to the classroom are undervalued.

### **3.9 The Process-Oriented Approach**

The term "process" refers to a set of methodological procedures for the teaching of writing. In this approach L2 students are not expected to replicate grammatical rules or spelling conventions but instead are expected to generate ideas and connect them, in order to construct a sound piece of writing. This approach focuses on content and the intervention of teaching at various points in the whole process: pre-writing, drafting, and reviewing. This approach is characterised by its expectation of co-operation between students during writing.

This approach not only represents a reaction against but also differs from the product-oriented approach in that it focuses more on the various classroom activities which are believed "to promote the development of skilled language use" (Nunan, 1995: 85).

Raimes (1985) has described this process in detail as follows: “contrary to what many textbooks advise, writers do not follow a neat sequence of planning, organising, writing and then revising. For while a writer’s product is presented in lines, the process that produces it is not linear at all. Instead, it is recursive...” (p. 229).

This approach emphasises the writer as the creator of original discourse, focusing particularly on his procedures for producing and revising a text. Furthermore, since composing is seen as a creative act, both process and product are important features. Focus in the first instance is on quantity rather than quality, i.e. writers, particularly beginners, are asked to put their ideas on paper in any shape without being worried about formal correctness. Fluency is thus the main goal of this approach, to help students practise their communicative abilities regardless of how accurate the texts are. This approach emphasises collaborative work between students, as this enhances motivation and develops positive attitudes towards writing. Grammar is played down in this approach. Classroom techniques like conferencing are also used. In conferences, students are encouraged to talk about their initial drafts with each other as well as with their teachers. In addition, such an approach provides a way of thinking about writing “in terms of what the writer does, planning, revising etc., instead of in terms of what the final product looks like, patterns of organisation, spelling, grammar”, (Applebee, 1986:69).

This approach has resulted in a range of advantages and benefits to students as well as teachers. The materials used in this approach match writing tasks to the needs of the learners and encourage creativity in a very practical way. Teachers show respect and consideration for their students’ cultural background. Furthermore, teachers avoid imposing their own ideas or language behaviour on their students.



Although this approach adds a valuable dimension to language classrooms, it has also attracted criticism. For instance, it confines students, particularly the younger ones, to narrative forms, which represents a serious limitation on their mastering of text types. Neglecting reports, expositions, and arguments negatively affects the students' ability to write. Critical thinking must be included in this approach in order to help students explore and challenge their social reality. Horowitz (1986) investigated second language writing demands among university students and found similar criticisms. He claims that this approach fails to qualify students for examination essays because it cannot be applicable to all learners. Horowitz adds that the process writing approach gives "false impressions of how university students' writing will be evaluated" (cited in Nunan, 1991: 88); furthermore, choice of topic is irrelevant in most university contexts. Also, teachers encounter the problem of how to balance what they feel is important to develop their students' writing and the teaching materials being used. Moreover, many teachers are unsure whether this approach is applicable in all settings where writing is taught because the primary focus is on the writer as creator of the written text. Sommers (1992) reports "I, like so many of my students, was reproducing acceptable truths, imitating the gestures and rituals of the academy, not having confidence enough in my own ideas, not trusting the native language I learned. I had surrendered my authority to someone else, to those other authorial voices" (p. 28).

Concerned with research into the teaching of writing, Zamel (1987) claims that in spite of the insights provided by the process-oriented approach, most writing classes tend to rely on mechanistic, product-oriented exercises which research has largely discredited. Zamel proposes that writing classes should take into account the learners' purposes in writing, which go beyond producing a text for teacher evaluation. She

demonstrates the need for learners' concerns and interests to be acknowledged. She also suggests that writing teachers should behave like researchers in their own writing classrooms.

Literature has referred to the expressing of intentions and meaning in writing as composition, while the use of grammatical rules has been referred to as transcription. The process-oriented approach aims to allow L2 writers to handle only one type of goal, lower or upper, at a time.

Errors are treated differently from the way they are in other approaches. Teachers provide their students with formal feedback and error correction. Teachers do not correct every error, but instead have distinguished between two types of error: T-error, that occurs in any discourse which the teacher treats in an explicit or implicit way as an erroneous phenomenon, and U-error, which appears in the student's utterance and results in deviation from the target language norms. More recently, researchers have adopted the term "*repair*" to be used as a process-centred approach to error, instead of concentrating on the discrete products of linguistic failure. Repair is a concept which refers to how native speakers sort out potential communication problems and errors (Ellis, 1990; Seedhouse, 1997).

This approach encourages students to commit to the following principles while writing: focus on purpose, focus on audience, composing first, and feedback. Writers in the process-oriented approach are expected to pass through three major stages, including individual and group activities such as pre-writing and planning a stage in which writers have to find ideas and organise them; writing drafts and revising them when students create continuous text versions; and editing, in which students should adhere to writing conventions.

This approach has resulted in a range of advantages and benefits to students as well as teachers. The materials used in this approach match writing tasks to the needs of the learners and encourage creativity in a very practical way. Teachers show respect and consideration for their students' cultural background. Furthermore, teachers avoid imposing their own ideas or language behaviour on their students. The process approach enjoys some advantages, such as it clearly illustrates the significance of the skills involved in writing. It recognises that the EFL/ESL students' backgrounds, to some extent, furnish the writing classroom and contribute to the development of writing ability (Badger & White, 2000).

This approach suffers from some disadvantages as well, however, such as: writing is regarded as being produced by the same set of speaking processes; texts are accorded insufficient importance and are often left without purpose, i.e. teachers do not know why such texts are produced or what purpose they serve. Furthermore, it seems that the input provided for this type of writing is insufficient, mainly in terms of the linguistic knowledge that would help students write effectively. Teachers, most of the time, try to strike a balance between what their students should write for the sake of their development, and the negative influence of the materials, such as textbooks, being used in teaching. Finally, some teachers lack experience of this approach, which thus may not be applicable in all settings.

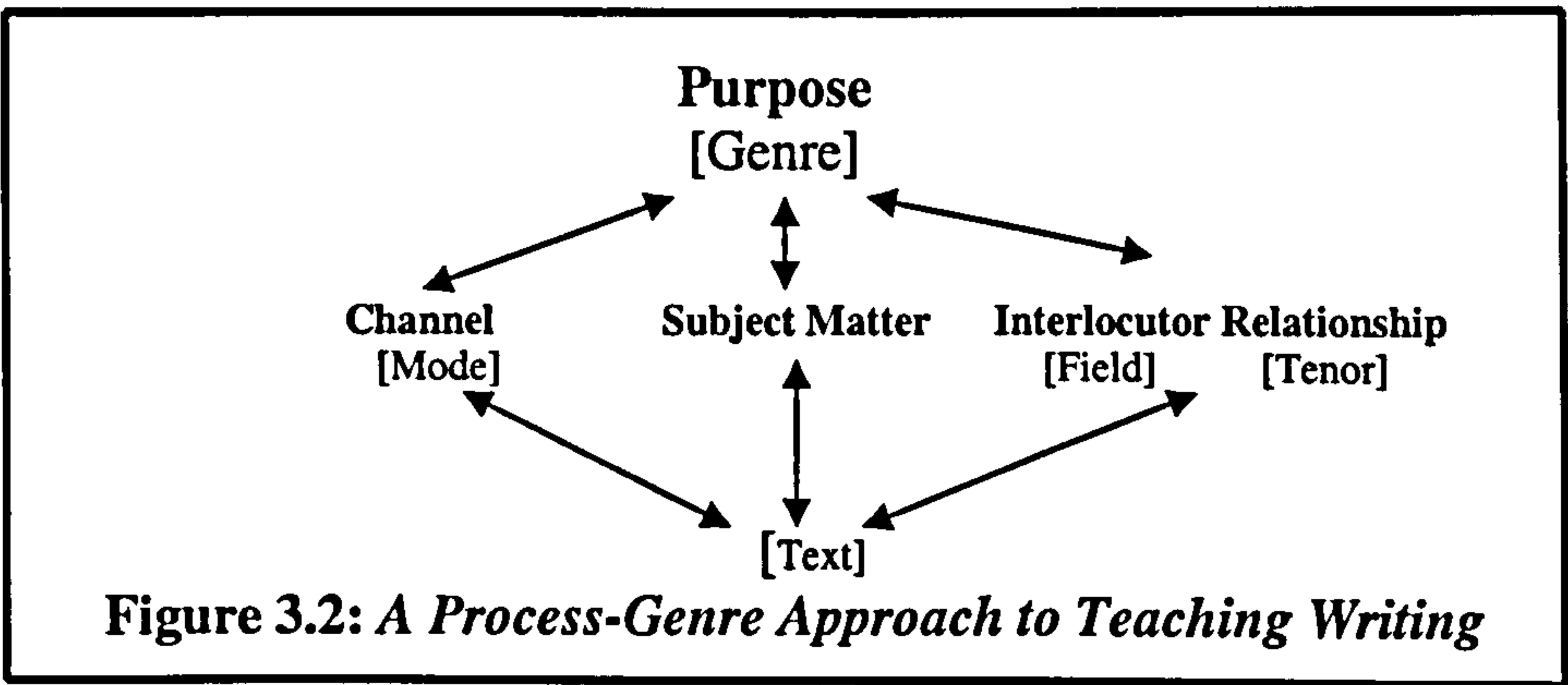
### **3.10 The Genre-based Approach to Teaching Writing**

Over the last twenty years, product and process approaches have dominated much of the teaching of writing that occurs in the EFL/ESL classroom. Reflecting the notion that "the whole enterprise is beyond words, beyond conceptions" (Smith, 1982: 27), the last ten years have witnessed the birth of a new trend, represented by the genre-approach, which has gained adherents such as Swales (1990), Tribble (1996), and Gee

(1997). It also, like the product approach, regards writing as predominantly linguistic but, unlike the product approach, recognises that writing changes with the social context in which it is produced.

The central theme of this approach is the purpose of writing, which differs from one situation to another, and which therefore requires distinct types of writing, or genres, such as letters, recipes, or law and administrative reports, the purposes of which are different from each other. Swales (1990) defines a genre as comprising “a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes” (p. 58); whereas Martin (1984) sees genre as “a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture” (p. 86). Both Swales and Martin emphasise that communication is the core theme of genre.

Because situations are different and comprise various features, they have their impact on the genres being used in each separate situation. These features or factors that influence the genres can be summarised in the subject matter, the relationships between the writer and the audience, and the patterns of organisation, as described in Martin’s (1993) diagram which illustrates the models of genre:



The genre approach contains many similarities to the product approach in terms of writing development. It has three phases: modelling the target genre, text construction by students and teachers, and independent text construction by the students (Cope &



Kalantzis, 1993). These phases have been reformulated to serve the *English Language Teaching* field (ELT). By introducing and analysing the genre model, students oversee examples and exercises that manipulate relevant language forms, and perform a short text.

The genre approach allows students to investigate authentic descriptions of what they choose to write about. That is, students could analyse the text by looking at linguistic components such as grammar and vocabulary. Furthermore, the social context to which the text is related could be taken into account in order that the text reflects the social context (Badger & White, 2000).

The genre approach sees writing as being embedded in the relevant social situation, i.e. any piece of writing aims to fulfil a certain social and communicative purpose. Thus, ESL/EFL teachers need to replicate the real-world situation as closely as possible, and provide their students with the support that will enable them to identify the purpose, and other aspects of the social context. This helps the students to look at themselves as real agents of actual events and to behave linguistically in accordance with the given situation. Such a technique helps the students draw on their knowledge of language components such as grammar, vocabulary, and organisation. In addition, students can adapt their skills properly to the genre by redrafting and proof reading to produce a clear and complete description which reflects the situation from which it arises (ibid.). It also aims to make students aware of the structure and purpose of the texts of different genres and to empower them with the strategies necessary to replicate these features in the final production.

The positive attitude towards the genre approach results from its advantages. It acknowledges that writing occurs within the social situation, which, in turn, facilitates the process of communication between the writer and his audience. It also recognises

that writing reflects a particular purpose, either a social purpose or an educational purpose or even both. Moreover, it believes that learning can happen consciously through imitation and analysis. However, the negative aspect of the genre approach can be seen in that it under-estimates the skills needed for text production. It also assumes students to be more passive in the learning process in general and in learning writing in particular.

### **3.11 Conclusion**

From this brief introduction to the various approaches to teaching writing, we may conclude that earlier approaches, from the 1960s and 1970s, were mainly text-based approaches, in which students read texts and reproduced them. Moreover, teachers of writing composition rarely discussed the process of composition. Rather, they emphasised the text, its clarity, authority, and correctness.

The birth of the process approach aimed to shift attention away from the text towards the processes that created it. These processes should be understood as fluid, complex, and highly individual. Thus, process pedagogy offered teachers of writing a new way of thinking about their profession. Accordingly, we support the use of process pedagogy to teach writing in the University of Libya for the following reasons:

- a) Process pedagogy encourages students to understand writing as a process that consists of a series of interrelated activities and strategies, including planning, drafting, and reviewing.
- b) This approach employs teaching methods that help students become confident contributors to the academic community. It promotes student-teacher conferences, peer group exercises, peer tutors, and the use of facilitative responses to student writing.
- c) By limiting the use of texts, process pedagogy acknowledges the importance of students' personal experiences and voices, and seeks to find appropriate ways for the personal to inform academic writing.

This chapter has focused on the difficulties that face EFL student writers and showed, in particular, that Arab students are not competent to write in English because they fail to do certain things, such as organise the discourse in terms of references, which

resulting from the unsuccessful use of English writing conventions. The chapter has also showed the differences between L1 and L2 writing teaching. The main focus, in this chapter, has been on some approaches to teaching writing.

The next chapter introduces the contrastive rhetoric and the differences between the two languages in question in terms of contrastive analysis and errors.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **CONTRASTIVE RHETORIC**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter aims to investigate the issues of how Arab students write in English, as well as the factors affecting their English written texts. Contrastive rhetoric, contrastive analysis, and error analysis are included to shed light on how these issues are dealt with when teaching writing to non-native English speakers. The overview highlights the purpose of this chapter and sheds light on some common problems facing EFL students' writings.

#### **4.2 Arab Learners' Writing in English**

Before embarking on the issue of contrastive rhetoric, we shall refer briefly to the problems and what causes them. Although attention has been drawn to the writing process, the teaching of L2 composition in the Arab world still uses the product approach. As a result, most studies conducted on Arab learners' writing are based on the view of writing as a product. In both the UK and the USA, although Arabs constitute a large proportion of the foreign student population, very few studies focus on Arab students' writing processes. Furthermore, these studies do not exclusively focus on the similarities and differences between Arabic and English. Most of the related studies focus on the use of L1, Arabic, in L2, English (see, e.g., Alam, 1992; Halimah, 1993, 2001; AL Murtaji, 2001).

The literature review in Chapter two indicated that many researchers (see e.g. Salama, 1981; El-Shimy, 1982; El-Hassan, 1984, Kharma and Doushaq, 1988; Fakhri, 1994, among others), maintain that the writing difficulties of Arab learners are caused for the most part by morphological and syntactic differences between English and Arabic in various areas such as punctuation, proper use of tenses, relativisation, word order, phrasal verbs, etc. These studies conclude that writing difficulties and problems might



be solved by making learners aware of these differences and by applying the contrastive analysis approach to the teaching and learning of writing (see section 3.3). Our concern is primarily with Arab learners of English as a foreign language at home, in an Arab environment and culture. The means of communication outside the classroom is Arabic, exposure to English only in the classroom. Although TV and radio can be used as means of communication, these are passive media and the learner functions as a preceptor and not as a producer.

Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) surveyed the use of L1 by Kuwait University students and teachers in classroom communication and found that 93% of teachers and 95% of students actually use L1 in English classrooms for a variety of purposes. They also discovered that the majority of the students, about 81%, feel that they are happy when they are allowed to use their mother tongue especially.

### **4.3 Factors Affecting the EFL Arab Learners' Writing**

#### **4.3.1 *Introduction***

In this section we aim briefly to outline the major problematic features of writing in English as a foreign language, and attempt to demonstrate that attributing the problems and difficulties of writing merely to linguistic factors is not sufficient. Such problems and difficulties are, in fact, attributable to more than one specific factor. They could be linguistic, cultural, educational, psychological, or a combination of all of these factors, which block the Arab students' writing in English.

#### **4.3.2 *Overview***

Although many researchers appear to think that the problems are not as complex in general English writing as they are in English used for special purposes, there is insufficient evidence provided to justify this assumption. That is, any type of English writing is basically derived from the underlying background of the learner's

perception of writing in general. The basics of writing must always be established in the early English classes, in which English is taught as general, not specific.

Concerning the rhetorical features, it is well known that EFL students come to writing classes armed with the productive and perceptive abilities of more than one language. This bilingual, bicultural or bilaterally-powerful knowledge that gives EFL students their unique character can actually facilitate progress in the development of L2 writing proficiency if it is well-invested; however, it may impede this progress if it is not accounted for (Connor, 1996).

Even when it comes to EFL students who speak the same L1, and belong to the same culture and educational and social backgrounds, teachers as well as researchers must be aware of the individual differences among these students, and how these variables affect their proficiency, achievement, and rate of progress, etc. (Ellis, 1994). Now let us turn to the factors affecting the L2 writing process, in brief:

#### ***4.3.3 Linguistic factors***

Most of the previous studies carried out to investigate the areas of difficulty Arab students encounter while learning English have been linguistically oriented, particularly the studies conducted by Arab researchers. A considerable number of the studies have focused on problems relevant to phonology, morphology, and syntax.

However, the studies that concern us here are those carried out to examine the difficulties that Arab learners face when they are involved in a writing task. Salamah (1981), in a study based on contrastive analysis, found that most of the writing problems can be attributed to morphological differences between English and Arabic. These findings were confirmed by El-Shimy (1982), who attributes the writing difficulties of Arab learners to the morphological and syntactic differences between Arabic and English. He concludes that Arab learners of English encounter difficulties

in areas such as proper use of tenses, and the use of copula (to be), when generating English sentences and that they also have problems with the passive voice, negation, etc.

Furthermore, Doushaq and Sawaf (1988) investigated the problems encountered by Arab writers when they use English phrasal verbs. They concluded that Arab learners are more likely to use main verbs instead of phrasal verbs because the latter do not have an equivalent in Arabic.

These studies, and many others, seem to have investigated the systematic problems which emerge from a linguistic comparison between Arabic and English, encountered by Arab learners when performing written tasks. On the other hand, all these studies have emphasised the fact that any difficulties revealed by linguistically-oriented research concerning Arabic-speaking learners' writing difficulties may be overcome by making students aware of the linguistic differences between English and Arabic. As a result of this conception, a product-oriented approach to the teaching of writing has by and large been advocated in the Arab world in general and in Libya in particular.

#### ***4.3.4 Cultural factors***

Researchers have started looking at the issue of writing from different angles as a result of the loss of credibility of the product-oriented concept of writing. A new concept had to be established within which writing problems could be solved. Fortunately, the process-oriented approach emerged at the beginning of the 1980s. In addition, in response to the need for solving the non-linguistic problems of writing, a great deal of interest appeared among researchers as well as teachers in characterising cultural differences existing between languages as being another reason behind the

problems of writing by non-native speakers (Doushaq, 1983; Ballard, 1984; Kaplan, 1988a, 1988b; Brown, 1988; Soter, 1988; Parker, 1988).

Studies concerned with the cultural dimension of the writing of EFL/ESL learners have indicated that these learners face problems in adjusting to the cultural sphere of the foreign languages they are learning. Doushaq (1983), in a case study of Arabic-speaking students learning English as a foreign language at Jordan University, found significant interference from Arabic cultural aspects in students' English letter writing. He attributed this phenomenon, and the learners' inability to produce a well-organised and coherent letter in English, to the fact that Arab learners of English were unaware of the fact that the English way of writing letters was entirely different from the Arabic way. This also suggests out that letter writing techniques could be culture-bound.

Unlike Doushaq, Soter (1988) conducted a study to investigate narrative writing by grade-6 Arab students. His findings confirmed those of Kaplan (1966), that because of the cultural differences between Arabic and English, Arabic speaking learners of English use a high percentage of coordinating conjunctions in their writing. From this, one may assume a close relationship between writing and culture, and that any type of disassociation between the cultural factors and the process of writing would lead to the rise of serious problems in EFL/ESL writing.

#### ***4.3.5 Educational factors***

If Libya is looked at as an Arab state adopted the 'Arabisation' policy during the 1970s and 1980s, the observer of the teaching and learning systems and the educational policies implemented at schools and universities may derive a negative attitude towards the general standard of English language learners. Andrews (1984), for example, reported the negative effects of the 'Arabisation' policy on the standard of English teaching and learning of school and university students in the Sudan. He



claimed that the implementation of 'Arabisation' in 1965 has caused a great deal of deterioration in the standards of the university students.

Unfortunately, the studies carried out to investigate the relationship between the adopted educational policies and English language learning in the Arab world show that the teacher-centred policy has negative impacts mainly on the written standard of Arab learners' English. EFL teachers have attributed such negative impacts, as Doushaq and Makhzoumy (1989) describe the inefficiency of Arab students in English writing, to the lack of rigorous evaluation of students' writing. Dudley-Evans (1984), examining an ESP textbook in Egyptian secondary schools, found that teachers were not willing to broaden the language use beyond the imposed planned syllabuses. Even if there were any changes they seemed to be teacher-made, and dealt merely with language form, which turned the students into more teacher-dependent learners.

The serious influence of this policy-the teacher-oriented policy- became clear at the Libyan university, in which a new student-centred policy was systematically introduced and strongly supported. The transition from one method to another at university level forced researchers, teachers and administrators to review the teaching methods at preparatory and secondary school level in order to progress and meet the requirements. As a result of the change at university level, it became clear that Arab students do suffer from problems in critical thinking and analysis, as well as problems in organising and making distinctions between details and underlying concepts when writing in English. They cannot cope with the differences between preparatory and secondary syllabuses, on the one hand, and what they have to learn at university level, on the other. Arab learners are not competent to evaluate their written work at either level because they have difficulty distinguishing each discipline according to its

distinctive features and methods of analysis, discussion, presentation, etc. (Ballard, 1984).

Kharma's (1985a) contribution in this regard shows that most of the practice in teaching writing is clearly limited to language use at the sentence level. He also refers to the limitations imposed by the selection and grading of material on language teaching and learning.

Consequently, it is clear that the 'writing skills' of Arab learners are more likely to be affected, directly or indirectly, by educational policy and by the process of teaching writing. A new movement to reassess educational factors, including educational policy, is desperately needed in order to upgrade the Arab learners' standard of writing.

#### ***4.3.6 Psychological factors***

The fact that psychological factors influence the process of writing is obvious. Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 47) have referred to this phenomenon, explaining that "learning a language is an emotional experience, and the feelings that the learning process evokes will have a crucial bearing on the success or failure of learning". This shows that the way in which learners perceive learning a writing task is negatively or positively effective for the learning process.

After this overview on the difficulties and the factors causing them we attempt to introduce the main issues of this chapter.

To know a language requires the learner to understand it more or less explicitly and be able to use it accurately. Kharma and Hajaj (1989) argue that the aim of teaching EFL to Arab learners is to "permit individuals to communicate with each other fluently and effectively in the common diverse personal and professional situations of daily life" (p.3). However, the educational system in most Arab countries has failed to achieve

its aim in this regard. Lado (1957) contended that “individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and culture as practised by natives” (p. 2). This notion led to the birth of the long-standing tradition called the ‘transfer’ or ‘interference’ theory based on comparative linguistics.

Interference causes problems as a result of rhetoric transfer. Researchers were encouraged to consider this fact because “foreign students who have mastered syntactic structures have still demonstrated inability to compose adequate themes, term papers, theses, and dissertations” (Kaplan, 1966: 3). Such inabilities on the part of learners could be attributed to the formal setting in which a foreign language is taught, or as Murphy (1980) explains, the reason that “many rhetoric programs have failed to achieve their goals is that they have spent too much time on detail and have lost sight of the larger patterns that give spirit and significance to the communication experience” (p. 25).

Focus has also been directed towards attitudes to language. Zughouli et al. (1986) and Zughouli (1986) thought that Arab learners approach EFL writing negatively by using English ‘instrumentally’ rather than ‘integratively’. Such a notion was also put forward by Ostler (1987); however, Halimah (2001) sees that the use of spoken Arabic in written contexts has affected the Arab learners’ writing style and content. The Holy Quran has always been the primary reference for those who want to learn Arabic because its rhetoric is clear, expressive and well-organised. What affects Arab learners’ writing nowadays is their passive involvement and entire reliance on the spoken version of the language.

Problems inherent in the teaching of English to Arabic-speaking students have been inventoried by many researchers. To mention but a few, see Kharma and Hajaj (1989) in earlier sections, who surveyed systematic errors among Arab students ranging over linguistic levels, sentence types, and rhetorical and discoursal levels; Abou Ghararah (1989) who focused on investigating the syntactic errors; Walters (1987) who investigated the relevance of Arabic rhetoric in order to understand Tunisian students' rhetorical errors when writing persuasive essays in English. Walters suggested that contrastive rhetoric should be considered as a promising methodology for teaching and learning languages. Another example is Maalej (1998), who was interested in investigating one particular issue, the determination inherent in Tunisian students' written performance. His findings rest on a case study of university students' compositions. Analysis revealed pairs of matching patterns accounting for "inappropriate use of determination in English", i.e. students tended to use their L1 (Arabic) competence while writing in L2 (English).

#### **4.4 Contrastive Analysis (CA) versus Error Analysis (EA)**

Contrastive analysis has been identified as textbook-centred, whereas error analysis is seen to be learner-centred. These two approaches have been considered as complementing each other. The former covers more than only contrastive relations, whereas the latter describes and analyses one particular source in detail.

##### **4.4.1 Contrastive Analysis (CA)**

CA aims to "observe in second language learners the plethora of errors attributable to the negative transfer of the native language to the target language (L2)" (Brown, 1994: 193). The aim is reflected in Lado's (1957) words: "in the comparison between native and foreign languages lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning" (p. 1) i.e. similarities facilitate and differences impede learning. The CA



hypothesis aims to contrast the system of one language, L1, with the system of another language, L2, to predict the difficulties that a speaker of L2 will have. The primary tenets of this theory are:

- a) Prime cause of difficulty and error in L2 learning is interference coming from L1.
- b) Difficulties are mainly due to differences between L1 and L2.
- c) The greater the difference, the more acute the learning difficulties will be.
- d) Comparisons between languages are needed to predict the differences which cause difficulties and lead to errors.
- e) What needs to be taught is discovered by comparing the languages and subtracting what is common to them.

CA may be divided into two versions:

*The weak version* assumes the linguist uses the best linguistic knowledge available to him in order to account for the observed difficulties in L2. The weak version seems more explanatory than predictive.

*The strong version* assumes that it is possible to contrast the system of one language with the system of a second language in order to predict the difficulties which the speaker of the L2 will have in learning the L1, and to construct reading materials to help the learner learn that language. The strong version is more predictive and more useful for the textbook, writer, and teacher. The theory of CA makes a lot of demands on linguists, for example:

- a) A set of linguistic universals formulated within a comprehensive linguistic theory which deals with syntax, semantics, and phonology.
- b) A theory of contrastive linguistics in which they can use a linguistic description of the two languages to be compared.

#### **4.4.2 Error Analysis (EA)**

Debate on the shortage of CA (see section 4.4.1) has shifted attention to a more focused method of analysis. EA developed out of the belief that errors indicate the student's stage of language learning and acquisition. It equates L2 learning with L1

acquisition, for both the child and the learner go through similar stages of learning, namely, trial-and-error strategies and hypothesis testing. Corder (1974a) believes that learners' errors are significant because they are "evidence that the learner is in the process of acquiring language" (p. 93). Errors are also considered as evidence of the learner's strategy while building his competence of L2. These errors are defined as global errors, that inhibit understanding, and local errors, those which do not interfere with communication.

Corder (1974) emphasises the significance of errors in the learning process and argues their importance in three ways: for the teacher, they indicate how far the learner has progressed and what remains for him to learn; for the researcher, they provide evidence of how language is learned, and what of strategies the learner is using to discover the language, and finally errors are indispensable to the learner himself, because committing errors reflects the fact that the learner is actually learning.

EA has been subject to criticism. Brown (1994) believes that a preoccupation with learners' errors has resulted in moving the focus away from correct utterances. He also sees that research has been directed towards an analysis of the learners' production at the expense of the way they understand language. Moreover, there is inadequate attention paid to correct forms due to the strategy of avoidance of errors. Finally, the preoccupation with errors focused on particular languages at the expense of considering the universal aspects of language.

#### **4.5 What Causes Errors in Arab Learners' Writing in English?**

Many of the studies that deal with the difficulties that beset Arab learners' written performance have focused on the word and sentence levels; however, such difficulties cannot be limited to these two levels, as they lie only in form, and do not extend further. Holes (1984) explains this neatly thus:

*“teachers of academic writing will be familiar with the problems of the advanced Arab learners whose work is relatively free of gross grammar error but which has a persistently un-English ‘feel’ to it” (p. 228).*

What causes these problems, in both the two levels mentioned above and within the *inter-sentential, discoursal*, level, is the subject of this section. We shall also attempt to discuss remedy the problems and suggest implications (see section 3.3).

Although Arab learners try to produce an appropriate English discourse they often make mistakes in the following areas: discourse organisation, in terms of antecedents and references; writing mechanics, ranging from punctuation to paragraphing; unity, cohesion, order of sentences and topicalisation; composition development strategies; and developing the overall theme in paragraphs of expository prose. All these difficulties and problems may be attributed to different causes such as: the nature of the teaching methods and processes; unsuitable teaching materials; lack of motivation; absence, or at least limitation, of exposure to authentic English in terms of communicative activities, deterioration with discoursal mistakes, and inadequate command of English, as well as the rhetorical differences between Arabic and English (Kharma, 1987). It is sufficient briefly to review these problematic features that affect the Arab learners’ performances in their written compositions.

As far as *rhetorical* differences are concerned (see sections 4.7 and 4.8), the differences between both languages are explained. The errors are more likely to be evident to native speakers of English than to non-native speakers, i.e. those Arab teachers who teach English as a foreign language.

Kharma (1987) found that most errors spotted in short compositions written by freshmen students in the English Department, Kuwait university, centred around the following aspects within the written discourse: lack of paragraphing; paragraph disorganisation; generating incoherent ideas in the paragraph; repetition and

redundancy; over-use of co-ordination, vagueness of thought, etc. Most of these characteristics “can be accounted for by the differences between the two rhetorics” (p.10).

As far as *teaching process* is concerned, despite the development of teaching approaches and methods, the procedures adopted in Libyan secondary schools are still traditionally oriented. Teachers are primarily concerned with presenting new items of vocabulary and grammatical structures in a traditional way. They also adopt techniques of repetition and substitution, when drilling these items. Practice takes up a very small proportion of class-time and is restricted by the textbook instructions. Linkage between old and new items is not given enough time or practice, both because of time limitations and the large number of students per class. Moreover, teachers of EFL writing seem dissatisfied with the new trends in teaching methods and approaches for various reasons. Thus, even in the “newly emerging ‘communicative approach’ language functions and notions are treated as if they were always equivalent to single sentences or utterances” (ibid. p. 11).

As far as *teaching materials* are concerned, the focus has been placed on language structures and their grading on the basis of a simple-to-difficult scale. However, the function of language as a tool of communication has been taken into consideration to some extent. Yet the basic assumption has remained the same, which means that process and materials are not “situational at all but a tarted-up structural course” (Davies, 1973, cited in Kharma, 1987: 12).

*Motivation*, however essential a part in the learning process, seems unavailable in the writing classes. Ideas are for the most part suggested by the teachers or the textbooks, and do not reflect any realistic expressive forms on the part of the students. Students, within this type of writing, lack elements of communication, but all of what they write



is meant only to satisfy the teacher or the examination requirements. Furthermore, this type of writing prevents the students from developing various styles for different topics and purposes which require different types of organisation. If the types of writing are supported by realistic situations and appropriate feedback they will be more effective and motivating.

In addition to motivation, *the limited exposure* to authentic language frustrates student writers in their need to follow up their writing which, to some extent, reflects their oral ability. With regard to the idea that foreign languages must be introduced as authentically as possible, Arab learners lack this opportunity. Even if it is available they may not exploit it well enough because the native language is the means of communication even within the class, especially when they are taught by L1 native speakers. We cannot deny the existing indirect exposure through TV, cinema, and radio that may enhance receptive, listening, comprehension skills, but we cannot take it for granted that this will facilitate communication abilities of writing because the learner is more passive. Reading, according to Krashen (1984) facilitates and leads to good writing, but it seems less desirable for students to be inclined to watch TV and videos, as these decrease the learners' interest in writing.

Writing teachers tend to adhere to a system of priority, in which they adopt first things first. They usually consider writing mechanics, grammatical and lexical mistakes, and topic development as their priorities. Inadequate command of L2 motivates the learners to stick to fundamental features of the language rather than going deeper into discourse and content organisation.

## 4.6 Contrastive Rhetoric (CR)

The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (1997) defines CR as:

*“The study of similarities and differences between writing in a first language and second language or between two languages, in order to understand how writing conventions in one language influence how a person writes in another. Writing in a second language is thought to be influenced to some extent by the linguistic and cultural conventions of the writer’s first language, and this may influence how the writer organizes written discourse, the kind of script or scheme the writer uses, as well as such factors as topic, audience, paragraph organization, and choice of vocabulary or register”.*

Also, “Contrastive rhetoric is the area of research in second language acquisition that defines problems in composition encountered by second languages writers, by referring them to the rhetorical strategies of the first language. It maintains that language and writing are cultural phenomena. As a direct consequence, each language has rhetorical conventions unique to it” (Connor, 1996: p. 5).

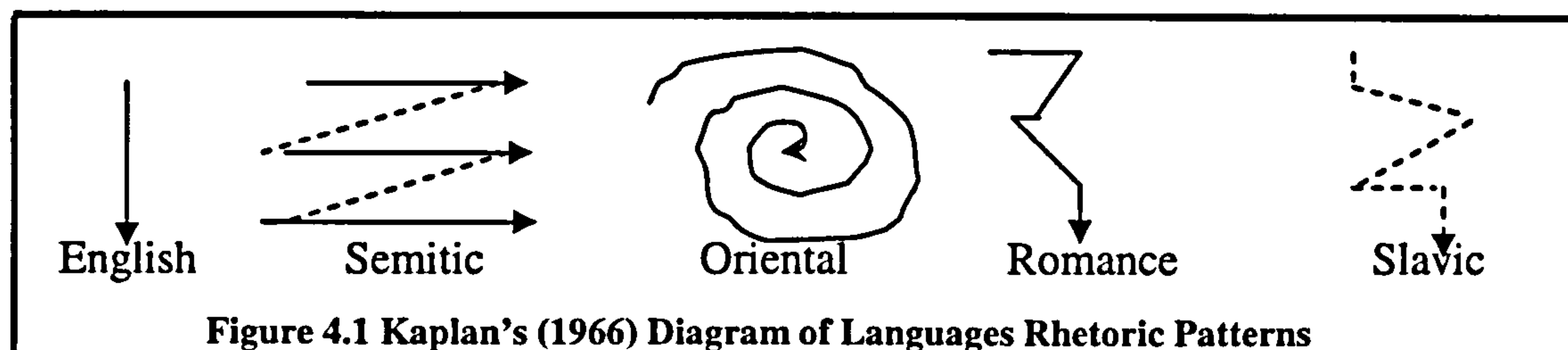
This section briefly discusses the CR hypothesis that was put forward by Kaplan (1966). Kaplan indicated differences in rhetorical writing styles between English native speakers and speakers of other languages, Arabic being one of them.

### 4.6.1 The background to CR

CR hypothesises differences and the factors behind them in rhetorical organisation between writers of English and writers from other linguistic backgrounds. Kaplan (1966) examined 600 L2 essays and created diagrams (see Figure 4.1) based on the rhetorical patterns of the writing they produced.

The following diagram graphically represents typical paragraph structures by speakers of several languages. The Semitic group is characterised by extensive parallel constructions whereas the Oriental group prefers an indirect approach to the topic. Romance and Slavic groups commonly use frequent digressions in their rhetoric patterning. English text is characterized as being linear beginning with a topic

sentence. Although such diagramming does not refer to superiority or inferiority of any language over the others, this oversimplification has been the subject of criticism. Also, the inclusion of these diagrams in EFL/ESL textbooks has sometimes led to their uncritical acceptance (Leki, 1991).



CR was an outcome of earlier contrastive analysis theories meant to explain and predict errors at the word level. Contrastive analysis (CA) (see section 4.3.1) adopted a parallel description of the learner's L1 with that of his L2. However, CA did not provide us with a definitive explanation for errors in speech and writing as anticipated (Johnson and Duver, 1996). Also CA is not capable of providing an explanation for the mistake after the mistake has been made.

CR is significantly effective in the field of ESL teaching in general and writing in particular. It is applicable at the discourse level and useful in two ways. The first is that it helps in explaining grammar and usage points instructively rather than by rule. Secondly, it helps in defining the ways in which language is intertwined with a particular cultural worldview. The latter provides a meta-linguistic viewpoint that may introduce an additional approach to teaching writing.

#### 4.6.2 Critique of CR

Since the birth of CR (see section 4.6) several critiques have been made of this hypothesis. Some of these critiques were merely defensive, which enriched Kaplan's claims and brought more important dimensions to the discussion of CR. The most significant critique is that concerned with the writing process.

One of the strongest critiques was related to and resulted from the “Writing-as-a-Process Argument”. The advocates of this argument think that Kaplan ignores the very natural claim that writing is a process, since the CR hypothesis is fundamentally product-oriented. That is, the format and linear progression of English essays might be practised until the desired rhetorical organisation is produced by EFL learners. Leibman (1992) has criticised the premium on product at the expense of process in Kaplan’s work as static, because texts mislead, and never tell us about how they came to be. Kachru (1997) takes objects to the uniformity imposed by the CR hypothesis, by confirming the existence of many problematic varieties of English “the concept of a monolithic norm in academic writing is a myth and goes against the research findings in language, socialization, and literacy” (p. 338). She calls for more sensitive CR research comparing the data from the languages being considered, because some genres are unique to a language. Kachru believes that commitment to a certain style may harm both writers and audience because “a narrow view of what constitutes good writing may shut out a larger number of original studies from publication and dissemination” (p. 344). Kubota (1997) criticises CR because finding a pure form of cultural expression in modern society is difficult. She also claims that a focus on cross-linguistic similarities and differences would produce a more comprehensive understanding of cultural conventions in writing (1998). Hence Kaplan’s CR hypothesis becomes vulnerable to charges of being against diversity.

In general, Kaplan’s model was criticised for being too simplistic, and for assuming the English rhetorical model to be ‘straight’ or ‘normal’.

#### ***4.6.3 CR and Writing Instruction***

During the years before the development of CR, writing instruction for EFL learners was given at sentence level. Researchers directed their focus onto grammar and usage,



and a coherent method for communicating the sequencing and organisation of text was lacking. Since English became the language of science, technology, diplomacy, and commerce, vast numbers of international students with different cultural backgrounds started acquiring English as a key language to prosperity. Such interest in the English language led to a disparity of writing styles within ESL/EFL classrooms. This disparity, as well as lack of discourse organisation, created obstacles to understanding on the part of teachers and students. Therefore, by the early 1960s the need was evident for a systematic approach to the teaching of writing which went beyond the sentence level for non-native speakers of English.

## **4.7 Arabic Rhetoric vs. English Rhetoric**

### **4.7.1 Arabic Rhetoric**

Great languages spring from great empires and Arabic is no exception. Thanks to Islamic conquests of the 7<sup>th</sup> century A.D. Arabic has spread far beyond its original borders, and it has supplanted almost all the previous languages of Iraq, Syria, Egypt, and North Africa. After further conquest in succeeding centuries Arabic was spoken as far east as Afghanistan and as far west as Spain.

“The rise of Arabic to the status of a major world language is inextricably intertwined with the rise of Islam as a major world religion. Before the appearance of Islam, Arabic was a member of the southern branch of the Semitic language family used by a number of largely nomadic tribes in the Arabian peninsula, with an extremely poorly documented textual history” (De Young, 1999).

The Arabic language is one of the world’s most widely used languages. According to Egyptian Demographic Centre (2000), Arabic is the mother tongue of about 300 million people; in addition, it is understood by up to 1.2 billion people (BBC News 2002) with other than Arab nationalities who believe in Islam as their religion and read the Holy Quran in its original script-Arabic. Arabic is the national and official

language of Libya, Tunisia, Algeria, Morocco, Mauritania, Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Qatar, Bahrain, The United Arab Emirates, Jordan, The Sudan, though, Southern Sudan people speak Nilo-Saharan languages, Lebanon, Kuwait, Yemen, Oman, and Palestine (Sofer and Raimes, 2002; World Book Encyclopedia, 1997; Chejne, 1969; Allen, 1998). Arabic is also “used for communication in states such as Senegal and Chad” (Allen, 1998: 18). Arabic is one of the six official languages of the United Nations.

In countries of North Africa, mainly Morocco and Algeria, and to a much smaller extent Tunisia and Libya, there are scattered minorities whose mother tongue is one of a large number of Berber dialects which origins go back to Hamitic, which forms a branch of the Afro-Asiatic linguistic family. Most Berbers have no written language and the efforts that have been made in Algeria to document the language have had little success. As we are concerned with students in Libya, Jabal Nafusa and the city of Zuwara, inland from Tripoli, are the main locations of the Berber population. These groups speak a language called Mazir which still strong and vibrant (Encyclopedia of the Orient, 1996-2002). Also, in the mountains of northern Iraq there are several hundred thousand native speakers of Kurdish, an Indo-European language related to Persian. In southern Sudan the indigenous population speaking a variety of languages called Nilo-Saharan (Hole, 1995).

There are two types of Arabic, spoken Arabic (SP) and written Arabic. SP consists of dialects. Arabic is the descendent of the language of the Quran, the sacred book of the Islamic religion. The orientation of writing is from right-to-left, and the Arabic alphabet consists of 28 letters. Such an alphabet can be extended to ninety elements by writing additional shapes, marks, and vowels (Tayli and Al-Salamah, 1990). Most Arabic words morphologically derived from a list of roots; it can be tri, quad, or pent-

literal. Most of these roots are three consonants. Arabic words are classified into three main parts of speech: nouns (adjectives, and adverbs), verbs and particles. In formal writin, Arabic sentences are delimited by commas and periods as in English. Many English words come from Arabic e.g. alcohol, algebra, check, magazine, and tariff. The modern form of Arabic is called Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and it is the form used by all Arabic-speaking countries in publications, the media and academic institutions. MSA is spoken by people from different Arab countries where the local dialects may not be mutually intelligible.

Arabic enjoys two types of diglossia. Ferguson (1959) referred to two varieties of Arabic: Classical Arabic as a 'high' variety, and colloquial Arabic (CoA) as a 'low' variety. However, Yasin (1981) suggests three varieties of Arabic: Classical Arabic (CA), Standard Arabic (SA), and Local Dialects (LD). Others maintain that Arabic has more varieties than that, for example, Zughouli (1980) argues that there are four varieties: Classical Arabic (CA), Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), Educated Arabic (EA), and Colloquial Arabic (CoA). These claims are not our concern here, although they could be a reason for the existence of the rhetorical problems or duality that manifest themselves in the written discourse of Arab students (Halimah, 2001).

Based on these observations, Classical Arabic reflects the style used in the pre-Islamic era literature, the Holy Quran, and the Prophet Mohamed's (Peace Be Upon Him) sayings. Standard Arabic represents the style used in education, the media, business, and commerce. Modern Standard Arabic is the style used in newspapers, magazines, and broadcasting. Educated Arabic is a form of the style mainly used when Arabs from different colloquial backgrounds meet and communicate. Finally, Local Dialects and Colloquial Arabic represent the style normally used in everyday life between

citizens of the same country. Libyans are a good example of this particularly in lexicon and phonology.

Spoken Arabic (SA) dialects are the varieties of the language all native speakers acquire before they learn how to speak and use (SA) through their education. It is different from one area to another and comprehension gets much more difficult when these areas are distant. It is a mixed form, which has several variants, and often a dominating influence from local languages. Differences between the various variants of spoken Arabic can be large enough to make them incomprehensible to one another. Hence it could be correct to refer to the different versions as separate languages named according to their areas, like Moroccan, Cairo Arabic, North Syrian Arabic etc. Arabic writing is an alphabet script, based on distinct characters, adjoined to other characters, which in most cases change their looks depending on where they stand in the word. By the early Prophet period two scripts were in use: the Naskhi, the ordinary cursive form used in books and correspondence, and the Kufic, an angular script used mainly for decorative purposes.

The present alphabet of twenty-eight letters consists basically of consonants, the vowel signs being indicated by marks above or below the letters. While these marks are generally omitted, they do appear in elementary school books and all editions of the Quran.

In terms of vowels, Arabic consists of three short, three long, and two diphthongs: [u], [a], [i]; [u:], [a:], [I:]; [au] as in (aw) and [ai] as in (ay) respectively. While the letters 'waw', 'alif', and 'ya' function as long vowels as in 'teachers' plural, 'teachers' dual, and 'teachers' genitive, short vowels are indicated by signs posited above or below the consonants carrying them such as 'ba', 'bi', and 'bu'. No vowel signs appear in most modern written and printed Arabic, and the reader has to figure them out.



Vowels are sometimes replaced by a small circle over the letter called ‘*sukun*’ or ‘*jazma*’ as it appears in the word (كُن) [kun].

One more character to be mentioned is ‘gemination’ doubled letters’. That is, a double letter is not written in Arabic unless separated by a vowel, but is pronounced. ‘*Shada*’ (ّ) is most likely to be written on the letter to be doubled, as in (.....).

Punctuation and paragraphing were ignored in early Arabic manuscripts. In modern times, the Arabs have been influenced by the European punctuation but not paragraphing. It is noteworthy that Arabic punctuation marks are written upside down. Linguists term Arabic as ‘diglossic’ by which they mean that its native speakers use various registers of language according to the social situations involved. That is, a variety of different colloquial dialects and sub-dialects are spoken. Allen (1998) attributes the emergence of dialects to the influence of the “Muslim soldiers from different tribes of the Arabian Peninsula [*who*] congregated in the garrison cities” (p. 19). Non-educated inhabitants of the Arab world rely on the colloquial dialects as the only language they use to communicate.

As far as diglossia is concerned, the subjects of this study were supposed to be capable of speaking and writing in fluent Arabic, an assumption which turned out to be wrong with some of the subjects. Some subjects were faced with a conflict of rhetorical patterns in written discourse in which MSA must be used, not the CoA style. Thus, evidence of their rhetorical duality could be found in their writing. That is, they used the structure of Colloquial Arabic in their everyday speech, whereas the Arabic they were taught to use in writing was SA, which differs from CoA. Some subjects tended to merge CoA and SA in their written texts.

Swales and Mustafa’s (1984) *English for Specific Purposes in the Arab World* introduces unequivocal examples of the contrast between Arabic and English. For

instances, Al-Jubouri (1984) (see section 2.9) discusses the role of repetition in Arabic argumentative texts, as written in Arabic newspapers, at three levels: the morphological, word, and chunk levels. Williams attributed the difference between Arabic and English to the fact that Arabic texts contain an exact co-reference of the theme in sentence after sentence as well as repetitions of lexical items for cohesive reasons.

Although most research on writing in Arabic has focused on syntactic constructions, findings propose a clear preference for parallel constructions, as inherited from the classical texts. Furthermore, some researchers attribute this parallelism to socio-cultural and situational factors rather than to linguistic influence (Sa'Addin, 1989).

Most sources dealing with Arabic rhetoric have concerned themselves with the sentence level and left aside the discourse level. Those which were somehow interested in the discourse level were usually stylistic; consensus was, and still is, that Arabic rhetoric is affected by the Holy Quran as an ultimate model of linguistic expression whose style has been emulated for hundreds of years. Therefore, most of the Arabic written works of later and recent generations have been classified as religious, literary or encyclopaedic (Kharma, 1985). The first two have been found to prevail in Arabic writings as the main genres.

Classical Arabic is characterised by two main features: an absence of paragraphing, and an absence of punctuation. Paragraphing, as a very recent innovation in Arabic, is still considered ineffective and is merely an imitation of Western culture and writing style. Many writers think that paragraphing is no more than the “chopping up of a lengthy discourse or text into smaller units along the Western fashion” (ibid: 14).

So characteristics of Arabic rhetoric may be summarised as follows (see above), Arabic composition lacks two important elements: paragraphing and punctuation.

These two are considered very recent newcomers to Arabic writing as a result of the influence of foreign languages influence, English, for example. The Arab students' use of punctuation seems not very strict, as a result of poor instruction. Paragraphing is basically applied to certain parallel constructions. English native speakers find Arab students' essays awkward, old-fashioned, difficult to follow, and even lacking in logic (Kharma and Hajaj, 1989). Arabic rhetoric over-asserts and exaggerates as a result of an overwhelming variety of techniques for exaggeration. Arabic style is very flowery.

#### ***4.7.1.1 Linguistic Differences***

One major feature of Arabic is the great difference between the written formal language on the one hand, and the spoken informal language on the other. This difference is more marked than in English, although of course the same kinds of distinction apply. Arab students find the written form of language difficult, and hence are happier in spoken mode, and this transfers to English, where again they find speaking easier than writing. One cannot deny the fact that there strong regional dialect differences across the Arab world, and also within a country. Students can be identified where they come from by the way they speak, as most British people can about each other.

#### ***4.7.1.2 Phonology***

The phonological systems of Arabic and English are very different. Whereas English has 22 vowels and diphthongs and 24 consonants, Arabic has only 8 vowels and diphthongs but 28 consonants. The basis for meaning is very different as well, with the root meaning being often shown by consonants and long vowels; the short vowels are not usually written in the script, although of course they carry meaning distinctions (see section 4.7.1). Arabic like English, is a stress timed language, but the word stress is more predictable and learners have problems dealing with the

unpredictable nature of English word stress. Primary stress occurs more frequently and unstressed syllables are pronounced more clearly in Arabic. This distinction can lead to a rather heavy staccato rhythm when students are reading aloud from notes or giving presentations in English, (a tendency reinforced by their familiarity with recitation of the Holy Qoran). It follows then that students need lots of pronunciation work and practice in Listening.

#### **4.7.1.3 Punctuation**

Arabic punctuation has never been standardised i.e. many books, even advanced textbooks, follow the practice of mediaeval manuscripts in having no punctuation at all, let alone paragraph divisions. But we could say that the punctuation system and paragraph division have very recently been borrowed from the Western writing system. That is why, when punctuation is used it does not help as a guide to sentence structure because not only is it used in an unsystematic manner, but also the nature of the Arabic language plays a role in the matter (Beeston, 1982). Punctuation as a newcomer to modern Arabic writing is erratically used. For instance, Arab writers have problems with many different punctuation elements e.g. commas and full-stops. They use parentheses, colons and dashes erratically. The absence of quotation marks makes it difficult for the reader to distinguish between which are the writers' own words, and which are not (see section 4.7.1.2). They overuse the word '*and*' which leads to parallelism and repetition. Capitalisation is another problematic area because Arabic, as mentioned earlier, does not use capital and small forms of letters.

It is quite common for Arab writers overuse co-ordination markers "*wa-wa*", and-and, in particular because this co-ordination marker is excessively used in spoken Arabic; however, there are many more co-ordination markers which are more rarely used in the oral communication between native speakers of Arabic, and these are considered



too standard to be spoken, such as “*thumma*” ‘then’. The overuse of “*wa-wa*” co-ordinating conjunctions is also rejected by Arabs themselves, who always try to encourage their students to avoid it. When it comes to those who learn and write in English it becomes more serious, since the effect of using the Arabic co-ordinating conjunctions is to produce a piece of English writing full of irrelevant words and phrases.

#### ***4.7.1.4 Grammar***

The Semitic nature of Arabic makes its grammatical structure very different from, not only English, but also from Indo-European languages. Consequently, there are few areas of facilitation, and far greater areas of interference, which cause serious problems to Arab learners and must be borne in mind when Arab learners of English are mixed with European students..

##### ***4.7.1.4.1 The Arabic grammatical agreement system***

MSA has three forms of number: singular, dual and plural. It has three types of plural: masculine sound plural, feminine sound plural and broken plural. Verbs and subjects, demonstrative and adjectives and modified nouns, and relative and anaphoric pronouns and antecedents show number agreement. Dual and plural suffixes are added to the singular base of the verb or adjective to convert it to dual, masculine sound plural or feminine sound plural. Some adjectives are converted to broken plural by derivation. Demonstratives, personal and relative pronouns have dual and plural forms. The definite article is not marked for number. Unlike English, gender in MSA has both a semantic and syntactic function. Every noun in MSA is either masculine or feminine, whether animate or inanimate, human or non-human, singular, dual or plural, marked or unmarked. Verbs and subjects, demonstratives and adjectives and modified nouns, and relative and anaphoric pronouns and antecedents show gender

agreement. A feminine suffix is added to the base form of the verb or adjective which is masculine to convert it to feminine. Singular, dual and plural demonstratives, personal and relative pronouns have a set of masculine and feminine forms. The definite article is not marked for gender. Grammatical agreement rules in MSA are summarised below:

#### **4.7.1.4.2 Word order**

Written Arabic, as a *VSO*, verb-subject-object, language, places verbs before nouns and the subject of the sentence inserted after the verb, immediately after it. Even within Arabic itself, this verb-noun placement can be confusing to Arabs when they use oral and written Arabic.

#### **4.7.1.4.3 Auxiliaries**

The auxiliary 'do' has no equivalent in Arabic, and questions are mostly marked only by a rising intonation. The verb 'to be' is another problem for Arab learners. This type of verb is commonly used in the present tense. The copula (*BE*) is not expressed. Thus, it is very common to see Arab learners frequently omitting it when they write, or even speak, in English.

#### **4.7.1.4.4 Pronouns and Tenses**

Arabic verb forms incorporate the personal pronouns, subject and object, as suffixes and/or prefixes. At the level of tense, time and aspect, Arabic has no clear-cut boundaries between the simple past and the present perfect. However, Arabic has a simple present tense form, which signifies the unfinished action at the time of speaking. The present tense, in Arabic, covers the areas of the English simple and progressive present tenses, including their use to refer to future time (Smith, 1987).

Modal verbs are another area in which Arab learners face difficulty because there are no modal verbs in Arabic and their function, as it appears in English, is mainly

performed by normal verbs. Therefore, Arab learners have difficulty in understanding them both in form and use. They very frequently add regular verb endings, use auxiliaries, and overuse '*that*' clauses when they use these modal verbs.

#### **4.7.1.4.5 Voice**

Although there are active and passive forms in Arabic, they are virtually identical, differing in the short vowelling, which is not written. Passive forms are recognised mainly from the context they are used in. It is observed that the passive voice is used far less frequently in Arabic writing than in English, but hardly at all in everyday speech. This also causes major problems for Arab learners of English.

#### **4.7.1.4.6 Articles**

Arabic lacks an indefinite article, while the definite article is used in various situations differing from English. The indefinite article causes serious problems for Arabic learners when used with or omitted from singular and plural countable nouns. The definite article takes the form of the prefix '*al*' '*the*' but is used to refer to previously mentioned indefinite nouns. In contrast to English, the days of the week, as well as some months of the Muslim calendar, are originally preceded by the definite article in Arabic. Such occurrence of the definite article in this situation confuses Arab learners who are likely to rely on translating from Arabic into English, or to think in Arabic when they write in English.

#### **4.7.1.4.7 Adjectives**

Another area of difficulty is adjectives which, in Arabic, follow their nouns and agree with them in gender and number, something that Arab learners try hard to reproduce in English in order not to get confused, e.g. '*the red cars*' becomes '*the cars reds*'. Adverbs, on the other hand, are less frequently used in Arabic than adjectives, though

adverbs of time seem to be used more than adverbs of manner. Arab learners have problems with the use of adverbs and often confuse them with adjectives.

#### **4.7.1.4.8 Gender and Number**

Arabic differs from English in that it has two types of gender: masculine and feminine, even for neutral nouns e.g. ‘book’ takes the masculine form when used in a sentence like ‘the book (*he*) is on the table’ instead of ‘*it* is on the table’, and ‘table’ takes the feminine form, as in ‘the table (*she*) is in the office’ instead of ‘*it* is in the office’.

Number in Arabic has three aspects: singular, dual, and plural, and is formed through internal vowel changes. The regular plural forms do not cause any difficulty for Arab learners where they add the ‘-s’ suffix to the intended noun. The problem may arise when it comes to the use of irregular nouns, at least at the beginning of their learning processes. There is one more difficulty which arises when Arab learners use regular nouns following numbers. Arabic is characterised by a rule that when numbers above ten are used, the following noun must be *singular* not plural, and as a result, Arab learners may commit errors in this regard.

#### **4.7.1.4.9 Prepositions and Particles**

Arabic is rich in prepositions and particles but they do not correspond with their counter-parts in English. The absence of phrasal verbs in Arabic causes great difficulty for Arab learners in using them when they speak or write in English.

#### **4.7.1.4.10 Subordinate Clauses**

Arab learners are more likely to introduce purpose clauses with the conjunction ‘*for*’ followed by the subjunctive (present) tense. The relative pronouns are distinct in Arabic. That is, the differences between masculine and feminine, and the similarity between human and neutral nouns are very confusing aspects for Arab learners.



Moreover, Arab learners include the object of the verb in a relative clause in Arabic sentences, something which they try to do in English as well. This, of course, doubles the confusion and misunderstanding of English relative clauses by Arab learners.

Consequently, these features of Arabic rhetoric have their impact on Arab student writers' essays in English at different levels, particularly at college level. This is confirmed by the remarks of native speakers on English essays written by Arab students.

#### ***4.7.1.5 Culture***

Islamic teachings and culture place a very high value on learning. The Holy Quran has always ordered and motivated Muslims to learn and think 'Recite (Read), and your lord is the most Generous-who taught by the pen. Taught man that which he knew not' (verses, 1, 2 and 3). Those who have knowledge have been promised a high position in heaven: "Allah will exalt those who believe among you, and those who have knowledge, to high ranks" (verse 11) The Prophet (Peace Be Upon Him) said that those who acquire knowledge will be rewarded with paradise: 'A person who follows a path of acquiring knowledge, Allah, will make easy the passage for paradise for him' (Hadith Sharif, Riyadh-Us-Salehen, 1990).

Literacy is highly regarded in the Arab world, and the teacher is a very respected figure. But it is the written language which is revered, and the teacher's superior knowledge. There is among most Arab learners a dislike of 'colloquial' language. Their education systems attempt to impose the educated pan-Arab forms on the local dialects, just as in many schools in Britain, standard English is taught. There is opposition among mature Arab learners to learning the everyday language, which is considered slang.

In spite of changes and the influence of the cultures of the surrounding societies upon the community of speakers of Arabic, the traditional Eastern respect for the teacher and the written word, at least among the mature and educated groups, is still a prominent characteristic of Arab learners.

#### ***4.7.1.5.1 Cultural Sub-Components***

In its main form, the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis argues that variations in cultural patterns lead to variations in rhetorical styles. This cultural component consists of large not easily identifiable sub-components which may have varying effects, as we will see below, on the rhetorical organisation of written texts in different cultures. However, it is possible to identify at least two of the cultural sub-components which figure prominently in contrastive rhetoric studies as having a quantifiable effect on the rhetorical structure of the written texts in Arabic and English.

By its very nature, contrastive rhetoric is not concerned with cultures which do not have written texts. The point of interest here are those cultures which have written texts but which differ in their attitude towards orality and the extent to which it is allowed to intrude in written communication within this context. Thus, written texts in cultures which value oral traditions and communication are likely to be rhetorically distinct (reflecting elements of oral communication) from written texts in cultures which have made a clear division between oral and written communication. Williams (1989) and Sa'Adeddin (1989) have provided evidence for this phenomenon by demonstrating that Arabic written texts, unlike their English counterparts, display more features of oral communication.

#### ***4.7.1.5.2 Writer-Responsible vs. Reader-Responsible***

Another cultural sub-component which is likely to lead to different rhetorical styles in different societies has to do with the way in which different cultures attach varying

degrees of responsibility to the writer and reader in the communication act. Hinds (1987) argues that some languages (e.g. English) attach greater responsibility to the writer (writer-responsible) while others (e.g. Japanese and Arabic) attach greater responsibility to the reader (reader-responsibility). In writer responsible languages, the person primarily responsible for effective communication is the writer, whereas in reader-responsible languages the reader is more responsible for effective communication. This cultural dimension produces written texts which vary in their degree of tolerance for ambiguity, imprecision of statements, and absence of clearly stated discourse organisers, depending on whether it is the writer or the reader who is mainly responsible for effective communication.

#### ***4.7.1.6 Written Arabic versus Written English***

All aspects of written English cause major problems for Arabic students, and it is often the skill at which they are weakest. They should not be expected to cope with reading or writing at the same level or pace as European or Asian students. Their weakness is partly due to the inherent difficulties of writing in Arabic, and to the largely oral culture they live in (see section 4.7.1.5). The different orthography is another factor but not a major one. Those unfamiliar with teaching Arab students are often shocked when they are first confronted with examples of their students' written work. This can often be untidy, disorganized, and with poor handwriting characterized for example by badly shaped letters, an indiscriminate mix of separate and joined letters, and occasional interspersed capital letters. However the text of these features will depend on a student's level of schooling, and generally at university level is much less noticeable than with the general population.

Spelling is also a perennial problem, partly because Arabic has a more regular sound/symbol relationship than English. Also, the complex often non-phonetic

spelling of sounds in English appear mystifying. Short vowel sounds as already noted (see section 4.7.1.5), are not normally written in Arabic, so students often miss out vowel letters in English.

A more difficult aspect of writing relates to the whole discourse style, as again there are major differences between English and Arabic. Traditional Arabic punctuation is much skimpier than in English, with sentences often linked simply by the equivalent of “and”, covering whole paragraphs. Students have to learn to write in English sentence lengths, and use a wider range of punctuation features and clause subordination in their writing. Sentence boundaries and cohesion between sentences and between paragraphs, are all slightly different in English for Arab students.

#### ***4.7.1.7 Cohesion and Cohesive Devices in Arabic and English***

Cohesion is managed rather differently in the two languages and that Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) system works on the principle of relations between sentences. Halliday and Hassan subcategorised English cohesive ties into five types: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. The first four can be classified as grammatical so that there is a contrast between grammatical and lexical cohesion.

Arabic argumentative discourse has a built-in mechanism for repetition at different linguistic level. That is, repetition is the main mode of persuasion in written Arabic (Al-Jabouri, 1984). Holes (1984) adds that Arabic essays, generally, contain several instances of non-standard punctuation and over-long sentences; in addition, the Arabic text sounds more vocative. This is clear in the use of the first person pronouns, active sentences, and a direct colloquial phraseology. Such a type of text contrasts with academic writing in English, which is generally third person, heavily qualified and on the whole semantically depersonalised. Williams (1989) based on Halliday and Hasan (1976) emphasises the notion of repetition in Arabic discourse while English writers



tend to make more use of ellipsis. Arabic writers tend to repeat the theme in successive clauses more frequently than English writers do. Williams adds that although substitution is a marginal cohesive device in both languages, English writers tend to use it more frequently than Arabic writers. Furthermore, Arabic displays a higher proportion of lexical couplets than English while English. Arabic writers make more use of additive and adversative conjunctions while English writers make greater use of causative and temporal conjunctions (Allen, 1998; Fakhri, 1994; Holes, 1984, 1995).

All these are consistent with, though not totally proof of, the argument that Arabic is written to be spoken rather than to be read e.g., Arabic is a highly additive: extensive use of “*wa*” (and), Arabic is more ‘aggregative’ than ‘analytic’ by using more synonymous pairs of lexical items, and Arab students and writers tend to repeat lexical items rather than use ellipsis (see Chapter 7 and appendix 16 for more detail).

#### 4.7.2 English Rhetoric

The English paragraph has two important characteristics: *unity* and *coherence*. It is known that a paragraph is not merely a group of sentences but is rather a unit involving a single topic or idea, which the writer should commit to when writing his paragraph. When the writer wants to move to another idea, he should begin a new paragraph. The organisation of a paragraph requires the writer to make a decision about the topic and then to develop it by adding relevant supporting explanations in detail. The writer must limit his concentration and attention to this topic without any digression to irrelevant ideas or thoughts. For instance, the writer develops the topic by identifying it, displays facts or historical events to bring it to the attention of the reader.

A paragraph is coherent when it maintains relevance among the sentence units. In a longer discourse, every paragraph contains one idea related to the others in such a way as to form a coherent sequence of ideas, like links in a chain, and the text thus becomes a tightly connected whole. To encourage the reader to see the relationship between one idea and another, transitional devices are used. For instance, when the writer identifies the topic and seeks examples and evidence he should be aware of how to connect these details with each other by using different devices which express the degree of importance of each idea and its relevant details.

The English paragraph tends to be linear. That is, it is organised according to time, space, or logic. The logical paragraph presents only one limited idea, the main idea, which is developed by several supporting details. Linking the independent idea together with the details requires the writer to employ certain transitional devices to make his paragraph coherent. The English paragraph includes two different types of sentences: “*the topic sentence*” and “*the supporting sentence*”. However, the larger construction which involves many paragraphs, the text in general, is for the most part divided into three sections: “*introduction*”, “*body*”, and “*conclusion*”. Each of the three sections is briefly described in the following paragraphs:

#### ***4.7.2.1 Introduction***

This briefly states the content of the text in order to enable the reader to establish his expectations of what is to come in the subsequent narration or discourse. From the introduction, the reader can anticipate what the writer intends to write about and decide whether he is interested or not.

#### ***4.7.2.2 Body***

This constitutes the main part of the text, which is developed sequentially. The body contains the writer’s comments on each piece of detail, which, in turn, helps the reader learn what has been written.

#### **4.7.2.3 Conclusion**

The conclusion summarises what the writer has already discussed in the main part and the finished presentation of the ideas. This is clearly shown in the final sentence/s of the text in which the writer repeats the main idea he has previously mentioned in the introduction to clarify the main purpose of the text.

#### **4.7.3 The Topic Sentence and the Supporting Sentences**

As pointed out earlier (see section 4.7.3), the English paragraph contains two types of sentence the topic and the supporting sentences.

##### **4.7.3.1 The Topic Sentence**

This type of sentence introduces the reader to a condensed idea or point of the paragraph. It usually occurs at the beginning of the paragraph; however, it may appear somewhere else, for instance, in the middle, to remind the reader, if the text is too long, or at the end to conclude the paragraph.

##### **4.7.3.2 The Supporting Sentences**

These sentences are intended to strengthen and support the main idea. They are usually concrete in nature in order to always look concrete to develop the main idea by employing techniques of example, cause and effect, comparison and contrast, definition, etc. These sentences are related to each other, with the writer rejecting any irrelevant sentences that may result in confusing and misleading the reader.

#### **4.7.4 Techniques of Paragraph Development**

In addition to the basic characteristics and forms of the English paragraph, good writers use a variety of techniques to develop ideas. It is helpful for non-native speakers of English to imitate such techniques. The most frequently used techniques are summarised here:

##### **4.7.4.1 Example**

When a paragraph is developed through examples it gives the reader the necessary facts, which make the topic more concrete and much easier to follow. Such a

technique is used particularly when the topic is very broad, abstract, or hard to understand by ordinary readers, for example, if the topic sentence itself does not convince the reader or motivate him to keep on reading.

#### ***4.7.4.2 Cause and Effect***

Using cause and effect in order to show the relationship between two statements, i.e. how one element results from another one, may develop any paragraph. In this case, the writer must be aware of listing several effects resulting from one cause.

#### ***4.7.4.3 Comparison and Contrast***

A paragraph developed by means of comparison and contrast identifies the similarity or difference between two items by pointing out several characteristics of each. The aim of these techniques is to show the reader the main distinction between these two items.

#### ***4.7.4.4 Definition***

This technique is used when the writer uses a word or phrase which may confuse the reader. The writer must clarify the meaning of this word or phrase for the reader.

#### ***4.7.4.5 Transitional Devices (Discourse Markers)***

Composing a good paragraph requires additional tools called “*transitional devices*.” These devices appear between sentences and between paragraphs and serve to link them. Such linkage makes the direction of the ideas quite clear and their sequence flows smoothly. Transitional devices or ‘discourse markers’ are divided into two groups according to function: one group is called “*sentence linkers*” and the other, “*paragraph linkers*”. Sentence linkers serve to connect two sentences and show the relationship between them, for example: a) to show addition, *and, in addition to*; b) to show comparison, *in the same way, correspondingly*; c) to show contrast, *but, on the contrary*; d) to show emphasis, *in fact, actually*; e) to show concession, *despite, though*; f) to introduce an example, *for instance, in other words*; g) to introduce a



reason, *as a result, hence*; h) to introduce a conclusion, in summary, *to sum up*; and, e) to show a sequence, *first, secondly*.

#### 4.8 Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the contrastive rhetoric between Arabic and English as completely different languages, which impose particular burden on Arab EFL student writers. We have seen that writing difficulties are caused by morphological and syntactic, as well as other various areas such as punctuation, word choice, etc. The factors affecting EFL writing learning were also highlighted. The importance of both contrastive and error analysis lies in how both approaches affect the learning process among EFL students. In a brief review, the contrastive rhetoric was introduced to study the similarities and differences, however the focus here was on the differences between writing in a first language and a second/foreign language. We referred to Kaplan's claims and they were inapplicable to the writing approach in question, the writing process approach. We briefly referred to the norm of language being used nowadays by most Arab students while writing in Arabic and how this could have affected their EFL writing classes.

The next chapter will be concerned with one of the problematic areas in writing teaching, error correction and feedback. These two issues have been under investigation for decades and still are to see how effective correction is particularly in the EFL writing classroom.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **Error Correction and Feedback**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

As indicated by the Italian proverb “*Sbagliando s’impara*” ‘we learn from our errors’, errors are regarded as the first step to learning. Error correction in writing is a subject of constant debate.

We shall first provide an overview of the concepts of error correction and feedback, then of the theoretical background underlying these activities. Approaches to error correction, as well as how these errors are perceived by ESL/EFL teachers, are reviewed in brief. Learners’ attitudes towards error correction and feedback in L2 writing are also highlighted. We shall also indicate to the importance of feedback for ESL/EFL students. Feedback in the process approach is necessary in this study. The last two sections are devoted to why Arab learners of English commit errors and what type of frequent errors these writers make.

#### **5.2 Theoretical Background**

As we have shown earlier, approaches to teaching composition have been subject to dramatic changes over the past decades. Although these changes have touched upon different aspects of composition teaching, one element has remained constant: teachers and students feel that teacher feedback is necessary and inevitable; however, the debate is still alive about how such feedback should be produced and addressed.

Despite the fairly extensive investigation into error correction in EFL/ESL composing, there seems to have been little research on how teachers’ commentary affects L2 writing. Many articles have proposed procedures and techniques for correcting and responding to EFL/ESL writing although these have been based on L1 research and individual teachers’ experiences, methodological flaws have been constantly evident within EFL/ESL writing feedback (Zamel, 1985).

### **5.2.1 Research into Error Correction in L2 Writing**

Findings indicate that direct error correction does not produce any effective results or help improve the accuracy or substance of L2 students' writing, but that on the contrary, indirect and self-discovery techniques are generally far more effective and beneficial because they assist students to rely on their own abilities to monitor and correct their own errors (Bates Lane, & Lange, 1993; Ferris, 1995a, 1995b; Lalande, 1984). Such notion assumes that even novice student writers can be self-editors of their own work and thus function better outside of the writing classroom. This suggests that indirect techniques, like error location, provide students with the opportunity to improve their overall accuracy in both subsequent drafts as well as later assignments (Fathman & Whalley, 1990).

### **5.2.2 Research into Teachers' Response Practices**

A variety of studies have examined teachers' response techniques through analysing and marking students' papers and written tasks. These studies have included different techniques such as think-aloud protocols and interviews, surveys, and analysing and marking. The findings of these studies, again, demonstrated that "sentence-level concerns were the teachers' primary focus" (Ferris & Hedgecock, 1998: 127).

In her analysis of fifteen ESL teachers' responses to 105 student texts, Zamel (1985) pointed out that her research findings confirm the findings of research into L1 writing teachers' response practices:

*"ESL writing teachers misread student texts, are inconsistent in their reactions, make arbitrary corrections, write contradictory comments, provide vague prescriptions, impose abstract rules and standards, respond to texts as fixed and final products, and rarely make content-specific comments or offer specific strategies for revising the texts.... the teachers overwhelmingly view themselves as language teachers rather than writing teachers" (p. 86).*

Zamel concluded that teachers must avoid mixing substantive comments for revision, for example, with grammatical corrections on the same draft. Also, teachers must be

flexible in their standards, and lead students through several stages rather than making responses to one final product.

In a recent study conducted by Ferris, Pezone, Tade, and Tinti (1997), which analysed the comments by a university ESL teacher on papers written by 47 different ESL students, it was found that this teacher's comments fulfilled a variety of objectives, e.g. asking for information, making requests, giving directions, giving information, praise, giving verbal feedback about grammatical and lexical problems etc., and included several syntactic and lexical alternatives, and text specific comments. Also, a variety of different comments was found across various essay assignments. They concluded that any "description of teacher response to student writing must go well beyond simple discussions of whether a teacher should respond to 'content' or 'form'" (p.175).

### ***5.2.3 Research into the Effectiveness of Teachers' Feedback***

In order to widen the scope of error correction and teachers' role (see section 5.2.2), more experimental studies have investigated the effects of teachers' feedback on ESL students' writing. Students have been assigned randomly to one of four treatment groups: praise, criticism, praise and criticism, and no feedback. Conclusions show that a combination of praise and criticism seems more effective than praise or criticism alone.

In an experiment designed to see whether the focus on was "content" or "form", Fathman and Whalley (1990) randomly assigned 72 ESL students to one of four treatment groups: no feedback, grammar feedback alone, content feedback alone, and grammar plus content feedback. Findings showed that students with no feedback at all had produced more and longer rewrites in subsequent drafts in terms of word number, whereas the other groups who received feedback showed less enthusiastic attitudes



towards writing or may be they were inhibited by the teacher feedback. The results of such a study are significant in terms of the question as to provide certain types of feedback.

### **5.3 Overt Correction versus Error Feedback**

As mentioned earlier (see section 5.2.1), error treatment may be carried out in the form of either direct or indirect correction. By 'direct correction' we mean that error correction is given overtly, i.e. teachers provide the correct forms and structures in students' faulty and misused sentences; whereas 'indirect correction' refers to the provision of feedback on actual errors, i.e. students are prompted about the location of their errors by means of underlining these errors, giving their number, or specifying the error's nature by using correction codes. Error correction is entirely different from indirect correction. Error correction is a technique that aims to help students detect and correct the errors they commit, while indirect correction, or error feedback, is mainly concerned with what teachers do to attract the students' attention to their errors. Accordingly, error correction in the ESL writing classroom can be looked at on the basis of three common assumptions: overt correction is helpful, students can cope with error feedback, and errors treatment.

#### ***5.3.1 Overt Correction Is More Helpful***

ESL students prefer overt correction (see section 5.3) in which teachers point out as well as correct the committed errors (Leki, 1991). This strategy requires time and patience on the part of the teacher; in addition, it seems less effective for the students' subsequent composing because they rely entirely on their teachers, and develop negative attitudes toward writing (Semke, 1984). Although traditional teachers of and researchers into ESL writing believe that "the greater the number of corrections they 'the teachers' do, the quicker their students will learn to write better English"

(Curriculum Development Committee in Hong Kong, 1983: 47), such a perspective seems not only odd but harmful, because the students become more reliant on their teachers, and lack confidence and ability in dealing with their own errors. Furthermore, Plumb et al. (1994) have pointed out that L1 writers fail in error correction because of a deficiency in processing rather than a deficiency in knowledge, i.e. students cannot detect errors. This finding may also apply to ESL writing students, especially those at the elementary and intermediate levels.

### ***5.3.2 Students' Coping with Correction Codes***

Error code is, to some extent, an advanced technique recently being used in the ESL writing classroom. In this technique, writing teachers usually build up a list of grammatical items such as: noun, article, pronoun, preposition, spelling, punctuation etc., and give them certain codes: N for noun, A for article, SP for spelling etc, which are written on the wrong word to help the student detect the kind of error he has made and give him the opportunity to try to correct his own mistake. Although this strategy seems effective and useful in improving the students' writing (Lalande, 1982), it has been found to be less effective when the students are not familiarised with the codes and linguistic norms. Thus, in order to maximise the effectiveness of this strategy, ESL writing teachers must clearly explain the codes and familiarise their students with the so-called 'metalinguistic terms' in order to help them understand the relationship between grammatical terms and errors.

### ***5.3.3 Error Treatment***

Teachers make the decision about which errors are to be corrected; however, students tend to receive comprehensive error treatment, despite the fact that it is time-consuming as well as provides no guarantee that they will learn from the mistakes. The idea of comprehensive treatment is not welcomed because errors are not all the

same and thus cannot be given similar treatment. Researchers are keen to detect and correct errors that hinder communication, and frequent student errors, particularly logical errors, which affect meaning, because students cannot correct them themselves for one reason or another. The students, on the other hand, can easily correct surface errors.

#### **5.4 Approaches to Error Correction**

Wingfield (1975) suggested five techniques as the most effective and appropriate tools for correcting error in the following sequence: 1) Learners must be given sufficient clues to correct themselves. 2) Teachers correct the errors. 3) Teachers must comment on the errors. 4) Students must be provided with effective feedback. And 5) errors must be used in the class feedback.

Teachers' sensitivity and reactions to errors force them to approach errors differently. Some teachers are afraid of their students making errors and even more they feel that students may learn their mistakes, especially with non-native speakers of the language taught. This type of teacher constantly interferes whenever the students make mistakes, no matter how serious the mistake is. They do give the chance for self-correction but stop their students, while talking or writing, correcting what they have incorrectly said.

The second type of teachers' view is that error correction must be allowed for sometimes, when practising a particular language point. This approach seems more appropriate for students learning a foreign language. The students want to use the language as much as they can without paying attention to how accurate they are. Students usually look for fluency rather than accuracy, but if teachers interfere and correct them the students feel hindered and de-motivated.

The third approach assumes that error correction must be applied as little as possible. This may be attributed to the fact that this type of teacher thinks that students must not be corrected and they must not be worrying about making mistakes. These teachers notice particular points that every student gets wrong and deal with them later. The students are never interrupted by their teachers correcting them. Such teachers are interested in fluency at the expense of accuracy, an attitude that contradicts the general purposes of language learning and teaching.

Experienced and wise teachers are those who approach error-correction along lines which encourage the learning process and help students find their mistakes and correct them in order to facilitate communicative goals. Over-error correction is as harmful as non-correction, i.e. both hamper the learners' progress, de-motivate them and reduce their self-confidence.

Error correction of written work is more time-consuming than in oral production. Thus teachers spend much time correcting students' essays, which ultimately has little effect on the students' progress, especially those who are still at the lower level. Students at this level usually write very limited and short essays, which can be done in class under the control of the teacher. However, teachers of the advanced classes must use different methods and correct written works individually, i.e. the teacher calls the student and reads with him the written work highlighting the incorrect words and structures in a friendly way which will reflect positively on the student. In addition, written work can be less intimidating if teachers devise a simple code for correction and familiarise their students with this code, which is written in the margin to indicate the location of the mistakes in each line. To make correction of written work effective, teachers must write down, on the blackboard, a part of what their students have written and rewrite it correctly (Lewis and Hill, 1995).



## **5.5 How errors are perceived by ESL/EFL teachers**

Students' L2 errors have been classified into two categories: 'global errors', that cause a listener or reader to misunderstand the conveyed message, and 'local errors', that do not impede the message communication. Accordingly, Hendrickson (1987) suggests that local errors not be corrected since they do not affect the message, and since their correction might interfere with the learners' communication, whereas the global errors must undergo correction because they usually result in a breakdown in communication.

Error perceptions vary according to their source and who perceives them. Native speaking teachers perceive errors quite differently from non-native speaking teachers (Sheorey, 1986). Although native speaking teachers accept errors in oral language and some of them welcome that 'heavy' foreign accent when it does not violate the pronunciation rules or interfere with comprehension, they do not allow errors in written work.

The comparison made by Sheorey reveals that the error grading scales by native and non-native speaking teachers are not the same, although both groups agree with the idea that tense, agreement, and question formation stem from the verb system and that errors in these areas seem more serious than other types of error. For example, lexical errors are rated more serious by native speaking teachers than by non-native ones. This may either be because non-native speakers do not grasp the nuances of the language well, or, and this is the opinion of this researcher, because since they speak the same native language as the students, they understand what the students want to say or which lexical item they want to use. Spelling errors are evaluated differently by each group of teachers. Native speaking teachers consider spelling accuracy a vital

part of producing a serious and neat piece of written communication, whereas non-native teachers focus on the general meaning regardless of how it is written.

Sheorey concludes her comparison by saying that native and non-native speaking teachers perceive and evaluate errors in different ways; however, there are also some implications that may be drawn from this comparison. Although both groups understand that all errors are not equally serious, native speaking teachers are more sensitive about the occurrence of these errors.

ESL/EFL teachers' primary problems with errors are threefold: identification, correction, and evaluation (*ibid.*). Identification and correction are easy to handle whereas evaluation can be treated taking into account the concept of error gravity, in which errors are judged according to their seriousness and frequency (Norrish, 1993; James, 1998).

Error treatment has ever been debatable. Allwright (1975) suggested that learner errors should be corrected only when learners cannot correct themselves. Hendrickson (1978) argued that error correction does not improve the proficiency of EFL/ESL learners, particularly when these corrections inhibit communication, stigmatise the learner, and emerge frequently. However, error treatment has been seen to be of little significance and seems very limited when it comes to its effect on the learning process (Long, 1977, Krashen & Terrell, 1983). It is argued that learners' errors are a fundamental part of the natural process of language learning, and "indicative of a certain stage of their interlanguage which will develop naturally into more accurate and appropriate forms" (Makino, 1993:338).

Harmer (1991) believes that correction of errors in written work can be implemented on a similar basis to oral work, i.e. teachers of writing are primarily concerned with

accuracy, within form and structure, and then direct their focus to content, organisation and meaning.

It is clear that language function and language form are interconnected and inseparable. Thus, teachers of ESL must be aware of the materials and methods that make use of the communicative concept as their design principle. For example, the attitudes to and treatment of learners' 'form errors' grammatical and lexical errors must correspond with the teaching and communicative purposes. That is, McDough and Shaw's statement that "the notion of error is no longer restricted only to incorrect grammar or perhaps choice of vocabulary" (1993: 31) seems designed to help teachers as well as students think and behave on the basis of the communicative concept, to facilitate interaction and ideas exchange when they sit down to discuss errors and why they are made. In this case attention is paid to context, roles, topics, and cultural errors.

Accordingly, concern is no longer directed to form errors, and error correction has acquired a broader base applicable to a more integrated view of the skill of writing. Raimes (1983) pointed out that writing must be perceived as a connected text rather than as single sentences, writers must be aware of purpose and audience, and the process of writing must be considered as a valuable learning instrument. Hedge (1988) echoed this notion and went even further in presenting writing as a means of communication.

## **5.6 Learners' Attitudes towards Error Correction and Feedback in L2 Writing**

Studies on L2 writing error correction and feedback have attempted to answer two crucial questions: why error correction is done, and whether such error correction helps students' accuracy. Arguments concerning focus on students' ideas and reviews indicate that error correction seems ineffective (Krashen, 1984; Leki, 1990a; Truscott,

1996; Zamel, 1985), because the students' priority is then placed on surface errors rather than on the content of writing.

In order to assess learners' attitudes towards error correction and feedback, many studies have been conducted to examine their opinions and preferences regarding teachers' comments in both L1 and L2 compositions. The findings of most of these studies show that students have difficulty in understanding their teachers' comments and feedback; furthermore, students smell hostility in these attempts to appropriate their writing (Leki, 1990a).

Ferris (1995b) replicated Cohen's (1987) study and observed that ESL student writers experience a variety of problems in understanding teachers' suggestions although they employ many strategies to resolve such problems. In addition, students perceive feedback on content and organisation to be of great significance especially when given on preliminary drafts.

More recently, however, using a conversational analysis methodology, Seedhouse (1997) has carried out in-depth examination of learners' attitudes towards "teachers' direct and overt negative evaluation of learners' errors", and investigated whether learners feel "offended, embarrassed, or demotivated by correction" (p. 568). Based on Nunan (1988), teachers appear to rate 'error correction' as very frequent, whereas students rate it as very infrequent. Such a discrepancy indicates that teachers prefer to avoid 'other-repair' and would rather initiate learner 'self-repair', which is not accepted by the learners themselves who ultimately prefer 'other-repair'; in addition, research and pedagogical literature have proved that the students' own correction of linguistic errors is far better than teachers' correction. Since the former does not result in any negative reactions, whereas the latter has a negative effect on the learning process, as Tsui (1995) puts it:



*“the kind of feedback that a teacher provides affects student learning. A teacher who constantly provides negative feedback is bound to create a sense of failure and frustration among students, and will inhibit students contribution”.* (P.43).

Naturally, people prefer to correct their own mistakes, as they learn more from their discovery of these mistakes and in order to save face.

## **5.7 Feedback in the Writing Process Approach**

Since the process approach to writing has become the mainstream approach in ESL/EFL composition classes, feedback and correction of errors have acquired a new scope in order to meet the requirements of composing in an L2 environment. The process aims to shift focus away from the traditional ‘endless stream’ which is based on compositions assigned by the teachers, written by the learners, handed in for marking, handed back to the learners who, afterwards, promptly forget, or even neglect, what has been said in terms of comments, feedback, and error correction.

Focus on the process of writing involves pre-writing work to generate ideas and the writing of multiple drafts to revise and to extend those ideas. Feedback is considered essential to the multiple-draft process because it “pushes the writer through various drafts and on to the eventual end-product” (Keh, 1990: 294). Thus, as students and educational contexts are different, feedback should be flexible and take various forms whenever possible, such as: teacher’s written feedback, peer feedback, and conferencing.

The most recent perspectives concentrate on how feedback affects learners’ revision of their work (Ferris, 1997), and ESL/EFL teachers of composition are advised to intervene during the writing process to assist learners use their comments in improving further drafts (Munice, 2000). Teachers’ intervention during the writing process requires a variety of roles and strategies on the part of the teacher. He might be the target audience and/or the assistant for the students (Tribble, 1996). He may

answer the students' enquiries and direct them to the appropriate point as a consultant (Dheram, 1995), or he may play the role of the reader who reflects how the message has been conveyed (Keh, 1990).

However, the teacher's role is not without problems. The first of these problems is that the traditional view of giving feedback on the learners' compositions must be abandoned and replaced by the new paradigm. That is, teachers are obliged to change the manner in which they teach, for instance, the old authoritarian position must be changed to a more practical and interactional one in which students can share their views and express their ideas in a desirable atmosphere, particularly when feedback is mainly concerned with content and organisation rather than with surface-level errors. But the change in the teacher's role is restricted by more than one factor, such as "institutional requirements, the wider educational culture, and the teacher's own personal beliefs, to name but a few" (Clarke, 1994). Such factors often combine to require the teacher to fulfil the roles of reader, collaborator, and assistant, as well as evaluator (Munice, 2000). Furthermore, ESL/EFL composition teachers are advised to evaluate their students' written work regularly in order to see how they improve and how that is reflected in their written performance.

It is argued that the aim of EFL/ESL composition classes requires a short-term strategy, which facilitates improvement in multi-draft written tasks, and, that teacher intervention is the inescapable but most effective way in achieving this. However, if we look at feedback from a different angle, from the point of view of long-term improvement, the short-term strategy would be less effective, since long-term improvement requires a different technique of evaluation, to increase the number of mental processes that underlie the feedback.

Many ESL researchers have argued that peer review seems to be a powerful learning instrument. It provides learners with an authentic audience, increases learners' motivation for writing, and, furthermore, helps learners read their own writing and others' critically. Mittan (1989) points out that the discussions that take place in peer reviews lead to the use of oral language skills which in effect help both oral and written practices. Politeness strategies can be enhanced through peer review discussions and debate (Johnson, 1990), which in turn may lead to polite social interaction and communication in the students' broader life.

## **5.8 Conclusion**

This chapter has summarised the importance and need for error correction and feedback in the EFL writing classroom. It is clear that teachers of ESL writing are not facing the problem of whether to correct or not to correct, but their real problem can be seen in what, how/m, and when to correct. Until they know how to deal with these four, their correction strategies still leak. The theoretical background highlighted the findings in error correction in L2 writing, the teachers' responses to these strategies of correction, and effectiveness of teachers' feedback on the written drafts. We also presented the differences between overt correction and feedback as well as summarising some approaches to error correction and as errors are perceived in EFL classrooms. The focus was on feedback in the writing process which is relevant to this study. In this section, focus involved all the writing stages, pre-writing, writing, and revising. Feedback is seen essential to the multi-draft process, since it encourages the writer through the various drafts as well as the end-product version.

The next chapter will present the methodology and research design through which this study has been conducted. It will include the research questions, the subjects and teachers sample, as well as the raters and the data collection instruments.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

The previous chapters reviewed literature that dealt with writing as a process that requires cognitive strategies to be implemented, rather than as a final product that is taken for granted. This chapter is concerned with a description of the methodology adopted in this study and its general framework. The methodology is designed to produce a comprehensive and contextualised in-depth analysis of the writing processes of a group of students. It also presents writing as a process, examining two sets of writing samples produced by twelve Libyan University students, one set in Arabic and one in English to draw out the rhetoric patterns of writing in each language. This chapter restates the research question and sub-questions, gives a description of the participants, and describes the instruments, namely, think-aloud protocols, interviews, observation, and questionnaires that are utilised in the study. In addition, this chapter explains the procedures adopted for analysing the data by means of a triangulated case-study methodology in order to achieve the above objectives. The methodology was designed to be the most appropriate to the focus of the study and the research questions, which follow:

#### **6.2 Research Questions**

The purpose of this study is to investigate the similarities and differences between Arabic and English writing processes and strategies, with special reference to Third-Year Libyan University Students, henceforth (TYLUS). In addition, the study attempts to elicit the students' and teachers' attitudes toward general English learning and teaching, and towards writing in particular. The problems in linguistic knowledge that may affect the students' writing will be investigated. Arabic writing rhetoric and



conventions, as well as writing instruction, will be looked at as sub-research questions.

The study is designed to answer the following major research question:

- What writing processes do Libyan University students use while composing in L1 (Arabic) and in L2 (English)? Do they follow similar or different strategies?

The following are the research sub-questions:

- 1) How is the linguistic knowledge of the students reflected in L1 and L2 writing?
- 2) Does the Arabic rhetorical pattern affect the students' English writing?
- 3) How does instruction influence the writing process and product of the Libyan students?

## **6.3 The Subjects**

### ***6.3.1 The Sample of Subjects***

In order to answer the research questions (see section 6.2), the study assumes the participation of a mixed group or a group of “multi-level individuals within one major level”. The subjects were selected on the basis of purposeful sampling which is “to select information-rich cases whose study will illuminate the question under study” (Patton, 1990: 169). The selection of the subjects also helped the researcher to learn a lot about the issues involved in the current study.

The selection of the current subject sample was made on the basis of the fact that many previous studies have been conducted on different total numbers ranging between small, medium, and large according to the then-current circumstances. A brief look at Tables 2.1 and 2.2 show that the minimum number was used in Chelala's (1981), and El-Khatib's (1984) studies, whereas the maximum number was used in Leibmann's (1992), and Kharma's (1987) studies. Neither the large nor the small size of sample was suitable for various reasons: for instance, a small sample would not

have been generalisable to the large number of students at the university in question, whereas it was impossible to obtain a large number similar to Kharma's. In addition, the size of the sample selected seemed appropriate for this study because it provided us with a huge number of protocols as sources of data. It appeared to be suitable for the use of the other data collection instruments: questionnaires were easy to distribute and quantify; interviews would not be so time-consuming, or result in confusing data when transcribed; think-aloud protocols would not be so numerous and would not cause any confusion or be tiresome to transcribe, and it would be possible to conduct an observation that would provide a preliminary view of how the subjects behaved when writing. Furthermore, such a sample size was adequate for obtaining the required data. The student subjects were to be selected according to the following criteria. 1) They expressed their willingness to participate in the study, i.e. each subject was asked to sign a '*subject consent form*' confirming their agreement to participate in the study (see appendix 1). 2) They would give ample time for their participation in the study. 3) Their literacy in Arabic could be determined by examining their writing samples in Arabic and looked through by specialists other than the researcher. 4). Their English writing ability could be determined by English native speakers.

Table 6.1 provides background information about the subjects including their ages, and what type of schooling had had. The table also shows years of education in both L1 and L2 instruction. Specifically, years of English instruction before college were highlighted, in order to provide evidence of their actual experience in English.

Thus, in order to ensure that the subjects had adequate linguistic ability to compose both in Arabic and in English, certain criteria were established. These subjects, representing a small sample of TYLUS, were majoring in English as a foreign language during the academic year 2000/2001. Table 6.1 shows that 2 subjects had 4

years, 7 subjects had 5 years, 1 subject had 6 years, and 2 subjects had 9 years of English instruction before college. During the years before college, the subjects had received very little English tuition in general, and no writing instruction i.e. two classes a week, with 45 minutes per class, which in most circumstances included 40 students. The subjects were selected on the basis that they had received their pre-college English learning in an EFL environment in order to reflect the actual situation of English teaching in Libya. Therefore, the subjects who had learnt English abroad were excluded. Finally, the subjects had willingly to volunteer their participation in the study.

At the initial stage, a total of 24 prospective third-year subjects volunteered, twice as many as were needed. There were 18 female and 6 male students. To obtain important data on the composing processes of Libyan students, all these who qualified and who willingly volunteered were allowed to take part in the protocol study.

After the protocol data had been collected and examined, 12 subjects were selected by the researcher for an in-depth study. 4 subjects who were excluded had been, or were born, abroad where they had been instructed in the English language in either the USA or the UK. 2 were non-Libyan citizens studying in the English department. The other 6 were excluded for other reasons which made them unsuitable for the current study. The participating 12 subjects were chosen in order to represent a wide range of students.

The participating subjects' ages ranged from 19-41 (see table 6.1), and they were given figures instead of real names for the sake of anonymity. The range of age was intended to show that the present third-year students were of mixed ages. Besides the normal secondary school certificate holders (16-18 year-olds) the university regulations allow older people who are teachers of elementary classes to improve their

educational level and be promoted to teach intermediate, secondary schools and intermediate institutes by registering them in the third year so they may obtain their BAs in two years' time.

Based on the teachers' prior evaluation and the results of the written tasks in both languages, the target subjects were divided into four equal groups, each consisting of three individuals: one male and two female subjects. The subjects were grouped into three categories: low-achieving, intermediate-achieving, and high-achieving. The teachers were asked about these subjects' levels in order to obtain a mixed group that would reflect the actual levels of third-year students. The written tasks were evaluated according to the criteria adopted by the English Department. The results obtained from the written tasks indicated three different levels (see section 7.8.1).

The selection was made on the basis that this university is considered the oldest, and the largest, in Libya, and is the one at which most Libyan students enrol. Also, third-year students represent learners who have spent a considerable time learning English at university level. They have also gained from the adopted teaching methods and writing curriculum, which has been constructed by a group of members of staff in the Department of English. One more reason lies behind the choice of this subject sample, namely that the majority of the first and second-year students majoring in English had not learned any English before enrolling in the Department of English because of circumstances beyond their control. Therefore, I could not consider first and second-year students for the sample, nor fourth-year students because it is their final year. Third-year students' problems can be repaired during the current and the subsequent year.

During the first academic year students are introduced to writing in English as an independent course in which they are taught the basics and foundation elements, such



as punctuation, word order etc. In this course, 4 hours are divided into two sessions per week. Second-year writing courses introduce the students to sentence structure, phrases and clauses, and methods of linking them together, in order to prepare the students for paragraph organisation. In the third year, students should have acquired the ability to write different compositions, narrative, argumentative etc., and be able to express themselves in well-organised English discourse. Thus writing is taught as one of the main courses in the. The content of the writing courses differs according to each year's syllabus (see appendix 10). They tend to start with guided composition courses for beginners and lead them gradually through the various courses to free writing. The topics of these compositions are usually determined by the teachers of writing, or suggested by the textbooks.

SUBJECT	AGE	TYPE OF SCHOOL	YEARS OF ARABIC LEARNING	YEARS OF ENGLISH LEARNING		
				BEFORE COLLEGE	DURING COLLEGE	TOTAL
1	19	PUBLIC	13	5	3	8
2	20	PUBLIC	14	5	3	8
3	22	PUBLIC	16	5	3	8
4	21	PUBLIC	15	5	3	8
5	20	PUBLIC	14	5	3	8
6	19	PUBLIC	13	5	3	8
7	22	PUBLIC	16	4	3	7
8	20	PUBLIC	14	5	3	8
9	20	PUBLIC	14	6	3	9
10	23	PUBLIC	17	4	3	7
11	41	PUBLIC	18	10	1	11
12	40	PUBLIC	18	10	1	11

**Table 6.1: Subjects’ background as revealed in the questionnaire answers**

**6.3.2 The Sample of Teachers**

A sample of 4 EFL writing teachers (see Table 6.2) was included in order to provide the researcher with their feedback and error correction techniques. These teachers were well-acquainted with the students’ performance because they were teaching them writing, and therefore knew exactly what levels these subjects were at. Through interviews, questionnaires, and observation, the teachers were asked about their attitudes towards writing in English, and about how enthusiastic their students were.

Furthermore, the teachers gave the researcher concrete evidence of how they interacted with their students during the writing process and how beneficial it was for both the teachers and the students. The teachers were selected on the basis of how long they had been teaching composition at the time of the study. The teachers were native speakers of Arabic, except one teacher who was originally Indian, holding MA and PhD degrees in TESOL and linguistics from the USA, UK and Canada. However, the native speakers of Arabic came from different Arab countries where the spoken Arabic is different from Libyan Spoken Arabic. This distinction might have caused difficulties for some students, particularly when the teachers switched back and forth between Arabic and English.

Teacher	Gender	Nationality	Years of Experience
1	Female	Indian	20
2	Male	Arab	31
3	Male	Arab	20
4	Male	Arab	20

**Table 6.2 Teachers’ gender, nationality and experience**

**6.3.3The Raters and Rating**

The Arabic and English compositions were given an overall rating in order to provide some indication of writing quality. Before the compositions were rated, the researcher typed all the compositions, Arabic and English, (as they had originally been written in the subjects’ handwriting) to avoid any distortion or difficulties for the raters. Then the subjects’ names were removed and replaced by figures, which were assigned to minimise any possibility of bias. All essays were evaluated holistically on a scale of 1-5, with 5 being the highest. The basis of the holistic ratings was grammar, vocabulary, mechanics, organisation of ideas, and content

Two native-Arabic speaker teachers of writing, a PhD holder and a PhD student, were asked to rate the Arabic written compositions. These teachers teach composition in the Arabic Language Department at the same university. They are familiar with students’

compositions and how they are produced. Each teacher was provided with a complete set of essays, correction criteria, and a letter of request. They were asked to concentrate on problems at both surface (form or language use), and deep (content organisation) levels. The level at which students had most difficulty and where they were unable to continue their compositions was focused upon. Two native English-speaking PhD students were asked to evaluate the English essays. The English raters were doing their PhD research in the Education Department at the University of Newcastle Upon Tyne, UK. Similar procedures were followed (see appendix 9).

**6.3.4 Time and Composing Length**

Tables 6.3 A and B show the time spent on the writing of each essay and the word count in both languages. Overall, and interestingly enough, six subjects wrote longer compositions in English than in Arabic on topic one, whereas five subjects wrote longer compositions in English than in Arabic on the second topic. However, only one subject spent a longer time on Arabic composition than he did on English on both topics. The other subjects, as expected, spent a longer time on English topics than they did on Arabic topics. Subject 2 wrote the longest text in the first English essay, while subject 7 spent the longest time on the same essay. Subject 1 wrote the longest text in the first essay in Arabic, while subject 9 spent the longest time on the same essay. Subject 5 wrote the longest text in the second English essay, while subject 3 spent the longest time on the same essay. In all, subject 2 wrote the largest amount of words in English and subject 9 did the same in Arabic. Subject 3 spent the longest time on writing English compositions while subject 9 spent the longest time on writing Arabic compositions.

English Composition

Subjects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
English 1	125	490	252	314	293	105	142	224	121	264	139	130
Time Span	23	41	30	30	43	18	45	11	15	30	39	11
English 2	161	220	181	286	362	096	101	310	175	190	165	113
Time span	16	22	45	34	25	08	16	20	20	17	30	10
Word total	286	710	433	600	655	201	242	534	296	454	304	243
Time Total	39	63	75	64	67	26	61	31	35	47	69	21

(A)

Arabic Composition

Subjects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Arabic 1	336	331	278	225	202	156	183	136	248	186	121	087
Time Span	10	18	23	13	18	12	16	09	31	13	10	08
Arabic 2	221	237	306	301	258	082	110	192	326	159	158	076
Time Span	07	17	14	26	15	05	10	11	30	09	13	06
Word Total	557	568	584	526	460	238	293	328	574	345	279	163
Time Total	17	35	37	39	33	17	26	20	61	22	23	14

(B)

Bold figures refer to the longest essays and time spent to produce them in both languages

*Table 6.3 Time Span and Written Words*

## 6.4 The Methodological Approach

As this study is concerned with a comprehensive, in-depth portrayal of the L1 and L2 writing processes of a group of students majoring in English as a foreign language, the researcher feels that a process orientation, a case-study methodology and a triangulated approach are appropriate for the conducting of the project.

Quantitative analysis is a method used to measure collected data to yield statistical outcomes. That is, when researchers determine the frequency of each type of behaviour, they measure it quantitatively. Qualitative analysis, on the other hand, is concerned with understanding an individuals' perception of the world and the educational context. Therefore, proponents of such a research method seek perspectives rather than a statistical analysis. Bell (1996:6) believes that each approach adopted and the methods of data collection selected depend on "the nature of the inquiry and the type of information required".

In the current study, we adopt both quantitative and qualitative methodologies since they are mutually dependent and cannot be separated, and also they complement each



other in terms of distribution, which is essential for this piece of research (Chaudron, 1988).

However, this study operates with an essentially qualitative paradigm in that it attempts to show how the writing processes of both languages take place; however, it also uses quantitative methods and is contextualised, as additional means of showing how they take place. Both types of analyses are needed to answer the research questions stated above.

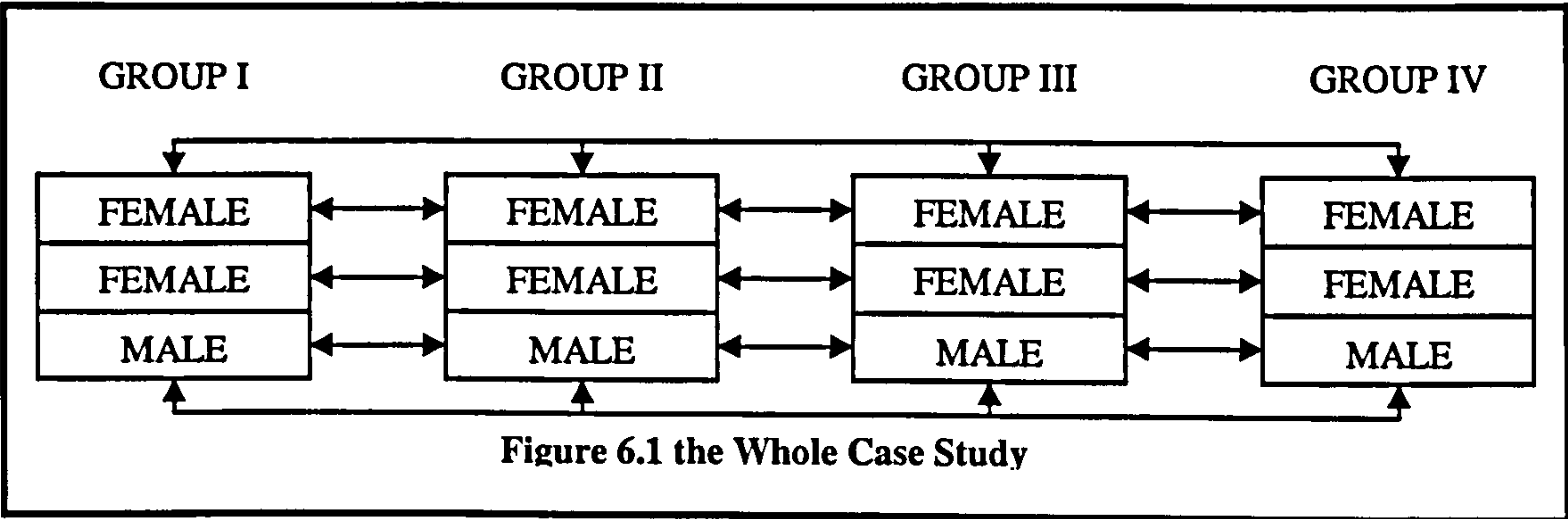
#### **6.4.1 *Case-Study Methodology***

A case study is a qualitative method of gathering data, which closely examines an individual, a small group of subjects, or a single phenomenon. It is widely employed in many academic disciplines (see, e.g., Marriam, 1988; Yin, 1984, 1994), such as medicine, law, psychology, anthropology, sociology, and education. The exhaustive case-study approach can yield insights into “basic aspects of human behaviour” (Ary et al., 1990: 452).

A case study has been defined as “an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context when boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, and multiple sources of evidence are used” (Yin, 1994: 23). Nunan (1992) identifies the case study methodologically as a ‘hybrid’ because it “generally utilises a range of methods for collecting and analysing data, rather than getting restricted to a single procedure” (p. 74). In this regard, he emphasises the significance of triangulation, which aims to use more than one data-collecting tool and which is compatible with case-study methodology (see section 6.5 for more detail). He also states that the case study is an “investigation of the way a single instance or phenomenon functions in context” and that in applied linguistics case study “usually involves the investigation of the language behaviour of a single

individual or limited number of individuals over a period of time” (p.229). Such a statement justifies our choice of the subject sample size, which is a small group (12 subjects) chosen from a huge number of students commencing in the third year. The validity of this type of research was proven by the gathering of evidence from multiple sources: through direct observation, systematic interviewing, collecting documents, questionnaires, and protocol analysis (Patton, 1990). In other words, the case study fits well with the triangulation approach. The reason behind the choice of this design is its capability to answer “*how*” and “*why*” questions, which are the questions behind the main theme of this study: to seek answers to the question of how Arabic and English are similar or different, and why these similarities and differences happen to affect the writing process strategies, if they do. Also, it provides well-grounded, extensive descriptions and explanations of behaviour in context, and may be used to match patterns and changes (Bell, 1987; Cohen, 1990; Miles and Huberman, 1984; Nunan, 1987; Yin, 1984, 1994). Collecting data by means of a variety of techniques assisted us in formulating themes and patterns, in drawing conclusions, and proposing implications.

In our study, the individuals were treated as independent cases, and as members of one of the four groups and single cases (see, e.g. Figure 6.1).



In brief, each single small square represents an independent case that will be looked at

in detail. Each group, e.g., group (I), represents an independent case that requires comparison with the other three groups. That is, females will be compared to each other first and then compared to the males. In other words, each case will be given a profile highlighting its linguistic background, age, personal attitudes towards L1 and L2 writing, writing process strategies, affect of L1 on L2 writing, etc. Then a general comparison will be made among the three groups to come up with a total and complete analysis of the collected data.

The case study enabled the researcher to obtain an in-depth and contextualised view of every individual's writing process, using multiple data-collection instruments, and also to treat a number of individuals as a case. In order to understand the writers' composing behaviour, a case-study methodology was adopted because it seemed the most effective way to examine the writing processes through triangulated and multi-perspectives, or in other words, because the case study is a holistic research method uses multiple sources of evidence to analyse and evaluate a specific phenomenon or instance. It is often carried out in a natural setting, employing qualitative and/or quantitative methods and measures.

In the present research, the case-study method was adopted to gain preliminary knowledge of the composing strategies and thinking processes of Libyan students. Composing is cognitively both demanding and difficult for the researcher to access, and the case study appears to be the best method for dealing with such complexity and for helping researchers to understand the composing processes of individuals more fully. Lauer and Asher (1988) claim that the case study is "the most feasible and useful kind of research method for composition teachers because it is closest to the teacher's experience and can be conducted in the classroom" (pp: 45-46). Emig (1971), additionally, proposed that the case study is indeed a "legitimate method and

crucial in tapping the composing processes of writers” (p. 3). Finally, the case-study approach is, in fact, one of the most extensively used methods in rhetoric and composition research (see e.g. Arndt, 1987; Boshier, 1998; De Larios, 1998; Flower and Hayes, 1980a, 1980b, 1981, a, 1981b, 1983; Lay, 1982, 1983, 1988; Perl, 1979; Raimes, 1985, 1987; Zamel, 1982, 1983).

Although the researcher is not obliged to limit the information which is collected, he is fundamentally responsible for gathering data on certain aspects and propositions that draw attention to the investigated phenomena within the scope of the study.

#### ***6.4.1.1 Types of Case-Study Design***

Yin (1994) describes four types of case study design: a) single case (holistic) designs: one case with analysis of a global nature; 2) single case (embedded) designs: one case with several units of analysis; 3) multiple case (holistic): several cases with an analysis of a global nature; 4) multiple (embedded) case designs: several cases several units of analysis. This study aims to use the multiple embedded case-study design, in which each subject’s writing processes, through think-aloud protocols, will be investigated and compared by means of observation, interviews, questionnaire and the written tasks. This technique has the advantages described by Yin (1994) as follows “the evidence from multiple cases is often considered more compelling, and the overall study is, therefore, regarded as being more robust”(p. 52).

Embeddedness is clearly illustrated in figure (6.1) in which each individual case, female/male gender, in each group will be compared with its counterparts in the same group and in the other groups. Then a broad comparison will be made between the individuals and groups to produce an overall outcome.



#### ***6.4.1.2 Advantages of the Case Study***

In addition to the fact that the case study is the most appropriate method that may be used to elicit information, collect data, and draw conclusions in this study, it has several advantages, but due to limitations of space we mention only the following:

- ❖ Case-study data are strong in reality.
- ❖ Case-study data can be generalised either partially or completely within certain limits.
- ❖ Case studies identify the complexity and embeddedness of social truths as well as being capable of producing alternative interpretations (Smagorinsky, 1994)
- ❖ Case studies can be used as an archive of materials admitting subsequent reinterpretation.
- ❖ Case studies are a 'step-to-action'. They usually begin in the world of action and then they contribute to it.
- ❖ Case studies produce the research data in a publicly accessible form.

#### ***6.4.1.3 Disadvantages of the Case Study***

Like any methodology, the case study has certain drawbacks, which are reflected somewhat in the negative attitudes of some researchers when it comes to case-study findings and generalisation.

- ❖ Generalisation is not usually possible beyond the case in point.
- ❖ Ethical problems may arise when it proves difficult to disguise the identity of the studied organisation and/or individuals.
- ❖ The case study is labour-intensive and requires highly developed language skills to identify themes, constructs, and patterns in verbal and written data.
- ❖ The case study does not attempt to make causal assertions, which leads to the conclusion that the conceptualised internal validity is not relevant.
- ❖ The case study does not explicitly manipulate experimental variables.

## **6.5 Triangulation**

A method of collecting data from various sources is called “triangulation” (Cohen and Manion, 1994). Triangulation involves multiple methods of collecting data about human behaviours aiming to map out and fully explain the complexity of such behaviour by investigating it from various standpoints. Thus, triangulation is “a cross-checking of the existence of certain phenomena or veracity of individual accounts by gathering data from a number of informants and a number of sources and subsequently comparing and contrasting one account with another in order to produce as full and balanced a study as possible” (OU course E811 Study Guide, 1988:54). Accordingly, triangulation is a useful technique when the researcher is using a case study to investigate complex phenomena like the one in hand. Adelman et al. (1980, cited in Cohen and Manion, 1994: 241) believe that “the advantages of a particular technique for collecting witnesses’ accounts of an event-triangulation” should be stressed. In addition, triangulation is an heuristic tool used by researchers to obtain as much data as possible from a variety of sources. This is at the heart of the intention of the case-study worker to respond to the multiplicity of perspectives present in a social situation. All accounts are considered in part to be expressive of the social position of each informant. Guba and Lincoln (1989) do have some reservations concerning the validity of triangulation in terms of consistency across sources, which usually show contradictions between multiple realities. They prefer that triangulation be used to ‘gloss over’ legitimate’ differences to interpret data. Although they claim that triangulation may be used to “check on factual data”, they insist on utilising checks for other types of data.

### ***6.5.1 Advantages of Triangulation***

In addition to the combination of a variety of information sources, triangulation enjoys many other advantages:

The combination of different information sources provides researchers with more conclusive evidence of the reliability and validity of their work, as well as expanding the researchers' views, by giving them confidence in their findings. Furthermore, their results can be replicated in different situations.

- It overcomes the problem of 'method boundaries', plus it widens the space for the researcher to test and apply his findings.
- Triangulation is characterised by simplicity in typical attitude scales when investigating this aspect on the part of the teacher or student in case studies, questionnaires, and observation.
- It generally uses normative or interpretative techniques.
- In contrast to a single-method approach, triangulation helps the researcher look at the investigated phenomena from different angles by which he can draw full understanding and construct a complete image.
- It helps the researcher to compensate for any deficiencies that might be caused by any included single approach.

### ***6.5.2 Disadvantages of Triangulation***

Although triangulation involves checking information collected from different sources and via different methods for the sake of consistency of evidence across sources of data, there is, according to Guba and Lincoln (1989), doubt in that, because:

- There might be contradictions between the multiple realities and findings that result from a variety of sources.
- Triangulation sometimes does not produce convergence but produces inconsistencies among findings about the same phenomenon.

Triangulation is assumed to be a useful technique for researchers who are engaged in a case study, which represents an example of 'complex phenomena' (Adelman et al, 1980, cited in Cohen and Manion, 1994). Thus, the use of triangulation in the case-study approach used in this research may thus be seen to be justified.

The importance of triangulation seems obvious, for it helps us to look at the research problem from a number of directions and angles. Once a problem is spotted from different sides, the researcher can come across many unexpected ideas and findings,

which all result from the main source of information. Thus, triangulation will play an effective role in determining how the subjects produce their verbal behaviour through protocol analysis, and what strategies and reactions they are involved in when composing through observation. The researcher can elicit a great deal of missed information through interviews, particularly if he is friendly and socially interactive with the interviewees. The questionnaires give the subjects opportunities to express themselves in either language to convey their feelings about the writing process, and learning English in general, their attitudes toward writing and writing teachers and methods, and the raters' evaluation of the written texts provides additional information.

## **6.6 Tasks and Data Collection**

### ***6.6.1 Procedures for the Data Collection***

The subjects of this study were given a general introduction to the whole project, its purpose and objectives. They were introduced to the technique of protocol analysis, how it works, and how effective it is in obtaining information from verbalised behaviour during composition writing. The subjects were familiarised with the importance of this technique and how it has been adopted in previous related EFL/ESL. This introduction aimed to make the subjects aware of how effective this technique was in eliciting the information which needed to investigate how student writers behaved when writing in English as a foreign language. Moreover, the subjects were made aware of how this technique could be used in L1 and L2 written tasks in order to see the differences and similarities between L1 and L2. The subjects first listened to some writers who had been audio recorded while composing aloud both in Arabic and in English in two consecutive sessions.

Therefore, the researcher used the following procedures:

- An introduction to the project and thinking-aloud while composing was provided to the subjects as done in some other previous EFL studies (e.g.,



Arndt, 1987; Kamisli, 1996; Lay, 1983; Pinnington and So, 1993; Raimes, 1985, 1987)

- The researcher met with the subjects in three groups, 2 female groups, and 1 male group for the sake of convenience. During these meetings, the purpose of the study was stated and explained to assess the subjects' willingness to participate. As soon as the subjects' related questions were answered, schedules for each subject's participation were arranged.
- Stating the purpose of the study, the researcher told the subjects that in order to improve teaching/learning writing in English as foreign language, researchers all over the world have been conducting a number of studies to investigate the problems encountered by EFL/ESL students when composing in English. Our project on Arab learners would first assist us in developing solutions to writing problems not only in English but also in Arabic as our native language. This would also help us compare writing strategies in both languages and lead us to find the differences and similarities between them. Furthermore, we would contribute in the field of teaching/learning writing to non-native speakers in particular.
- The study was carried out between April and May 2001, a period of 8 weeks, during which the researcher made daily visits and had meetings with the subjects. On an individual and group basis, the subjects were given an orientation and an opportunity to train and practise the think-aloud protocols.
- The think-aloud protocols technique was introduced as a relatively new technique recently adopted to record everything writers say as they carry out the writing tasks. It is a very precise technique, which depends entirely upon the active and positive participation of the writer himself. In this technique every student was given instructions on what to do and provided with a tape-recorder to turn on as soon as the writer started to plan his writing. Also, every episode was to be recorded because this would help us in later interviews when the writer would be asked to comment or answer related questions. During the explanation, the researcher used a previously-recorded tape of a Libyan student performing a composition task. Drafts and completed composition samples were also shown. This was so the subjects would know what a protocol looked like.
- Once the subjects expressed satisfaction and familiarity with the technique and raised no more questions, they were given the first questionnaire, which had been designed to probe their educational background and attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language and about writing in both languages. The researcher explained the purpose of the questionnaire and translated every item the subjects felt difficult or ambiguous. They were asked to return it when they came to start the first writing session in a week's time.
- Each time before the think-aloud protocol started, the researcher reminded the subjects what to do by reading the protocol instructions and the assigned topic together with the subject. The researcher translated and explained the English topics and gave each subject a chance to ask before starting writing if there

was anything unknown to him/her. After the subject finished the first English and Arabic protocols, s/he was interviewed in whichever language the subject felt comfortable to respond in. Then the next appointment was confirmed before the session was adjourned.

- A week later, the subjects returned one at a time for the first actual writing session in English. This was held in a quiet room with a tape-recorder on a table in front of the subject to record everything verbalised. Recording was started when the subject was ready to begin his writing session. The researcher sat at the back observing the subject, ready to remind him/her to speak out, and to answer any question that might come to the subject's mind concerning think-aloud protocols.
- Each subject was given an hour to relax, then came back for the second part of the first session, to write his Arabic essay on the same topic. The researcher read the topic and the questions as he had done with the English essays, reminded them to speak out their thoughts, and followed the same procedure that had previously been adopted.
- The purpose behind instructing the subjects to write the L2 essays first was based on the fact that the researcher was keen to see how they would address their L2 tasks. The researcher aimed to determine how they planned and generated ideas. What strategies would they adopt in order to get started: would they outline their ideas or just rely on mental and covert planning? How would they start constructing and writing the first letters and sentences in L2, thought to be harder for the subjects than the L1? Also, the aim was to ascertain how they would revise and review their L2 essays before they wrote on the same topic in L1.  
It was clear that the subjects' L2 essays affected the L1 essays to a certain extent. In terms of planning, the subjects planned mentally and covertly. Half of them did not even plan for their L1 essays. With regard to drafting, the flow of writing was easier and quicker than it was in L2 drafting. Lack of revision seemed to be a habit exhibited not only in L2 but also in most L1 essays. Such an impact could be either a result of the short break duration between writing, or of the fact that the subjects tended to use their L2 writing experience and instruction as a kind of compensation for their lack of L1 writing competence, and the poor instruction they had received during their pre-college learning.
- When the subjects finished their Arabic writing, they were given the second questionnaire, on 'writing-process strategies' after it had been explained to each subject.
- The subjects were interviewed. This general interview, which was audio-taped, was conducted in whichever language each subject felt more comfortable with. It took place in the same office where they had performed their writing tasks. The researcher translated and explained every item to make sure the subject was able to understand before s/he responded. The subjects were asked sets of questions related to their English instruction, writing instruction in Arabic and English, educational background, attitudes toward teaching writing in both languages, reading and writing interests, attitudes about teachers of writing in both languages, audience, effects of L1 on English, etc.



- Ten days later, the subjects came to write the second topic. After they handed in the questionnaire, similar procedures were followed and the subjects were encouraged to speak out as they did in the first writing session. It was apparent that the subjects were much more relaxed and reacting to the topic. When they finished the English compositions they were given half an hour for a break, then came back to write the Arabic version. Evidence of being more comfortable was apparent in the subjects' better scores on the second essays in both languages.
- When they finished the second Arabic task, they were given the final questionnaire, the 'post-writing process' questionnaire, in which they were asked about what they had done while using this approach, and how effective it had been, among other related question items.
- The four teachers were also interviewed after they had filled in the questionnaires. These teachers were teaching writing to first, second, and third year students. They gave a full coverage of their teaching methods, instruction, feedback, and interaction with students. An appointment was made with every teacher for an English writing class observation. Arabic writing classes were not available.
- During the class observation, the researcher sat at the back and continuously observed the methodology used in teaching writing adopted by each teacher. Their teaching methods were mostly similar because they were constrained by the curriculum plan and the textbooks, so they did not have enough space for their own experience except for that which did not conflict with the textbook methodology. The observation sheet (see appendix 8) did not reflect many differences between these teachers. That is, the teachers carried out most of the work in the class, while the students were passive listeners looking at the teacher or copying down what the teachers might write on the blackboard.
- Most of the time, as shown in the observation sheet, was spent on explaining an item presented by the textbook, which the teachers kept repeating and explaining. A short period in the last half an hour of class time was used for practice, i.e. for writing, during which the students were asked to write about something, either suggested by the textbook, or the teacher, but not by the students.
- Instruction was bilingually oriented, but took place mainly in English. Teachers' fluency was good to very good, but many of the students whose comprehension of English was very poor. There were a few students whose English was good. This situation constitutes an in-class problem for the teachers, i.e. they have either to oversimplify their English to help the weak students, the majority, understand what is going on, or use the average language level to ensure that the good students are motivated and not bored.
- The teachers hardly gave any feedback to the students because of the class-size 60 students in each class and the allotted writing time. They tried to assist their students but there were too many for each one to have the opportunity,

especially important for the weak students who needed special care and instruction.

- Data analysis is a demanding task requiring skills and preparation. In this study, the think-aloud protocols were the main data-collection instrument for uncovering the process by which the subjects wrote their essays in both languages. Thus, analysing these protocols required particular effort, patience and focus. I reviewed the related literature several times and concentrated on how previous studies had been analysed. I looked at Raimes (1987), Arandt (1987), Pennington and So (1993), Whalen and Menard's (1995), and Sasaki (2000), among others, to see how they had analysed protocols. However, this study was different from most of those studies, not only in terms of types of topic, but also in terms of the EFL environment in which it was conducted. So I first needed to adopt a modified coding system that fulfilled the unique requirements of my study and that was applicable to both languages in order to come up with a satisfactory and thorough analysis (see section 6.6.2.2.3).
- The data obtained through think-aloud protocols are difficult and time-consuming to analyse, and if only a small amount of data is gathered in this way, the generalisability of findings might be questionable. Thus, I had to take special care when recording and keeping the data. I made a copy of the tapes as soon as each subject had finished the written tasks, before the transcription. The transcriptions were made shortly after the recording sessions when everything was still fresh in my memory. The protocols naturally lend themselves to some qualitative analysis, which means that patterns of behaviour are looked for and categorised according to a modified coding scheme, as mentioned above.
- In order to minimise the difficulties in analysing the protocols, I adopted the following procedure. As soon as the composing tapes were transcribed, it became clear that I should design a modified coding system to cover all the coded segments in both languages. Thus, I considered the number of occurrences of the writing strategies employed by the subjects. First, the first English and Arabic essays were analysed to examine the similarities and/or differences between the L1 and L2 composing processes. Second, the second English and Arabic essays were analysed for the same purpose, and to see how different they were from the first essays in terms of writing fluency, accuracy, strategies, time span, pausing, L1 transfer, etc.. Third, the two English essays were compared in terms of writing accuracy, strategies, and time spent on each topic and instruction; the same procedure was followed for the Arabic essays. Fourth, both English essays were compared with the Arabic ones in order to assess the influence of the English essays on the Arabic essays (Hall, 1990), especially since the L2 essays were produced before the L1 essays in this study. These were some of the difficulties and this is how I got around them.
- The following table summarises the procedures the researcher used when carrying out the study:



<b>Weeks 1 and 2</b>	Students were introduced to the study.
<b>Weeks 3 and 4</b>	The first writing tasks were carried out. The think-aloud protocols were transcribed. The students were interviewed.
<b>Week 5</b>	The written tasks were corrected and compared on the basis of form and content. Class observation was carried out.
<b>Week 6</b>	Questionnaires were distributed and teachers were interviewed.
<b>Week 7</b>	Students were interviewed again.
<b>Week 8</b>	The students wrote the second essays.

**Table 6.4: Time Matrix for Data Collection**

### 6.6.2 Data Collection Instruments

Data were collected from various sources, which included protocol analysis of the students’ tape-recorded concurrent and retrospective verbalisation, to avoid any risk of failure that may have resulted from just using one source. Protocol analysis seems to be better than stimulate recall technique analysis because it gives insights into the writing process which are not available in any other way. The interviews were used to elicit the writers’ opinions about writing in L2 and to investigate what difficulties they usually encountered when performing such tasks; structured interviews were employed in this study. The students were allowed to use either language, or both when necessary, to express themselves clearly and convincingly. Questionnaires were used as an additional technique to elicit information that could not be revealed in the interviews for various reasons, such as the respondent did not want to be identified. Questionnaires were written in English; however they were translated and explained in Arabic. Students were given the opportunity to write their answers in their L1 if they thought they could not express what they wanted to say in the L2. We had an additional source of information in the form of the questionnaires and interviews from the teachers of L2 writing. The teachers’ responses would give us more background about the students’ writing ability in L2, and how they, teachers and students, interact during the writing classes. This multi-source method and the combination of these

data sources definitely facilitated our research and helped us to achieve the intended objectives and goals. Such a method produced a wealth of richly detailed information about a small number of students and cases, which, we hoped, could be generalised to a wider population in different universities, at least in Libya.

The researcher intended to observe the writing classes while the samples among the rest of the students were being taught in order to obtain a full picture of both what the subjects and their teachers had said and how they were actually involved in English writing classes. This provided us with more real information about how the L2 writing classes were set up, what teaching methods were used, what types of interaction were used, and how feedback and error correction were given.

The following sections introduce in detail the data collection instruments used in this study.

#### ***6.6.2.1 Subjects' Written Samples***

Each subject was asked to write two essays in English and in Arabic at the beginning and two more at the end. Topics for both essays were carefully selected to reflect the students' cultural background. This was to enable them to think of and fully retrieve topic-related information from their own experience and knowledge. The essay topics given were:

- 1) Write an essay about your best or most disliked teacher.*
- 2) Describe your classroom, comparing it with model classrooms.*

(See appendix 3).

Two criteria guided the selection of the topics above: that the topics be familiar to the subjects so that they would tend to elicit descriptive prose. When the topic is familiar, ESL/EFL students, grappling with new linguistic codes, tend to produce longer texts with more fully elaborated ideas. Descriptive prose helps writers to write freely and generate ideas in an easy way, encouraging them to write fluently.

The purpose of the writing and the audience were not specified in the writing prompts, since it was in fact part of the study to determine to what extent the subjects were concerned about these rhetorical issues. The impact of L1 on L2 is well established in the literature (see Chapter 2), whereas the impact of L2 on L1 is generally thought to be relatively less pronounced

#### **6.6.2.2 *Think-aloud Protocols***

In order to study and observe the complex processes and strategies that Third-Year Libyan University Students (TYLUS) use while composing in both languages, the think-aloud protocol was selected for this study as the most promising means of collecting data.

The name itself suggests that the think-aloud technique is one in which subjects perform a task or solve a problem and verbalise their thought processes as they are doing so (Nunan, 1992). In this technique, the researcher collects the think-aloud protocols on tape and then analyses the information obtained to see how the thinking strategies have been produced. The think-aloud technique reveals the mental action more clearly than retrospective techniques, because the latter reveals only what the subjects think later about written actions which were performed on a previous occasion. Therefore, using the think-aloud protocols as a means of data-collection in the current study was necessary to reveal what the subjects actually said while producing their written tasks in both languages. Appendix 4 shows the thinking-aloud protocols of two subjects 1 and 11 as a sample.

The advantages of think-aloud protocols motivated the researcher to adopt this method to elicit invisible information and to assess how the subjects address their writing process strategies in L1 and L2.

#### **6.6.2.2.1 *Advantages of Think-aloud Protocols***

Think-aloud verbal protocols as source of data in writing research have certain advantages and positive effects (Hayes & Flower, 1983; Ericsson & Simon, 1994) such as:

- They provide direct and valid evidence of natural cognitive processes.
- Although think-aloud protocols are not as powerful for hypothesis testing purposes, they are important because they yield rich data that allow exploration into phenomena unfamiliar before and thus promote hypothesis generation.
- Think-aloud protocols may help detect writing processes that are invisible using other methods, such as written output analyses and interviewing writers after they have produced their compositions.
- After being instructed and trained two to three times, the subjects are able to verbalise their mental processes without changing the order of the sequences nor slowing down their task performance.
- They do not change the writing process in critical ways.
- If the subjects fail to verbalise their mental processes, there are always nonverbal signs or signals that help report useful data. The non-verbal reporting act may slow task performance, but will not change the course or structure of the composing act. Any act taking place during the course of composing may reflect a certain invisible mental process.

#### **6.6.2.2.2 *Disadvantages of Think-aloud Protocols***

Despite these advantages (see section 6.6.2.2.1), some scholars doubt the validity of the think-aloud protocol because, according to Zamel (1983) “there is some doubt about the extent to which verbalising aloud one’s thoughts while writing stimulates the real composing situation” (p.169). Perl (1980), whose data were collected through protocol analysis, accepts the notion that “asking students to compose aloud changes the process substantially, that composing aloud is not the same as silent composing” (p. 19). Such a perspective was echoed by Faigley and Witte (1981), who assume that think-aloud protocols force the writers to do more than one thing at a time, which affects the writers’ performance: “many writers find that analysing orally what they



are doing as they write interferes with their normal composing processes, and interrupts their trains of thoughts” (p.412). Shuy and Robinson (1990) conclude that the think-aloud protocol demands from writers that they “make an unnatural effort to talk about what they are thinking” (p. 93).

With regard to such criticism (see Chapter 2, section 2.7), think-aloud protocol analysis has been examined from very recent perspectives: Ericsson and Simon (1994) have shown, in a well-known review of the method, that there has appeared no evidence that think-aloud protocols change the course or the structure of the task being studied. Ransdell (1995) lent support to the previous claim and confirmed that there was an effect for the protocol analysis method on the rate but not on the nature of the process involved. Stratman and Hamp-Lyons (1994) investigated the revision process and confirmed that this method would only affect the quantity of certain kinds of verbal processing, leaving quality of writing unaffected. Even more recently, Janssen et al. (1996) found that an effect could be traced on a knowledge-transforming task rather than on a knowledge-telling one.

From this brief summary one may assume the reliability and validity of protocol analysis as a meticulous research method. Despite the body of criticism about its limitations, it is obvious that protocol analysis is still the subject of some concern, which has led to more attempts at refining and justification. Developing new applications for protocol analysis broadly expands our knowledge about the processes that lie behind composing and about how our students behave even when they begin to think about writing.

#### ***6.6.2.2.3 Coding of Protocols***

Utilising a think-aloud technique is not an easy task to carry out. It demands certain skills and imposes special awareness on the part of the researcher and the subjects.

The researcher must be able and patient. He must understand the purpose of the technique and why it is used. The researcher must know how to apply and get useful use of the technique. He must convince his subjects of the validity of the technique and how practical and useful it is if applied properly. The researcher must be patient with the subjects while producing their writing tasks by reminding them to keep talking-aloud and answering their questions when they need that. The subjects must be well-trained and given enough time to practice the technique before they get involved in the actual writing. They must listen to various types spoken on the tape-recorder to help them feel easy and behave normal while writing. The subjects must get familiar with how to think-aloud and write at the same time. They can speak out whatever comes to their minds but necessarily write down. All these things and others have imposed hardships and difficulties on the researcher while preparing and applying the think-aloud technique.

Having the protocols carried out is neither, in fact, the purpose nor is it the end of the turmoil and nightmare. Once the protocols were recorded and collected, a new stage of constant tiresome and difficulties would be endless. As being new to this technique, all the theoretical background I had gained was not fair enough to qualify the researcher to apply this technique accurately, unless s/he got involved in it in a practical way. I will never forget how hard it was to keep listening to a five-minute piece of writing. One could never expect how long it would take from him to transcribe those utterances, words, phrases, sentences, ahhs, sighs, comments, complaints etc. Everything should be heard, no matter how many times it was repeated, understood, and then transcribed on a piece of paper or on the PC screen. I will never forget those long hours I spent sitting in front of my computer gazing at the screen and striving to transcribe a ten-line essay. I, several times, called my children

to listen to what had been said on the tape and figure out what the subject was trying to say. We failed many times to see what s/he was saying, so I had to go back to the written tasks and figure what that word was.

The composing tapes of the subjects were transcribed and analysed based on Raimes' coding scheme (1987), a modified version of Perl's (1979) coding scheme, which was further modified by Arndt (1987) for the EFL context, and the Pennington and So (1993) coding system. In addition, the researcher added to the coding scheme the use of the L1 category. Since the present study included both languages, Arabic and English compositions, the researcher made some modifications to these systems so that his coding system would adequately cover a variety of the composing aspects of both languages.

As soon as the Arabic and English protocols were transcribed and translated, the researcher divided the transcriptions into composing episodes to facilitate reading and further analysis. According to Flower and Hayes (1981b), a composing episode represents a unit of concentration in the writer's composing process, which "marks the point where there is a shift in the writer's focus, attention, goal, or plan" (p. 237).

During the observation of the subjects' writing, certain behaviour such as actual writing, pausing, reading, rehearsing, consulting external sources, translating, and making changes in the text were coded to confirm the frequency, length, and location of each behaviour within an individual writing process. Making this coding system easier and more effective, graph paper was used. On the graph paper, each dot corresponds to one second, so that a minute's duration is shown on every horizontal line (see appendix 5b).

Each type of observable behaviour supplied with a code label was depicted every 5 seconds. That is, the processed data are laid out in a chart showing the sequential behaviour of each subject. The chart helps us determine:

- a) The amount of time spent on planning, pre-writing (including pre-planning, note taking, outlining, etc.)
- b) The total amount of time spent on thinking and planning before becoming engaged in actual writing.
- c) The total time spent on writing and editing the first draft.
- d) The amount of time spent on translating from L1 into L2 while constructing the writing episodes.
- e) The total time spent on producing the final draft.
- f) The total time spent on post-writing.
- g) The amount of time spent on the whole process of writing in both languages.

Finally, all the audio-taped interviews and questionnaires were transcribed in English. Relevant information gathered in these interviews, questionnaires and observation was used in constructing the subjects' biographical sketches and writing profiles as well as employed as a guide in the analysis of their composing strategies.

### **6.6.3 Questionnaires**

The design of questionnaires, like most techniques, usually starts after the researcher has completed the preliminary elements of the work such as planning, consulting, and deciding exactly what he wants to find out. The questionnaire is a well-known method for gathering data. It is more often used to support findings with quantitative results that are calculated through questionnaire responses.

#### ***6.6.3.1 Advantages of Questionnaires***

Oppenheim (1992) suggests some of these advantages:

- They are cheap and relatively easy to conduct if compared with interviews.



- In contrast to interviews, questionnaires cover a large number of subjects in a relatively short space of time.
- When names are not required, questionnaires guarantee respondents' anonymity.
- Respondents share the same questions and instructions something that may not be possible in the interviews.
- Little or no bias can ever be traced on the part of the researcher, which is not the case with interviews.
- Because they are highly structured and controlled, the elicited information is much easier to analyse.
- Questionnaires are relatively easy to quantify.
- The cost of sampling respondents over a wide geographical area is lower.
- The time required for data collection is much less than with other tools.

#### ***6.6.3.2 Disadvantages of Questionnaires***

However, like any data-gathering tools, questionnaires suffer from certain disadvantages, for instance:

- Their format could carry the risk of restriction in quality and in depth of information provided.
- It is difficult to know whether the questionnaire has been taken seriously and objectively.
- Questionnaires cannot probe deeply into respondents' opinions and feelings.
- It is sometimes difficult to be sure about who has actually completed the questionnaire; however, most research stresses the honesty and reliability of questionnaires.

As far as this study is concerned, two questionnaires were used to elicit information from both students and teachers. However, some questions may look similar in order to extract responses relevant to the investigated issue, and for the sake of comparison.

Questionnaire construction requires the researcher to be cautious and committed to certain conditions in order to distribute a highly reliable questionnaire, and to obtain as far as possible conclusive results. Lexical items selection is the first condition, i.e. the researcher must select the most appropriate words, which must be clear and expressive in order not to confuse the subjects. Some questions are understood differently by different people, so unambiguous, precise, and relevant questions must be posed. Questions that require memorisation should be avoided and replaced by those which seek responses within the range of the subjects' knowledge. Personal, offensive, or sensitive questions should not be included in the questionnaire. In order to see how effective the questionnaire is, it must be piloted before being actually distributed and answered.

#### ***6.6.3.3 Subjects' Questionnaires***

Three structured questionnaires were used to elicit data for this study: "background and attitudes towards writing", "writing-process strategies" and "post-writing process" (see appendix 6c).

Just before the first composing task, the students were given and asked to respond to the "background and attitudes towards writing" questionnaire. It aimed to examine the subjects' writing experiences in Arabic and in English as well as their conceptions of and attitudes toward writing in both languages. The subjects' assessment of the effectiveness of L2 writing instructions was investigated to elicit their reactions toward the teachers of writing in English and their opinions of how that was different or similar to writing in Arabic.

The second questionnaire was intended to ask the subjects about their strategies in producing English essays and how these were different from or similar to those in writing in Arabic. The subjects were questioned about the most difficult areas in

composing in English and how these compared to Arabic writing. Methods of teaching writing were one of the main subjects, as well as the effect of their L1 writing methods on L2 writing.

The third questionnaire was designed primarily to explore the methods the subjects adopted to carry out the writing process in producing these topics in English and in Arabic. It inquired about the difficulties, similarities, and differences between these compositions through this process-oriented approach.

#### ***6.6.3.4 Teachers' Questionnaire***

This questionnaire was designed to elicit information about the teachers' attitudes towards student writers, their perception of writing in English, their composing methods, interaction during the composing classes, as well as feedback, and opinions about the problematic areas in student writers' performance. The questionnaire also contained another section concerned with the teachers' background, such as their qualifications, experience, and interest in teaching writing, and their specialities.

In designing the above questionnaires, the researcher intended to adopt a common pattern with a view to enabling the sample subjects of the study to state their opinions clearly and with less difficulty. Most of the questions were of the open-ended type in order to give the informant the freedom to state whatever s/he wanted without necessarily having to be confined to the responses provided (see appendix 6d).

In designing the questionnaires, the researcher attempted to make use of the following:

- His experience as a teacher of EFL.
- Literature relevant to the nature of EFL/ESL writing.
- The approved procedures in constructing questionnaires, as those recommended by Cohen and Manion, 1994; Nunan, 1992; Oppenheim, 1992; Patton, 1990, among others.

#### **6.6.3.5 *Piloting of Questionnaires***

The students' questionnaires were given to a number of EFL Arab students at the University of Newcastle Upon Tyne, while the teachers' questionnaire was given to teachers of academic writing at the Language Centre of the same university. Any ambiguous question was amended or clarified, accordingly. It was very useful to have the questionnaires piloted before being actually distributed.

#### **6.6.4 Interviews**

Interviews, also, are considered one of the important data-collection instruments. The interview is a research tool aimed at gathering data by the interviewer from the interviewee. The subjects and their teachers were interviewed by the researcher, after finishing each writing task, to explore their previous experience of writing in both languages, Arabic and English (see appendix 7a). The interviews also aimed to explore the subjects' conceptions of and attitudes towards writing in both languages and the type of changes that they may feel when writing in Arabic and in English.

Although the interview is considered unusual in that it gathers data through verbal interaction between people (ibid.), I consider it a complementary technique to questionnaires. The interview serves three purposes: a) it may be used as the principal means of gathering information having direct relevance to the researcher's objectives, b) it can be used to test hypotheses or propose new ones if necessary, c) it can be used in combination with other techniques. These purposes are certainly relevant to this study, so this method was used to elicit relevant information. Interviews may be divided into three types according to their formality: a) structured interviews, in which content and procedures are organised prior to the actual work; b) the semi-structured interview, which is characterised by its flexibility and freedom as well as being controlled and guided by the researcher to direct the subjects to where he wants them to go; c) the unstructured interview, in which the interviewer enjoys no control at all



and exercises minimal guidance, a situation that obliged the researcher to follow the responses of the interviewees rather than his own agenda.

The semi-structured type of interview was adopted in this study to ask the subjects about the duration of their English studies, and their reading and writing habits in both Arabic and English. The researcher designed the interview questions on the basis of Raimes's (1985) guidelines. Each individual interview was to be tape-recorded and later transcribed.

In the semi-structured interview, the researcher has usually prepared himself to direct the interview according to a general idea of what he wants to get from the interviewees, and what should come out of the interview. Although the interviewer "does not enter the interview with a list of predetermined questions" (Nunan, 1992: 149), the researcher felt a broad list of questions was necessary in his case, particularly if the subjects were to be allowed to use L1 in their interviews, to keep the focus on the issues in question. The researcher can investigate more than one item, such as responses, motives, feelings and attitudes.

It is important briefly to mention the conditions suggested by Ericsson & Simon (1984) that are needed for the reliability of retrospective data. They suggested that data should be collected immediately after task performance and while the memory is still fresh. Writers should be provided with contextual information to activate their memory. Required information must be directly retrievable, and should relate to specific problems. In order to minimise the researcher's bias, leading questions must be avoided. Finally, student writers were not aware of retrospective comments until the end of the task performance. Accordingly, the researcher did his utmost to comply with all these conditions as far as possible.

#### ***6.6.4.1 Advantages of Interviews***

- Responses can be followed up to obtain more information and clarify vague statements.
- Trust and rapport with respondents assist the researcher to obtain information that the interviewees probably would not reveal by any other data-collection method.
  - Interviews yield more complete information, especially that which concerns negative aspects of the self.

#### ***6.6.4.2 Disadvantages of Interviews***

- It is difficult to standardise the interview situation, i.e. the interviewer does affect the respondent answers.
- The interviewee is supposed to reveal his/her identity for the sake of analysis and report, but when the interviewee is anxious, it is difficult for the interviewer to obtain such information.

### **6.6.5 Observation**

“Observation, however, is not a natural gift but a highly skilled activity for which an extensive background knowledge and understanding are required, and also a capacity for original thinking and the ability to spot significant events. It is certainly not an easy option” (Nisbet, 1977, cited in Bell, 1987: 88). Once mastered, observation technique reveals characteristics that can never be revealed by other means, of both groups and individuals, by providing important data about how people perceive what happens.

- ✓ The observation took place at the same time as the subjects were composing aloud their writing tasks in order to watch how they behaved, what they did when they encountered any difficulty, what strategies they adopted to solve their writing problems, the rate of writing in either language, where they paused, revised, rehearsed, corrected errors or reread.

Class-observation was another procedure conducted to see how teachers instruct students in writing classes. As mentioned above, the students were passive and mainly

recipient, i.e. teachers did most of the work, such as explaining lessons, giving examples, and writing topic sentences (see appendix 8).

#### ***6.6.5.1 Advantages of observation***

- Observation technique is considered superior to other techniques when examining behaviour rather than verbal data.
- Immediate behaviour can be discerned, as well as the fact that salient features can be noted.
- Because of the extended period of time, the two participants, the observer and the observed, can enjoy informality.
- Observation is less reactive than other data-collection tools.

#### ***6.6.5.2 Disadvantages of Observation***

- Observation technique lacks the precise measures that are available in experiments and surveys.
- Observation technique is more likely to be subjective and impressionistic.
- Bias is another problem facing researchers using observation technique.

My decision to utilise observation as a tool for gathering information relied heavily on my experience as a teacher of English as a foreign language. I tried to conduct primarily direct personal observation to see what the students actually did when encountering problems even changes of facial expression might indicate what worries they had. I tried to record every single physical movement they made. My intention was to focus on how the students addressed the planning (pre-writing) process, and how long they took actually to start writing. Whether they wrote down their plans or just mentally thought of them was another purpose of my observation. I tried to interpret the pauses they made, when and why they made them and how long for, because this helped in directing the responses they produced during the interviews.

As soon as the subjects settled down with a pen and a piece of paper to perform the writing task, they were given a copy of the prompts and the tape-recorder was switched on. I sat a little bit distant at the back or at their side focusing on their physical and mental behaviour and taking notes on their writing activities. When the subjects indicated that they had finished writing the essay, the tape-recorder had to be switched off and played back. Both my notes and the subjects' essays were collected to be used to construct and ask questions about certain aspects of the subjects' behaviour during composing. When something was not clear the tape-recorder was stopped to discuss in detail what was meant by such activity or behaviour (Pianko, 1979, Rose, 1984). For documentation purposes, the conversations would be tape-recorded and eventually transcribed. The aural cues as well as the writings and the notes taken during the writing sessions were used as cues to ask questions during the interviews. This helped us uncover a lot of information that might not have been included previously.

## **6.7 The Pilot Study**

I based the notion of piloting this study on Seliger and Shomay's (1989) belief that "Data collection procedures should be tried out in a pilot phase of the study" (p. 184). It proved very useful to conduct this pilot study to determine the positive and negative sides of all the procedures. It helped us to spot weaknesses and amend them. Accordingly, certain features were added, while others were deleted.

In order to test the writing processes in both languages, six Libyan graduate students were invited to participate in the pilot study in February 2000. This pilot study was designed to test the effectiveness of the research tasks and procedures in examining the subjects' behaviour in their writing. It was also intended to assess the validity of the tasks designed to elicit the subjects' behaviour in their writing processes and their



strategic behaviour by using related activities identical to those used in the piloted study since the subjects were not familiar with this approach. The subjects represented different proficiency levels, i.e. some of them were majoring in TESOL at the University of Newcastle, whereas others were majoring in different fields of humanities and science. The subjects were audio-taped in the PhD room of the education building.

The subjects were trained on the think-aloud protocols technique by getting them to listen to previously recorded tape by one of my children. When they were familiar with the idea, and able to verbalise what they wrote, the researcher provided each subject with a “background and attitudes questionnaire” to elicit their educational background, and information about their instruction in Arabic writing and English writing before college. Then the subjects were given two topics to write about in both languages. The subjects were interviewed after they finished the first topic and provided with the second questionnaire, “writing process strategies”, and finally the last questionnaire, “the post writing process”, was given after they had written the second topic in both languages as well.

After piloting, some points were reconsidered and modified, while some were excluded because they were irrelevant. Some interview items were changed. Some questionnaires items were excluded because they were confusing or repeated. The topics were amended and made more realistic for the real subjects.

The pilot study was very effective and useful both in eliminating irrelevant and confusing items, as well as the selection of the final topics. It also helped me to work out the topics that might be more suitable for the subjects and reduced the chance of any possible hindrance to the subjects’ actual performance. I believe that any task and any data collection instrument must be tested before being applied in the real situation

to examine its reliability, quality and effect, in order to achieve the ultimate goal of the study.

## **6.8 Methodological Issues**

### ***6.8.1 Validity and Reliability***

Research must be based on a set of logical backgrounds in order to produce well-grounded findings and conclusions. Therefore, our case study has undergone relevant testing to see how reliable and valid it is. Kidder (1981) suggests four types of test to prove the validity and reliability of a case study: constructed validity, which aims to investigate correct operational measures closely, related to the original concepts; internal-validity, which aims to test explanatory studies through certain conditions that lead to new unpredictable conditions; external-validity, which focuses on establishing a new situation in which certain study findings can be generalised; and finally, reliability shows the possibility of replicating the procedures of an original study to obtain similar results.

Since case studies may be concerned with the documentation and analysis of either a single and/or many cases, verification of validity and reliability is needed in this regard. Yin (1994) offers two opinions concerning the validity issue: the importance of internal validity, and the necessity of validity testing of the case study. That is, both validity and reliability are as important in a case study as they are in other types of research. Although the importance of validity and reliability, case study researchers are commonly confronted by critical tests, such as: constructing validity, internal validity, external validity, and reliability.

The current study assumes internal-validity, for it answers the main research question as to whether Libyan university students adopt different or similar writing processes when composing in L1 and L2.

In quantitative research, the term 'reliability' is referred to as dependability, as Nunan (1992) puts it

*"Reliability refers to the consistency and reliability of research. Internal reliability refers to the consistency of data collection procedure, analysis, and interpretation. External reliability refers to the extent to which researchers can produce a study and obtain results similar to those obtained in the original study" (p: 14).*

The researcher himself is one of the best tools in case-study research, especially when he takes precautions against having biased views that may influence the direction of the findings and conclusions. Thus, I intend to be as objective as possible.

Bailystok (1990: 77) claims 'that reliability is elusive. I know no study that reports actual reliability data for classifying utterances, indicating the degree of concordance between two (or more) researchers scoring the same data'. In this study, the English texts were given to two independent judges who were associate professors in the English Department at the University of El-Fateh. One had a PhD in Applied Linguistics and the other had a PhD in TEFL. The Arabic texts were given to two independent judges who lectured in the Arabic Department at the same university. All these judges had been teaching at the university for over 18 years. These judges were asked to cross-check the researcher's observations of the errors made in the written texts in both languages. They were also asked to check the coding system, which was then reconsidered and modified following their suggestions and comments.

The sample of subjects for this study was randomly selected. A total of 24, (16 females and 8 males), third-year English majors volunteered to participate in the study. After interviewing and transcribing the first essays, only twelve subjects were chosen to perform the tasks. The chosen sample supposedly represents three levels of proficiency, low, intermediate, and advanced. The sample may be said to be small and not consistent in terms of age, but I would say that it adequately represents the

population of third-year students, and, in addition, the subjects were asked to perform four different tasks in both languages, thus producing an adequate amount of data.

In addition, the tasks were designed for the purpose of eliciting the subjects' writing processes and the strategies used to produce these processes. The tasks were piloted to see whether they were measuring what was supposed to be measured (see section 6.11). Some changes were made and certain features were added or deleted to facilitate understanding of the tasks. Such amendment maximised the dependability of the data-collection procedure by means of which accurate data were elicited.

The research environment, data-collection methodology, and the interaction between the subjects and the researcher can all threaten the credibility (internal validity) and transferability (external validity) of the research. To avoid this risk, the subjects were audio-recorded. The aim was not to make the subjects reluctant or uncomfortable, so they were audio-recorded rather than video-taped for certain religious, cultural, and psychological reasons.

In the end, the subjects were happy, and glad to participate in the project. It was noticed that low-level subjects were somehow hesitant, and afraid of the results, but in truth they were very cooperative and enthusiastic to learn more about writing in both languages, particularly when the researcher was friendly and explained everything to them. All the subjects were promised that their written tasks, interviews, questionnaires and whatever related to this study would be strictly confidential.

All the above steps were taken in order to maximise the reliability of data-collection and data-analysis procedures. As a result of contextualising the research, the findings may be generalised to Arabic L1 English majors in Libya and to some extent other Arab countries, since they have similar educational contexts.



There are more than ten public universities in Libya: the University of El-Fateh, the University of Gar Younes, the University of West Mountain, the University of April 7<sup>th</sup>, etc. There are some private universities, which have been recently established, and many public higher institutes in which English is taught as a foreign language. These universities and higher institutes offer a BA degree in English. There are no set procedures for students' admission, i.e. no placement test, or any qualifications required except for the high school degree. Accordingly, we may conclude that all English majors at Libyan universities are similar, and the results of this study may be generalised to the whole population of the English Language Department at University of El-Fateh, and to all English majors at the universities and higher institutes in Libya as well. I think that the results of this study may be generalised to other Arabic countries due to the fact that all Arabic speakers face similar problems in written communication in English.

### ***6.8.2 Analysis of Data***

Although there is no concrete set of rules for analysing the case-study data, a number of guidelines and propositions are available that help the researcher in specific situations. Patton (1990) suggests that when the analysis is done, "analysts have an obligation to monitor and report their own analytical procedures as fully and truthfully as possible" (p.372). Furthermore, Yin (1994) proposes two strategies for qualitative data analysis: relying on theoretical propositions and developing a case description.

As pointed out earlier (see section 6.4.1), each individual case was considered equally important. First, analysis was carried out for each case, in each group. Results were interpreted at the single case level and treated as one of several factors in pattern matching. Yin (1994) emphasises the fact that "each individual case study consists of a whole study, in which convergent evidence is sought regarding the facts and

conclusions for the case; each case's conclusions are then considered to be the information needing replication by other individual cases" (p.52).

In investigating the differences and similarities between L1 and L2 writing strategies and behavior, and their effect on L2 writing, as the main theme of this study, the following procedure was adopted. During the interview, each individual was asked whether he had followed the same strategies in both essays, Arabic and English; most questions were designed to see whether the subjects had been thinking in Arabic or in English. The subjects were asked whether they had faced difficulties in their English essays and in what areas these difficulties appeared. They were also asked what factors they might attribute these difficulties to-the differences between their L1 and English, the unique style of the English paragraph structure, or both. Finally teachers of L2 writing were asked to justify these difficulties and their responses would be compared with the subjects' answers.

The same procedure was followed to investigate the Arabic essays, and the subjects were asked the same questions concerning their writing in Arabic. Expert teachers of Arabic composition were asked to rate these essays and locate any problems, mainly rhetorical ones. The expert Arabic teachers were asked about the reasons behind the difficulties and problems of the subjects' writing in Arabic; their responses were compared to the subjects' answers as well.

The same procedure was applied to the questionnaires of both students and teachers, in which some questions were similar in certain respects. Their answers were compared to see where the writing problems might lie.

### ***6.8.3 Limitations of the Adopted Methodology***

Although there are at least five universities in which English is taught as a major and independent field in Libya (see section 6.8.1), this study is limited to the University of

El-Fateh. The English Department was selected as a representative department as well as being the first and the largest. This department has been offering BA in English Language for about five decades. El-Fateh University was selected because it is the first government university established in Libya, under the name “The University of Tripoli” in the mid 1950s.

The second limitation may be seen in the fact that the subjects were audio-recorded not video-taped, so some of the behavioural strategies were missed since the observation might have missed or overlapped many of them. Third, the investigated sample was relatively small, representing only 2.8% of the total 425 third-year students registered during the academic year 2000/2001. Fourth, since this is the first study on English major students, it investigated differences and similarities in the writing processes in both languages in general, but did not investigate any process or sub-process in depth, in the hope that further research would tackle these issues in more detail.

#### ***6.8.4 Originality of Methodology***

The methodology adopted for this study incorporates some improvements on previous methodologies used in earlier related research into EFL writing processes. First, as revealed in the literature review (see Chapter Two), EFL writing process studies have rarely provided us with detailed background information on the educational context where the subjects studied. Most of the studies provided sample number, nationality, age, and nothing more. Thus, such improvement over earlier studies lies in the fact that the approach adopted here is both qualitative and quantitative, which requires a detailed background on the subjects in order to help readers understand the educational system and situation that these subjects were involved in. Second, this study adopted a triangulated case-study methodology including observation, think-

aloud protocols, interviews, questionnaires, and written products as data-collection instruments. These instruments together have gathered quite rich data about each subject's profile and writing processes. Third, the methodology included the teachers' perspectives on their students and their writing tasks, instruction, feedback, and perception of their use of the writing processes approach, and its availability in classes, and the overall atmosphere. Fourth, this study differs from many related studies in terms of its topic selection. That is, the study invited the subjects to write about the same topic in L1 and L2 to see exactly how they were thinking while processing their writing compositions. Other studies asked their subjects to write in L1 and in L2, but on different topics, which might have affected the subjects' way of thinking while producing each essay, no matter how similar these topics were, and consequently, may not have reflected the exact differences and similarities of these subjects' writing processes.

## **6.9 Ethics of the Present Study**

In April 2001, permission to carry out the study at the English Department was, thankfully, granted by the chairman. Subsequently, a group of students volunteered to meet the researcher, after having seen them in their classes, and discussed the purpose of the project. Then the subjects and researcher met several times before they started the actual writing sessions. All meetings and writing sessions took place in an office provided by the English Department.

### ***6.9.1 Reducing Tension and Panic***

Although some subjects selected were hesitant and panicky at the beginning, when they were invited to participate in this research project, they turned out to be relaxed and motivated to do the work once they were assured that this study would help us in improving the methods of teaching writing in the future. The participants were also



promised that we would keep any piece of information they gave us confidential. Their information would be used for the purpose of the study only, and their real names would be removed and replaced by numbers. During the interviews, the researcher used only the first name of each subject.

### ***6.9.2 Video-taping***

Religious, social and cultural constraints were the reasons behind video-taping the female subjects. Thus, audio-recording was preferred by the researcher and welcomed by the subjects for this study.

### ***6.9.3 Researcher-Subject Interaction***

Although the researcher has been a staff member in the English department, he had not met the subjects before, which made it hard at the beginning to get along easily. He and they were both cautious in their dealings with each other, but both researcher and subjects got acquainted and worked out a certain method of contact and of handling any problem. The subjects were extremely polite, helpful, cooperative and enthusiastic to participate in the project.

## **6.10 Conclusion**

This chapter has dealt with the use of the triangulated case-study approach in terms of the subject sample (students and teachers), data-collection instruments, the writing processes and strategies behaviour analysis procedures. In addition, methodological issues such as credibility, transferability, dependability and triangulation have been discussed. The ethics of the study has also been considered to avoid any effect that might cause problems for the subjects.

The next chapter will include the analysis of the subjects' responses, reactions, and behavior while writing and also through the observation, interviews, questionnaires, and the written products in both languages.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN**

### **DATA ANALYSIS**

#### **7.1 Introduction**

In this chapter we shall present an analysis of the data obtained. An overview of the methods used to analyse the data is provided. Then each stage of the writing process is analysed thoroughly, following similar procedures. The main focus is on the subjects' think-aloud protocols, interviews, and questionnaires, as well as other data collection instruments. Each research question was analysed according to the given criteria with special reference to what had been done by the subjects and their teachers.

#### **7.2 Overview**

Data analysis is a hard task requiring certain ability and preparation to reach the target point, let alone if the data gathered through think-aloud protocols. In this study, think-aloud protocols was assumed the main data-collection instrument to show us how the subjects wrote their essays in both languages. Thus, analysing these protocols needs a special effort and more patience and focus. I reviewed the related literature several times and concentrated on how previous studies had been analysed. I looked at Raimes's (1987), Arandt (1987), Pinnington and So (1993), and Whalen and Menard's (1995), Sasaki (2000) among others, thoroughly to see how they analysed protocols but it was in vain, to some extent. That is, this study was different from most of those studies not only in type of topics but also in the EFL environment at which it was conducted. So, I, first, needed to adopt a modified coding system fulfilled the unique requirements of my study and to be applicable to both languages to come up with a satisfactory and thorough analysis (see section 6.6.2.2.3).

The data obtained through think-aloud is difficult and time consuming to analyse, and if only a small amount of data is gathered this way, the generalisability of findings

might be questionable. Also, protocol data can easily become elusive so I had to take special care of recording and keeping the data. I made a copy of the tapes as soon as each subject had finished the written tasks, before the transcription. The transcriptions were made shortly after the recording sessions when everything was still fresh in my memory.

In the process of analysing think-aloud protocols I considered the subjects' comments in the context of the situation, but did not ascribe meaning to them except at face value. The protocols naturally lend themselves to some qualitative analysis, which means that patterns of behaviour are looked for and categorised according to a modified coding scheme, as mentioned above.

In order to minimise the difficulties in analysing the protocols, I adopted the following procedure. As soon as the composing tapes were transcribed, it became clear that I should design a modified coding system covers all the coded segments in both languages. Thus, I considered the number of occurrences of the writing strategies employed by the subjects. First, the first English and Arabic essays were analysed to examine the similarities and/or differences between L1 and L2 composing processes. Second, the second English and Arabic essays were analysed for the same purpose and to see how different from the first essays in terms of writing fluency, accuracy, strategies, time span, pausing, L1 transfer, etc. Third, the two English essays were compared in terms of writing accuracy, strategies, and time spent on each topic and instruction; the same procedure was followed for the Arabic essays. Fourth, both English essays were compared with the Arabic ones in order to see the effect of the English essays on the Arabic essays as a result of bi-directional effect of the L2 on L1 especially as far as the L2 essays were produced before the L1 essays in this study.

The analysis and subsequent interpretation of the verbal protocols and textual data were influenced by the recurring patterns of writing behaviour observed. Also, the interview and questionnaire responses were used as ad hoc instruments of analysis. After listening to the subjects verbalise their thought processes during text production, we saw that they planned, drafted, and reviewed. That is, they used the three main process stages while producing their writing.

This study examined the 48 English (L2) and Arabic (L1) essays written by twelve subjects, 8 females and 4 males, and discovered that there were various problematic areas existing in the writing process among the subjects. Such problems have obviously had an effect on the subjects' written performance, resulting in relatively poor products. These problems occurred during all the three writing stages, namely, *pre-writing*, *drafting* and *revising*. This section attempts to answer the research question by analysing the subjects' observation, think-aloud protocols, interviews, questionnaires and written samples.

It should be noted that this study is not necessarily similar to other studies conducted on writing processes, since the subjects' number represents only 2.85% of the total number of students (420) enrolled in the third year during the academic year 2000-2001. "What writing process strategies do these subjects use?" is the core question to be carefully and thoroughly investigated.

As stated earlier, (see section 6.2), the research and sub-research questions for this study were:

- 1) What writing processes do Libyan University students use while writing in L1 (Arabic) and L2 (English)? Do they follow similar or different strategies?
- 2) How is the linguistic knowledge of the students reflected in L1 and L2 writing?



- 3) Does the Arabic rhetorical pattern affect the students' English writing?
- 4) How does instruction influence the writing process and product among Libyan students?

Each of these questions would be investigated by using data from the following instruments:

- 1- Observation
- 2- Think-aloud Protocols
- 3- Written Products
- 4- Subjects' Interviews
- 5- Subjects' Questionnaires
- 6- Teachers' Interviews
- 7- Teachers' Questionnaires

*I would like to turn your attention that the italicised parts in this section are either the subjects or thier teachers' words without any additional changes or corrections.*

### **7.3 Research Question 1**

*What writing processes do Libyan University students use while composing in L1 (Arabic) and in L2 (English)? Do they follow similar or different strategies?*

Research question 1 was approached by observing the 12 subjects individually while planning, writing, and reviewing (L1 and L2). The following characteristics were noted: a) all subjects mentally planned and generated ideas before writing in L2, but only half of them planned before writing in L1; b) most of the subjects did not organise their ideas in any way; c) most of them did not develop their ideas to form a unified text before actual writing. Those who did organise ideas did so in a scanty and unreliable fashion; d) some subjects started writing without reading the complete assigned writing text; e) Some subjects started reading the whole text and/or paragraphs in order to solve problems by using the context; f) most subjects used L1, some used it extensively, while producing L2 essays but only two subjects, coincidentally, used L2 while producing L1; g) all the subjects paused for different reasons while producing L2, though the pause intervals were fewer and shorter in L1;

and finally, although all the subjects made internal revisions, more extensively in L2, a few of them did not make final revisions in either language.

According to these observations, we adopted the following procedure to analyse the data for research question 1. The observations, interviews, and questionnaires while each individual was performing the three tasks, were used to investigate the first task, planning. Think-aloud protocols and written drafts were the key element in analysing the second task, drafting. Also, observation, interviews, and questionnaires were used as supporting instruments in understanding how the subjects approached their writing process in both languages. Observation and think-aloud protocols were used to analyse the reviewing task.

Now we attempt to look at each writing process task in detail as produced by each individual subject in L1 and L2.

### ***7.3.1 Planning***

Planning, or pre-writing, means anything writers do before they get involved in actual writing tasks. It includes thinking, taking notes, talking to others, brainstorming, outlining, and gathering information. It is noteworthy that although pre-writing is the first activity they engage in, generating ideas is an activity that occurs continuously throughout the writing process.

Planning, according to Hayes & Flower (1983) is a very broad activity that includes not only generating ideas and content, organising, and setting up goals, but also includes deciding on the meaning, on what part of that meaning the writer will to convey an audience, and choosing rhetorical strategies. Planning includes the whole range of thinking activities that are required before the writer can put words on paper. In addition, Hayes and Flower (1980) reported that planning goes on throughout composing, and the plan may not be encoded in a fully-articulated or verbal form, i.e.

planning may take the form of non-verbal images. Planning is the internal representation of what the writer will eventually attempt to communicate to the audience. Moreover, planning means generating ideas from long-term (LTM) and short-term memory (working memory) (STM) containing meaning. In other words, the writer must create his/her meaning and purpose while planning. However, the act of developing and refining goals is not limited to this stage in the composing process but is intimately bound up with the ongoing, moment-to-moment process of composing (Flower & Hayes, 1980).

The planning or pre-writing stage stimulates writers to write by inspiring ideas, unlocking creativity, and providing vocabulary. Writers brainstorm to generate lists of ideas, words, and reactions. They also talk and listen, which serve as pre-writing activities, to assist them in organising their feelings and thoughts.

Observing the subjects while involved in the first stage, planning, of their writing process revealed that individual subjects had adopted particular planning procedures for approaching their writing in both languages. However, most of them spent a similar amount of time preparing themselves to write, generating ideas, and working out how to start writing down these ideas. Planning in English took a much longer time than in Arabic (see Table 7.1), which explains the time spent by each individual on planning before engaging in the actual writing.

		FEMALES								MALES			
Subjects		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Arabic	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	6	8	6	5	7
	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	5	4	3	5
English	1	8	9	7	10	10	10	7	5	8	7	10	10
	2	6	6	5	8	4	8	5	4	6	5	7	8

Table 7.1

Table 7.1 shows the time spent on planning before writing on each topic in both languages. Table 7.1 also shows an important finding, i.e. six out of eight females did not plan before they started writing their Arabic essays, while two of them did not exceed six

minutes planning these essays. This finding may be considered evidence of poor instruction during pre-college learning of Arabic writing, as all subjects admitted that they had received no instruction. In addition, Arabic writing classes were merely an excuse for relaxation after other classes, generally given in the last hour of the last school-week day. None of the subjects exceeded ten minutes in planning and generating their ideas before they became involved in actual writing in English, on topic one. It is also clear that the time spent on planning before they started writing on English topic two did not exceed eight minutes.

It is apparent that the timescale of planning in both languages was longer on topic 1 (36 minutes in Arabic and 101 minutes in English) than it was on topic 2 (22 minutes in Arabic and 72 minutes in English). However, the findings did not reflect any positive relation between the length of planning time and the mechanics, meaning, organisation, and content of the written products either in Arabic or in English.

As a result of lack of planning instruction, according to the subjects' interview responses, most of the subjects began writing within the first few minutes. However, their planning strategies fell into the following criteria:

- 1- They rephrased the topic and prompts until they found a particular opening word or idea related to their experience. They started thinking of this idea as an event in their minds before putting it on paper.
- 2- A few subjects divided the main conceptual issue of the topic into two possible sub-issues for writing: global ideas, i.e. what to say in general, and local ideas, i.e. how to make each sentence expressive of the intended meaning.
- 3- They concentrated on the key word/s of the topic to develop more words and proceed with their writing.
- 4- Most of them generated ideas, haphazardly, about what they wanted to say, without thinking of strategies e.g. how to organise generated ideas or how to argue a point. They did not think beforehand about logical flow.



Once some subjects had planned in anyone of these ways, they approached their writing with a pre-conceived sense of where they intended their discourse to head, while others frequently re-read the topic and questions as a sign of being unable or hesitant to write. Most of them used the first sentence of the topic as their opening sentence, with slight rephrasing (*in my academic life, in our academic life, in our life*), subject 11. In addition, some of the subjects wrote these rephrased chunks down and kept on planning, thinking, and generating the next ideas, or working out how they could be written (*the relationship, the relationship, the relationship*), subject 1. This procedure led subjects to more planning, which in turn, led to more clarifying, and eventually to more writing. What was observed was that the subjects not only chose this strategy at the beginning of the writing but also continued adopting it frequently while working on their essays.

Most subjects were observed to be immature planners, i.e. they planned neither thoroughly nor comprehensively. Once they generated any sort of idea they tried to put it down and then started looking for what to write next (*there is many students, ummm, what next?*), subject 2; (*our school, or our classroom, classrooms are different from, ....., our classrooms are different from those, from those that I had, I had read or hear about, .....*), subject 3.

The subjects' behaviour while planning seemed inconsistent with the written products i.e. some of the subjects spent a longer time planning but produced shorter essays.

The following table shows what the subjects did or said they did while planning for each language, i.e. the responses to the related questionnaire item "*did you plan before you started writing in Arabic?*" revealed that only 25%, or 2 out of the 8 female subjects had planned before they started writing the Arabic essays, whereas 75%, or 3 out of 4 of the male subjects had planned. The subjects' responses to the

same question concerning planning in English showed that all of the subjects said ‘yes’, they had planned before writing in L2.

Table 7.2 reveals what activities the subjects engaged in before they started writing. For example, only two female subjects planned before writing in L1, compared with three males did, (F refers to female subjects, M refers to male subjects).

	Planned	Listed ideas	Read the prompt	Discussed with teacher	Wrote from outset
Arabic	2F/3M	1F	4F	2F	3F/1M
English	8F/4M	2F	2F	2F	

Table 7.2      F=female      M=male

Table 7.2 shows the activities adopted by the subjects during the planning sub- process

The table also shows that female subjects considered more concepts, such as idea listing, prompt reading, and discussing with the researcher, than the male subjects, whose concentration was directed towards planning and writing.

With regard to observation, subjects were caught looking for words in dictionaries, normal or electronic ones, asking each other, or translating from L1 when unable to find the proper word or grammatical structures that make their intended sentences meaningful and expressive. It was noted that dictionary use was second to the use of L1 counterparts. That is, the subjects relied heavily on their L1 to address their L2 writing because, I think, they felt it was easier to find the L1 structure or lexical item than to use a dictionary which might not have been available at that moment, or might not include the exact structure they were looking for, and less time-consuming.

There was an apparent discrepancy between what they did and what they said they did. They said that they had planned before approaching the L2 essays, but their planning was not systematic. Once most of them had generated the first idea they felt eager to put it on paper without thinking of other subsequent, or a flow of, ideas. This local planning meant that most of them were unable to move ahead smoothly.

Listening to their protocols supported the idea that their flow of thinking was not continuous and was illogically built. That is, you could not anticipate what the subject might say next.

With regard to planning in L1, subjects' responses to the interview-related question, 'do you plan before you start writing in Arabic?' emphasised the idea of writing from the outset. One said (*I write on the spot, I don't plan.*) (*I do plan but a little.*), subject 1; (*I don't plan much. I start on the spot*), subject 2; (*Never. when I find the topic I just start to write because I know what I am writing about.*), subject 3; (*No, no, no ideas are generated while I am writing.*), subject 4. This sample, in fact, represents only the female subjects. By contrast, the male subjects emphasised the fact that they commonly plan even when they write in Arabic. Subject 9, an exceptional case, was the only one whose protocols and interview responses contradicted what he said he had done. Although he emphasised the fact that he planned in his Arabic essays, he selected the "*writing from the outset*" option in the questionnaire.

It was apparent that each individual had his/her own way of producing verbal protocols to get involved in the writing stages. Some of them kept silent for about five minutes just looking at the questions and the topic.

### ***7.3.2 Local and Global Planning***

Local planning refers to 'what to write next', whereas global planning indicates 'detailed planning of overall organisation'. Most of the subjects in this study thus adopted the local planning strategy, and even those who seemed aware of overall organisation or global planning did not successfully achieve their goals. For example, some subjects originally planned no further ahead than the first sentence, but their local planning made them pursue more than one sentence after they had written the first one. In other words, local planning monitored the subjects' writing process, and

made them remember that they needed other sentences to support the first. Evidence of such a monitoring function of planning was found not only in the planning strategies but also in the subjects' plan retrieving, drafting and reviewing processes.

### ***7.3.3 Teachers' Views on Students' Planning***

The teachers' interview responses were not consistent (see appendix 7b). In other words, the teachers' responses concerning the planning stage of their subjects' writing reflected personal opinions rather than educational and methodological interpretations. When the teachers were asked '*What do Libyan students commonly do before they start composing their essays?*'

**Teacher 1** emphasised the notion of planning on the part of students, (*They write down, I find, found that they like to write the words they would use in a composition. They try to form sentences with my help. They do plan.*).

**The second teacher** circumvented a lot in order not to answer directly whether his students plan or not, (*because of, the, limitation of the textbook itself, they have little time to write the composition. So most of the time they do the exercises in the textbook. When they are asked to write a composition, they do not have certain strategies to start their writing. They don't know what to do.*) However, he eventually changed his mind (*Yes they do. This is the aim of our job*) I do not know whether the aim of their job is to teach them how to write or how to plan!!

**The third teacher**, however not explicitly, thought that students do not commonly plan unless they are advised or guided, (*they go straight away to dictionary and I always try to stop them doing these because these are damaging. I told them to put a little plan, to put ideas, to put the format of the paragraph and they start writing. The main problem is that they don't have experience before coming to college. They told me this is the first time they know there is something called composition in English.*)



The fourth teacher spoke about how he generally instructs the students before they write but did not mention anything related to whether or not they plan, (*Of course when I give them a task ....., ....., I ask them the first thing, I say this is a title you have to think of composing a clear topic sentence by which you start your paragraph ....*)

Students' opinions regarding their instruction regard will be looked at in detail later.

#### **7.3.4 Subjects' Views on Planning**

In clear contrast were the poor subjects who admitted to not devising an initial plan, or those who planned only how to start the opening sentence, which seemed to be the salient phenomenon in their writing. Most of the subjects adopted the 'improvise and write as they were speaking' and 'write according to their inspiration' strategies as a result of a lack of writing instruction received during their educational life. The general strategies reported by the subjects, which could be characterised as 'free writing', were indeed reflected in what they wrote here.

Although all subjects emphasised the importance of planning written outlines or mental preparation of target ideas, it seemed that most of them did not like, or were not able, to apply a predetermined plan. Their protocols revealed that the majority of them had adopted a 'what next' strategy, e. g. subject 1 (*so I hate me[her] ....., and what next?*) Subject 3 (*her name is Halima...., who else may I write?*) Subject 5 (*I like this teacher because she has simple subject. what else may I talk about?*)

When asked about their particular way of starting an English essay, each subject reported devising some kind of plan before getting involved in actual writing, yet of different natures. Some subjects referred to listing ideas in the form of outlines, the target vocabulary items, the goal of the piece of writing, or the necessary information that needed to be highlighted. Others, the majority, reported that their plans were mentally devised and organised. The existence of these perceived initial planning

strategies was confirmed by the protocols. For example, subject 4 was one of those who spent the longest span of her pre-writing time generating ideas by reading and rereading the prompts and the topic, and writing down a sketchy outline on a separate sheet of paper, of the topic she wanted to deal with and, subsequently, who tried to develop her ideas following such an outline. Subject 6 also spent a similarly long span thinking, reading the questions, underlining special words in questions such as *'how the teacher used to deal with you as students and human beings, what teaching methods s/he used in teaching writing'*, in order to find the exact words and structures to express herself. She did not list down any ideas. On the other hand, subject 11 devised his ideas mentally, but concentrated on the topic sentence to start his writing, though it seemed that he did not prepare the whole idea of the opening sentence.

It was obvious that most of the subjects did not believe that they were constrained by their initial planning when writing and, in the interview and questionnaires, they reported that they would often improvise new ideas as they developed their texts, and discard the already planned ones. This view was clearly reflected in their writing. That is, most of the subjects did not follow the initial planned outlines exactly, either on paper or in their minds, but generated ideas or sub-ideas while writing, as alternatives as their composing process went on. This was clear in their English essays, in which the subjects sometimes felt constrained to alter their proposed or planned ideas. When they got stock in expressing their existing ideas for whatever reasons, lexical or grammatical, let alone organisation or content, they adopted the alternative strategies at hand. These new, or preferred, strategies did not necessarily serve the goal intended. Moreover, they made the subjects bewildered as to what to write down. Such confusion made the subjects constantly rehearse, evaluate, check against the

text, and they often accompanied this with the restructuring of previously written ideas or planned thoughts (see appendix 11).

#### 7.4 Writing (Drafting)

This section presents the subjects' attitudes towards writing in both languages, beliefs about the learning process of writing, and how they approached their writing in Arabic and in English. Data analysis from observation, interview, questionnaires, written products and think-aloud protocols helps us to understand the writing process behaviour. Before embarking on each subject's behaviour while writing, an introduction to the term 'drafting' is necessary.

Writing, or drafting, occurs when writers put their ideas into sentences and paragraphs. At this stage, writers concentrate upon explaining and supporting their ideas fully. Here they begin to connect their ideas. However, regardless of how much thinking and planning they do, the process of writing these ideas down on paper changes the plan, especially if that the selected words evoke additional ideas or implications.

First draft writing incorporates strategies developed in brainstorming. Such a stage allows the writers to experiment with what they wish to share. It is common that a writer usually writes in his/her L1 as a springboard to develop thoughts, which may result in the L1 way of thinking being reflected in the writing in L2. While doing this, writers do not pay much attention to spelling or transcription. They are pretty much concerned with ideas and how to put them on paper. That is, they attend to content rather than form. Such a draft is not corrected but counts as part of the process.

Before proceeding, I feel it is important to introduce the *writing habits* of the Libyan University students in both languages. The Arabic written essays show that these students rely on their colloquial, spoken dialects when they write in L1. Not only do

these colloquial habits seriously, consistently, and negatively influence the L1 written products, but they also prevent them from concisely expressing the intended meaning (see Chapter 4 for more details on high and low varieties). Such a phenomenon influences L2 writing as well. That is, these subjects are affected by their heavy reliance on the spoken language while writing in L1. In other words, the ideas, word choice, sentence structure and connection and paragraph building are merely a reflection of the thinking process adopted by these subjects.

Protocols and written products showed that the subjects had demonstrated one approach, with slight individual differences. They adopted the 'knowledge-telling' model while producing their compositions in L2 (see e.g. section 2.7.2).

Observation and protocols reveal a variety of colloquial types that have emerged in the L1 and L2 written products. It was observed that several of them maintained a direct colloquial L1 conversational flow in their manuscript. This contradicts how they should approach L2 writing. They do not place the most important subject or clause at the beginning of the sentence to make the primary idea more visually accessible, but use it in the L1 colloquial manner.

It was observed that students spent different lengths of time engaged in extensive thinking. They used pre-writing activities. During this prewriting stage the writers were allowed to generate ideas, write down outlines, etc., in either language, in order to diminish any apprehension that they might feel. Since writing is a very complex task, writers encounter numerous roadblocks when they attempt to write in L2, but not as many when they write in L1, at least for some of them, i.e. those whose writing competence and ability have been well-established.

Some students prepare the first draft in their L1, then they rewrite or translate it into L2. Such behaviour was observed in this study, though they generally used mental



instead of written outlined planning, except for one subject who said she always writes her essays (*in English and then translate them into Arabic*) which is hard to believe. All subjects thought of what to write in either language but they did not write down any notes in L1. They said they first (*think in Arabic then they write down their ideas in English because they were used to think in Arabic all their lives.*)

The observation field showed that most subjects, except subjects 4 and 12 faced writing problems when they wrote in English, whereas only two subjects, 5 and 6, had difficulty when proceeding to write in Arabic. They spent a considerable amount of time struggling to think of ideas and put them on paper. This does not mean that the English essays were unreadable or that the Arabic essays were perfectly written.

SUBJECT	TOPIC ONE		TOPIC TWO		TOTAL	
	ENGLISH	ARABIC	ENGLISH	ARABIC	ENGLISH	ARABIC
1	23	10	16	07	39	17
2	41	18	22	17	63	35
3	35	23	45	14	80	37
4	30	13	34	26	64	39
5	43	18	25	15	63	33
6	15	12	05	05	20	17
7	45	16	16	10	61	26
8	11	09	20	11	31	20
9	15	31	20	30	35	61
10	30	13	17	09	47	26
11	39	10	30	13	69	23
12	11	08	10	06	21	14

Table 7.3

**Table 7.3 shows the time spent on each topic during the actual writing. It clearly shows the time spent on English essays writing was much longer than that spent on the Arabic essays.**

The time spent on writing the English essays was longer than that spent on the Arabic essays except for student 9, who spent a longer time on Arabic essays. Table 7.3 shows the amount of time spent on writing each essay in both languages.

Subject 7 spent the longest time 45 minutes on producing the first English essay, while subject 3 spent the longest time 45 minutes on the second English essay. Subject 9 spent the longest time on both Arabic essays 31 and 30 minutes respectively.

Subjects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
English 1	125	490	252	314	293	105	142	224	121	264	139	130
Error Prop.	22.4%	25.7%	10.1%	10%	23.9	28%	57.5%	16.3%	26.1%	14%	16%	05%
Time Span	23	41	30	30	43	18	45	11	15	30	39	11
English 2	161	220	181	286	362	096	101	310	175	190	165	113
Error Prop.	29.8%	16.8%	6.6%	07%	11%	30.6%	36%	21.7%	24.4%	19.2%	13.2%	09%
Time span	16	22	45	34	25	08	16	20	20	17	30	10
Word total	286	710	433	600	655	201	242	534	296	454	304	243
Time Total	39	63	75	64	67	26	61	31	35	47	69	21

ENGLISH

Subjects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Arabic 1	310	306	286	225	201	156	183	125	225	190	121	087
Error Prop.	18.6%	17.3 %	19.7%	16%	17.3 %	30%	21%	51.2%	27.1%	26.5%	18%	23%
Time Spa.	10	18	23	13	18	12	16	09	31	13	10	08
Arabic 2	204	276	308	396	270	150	110	185	309	17	158	076
Error Prop.	15.9%	15.9 %	17.5%	12.5	23.2 %	30.6%	28%	48.1%	22.3%	08%	14%	21%
Time Span	07	17	14	26	15	05	10	11	30	09	13	06
Word Total	557	568	584	526	460	238	293	328	574	345	279	163
Time Total	17	35	37	39	33	17	26	20	61	22	23	14

ARABIC

Table 7.4 The Frequency off Words and Errors, and the Time taken

When the subjects’ written texts were typed, the researcher identified and counted the errors occurred in both languages. Then the errors were divided by the total number of words in each text. The percentage of errors in each text was also obtained as follows: for instance, subject 1 wrote 125 words with a total number of 35 errors in her first English essay, so 35x100 was divided by 125= 22.4%. Arabic words used in L2 texts were counted and taken away from the total text. So the errors were calculated from the pure English written words.

Combining the tables of data makes the comparison between the English and Arabic writing processes much easier. If we compare the components of table 7.4, they clearly show us the big differences between these processes in terms of total written words, error proportion in each essay, time spent on producing each essay in both languages, and the similarities and differences in the subjects’ writing processes.

As mentioned above, the subjects showed the most differences in time span, then, as shown in table 7.4, in written products and error proportion. For instance, subject 7 spent the longest time span 45 minutes but wrote 142 words, two-thirds less than

subject 2 who produced 490 words in (41 minutes) while producing the first English essay. The second English essay was different in terms of processing and product. That is, subject 5 wrote the longest essay 362 words in 25 minutes, whereas subject 3 wrote only 181 words in 45 minutes.

The Arabic essays, as table 7.4 indicates, were approached differently from their counterparts in English. Subject 1 wrote 336 words in a relatively short time (10 minutes) while subject 9 wrote two-thirds as much as (248 words) in three times as long as (31 minutes). The second Arabic essay was differently processed from the first essay in that subject 1 has used one-third less in terms of both time and words, while subject 9 produced a third more words 326 in an almost identical amount of time.

In terms of pausing, Table 7.5 shows that the subjects have paused differently for each language. Subject 6 paused for 9.7 minutes when drafting her first English essay, which the longest pause time, whereas subject 12 paused for only 1 minute, being the shortest pause time. Pausing intervals differed from one subject to another and from one essay to essay. Pausing intervals were a little bit shorter in the second English essay in which subject 4 paused for 9 minutes, being the longest, and subjects 10 and 12 paused for 1 minute, being the shortest.

Subjects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
English 1	1.4	7.2	7.8	7.3	3.5	9.7	4.8	3.1	2.7	14	7.1	1.0
English 2	0.5	4.6	7.9	9.0	2.2	1.2	3	3.7	1.0	2.1	5.6	1.0
Time Total	1.9	11.8	15.7	16.3	5.7	10.9	7.8	6.8	3.7	16.1	12.7	2.0
English Essays												
Subjects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
English 1	2.0	4.1	1.9	1.5	1.7	2.2	2.5	2.4	4.1	3.8	5.4	1.2
English 2	0.0	6.2	1.9	2.4	1.0	1.1	0.2	2.7	2.4	2.2	0.7	0.8
Time Total	2.0	10.3	3.8	3.9	2.8	3.3	2.7	5.1	6.5	6.0	6.1	2.0
Arabic Essays												
Table 7.5 Time Spent on Pausing												



What is noticeable here is that subject 6, who made the longest pausing intervals on the first essay, made one of the shortest pause intervals on the second, 1.2 minutes. In addition, subject 4 did not show a big difference in her pausing intervals between the first and second English essays. On the other hand, subject 11 made the longest pause intervals on the first Arabic essay, 5.4 minutes, while subject 12 made the shortest, 1.2 minutes; subject 12 made slightly longer pause intervals in the L1 than in the L2 writing processes. Subject 2 had the longest pause intervals, 6.2, minutes, on the second Arabic essay, while subject 7 whose second Arabic essay was messy and incoherent, spent the shortest time on pausing intervals, 0.2 minutes.

With regard to verbalised utterances and written products, Table 7.6 reveals that the subjects approached the English essays differently from each other and from Arabic essays. In other words, there are 4 subjects whose verbalised utterance exceeded the 1000 words with a different proportion of Arabic. For instance, subject 5 uttered 1394 words using 386 (28%) Arabic chunks. The same subject wrote only 293 out of 1008 English words uttered with a final written proportion of (29%).

<i>Subjects</i>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>12</b>
Spoken Text	473	1195	719	748	1394	539	1060	276	260	712	1067	244
Arabic Used	154	0019	077	007	0386	113	0311	000	003	000	0185	000
A. Proportion	33%	02%	11%	0.9%	28%	21%	29%	00%	01%	00%	17%	00%
Pure English	319	1176	642	741	1008	426	0749	276	257	712	0882	244
Written word	125	0490	252	317	293	105	142	224	121	246	0135	130
W.W.Proportion	39%	42%	39%	43%	29%	27%	19%	81%	47%	35%	15%	53%

Topic 1

<b>Subject</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>12</b>
Spoken Text	652	702	639	1212	904	250	414	449	296	502	996	267
Arabic Used	121	080	031	0064	108	108	051	000	004	000	018	000
A. Proportion	19%	11%	05%	05%	12%	53%	12%	00%	01%	00%	02%	00%
Pure English	531	622	608	1148	796	142	363	449	292	502	968	267
Written Words	161	220	181	0298	362	067	101	310	175	190	165	113
W.W. Proportion	30%	35%	30%	26%	45%	47%	29%	69%	60%	38%	17%	42%

Topic 2

**Table 7.6 English words uttered, Arabic used and proportion of Arabic used, written word proportion**



The second English essay was addressed differently, i.e. subject 4 exceeded 1000 verbalised words. This might be attributed to the fact that this topic is much easier than the first topic. So subject 4 verbalised 1212 utterances using 64, (0.5%) Arabic chunks and wrote 298 words out of the total of 1148 pure English utterances to make use of only (26%) of the total verbalisation. In this case, there is no correlation between the Arabic words used and the final written text in English.

Table 7.7 shows how the subjects produced their Arabic drafting sub-process, which was expected to be more fluent and smoother. Apparently, most of the subjects used no English intervention while verbalising in Arabic. Those who did made very little use of English, just as slips of the tongue while they were talking or while they were still affected by the English essay they had just written. In addition, the subjects verbalised fewer utterances in Arabic than they did in English, as expected, but still some of them have a higher written proportion than they should have. For example, the subjects' consistency between spoken and written words was different across-subjects. That is, subjects 9 and 1 verbalised most (694 and 689 words respectively) but their written word proportion was not in correspondence with this. Subject 9 wrote 248 words, which represent only (38%) of the total verbalised words, whereas subject 1 wrote 353 words, representing (49%) of the total utterances. On the other hand, subject 10 verbalised less than these two subjects but wrote more. He verbalized only 251 utterances out of which he wrote 196 words to produce a (78%) written word proportion of the total verbalisations. This fact shows that the drafting sub-process is not always consistent with all the subjects.

Subjects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Spoken Text	689	589	412	298	634	381	419	294	694	251	233	158
English Used	000	000	000	000	001	014	000	000	033	000	000	008
E. Proportion	000	000	000	000	0.1%	04%	000	000	05%	000	000	05%
Pure Arabic	689	589	412	298	633	367	419	294	661	251	233	150
WrittenWords	353	331	278	225	202	156	183	136	248	196	121	087
W.W. Prop	49%	56%	67%	76%	32%	43%	44%	46%	38%	78%	52%	58%

### TOPIC 1

Subjects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Spoken Text	273	655	469	593	347	104	329	407	504	388	455	165
English Used	000	000	000	002	000	001	000	001	000	000	000	000
E. Proportion	000	000	000	0.3%	000	01%	000	0.2%	000	000	000	000
Pure Arabic	273	655	469	591	347	103	329	406	504	388	455	165
WrittenWords	221	237	306	301	258	082	110	173	326	159	158	089
W.W. Prop	81%	36%	65%	51%	74%	80%	33%	43%	65%	41%	35%	54%

### TOPIC 2

Table 7.7 Arabic Words Uttered, English Used and Proportion, Written Words and Proportion

### 7.4 Time and Composing Length

Tables 7.8 A and B show the time spent on the writing of each essay and the word count in both languages. Overall, and interestingly enough, six subjects wrote longer compositions in English than in Arabic on topic one, whereas five subjects wrote longer compositions in English than in Arabic on the second topic. However, only one subject spent a longer time on Arabic composition than he did on English on both topics

English Composition												
Subjects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
English 1	125	490	252	314	293	105	142	224	121	264	139	130
Time Span	23	41	30	30	43	18	45	11	15	30	39	11
English 2	161	220	181	286	362	096	101	310	175	190	165	113
Time span	16	22	45	34	25	08	16	20	20	17	30	10
Word total	286	710	433	600	655	201	242	534	296	454	304	243
Time Total	39	63	75	64	67	26	61	31	35	47	69	21

(A)

Arabic Composition												
Subjects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Arabic 1	336	331	278	225	202	156	183	136	248	186	121	087
Time Span	10	18	23	13	18	12	16	09	31	13	10	08
Arabic 2	221	237	306	301	258	082	110	192	326	159	158	076
Time Span	07	17	14	26	15	05	10	11	30	09	13	06
Word Total	557	568	584	526	460	238	293	328	574	345	279	163
Time Total	17	35	37	39	33	17	26	20	61	22	23	14

(B)

Bold figures refer to the longest essays and time spent to produce them in both languages

Table 7.8 Time Span and Written Words

The other subjects, as expected, spent a longer time on English topics than they did on Arabic topics. Although she relied on her spoken Arabic than she did on MSA, subject 2 wrote the longest text in the first English essay, s, while subject 7 spent the longest time on the same essay. Subject 1 wrote the longest text in the first essay in Arabic, while subject 9 spent the longest time on the same essay. Subject 5 wrote the longest text in the second English essay, while subject 3 spent the longest time on the same essay. In all, subject 2 wrote the largest amount of words in English and subject 9 did the same in Arabic. Subject 3 spent the longest time on writing English compositions while subject 9 spent the longest time on writing Arabic compositions.

#### ***7.4.2 Teachers' Views on Students' Writing***

The teachers' responses concerning the students' writing may be seen from their questionnaire answers. Responding to the question *'what do they do while composing?'* (see appendix 7b), teacher 1 explicitly said that they *'discuss with each other, and a few of them look up words they want to use in a dictionary. In fact, they used to bring their dictionaries but they stopped. They discuss with peers. They try to write something. They feel, you know, more confident when they're writing with somebody else than alone'*. When asked *'how do Libyan students solve their writing problems?'* teacher 1 also said *'they don't actually. They need to write more in class. Since they haven't done it at school, they find it very tiresome. I feel to do it, everyday they write at least in every lecture that I take. They write at least ten, five, seven lines. So that they get mechanics right and once they master that then it will be easier to go on to do other things'*. Regarding teacher 1's opinion about the impact of L1 on mastering English writing, she was positive and said *'it does help because if they know their own language well, it would help them in learning English, meaning of words etc. it would help of course'*. When asked, if a student is good in L1, does it



follow that he would be good in L2, she said *'yes, naturally it would be reflected, because if you write well in your L1 means you are searching for the correct expression, vocabulary, and most expressive phrases. They will try to do the same in English'*. She also made it clear that Libyan students were highly affected by L1 when writing in L2 i.e. they do it to a *'very big extent because it's an exposure problem'* and as a result Libyan students *'don't apply L2 writing rules'*. The teacher assured us that enough time was given to complete writing tasks in class *'but not all of them can, they are not able to complete their assignments.'*

Teacher 2 was less positive about his students' writing. Responding to the first question, he said, *'for example, they try to ask for a word in English, how to express certain ideas, sometimes how they construct a sentence. When they have no idea about the topic, they try to get help from their peers'*. Answering the question 'how do Libyan students solve their writing problem?' he said *'only some of them intend to ask their peers, teachers or use dictionaries'*. When asked if a student is a good writer in L1, is he good in L2 as well? his answer was, *'It depends. There are few examples of students who are good writers. The majority, even when they are good in Arabic, are not because of the languages' systems are different'*. Concerning the extent of L1 effect on L2 he said *'clear, when you read their sentences you can see the use of vocabulary, so much are affected by Arabic'*. He assured me that most Libyan students *'don't use the writing rules because they are influenced by the L1. Even if there are rules in Arabic writing, they are different, for example, letter writing'*. When asked whether he gave students enough time to write in class, he justified himself saying, *'third- year students have no chance to write essays during the class time while in previous years they did have enough time. They are also asked to write a*



*passage of limited length' at home? 'Yes, and they write better at home than they do in class'.*

Teacher 2 was against using dictionaries in writing classes. When asked 'what do Libyan students do while composing?' his answer was *'yes, in fact, through the experience hour, the practice hour I used to give them chance to whisper together, two or three, but for a limited time. They have to exchange their opinions and sometimes I just keep watching up and make some remarks on them. I am not correcting, I figure from the mistakes there. If they have a problem, I help them to help them but not to push them to use the dictionary'.*

Teacher 3 has quite a lot of self-esteem and is over-confident. When asked how they solve their writing problems, his answer, as usual began with 'I' *'I trust them all to say the truth and I push them to write. I told them that there are special marks on these assignments in the classroom or at home. So they have to write. I used to, of course, to correct and write my own comments on paper. Then we have class discussions. Taking the common mistakes and start discussions. With this I told at the end of the year, all of them indeed, they are improving. I push them to write at least ten times, assignments'.* His comments on whether L1 helps in mastering English writing were explicit *'I would not recommend using L1 much, you know, we have a limited time. Sometimes it is used as a reference to L2 comparing it with L2 to see the differences because here is the main area of difficulty I could recognize. They first think in Arabic. Then they think back in English and this is a big problem indeed'.*

When asked, if a student is a good writer in L1, might he be a good writer in L2 too, his opinion was linguistically-oriented *'linguists believe in this. I myself, of my experience, believe in that but this would need more polishing, more experience, and more contact with L2'.* He was disappointed with his students because their L2

writing was affected by L1 *'Much, much, much, in every aspect, grammar, vocabulary etc.'*. Responding to the question as to whether Libyan students apply writing rules, he was optimistic about their improvement *'yes we used to teach them these rule, how to start, how to go on, how to finish. Definitely, they have difficulty but I think all of them are improving in different degrees'*. He assured me that he used to give his students enough time to write in class *'yes, yes, we always tell them to feel free to write their essays; however, in fact, I don't give them an open time. We have limited time, forty minutes is enough for them. They can do whatever during this time but they have to stop by the minute forty, I try to follow democracy with them.'*

Teacher 4 was against the notion that if a student is a good writer in his L1, he is good in L2 because *'there is no exactly one to one relationship between them. He should be also a good write in the foreign language. I cannot tell, give a definite answer. May be, but it's not a condition'*. He was also not sure that L1 helps in mastering L2 writing *'I don't think so. There is nothing in relation because the style and the system of Arabic language is quite different from that of English. And in English we have different language habits, which don't exist in Arabic, so there is no relation'*. When asked how Libyan students solve their writing problems, his answer did not provide a clear explanation, but all he gave was a general hypothesis: *'students should be directed by teachers how to solve these problems. They cannot solve these problems by their own. As for my experience, I always try to tell them about the mistakes and the target mistakes and how to deal and remedy mistakes. Some of them get advantage form the point or remark others don't'*.

The teachers' questionnaire responses reflect these teachers' views about their students while writing. Answering the question, *'Do your student writers do any of the following activities in their compositions?'* 50% of them said the student writers

*'look into dictionaries'* and *'ask peers and teacher'* while writing. 25% said they *'read questions aloud and silently'* during the writing time. Responding to whether Arabic influences writing in English and what areas seem affected by that, 100% thought that *'grammar and vocabulary'* were affected, while 50% thought that *'punctuation, sentence connection, spelling and organisation'* are affected. Their responses also clarified the teachers' views concerning the similarities and differences between Arabic and English. 50% believed that the languages are *'totally different'* from each other, 25% thought they are *'fairly different'*, whereas 25% believed they are only *'different'*. Concerning writing rules, 75% of the teachers thought that their students *'sometimes'* apply English writing rules while 25%, or 1 teacher, thinks they *'rarely'* do. Finally, 75% assured me that they *'often'* give enough time during class time while 1 teacher (25%) says she *'always'* does.

#### **7.4.3 Subjects' Views on Writing**

The interview responses showed that some subjects claimed they planned before writing, but mostly in Arabic, whereas a few of them planned in English. None of the subjects was familiar with this type of writing, i.e. they never wrote with a tape-recorder in front of them. Most of the subjects' attitudes towards writing were negative and even those who try to write said they usually write for themselves. Two subjects had positive attitudes about writing and they claimed that they write for publication purposes. All subjects said that writing in English is different from writing in Arabic. They assumed that writing in Arabic is much easier; however, their writing in Arabic turned out to be even worse.

The responses to the questionnaires indicated that most subjects did not like writing in English, apart from subject 8 who was keen on writing poetry in English. All subjects had difficulty with certain aspects, such as grammar, vocabulary, spelling and

punctuation, when writing in English. The subjects did not seem to be motivated to write in Arabic either. They made a lot of spelling errors and missed many correct vocabulary items. Their colloquial expressions changed the intended meaning and confused the reader (see appendix 12).

## **7.5 Revising**

Revising and editing are two main elements of the current approach, i.e. writing as a process approach. The traditional product approach to writing also has the planning and drafting stages, but it does not pay as much attention to rewriting through revising and editing. It seemed likely that if a student learnt how to revise and edit, this would help most students improve their written work. Revising is a mental tool that guides textual and linguistic choices.

### **7.5.1 Definition**

The term “revising” can be applied to a period of reflection when the written text is checked through by the writer to see whether the message comes across. It usually takes place after a draft has been produced.

Sommers (1980) considers that rewriting takes place after critical revision by deleting, adding, replacing and rearranging the contents, if possible, in the light of real readers’ feedback so as to produce a better version, not merely a fair copy. Others believe that editing is an aspect of revision: when one revises one’s own writing, it is revision, when one revises someone else’s writing, it is editing.

Flower and Hayes (1981) believe that editing is a sub-process of writing. It seems that editing is not as important as revision. Revision enhances the quality of the final written piece of work and powerfully affects writers’ knowledge when they use it to rework thoughts and ideas, as well as enabling writers to discover more of what was not at hand before (Sommers, 1980).



According to Hayes and Flower (1980), whose definition is considered here, reviewing is the act of evaluating either what has been written or what has been planned. They postulate that when the evaluation of the text or the plan sounds negative, reviewing often leads to revision. Also, reviewing sometimes occurs subconsciously while the writer intends to evaluate the drafted output. Reviewing sometimes occurs automatically when the writer senses an error or illogical expression during the act of writing.

As revealed by the interviews and questionnaires (see appendices 6 and 7), these subjects had received no instruction in L1 during their academic life. L1 writing revision instruction was totally neglected in pre-college education. Thus, they were unable to revise their L1 essays. During college, the subjects had received L2 instruction. They were taught how to revise and edit their L2 compositions. They were introduced to the significance of revising and taught how to approach their written tasks. The act of producing L2 compositions in this study seemed to be so involving and exhausting that the production of a new draft was, unfortunately, rare. None of the subjects rewrote his or her essay; in fact the most they did was to look at what they had written and make whatever surface corrections were available to them. Although they made no major reformulations of their texts, they went about revising and editing in different ways in L1 and L2. They paid more attention to form corrections in L2, mainly at vocabulary, grammar, spelling and punctuation levels (see section 7.8.2), whereas they paid no attention to these aspects in L1. They were more concerned with style, organisation and content in the L1 essays at the expense of the surface forms. For example, they neglected spelling, grammatical structures and vocabulary, on the assumption that they would not commit any errors in these aspects in their L1. The protocols indicated that the subjects had spent a much longer time revising almost

every sentence in L2. They were heard repeating many sentences, phrases and words in a form of internal revision in order to make sense of what they had written. They paused more while producing the L2 essays and these pauses were considered likely to indicate a type of silent internal revision which resulted in some corrections. The number of internal revisions in L2 was much higher (126) compared with only 67 revisions in L1. Final revisions were also higher in L2 (17) than they were in L1 (12). Revision encompasses the entire writing task, i.e. from initial planning to final drafts, and is designed mainly to discover meaning in the written text. Such a notion leads us to highlight the subjects' general behaviour during the revision process. One of the findings here is that the more subjects revise the more thinking they do.

Revising, like pre-writing, took place throughout the whole process but did not lead to a new composition by these subjects. Revision was observed to be taking place while they were planning and getting ready to start writing. Some of them made a lot of changes in their thoughts, how to start, how to use the topic sentence, which teacher s/he might write about, etc. When actually involved in transcribing the essays, the subjects began revising on the spot. Some of them kept revising by rehearsing the first chunk of the topic sentence, and the first phrase of the opening sentence several times (subjects 1 and 11). Others made revisions when they reread what they had written in order to edit or change something. Most of the revisions took place while they were speaking aloud and writing so you can hear them commenting, editing, deleting, and sometimes complaining.

The majority of revisions applied to surface level features and changes. Very few dealt with content and organisation level features (subjects 4, 8 and 12) as well as surface level features. The majority of the subjects were distracted by local problems

from the very beginning (subjects 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 11), which made them spend a much longer time on revising than on the actual writing.

Although some of them wrote two or more drafts, the revising strategies were almost identical. They focused on local and surface changes, mainly vocabulary and punctuation. Some grammatical structures were originally correct, but changed into the wrong forms when revised. It was clear that these subjects, like other students, had never been taught how to write, or how to revise in particular.

It was apparent that the subjects had devoted most of the writing time to the first draft during which they directed their thinking towards the task of creating a substantial content. Consequently, subsequent drafts were limited to mechanical editing aimed to grammatical errors, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation. Content and organisation were not taken into account. I did not see, hear, or read any editing in these two aspects in either language, except with subject 12.

What was noticed was that although, in theory, 'revision leads to more revision', the subjects here did not show this phenomenon. When they edited anything they did not read it again to see if it still fitted or not. The subjects would have had enough time for revision because they wrote short essays about simple topics. If they had known how to revise they would have produced better essays in both languages.

The Arabic essays were full of mechanical errors, and also errors in style, organisation, content, and rhetoric. The subjects were open and frank in offering their honest opinions about writing and revising in both languages. The consensus was that they had not been taught how to write in Arabic; however, the instruction in English writing seemed better and helped them learn how to write.

It was noticed during observation that most of the subjects revised their essays during the actual drafting. There were no patterns of linguistic and discourse categories

associated with these drafting stages but a variety of revision levels, types, and purposes appeared at each stage. What was apparent during the observation was that perhaps the most significant feature discovered about revision stages in L1 as opposed to L2 concerned the pre-draft stage. That is, none of the subjects spent any time planning before writing the L1 essays. While I was observing each subject I recorded some notes during the three stages of the writing process.

The first thing I noticed was that all the subjects revised their essays, Arabic and English, while writing. The majority paused several times to read what they had written and many of them crossed out words, phrases and sentences or added them. During the revisions, some of them consulted dictionaries, asked peers, or looked at old material if available. But most of the time they talked to themselves in the form of questions, mainly switching to L1. Many of them, when blocked while writing in English essays shifted to L1 to reconstruct or rephrase a sentence and kept thinking of it in its Arabic organisation, content and meaning, to see whether it made sense or not. When they became sure of it they would rewrite it confidently. However, it is not enough to judge an English sentence according to its L1 equivalent.

Subjects	ENGLISH 1		ENGLISH 2		ARABIC 1		ARABIC 2	
	Internal Revisions	Final revisions	Internal Revisions	Final Revisions	Internal Revisions	Final Revisions	Internal Revisions	Final Revisions
1	9	1	4	1	5	1	3	1
2	1	1	4	0	2	0	4	0
3	9	0	5	0	3	0	4	0
4	4	1	12	1	3	1	7	1
5	10	1	5	1	3	1	1	0
6	5	1	3	0	2	0	1	0
7	9	2	3	1	4	0	1	1
8	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1
9	2	0	2	0	6	0	4	0
10	5	0	3	1	1	0	2	1
11	17	1	6	1	3	1	2	1
12	2	0	2	1	1	0	2	1

Table: 7.9 Number of Revisions made during the writing process  
the Internal and Final Revisions



Table 7.9 shows the number of internal and final revisions made by each subject. Internal revisions (revisions made while writing) refer to the revising process interval made by the subjects while they were processing their essays in both languages. Final revisions (revisions made after finishing the task of writing) refer to the final draft revision immediately before the essays were handed in.

An examination of the internal revision intervals, within the first English essay, reveals that subject 11 revised most. That is, he paused, reread, rehearsed, edited, and answered a number of his own questions. His protocols could be taken as concrete evidence of this strategy, i.e. he did not write a sentence before thinking about it, or revising it in L1 first. In contrast with subject 11, subject 2 revised only once during the writing process. Subjects 8, 9, and 12 internally revised their essays twice. Subject 4 revised 4 times, whereas subjects 6 and 10 did so 5 times. 9 internal revisions were made by subjects 1, 3, and 7. In total, all of the subjects apparently stopped, or paused, to revise, reread and rehearse what they had written. Evidence of revision could be seen on paper in the form of corrections. The subjects who had revised may have corrected errors in their writing errors, or they may have altered certain phrases. By contrast, (33.3%) of the subjects did not make a final revision, or at least such revisions were not spoken aloud as a result of, as they claimed, not being used to the tape-recorder, as with subjects 3, 9, 10 and 12. 50% revised only once before handing in their essays. Only 1 subject, 8.3% made a final revision twice.

Revision processes in *the second English essay* show that 3 subjects, (25%), carried out two internal revisions while writing; 3 subjects, (25%) carried out 3 revisions. (16.6%) of the subjects 2 carried out 4 revisions, and 2 subjects (16.6%) carried out 5 revisions. Most revisions were carried out by subject 4 (8.3%), i.e.12 revisions, who spent a considerable time pausing and rereading. The final revisions were similar to

those in the first essay. Although the subjects were urged to revise, as many as 4 (33.3%) of them did not carry out any final revisions. The rest, 8 subjects (66.6%) revised only once prior to handing in the final drafts.

The subjects were more concerned with in-writing-process revision, which is considered a sub-process of the whole general writing process approach. Their concern with the final revision, or what they call the editing process, seemed totally influenced by their previous Arabic writing instruction, which was determined by the writing product approach. Consequently, a considerable number did not make any final revision in either essay and those who did revise did not exceed one attempt, apart from student 7 who made two final revisions of the English essays. Finally, the total number of internal revisions of the first essay was 76, whereas the number of final revisions was 9. The number of revisions in the second essay was 51, while the number of final revisions was 8. Such a reduction in both types of revision, particularly the internal revision, may be attributed to the fact that the second essay was easier, and that the subjects felt less panic while writing and felt more self-confident.

A quick look at the first Arabic essay revisions shows that this essay received less revision of either type, internal and final, compared with its English counterpart. One subject, (subject 9 or 8.3%), made 6 internal revisions, whereas another subject (subject 1 or 8.3%) made 5 revisions. Subject 7 (8.3%) made 4 revisions. Subjects 3, 4, 5 and 11 (33.3%) made 3 revisions, while subjects 2 and 6 (16.6%) made 2 revisions. The least number of revisions, one revision only, was made by the subjects 8, 10 and 12 (25%). The total internal revisions were reduced to 34. The number of final revisions made of this essay was even smaller, i.e. (58.3%) 7 subjects did not

revise at all. Subjects 1, 4, 5, 8 and 11 made only one final revision. The total number of final revisions was 5.

The second Arabic essay received more final revisions on the expense of the internal revisions. Subject 4 (8.3%) made 7 internal revisions while writing her essay. Subjects 2, 3 and 9 or 25% of the subjects, made 4 revisions. Subjects 8, 10, 11 and 12 or (33.3%) made 2 revisions only. Only 1 revision was made by subjects 5, 6 and 7 or (25%) of the subjects. The total number of internal revisions was 33 the least of all the essays. The number of final revisions on the second Arabic essay was greater than those on the first one, but less than those in the English essays. 41.6%, 5 of the subjects 2, 3, 5, 6 and 9, did not make any verbalised final revisions. 58.3%, or 7 of the subjects 1, 4, 7, 8, 10, 11 and 12 made only one verbalised revision. The total number of final revisions was 7.

A comparison between the revising processes during and after the Arabic and English essays indicates that less revision in both types was carried out on the Arabic versions. For example, in the first Arabic essay, internal revisions decreased by more than a half, compared with the first English essay: 34 to 76. Final revisions fared no better, decreasing from 9 to 5. In the second Arabic essay, the number of internal revisions was reduced only to two thirds that of the second English essay: 33 to 51. The number of final revisions was virtually the same for both essays: 7 and 8 respectively.

In terms of strategies, one can see that revising *strategies* within English essays were very similar, i.e. subjects spent some time revising their English essays when they got stuck. They switched to L1 for vocabulary, meaning, and structures. When the subjects got stuck on any of these, they consulted dictionaries; however, they were not always successful in solving problems. In other words, some could not use the dictionaries because they did not know how to spell the target word. The translation

method they adopted was not always helpful even when used as a last resort. Most revisions were made on *vocabulary preference* in Arabic, i.e. the subjects have tried to find the most appropriate words to write down. Unfortunately, their spoken Arabic influenced some of them more than they were by the standard version. This caused problems in their writing. They were also concerned with organisation and content while writing in Arabic more than they were when writing in English. Such a finding might be attributed to the fact that when they wrote in English, most of the subjects paid attention to surface problems such as spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, etc., which constitute the core areas for these subjects.

Table (7.10) gives a description of and a comparison between the total time and the revising spent on writing each essay. ‘T. Time’ stands for *Total Time* and ‘R. Time’ for *Revising Time*. What is noticeable here is that there is no correlation between the total time and the revising time of each student. That is, students who spent a longer time writing did not necessarily pause longer for revising, but might, on the contrary, have been those who paused less because they had done more thinking while verbalising their essays.

	ENGLISH				ARABIC			
	TOPIC 1		TOPIC 2		TOPIC 1		TOPIC 2	
	Total Time	Revising Time	Total Time	Revising Time	Total Time	Revising Time	Total Time	Revising Time
1	23	1.4	16	0.5	10	2.0	07	0.0
2	41	7.2	22	4.6	18	4.1	17	6.2
3	35	7.8	45	7.9	23	1.9	14	1.9
4	30	7.3	34	9.0	13	1.5	26	2.4
5	43	3.5	25	2.2	18	1.7	15	1.0
6	15	9.7	05	1.2	12	2.2	05	1.1
7	45	4.8	16	3.0	16	2.5	10	0.2
8	11	3.1	20	3.7	20	2.4	11	2.7
9	15	2.7	20	1.0	31	4.1	30	2.4
10	30	1.4	17	2.1	13	3.8	09	2.2
11	39	7.1	30	5.6	10	5.4	13	0.7
12	11	1.0	10	1.0	08	1.2	06	0.8

Table: 7.10 A Comparison between Total Time and Revision Time



It was clear from the protocols that students who took longer were repeating the verbalisation several times before writing down the actual texts. For instance subject 7 took 45 minutes to complete her first English essay, but stopped for only 4.8 minutes to produce a longer essay; whereas subject 6 took only 16 minutes and paused for 9.7 minutes revising and editing, but produced a shorter essay.

A quick look at Table 7.11 shows that the error proportion varied from one subject to another and from essay to essay. For instance, subjects 1, 6 and 7 have a higher error proportion because they did not pay much attention to the error they had committed while revising. Subject 6, in particular, had real difficulty in reading and writing. Although she spent much time revising, she failed to correct many errors. The essay was written in Arabic more than it was in English. Most of the words and phrases were left in their Arabic transcription because she could not use the dictionary, and even when she did use it she had a problem in figuring out the exact meaning. What is significant here is that this subject made more errors in the two Arabic essays than she made in English. Errors in English might be attributed to, among other factors, lack of exposure and real practice. If so, what are the reasons for the numerous errors in Arabic? We cannot attribute them to the exposure factor, obviously. The two Arabic essays were different from each other in error proportion. The subjects committed more errors in the easier essay, isn't that confusing?

Subjects	E 1	E 2	A 1	A 2	E 1	A 1	E 2	A 2
1	28	29	20	13	28	20	29	13
2	25	17	16	19	25	16	17	19
3	10	07	19	18	10	19	07	18
4	10	07	16	12	10	16	07	12
5	22	11	18	24	22	18	11	24
6	28	28	30	39	28	30	28	39
7	27	36	21	28	27	21	36	28
8	16	22	48	46	16	48	22	46
9	23	23	25	21	23	25	23	21
10	14	19	20	08	14	20	19	08
11	16	13	18	14	16	18	13	14
12	05	09	23	21	05	23	09	21

Table: 7.11 Error proportion as a percentage in each essay

Although the second English essay was intended to be easier, and involving no use of LTM, subject 7 made the largest proportion of errors in this essay. She wrote a relatively short essay with some Arabic chunks, i.e. the Arabic used seems less than that used in the first essay. The subject revised this essay twice but made no corrections whatsoever (see appendix 16).

### ***7.5.2 Subjects' Views on Revision***

Revising was one of the processes that each subject had applied more during writing than as a final stage. All the subjects made internal revisions to solve a variety of writing problems. By contrast, the final revisions were few and not so effective. That is, most of the final revisions focused on corrections in form, mainly grammar and punctuation. It was clear that the subjects made more revisions in English than they did in Arabic. Many of them stopped to read what they had written and made minor or major corrections. It was apparent that some subjects made final revisions only when they had finished their Arabic essays, such as subject 1 (*not always, but only when I finish*).

The first questionnaire (see appendix 6a) responses showed that most subjects write more than one draft as a result of the revisions they make, although this was not confirmed during the current tasks. The subjects were concerned with form corrections in English but with content revisions in Arabic. All the subjects admitted that revision is an important part of writing but they also admitted that they had not been trained or taught how to revise in either language during their pre-college academic life.

### ***7.5.3 Raters' Remarks and Grading***

As we have stated earlier (see Chapter Four), the two languages are very different and have different norms in terms of writing styles. For example, it has been long been

recognised that writing in CA and MSA is characterised by its long sentences. This character contrasts with a preference in English for short sentences. Such differences in sentence length are attributed to stylistic, cultural, and may be also to social preferences in the two languages. However, the stylistic norms of the standard written form of both languages, and other languages, in terms of clarity, succinctness, and avoidance of repetition and colloquial language should be taken into account. The colloquial background of Arabic as an oral language, as stated earlier (see section 4.7.2.1), has affected the standard style in the written form. Although it is an acceptable norm among native speaker writers and readers, it inhibits non-native readers from following the flow of a written piece by an Arab. The use of punctuation marks also influences whether non-native speakers of Arabic understand what the Arabic writer wants to say. MSA and written Arabic emphasise the avoidance of any colloquial form and encourage more reading about different styles that help students to write neatly and correctly.

In fact, the essays of the subjects of this study were not rated on the basis of English norms. On the contrary, they were rated by native Arabic-speaking instructors who had no background in English language. These instructors rated the written essays on the basis of Arabic norms and noticed that there was a big discrepancy between the actual writing style and how it should have been written (see section 6.3.3).

The two raters' overall gradings of the first English essay were fairly similar. The essay received 68% for grammatical constructions, 73% for organisation, and 70% for cohesion and cohesive devices from the first rater. The second rater was more positive, so his scores were 77%, 66%, and 80% respectively. The first rater's comments were clear concerning sentence order and subject-verb agreement '*some problems with tense use*', and the concluding sentence '*a weak conclusion, less*

*enthusiastic*'. The overall comments were '*clear writing, despite some grammatical omissions/errors*'. The second rater did not make any comments.

The second English essay received lower grades by the first rater but identical ones by the second rater. The essay was given 62% for grammatical constructions, 46% for organisation, and 50% for cohesion and cohesive devices by the first rater. The second one gave much better grades 77%, 66%, and 80% respectively. The first rater's comments were concerned with grammar and vocabulary such as: '*the kind of furniture are, it is must...*' and "*typical*' '*inappropriate*' while the overall comments were '*organisation quite weak, and therefore meaning loses some impact, despite good aspects under grammatical constructions*'. The second rater has not added any comments.

#### **7.5.4 Teachers' Views on Students' Revision**

The teachers' interviews concerning their students are quite distinct from each other; however, there is a consensus that students are concerned about revising.

*Teacher 1's* response to the question '*What do they do after finishing their writing?*' was that '*they are very eager to know their mistakes, their errors, but I have asked them repeatedly to write them again. They don't revise. It's a problem not only with Arabs. I have taught in India and they don't revise. They just get over it*'. When told it is a big problem with many students and people who do not like revising she commented '*I have a big problem I keep revising. It's very irritating*'. This teacher claims that they revise, but she does not tell us what they revise or how they approach their revision process.

*Teacher 2* emphasised the revising process and explained what they do: '*Most of them, I think, try to check, to revise*'. Responding to the question concerning what he noticed what they were doing while revising, his answer was '*they focus on content,*



*spelling and vocabulary. I think there is less focus on grammar', because 'they don't know grammar. I mean whether they do right or wrong'. Concerning written drafts, he assumes that they write 'one or two. I sometimes do correct the first one'.*

**Teacher 3** is different from the others because he is totally restricted by the textbook outlines. Responding to what his students do when they finish their essay, he supposed they do not revise any more, saying that *'they used to revise their essays. But within textbook we are teaching there is a small part specified for revising. I told them this is a principle, not only for composition, but for all your courses spare a few minutes fro coming back to your subject, you look at it, make some amendments, and you will get marks. I am not giving you Dinars (Libyan Local Currency) but marks. Some of them are doing this, fortunately'.*

**Teacher 4** said he never forgets to encourage his students to revise, not for the sake of revision but in order that they submit well-polished, less erroneous written essays: *'I always emphasize the idea of revising these because if they write, they should write the first draft, and writing the first draft they should, of course, revise the raising questions I have already mentioned'.*

7.6 COMPOSING STRATEGIES

7.6.1 Composing Strategies in English Compositions

Subjects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Planning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Overt Planning</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Covert Planning</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Local Planning</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Global Planning</i>	*	*	*	+	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	+
Rehearsing	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Repeating	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Reading	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	*	+	+	+
Monitoring	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Language Switch	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	*	+	*	+	*
External Resources	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Self-Questioning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	*	*	+	+	+
Self-Reinforcement	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Invoking G. Rules	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	*	*	+	+	+
Translating	+	+	+	*	+	+	+	*	+	*	+	*
Affirmation	*	+	+	+	*	*	*	+	*	+	+	+
Postponing	*	+	*	*	*	*	*	+	+	*	*	+
Defining	*	*	+	*	+	+	*	*	+	+	+	+
Analogy	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Guessing	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Abandoning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Table 7.12: Strategies Used in Composing in English

Table 7.12 shows the writing process strategies adopted by each subject in each sub-process: planning (pre-writing), writing (drafting) and revising (reviewing). In the previous sections, we explained what each subject did. In this section, we aim to summarise the writing strategies employed by the Libyan students while composing in English. Table 7.12 shows the main categories: planning, rehearsing, and language switch which are used as an umbrella containing the processes of planning, writing, and revising strategies by each subject. These categories are divided further into subcategories, for instance planning category contains overt planning, covert planning, local planning and global planning.

In general, some of the subjects’ think-aloud protocols during L2 writing were confirmed by their answers to the “Writing Process Strategies Questionnaire”. That is, some of them seemed unable to make valid statements about what they were doing,

particularly when they were absorbed in the act of writing or revising. Most of the subjects tried hard to find appropriate vocabulary and hesitated over spelling, and worried even more about the mechanics of English writing conventions. Most of the subjects went back and forth between L2 and L1, and were hesitant over even the most elementary mechanics of writing.

In their interview and questionnaire responses, most of the subjects asserted that they always planned carefully before they started L2 essay writing. They looked for words they wanted to use, notes they wanted to edit, which were mainly concerned with grammar and style. They thought and organised their ideas in Arabic. They also prepared themselves to start writing in Arabic, especially when they used the common religious opening line “In the Name of God, Most Gracious, Most Merciful”. These composing strategies are similar to those used by Raimes (1987), Pennington and So (1993), and Whalen and Menard (1995).

LTM is the individual’s knowledge base and can be viewed as a fixed entity when it brings its resources to bear on any given writing task. For this reason, instead of observing topic familiarity in isolation, it is more interesting to view the effects of topic familiarity on idea generation as the writer verbalises his thoughts aloud. Individuals produce an idea and, depending on their knowledge base, elaborate it and develop it in depth, forming a cluster of related ideas. Then they move on to another idea which begins a whole new cluster of closely related ideas. Such a process is engaged recursively until the writers decide they have exhausted the topic. This does not mean that the writers have expressed all they know about the topic, however. Instead, what they have exhausted is the contents of the search set which held all the idea nodes that were activated through their STM (see section 7.6.2.4).

After this brief general introduction, let us see, first, what strategies these subjects adopted while producing their L2 compositions.

#### ***7.6.1.1 Planning***

All subjects, in one way or another (see section 7.3.1), devoted some time to planning before starting writing in English, as was seen from the observation and think-aloud protocols. Although each subject approached planning in his own way, it is clear from the table that they all implemented overt planning, and global planning as well as, the other types of planning. The subjects engaged in covert, or mental, planning, but none of them, except subject 6, wrote down any word as an example outlined planning. This subject wrote very few key words and their meaning in L1 before she started writing her essays. All of the subjects, except 4, 8 and 12, used L1 in their planning process. That is, they used Arabic in generating ideas, recalling memories, rehearsing, structuring sentences, and reaffirming sentence construction before writing, while subjects 4, 8 and 12 did all that in English. All the subjects voiced their local planning while creating their texts. It was clear that the majority of the local planning was concerned with single sentence planning. Any global planning was directed at connecting sentences to what had been written before, rather than procedural planning when they shifted from one idea to another.

#### ***7.6.1.2 Rehearsing***

While mentally searching for and generating the right ideas, some of the subjects, 1, 6, 7, and 11, rehearsed various words, phrases, full sentences, and ideas more than others, particularly the first sentence which carries the basic meaning and introduces the general form of the whole topic. Such particular



concern with the first sentence may be attributed to the fact that these subjects wanted to clarify and express the importance of the topic to the reader. The other subjects did rehearse but not as thoroughly.

#### **7.6.1.3 Repeating**

The protocols show that repetition was one of the strategies most frequently adopted by these subjects. Repetition was used in every writing sub-process. Some of them (subjects 1 and 11) repeated every single sentence several times before writing it down. Subjects 5 and 6 repeated their utterances in both languages, while subject 11 kept repeating them in L1 to be sure that the L2 construction conveyed the exact meaning of the L1 idea before writing it down.

In general, English texts were produced at a slow pace (the most obvious examples were subjects 2, 5, 7, 10, and 11). While utterances gradually emerged, the subjects repeated them in order to catch up with their writing. They repeated even more and for longer when they were faced with any difficulties in spelling, word choice, or grammatical problems. Interestingly, subject 11's repetition strategy seemed to serve a different purpose from that of the other subjects. He usually repeated every sentence more than once in L1 before conveying it in L2. Subject 5 repeated the word '*how*', meaning how to write this or that, several times, even when she was correct. Subject 9 verbalised and repeated all punctuation marks before inserting them. Most of the subjects repeated the final word of the current segment of text several times in a row while engaging in a mental search for words and ideas they wanted to write next. Subject 12 kept repeating the same word '*patient*' several times when he performed a lexical search in the dictionary.

#### **7.6.1.4 Reading**

Most of the subjects read their texts to varying degrees, except subject 9 who did not make any effort to read what he had written. Some of them read, but very rarely, subjects 2, 6 and 8. Some of them, especially those who rarely read their texts, employed this strategy when they got stuck. The reading strategy was generally adopted when the subjects wanted to choose a suitable word, or begin a new sentence, when they were stuck in finding new ideas or ways in which to order the words, and to make sure that the newly generated sentence went well with the previous ones. In addition, they read a whole or a large portion of the text when they wanted to check the accuracy, the formal accuracy, of what they had composed, subjects (1, 3, 5, 7, and 11). The majority did read the text in its entirety to check grammar and mechanics, even though there were no major revisions performed. Some of the subjects did not reread their texts over as a final revision, (subjects 2, 3, 9, 10.11 and 12). Some of them were slow in their writing, like subject 10 who paid attention to and edited most of his errors while writing through internal revisions, thus avoiding the need to carry out a final revision or reading. What can be classified as a significant flaw was that all the readings attended to mechanical and grammatical errors but not to organisation or content.

#### **7.6.1.5 Monitoring**

It was clear from the written products, the observation and the thinking-aloud protocols that the subjects were concerned with monitoring their English texts at low levels, such as grammar, spelling, and reading. When they were conscious that they had misread a certain part of text, they re-read it immediately (subjects 5 and 11 are good examples). The only exception to this

was subject 12 who concerned himself with higher-level monitoring more than with low-level. He was concerned with the final and overall organisation and content of his texts. Most of the subjects did stray from the original path of their essays.

#### ***7.6.1.6 Language Switch***

This strategy was used by most of the subjects, except subjects 8, 10, and 12. Switching to L1 was done to varying degrees, i.e. some of them were entirely dependent on L1 to generate and construct ideas and sentences (subjects 1, 5, 7, and 11), whereas others were less dependent and switched only when they felt stuck such as subjects 2, 4, and 9. The subjects always switched to L1 when they failed to generate or use the English words. However, it was not always true that they had used the correct alternative in L1. Most of those who switched into L1 verbalised and wrote it down within their English texts. Some subjects switched into L1 during all writing sub-processes, planning, writing and revising. Some used L1 when questioning, subjects 1, 5 and 11; commenting, subjects 3, 5 and 6; and evaluating, subjects 3 and 4. Most subjects verbalised in L1 when they were not actually writing.

#### ***7.6.1.7 External Resources***

All the subjects resorted to dictionaries, mainly bilingual ones, either normal or electronic. None of them referred to other external writing materials such as previously written essays, textbooks, or sources of written material like magazines and newspapers. They always resorted to dictionaries when they were looking for lexical items, subjects 3, 5, and 6; or for spelling, subject 12.

#### ***7.6.1.8 Self-Questioning***

One of the main strategies in almost every writing sub-process was self-questioning. Most subjects asked themselves different questions about ideas, word choice, subjects 4 and 5; grammatical structures, subjects 1, 3, and 7; and punctuation, subjects 6 and 9. However, they did not ask themselves whether their essays were well-organised or whether the content was coherent.

#### ***7.6.1.9 Self-Reinforcement***

Only subjects 4, 8, 11, and 12 frequently evaluated their ideas and texts as satisfactory throughout the protocols. Such self-reinforcement was helpful for the subjects to maintain their creative energy and to provide more positive motivation while creating the texts.

#### ***7.6.1.10 Invoking Grammar Rules***

Most of the subjects seemed more concerned with grammar rules although they were not very successful in this department. Some of them were concerned with tenses, subjects 1, 11 and 12, others with subject-verb agreement (3, 6, 11 and 12), punctuation (5, 6, 9, and 11), spelling (1, 5, 7, 11, 12) and the use of modal verbs (subject 10), etc.

#### ***7.6.1.11 Translating Texts***

The translation of generated ideas and constructed sentences was obvious among the majority of the subjects. They adopted translation as a strategy particularly when they lost or forgot words in English or encountered difficulty in structuring the available lexical items into a coherent meaningful sentence (subjects 1, 5, 6, 7 and 11). These subjects engaged in both overt and covert translation.



#### **7.6.1.12 Affirmation of Ideas**

As some subjects introduced their English essays with the usual Islamic Arabic opening ‘in the name of Allah, Most Gracious, Most Merciful’, others concluded these essays with an Arabic word, to confirm that they have finished writing and that no more could be added (subjects 5, 6, 7 and 11). These confirmatory endings indicate that they have finished and made their choice of words.

#### **7.6.1.13 Postponing**

Most subjects postponed internal revisions to the end in order to continue the flow of ideas and writing without interruption (subjects 2, 8, 9, 10 and 12). Therefore, these subjects kept moving forward with their text.

#### **7.6.1.14 Defining Terms**

Subject 3 attempted to translate and define an Arabic saying to produce the meaning ‘*he who loses everything does not give anything*’. She wanted to describe her teacher as poor, as she could not teach anything about her subject. So she put it this way ‘*she cannot give what she did not have*’.

#### **7.6.1.15 Analogy**

While searching for the English words that meant ‘*old*’, subject 7 used semantically a different equivalent ‘*big*’ instead. Similarly, subject 6, even more confused and might be affected by the phonological, wrote the word ‘*carry us*’ meaning ‘*care of us*’ when she was describing how kind her teacher was.

#### **7.6.1.16 Guessing**

Most subjects adopted guessing as a common strategy while writing their essays. When they were faced with difficult words or sentences they guessed

the meaning of these words by using Arabic equivalents, which might be used instead if they could not find that word in the dictionary. Subject 5 wrote the word ‘*share*’ instead of ‘*class or lesson*’ because in the dictionary the literal translation of the word ‘*share*’ looks exactly like the word she was looking for.

7.6.1.17 Abandoning

Some subjects showed evidence of the use of an abandonment strategy when their search for better ideas or certain structures or the right vocabulary failed. Subject 4 gave up her attempt to find out how the word ‘*mentioned*’ was spelled, she said ‘*leave it out*’.

7.6.2 Composing Strategies in Arabic Compositions

The following Table 7.13 shows a number of composing strategies adopted by the Libyan student writers when composing in Arabic.

Subjects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Planning	*	*	*	*	*	*	+	+	+	+	+	+
Overt Planning	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	+	*	*	*
Covert Planning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Local Planning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Global Planning	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	+	+	*	+
Internal. Resourcing	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Self-questioning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	*	+	*	*	+
Guessing	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Abandoning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rehearsing	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Repeating	+	+	+	+	+	*	+	+	+	+	+	+
Reading	+	+	+	+	+	*	+	*	+	*	*	*
Monitoring	+	+	+	+	+	*	+	+	+	+	+	+

Table 7.13 Strategies Used in Composing in Arabic

Before embarking on an analysis of these subjects’ strategies, we shall outline them in brief. It was obvious that most of the subjects did not plan before they started their L1 writing because they ‘*start writing on the onset and then ideas come to their minds*’. They claimed they had no problems in L1 writing, or at least it was much easier than writing in L2; however, their L1 written products showed the opposite. As they had

no difficulty with vocabulary and grammar, they claimed they had been more concerned with organisation, content and rhetoric, which they lack in L2. They were concerned with the audience and the meaning of texts. Although all of them emphasised the importance of planning and considering potential readers, they failed, at least to some extent, to achieve that purpose, because some of their written texts did not convey the message accurately. The following are the writing process strategies used by these subjects to produce their L1 essays. These strategies reflect the differences and similarities between writing in L1 and in L2.

#### **7.6.2.1 Planning**

Unlike in English (see section 7.3.1), only half of the total number of subjects planned their texts in Arabic. Some of those who planned used overt, covert, local and global planning (subjects 9 and 12). Subject 9 made it explicit that he had been writing an essay in Arabic about '*his good teachers*'. Subject 12 started his essay as he had already identified where to head and what to write. Subjects 7, 8, 10 and 11 made more use of covert and local planning. None of the subjects outlined anything on paper but prepared how and what to write mentally. Once they felt satisfied with their planning, the subjects started composing their texts along that line of thought. Although they seemed to be doing well at the beginning of their writing, some of them were clearly unable to continue because their reliance on mental planning was inadequate and they soon lost the track and forgot what they were going to write about. Their interview responses showed that they had been taught how to devise a pre-writing plan. Although such a plan represents only the outlines and the general purpose of the writing, it helps guide the writer along the path he has set out on.

Those who did not plan, or who only planned covertly, did not voice their overall plans on how to go about the whole piece, nor was the local planning clear. Most of them said in the interviews that they had never been taught how to plan before writing in Arabic. Another explanation for their not planning is that these subjects felt that it was going to be much easier writing in L1, and that they would generate ideas and thoughts while writing. Since they did not need to worry about organisation and content, they thought that planning was just time consuming, for instance, subject 6 said, responding to the relevant interview question, *'No, I don't plan, I start writing on the spot'*.

In addition, some of the subjects thought that the topics were not very difficult, particularly the second one. This would make the writing neither too difficult nor too easy in their L1 and they would be able to handle it better than the writing in English, L2. The subjects' adequate linguistic ability to perform such tasks in L1 influenced many of them not to plan overtly.

Generally, all subjects, after the writing had started, found themselves obliged to make several local plans in order to make their essays more coherent and cohesive; however, some attempts were unsuccessfully applied. As with their English writing, the majority of the subjects tended to engage more in procedural planning than in organisation and content planning.

#### **7.6.2.2 Rehearsing**

All the subjects rehearsed their Arabic texts rather briefly while they were writing, except subjects 1 and 11 who rehearsed almost everything. However, emphasising ideas or voicing appropriate alternatives before writing appeared necessary in the Arabic compositions of subjects 1 and 11. Subject 1 rehearsed for suitable word choice and sentences, as well as ideas for her text, and kept



doing so until she was ready to start her actual writing which, in turn, took her a long time and longer to rehearse. Subject 11 was mainly rehearsing new ideas by asking himself questions, such as '*what else?*' *what can I do later?*' He also voiced his ideas at length to find the direction of the text. This strategy, on the part of both subjects, occurred throughout the protocols.

#### **7.6.2.3 Reading**

Reading portions of the composed texts was another strategy performed by most of the subjects, although subjects 6, 10, and 12 did not read at all but kept writing fluently until they had finished the tasks. Reading was initiated for various possible reasons:

##### **a) *Within-sentence reading***

The subjects read their current or preceding segments of text in order to join the current ideas to new ones. They generally read segments of text when they were at a composing impasse and while they were waiting for new ideas to appear in their minds.

##### **b) *Between-sentences reading***

The subjects read their composed essays in order to review what they had written, to make some changes in word choice, and to decide how they should connect their written text portions with what they were going to write next. In such a reading phase, the subjects aimed to read larger chunks, sometimes a full paragraph, to make sure of what had been written and how it had been constructed.

##### **c) *After-text-composition reading***

After texts were, or about to be, completed, some subjects carried out a final concluding reading to see how the text had turned out. Most of these

readings were not directed at examining content or organization, but mainly at carrying out grammatical and mechanical editing. Only subjects 4 and 11 were observed reading their texts before the end in order to produce proper concluding sentences, which might summarise the final idea of the whole text.

#### 7.6.2.4 Internal Resources

It was clear during the observation and the protocols that all the subjects were trying to employ internal resourcing strategies. That is, all of them drew on their long-term memory (LTM), as revealed by subject 7:

الأبلة، أبلة، أبلة منوبية لن أنساها طيلة حياتي الى الأبد، الى الأبد. آه آه، عندما كنت، آه آه، في تلك (السنة أجمل أيام الدراسة، أيام الدراسة، في تلك السنة أجمل أيام الدراسة. كانت لعب، أجمل أيام الدراسة، (نقول) كانت أجمل، كانت تجلب لنا الحلوى والكعك، الكيكة، الحلوى والكيكة، كانت والكيكة، تجلب لنا الحلوى .....،

*(The teacher, teacher, teacher Manubiyah I will never forget her all my life, for ever ....., ....., ....., when I was ahh, ....., ....., ....., during that year, the best days of the academic life, the academic days, during that year the best academic days, it was fun, the best academic days, it was the best. She brought us sweets and cakes, sweets and cakes, it was sweets and cakes, brought us sweets).*

The extract demonstrates how this subject was trying to remember the ways in which her teacher was nice and friendly to them.

Subject 11 used his LTM to recall why he admired his teacher, but he was struggling to remember this when he said,

((why were we admiring him?)), ....., ....., ....., ((we were admiring him as well as his subject)) أو مادة التاريخ ((or the subject of history)). ما تجيش. كنت أحب ((I liked)) him and liked, and liked the subject of history).

Some subjects used their STM or WM, especially when they wrote about topic two and their teachers who were teaching them at the university, and rarely relied on the mental dictionary for word choices, grammar, or spelling. However, some of them did have serious difficulties and a deficiency in these

three aspects. Some used more spoken language than standard Arabic. Others were not competent in basic Arabic grammar. Others encountered difficulties in spelling.

#### **7.6.2.5 Self-questioning**

Self-questioning was a strategy adopted by at least 5 subjects (1, 5, 6, 7 and 9) in their Arabic compositions. These five subjects asked themselves different questions mainly while they were writing their texts. They did so when they felt they had exhausted their ideas and did not know what to write next or what word they ought to use to start a new sentence. Subject 1, for instance, asked herself (*what else can I say next?*) while subject 11 was even more specific (*why did we love him?*). Subject 6 was wondering why she liked her teacher and for what reasons she picked her (*why do I like her, oh God?*). Subject 9 was concerned with punctuation marks (*if there is possibility to insert a comma here?*). Self-questioning was sometimes related to planning in order to help them recall what and how they were going to write.

#### **7.6.2.6 Monitoring**

Monitoring seemed to be one of the most frequently adopted strategies. When the subjects misread and were aware of their mistakes, they would go back and correct them. Subject 7 was not satisfied with what she had written somewhere in her text, and said (*No, wrong, wrong, scratch it out*). Subject 9 was very concerned with his word choice so he monitored a lot while writing (*No, it cannot be like that*), (*I have a mistake here, cannot be done like that*).

#### **7.6.2.7 Considering the Topic**

Writing a composition well, correctly and to the point demands, at least, a certain amount of understanding and comprehension of the topic assigned.

Subjects 4, 6, 9 and 12 were the only ones who read part of the topic before they wrote or while they were writing. However, subject 9 was the only one who read a considerable part of the topic before he started writing his text. Subject 6 read the topic again while she was in the middle of her essay to make an appropriate connection between the previous and consequent ideas, and to be sure of what to write next (*the teacher you like best or that you dislike most, oh my god*) stressing the words *like best* and *dislike most* to retrieve some information from her LTM. Subject 9 read the main points in the topic then verbalised his understanding of what he was asked to write about and explained it to himself to make sure that he was on the right track while producing his essay (*we meet different teachers in our academic life.....*) emphasising the words '*different*' and '*teachers*'.

#### **7.6.2.8 Guessing**

Uncertain which word was most suitable for the context-'*a number of*' or '*several*' subject 9 did not check in any available source or reference book. He just guessed that the word might go well with the text and convey a strong meaning of plurality when he wanted to say '*several examples*'. Then he was also confused between the words '*examples or symbols*' and as to which one would fit better in the given context. He kept on just guessing, using his mental ability to figure out which word might be more appropriate before he made his mind up eventually to write '*several examples*' because, as he commented '*it exactly fits*'.

#### **7.6.2.9 Highlighting**

A very few subjects underlined portions of their texts. Such underlining was purposefully done to emphasise the importance of the highlighted words.



Subject 8 underlined five individual and phrasal chunks in her first Arabic essay '*all my life*', '*to talk*', '*I have*', '*he* ' and '*treats us as students*'.

#### 7.6.2.10 Abandoning

Some subjects abandoned their ideas when they did not fit in well with the written text. Subject 7 was not quite content with one of the sentences '*she had relations with the students*' so she deleted it and changed it into '*she knows how behave, deal with each student*'. Subject 11 deleted a composed segment of the text '*which causes seeing the blackboard clearly*' and rewrote it as '*which does not cause seeing the .....*'. Subject 12 was also dissatisfied with two chunks so he abandoned and changed them '*who* as a plural relative pronoun *taught me*' into '*who, as a singular pronoun, taught me*', the word '*man*' was also deleted and changed into '*person*'.

### 7.7 Conclusion

The above analysis shows that the subjects who used more L1 tended to employ more composing strategies in order to cope with the L1 and L2 written tasks. The subjects were found to devise more strategies when they composed in English. Similar composing strategies that they used in both languages were planning, rehearsing, repeating, reading, monitoring, self-questioning, guessing, and abandoning. The particular composing strategies that were used in the English protocols to compensate for the limited command of L2 knowledge were language switch, translating texts, external resources, self-reinforcement, invoking grammar rules, affirmation of ideas, postponing, and other lexical search strategies such as defining terms, analogy, and guessing. Due to limited data, these strategies cannot be evaluated as to whether they were effective or ineffective. However, they seemed to serve the subjects' needs in overcoming their immediate problems.

This section has explained the writing process strategies used by the Libyan students while writing in English and in Arabic. It is apparent that different strategies were adopted by each subject not only across languages but also across subjects. Each subject used particular strategies reflecting his/her own perception about writing, and the previous writing instruction each subject had received before and during college. In addition, the subjects used fewer strategies while writing in L1 than they did to write in English. The findings here indicate that there were similarities as well as differences between the strategies adopted for each language.

### **7.8 Sub-research Question 1**

*How is the linguistic knowledge of the subjects reflected in their L1 and L2 writing?*

The first research sub-question is intended to investigate the effects of linguistic knowledge of L1 and L2 on the writing processes of these subjects. The written products of the subjects in both languages show that they lack much linguistic knowledge. To answer this question, three methods were adopted: a) an examination of results as presented by the raters, two for English and two for Arabic; b) analyzing the subjects' interviews and questionnaires to explore their background in English writing knowledge. These interviews were conducted immediately after the first topic was completed. The subjects' questionnaires were also examined and compared with the written essays and the interview responses concerning linguistic knowledge; and c) an analysis of the teachers' interviews and questionnaires to explore their opinions about the subjects' linguistic performance and the weaknesses from which these subjects suffer. Also, the related teachers' questionnaire items were investigated to compare these responses with their responses in interviews and determine the remedial treatments required for any weaknesses.

### 7.8.1 Rating

As explained earlier (see Chapter 6 section 6.3.3), the two raters were native speakers of English; however, they evaluated the written essays differently. All of the scores for each written language aspect were tabulated and the inter-rater reliability coefficient was calculated, given that the two raters in this study had received no specific training and that the conditions under which they performed the ratings were not strictly controlled, though they were asked to evaluate specific aspects (see appendix 9)

Tables 7.14 (a and b) and 7.15 (a and b) show the first and second raters' overall grading of the subjects' levels of linguistic knowledge in each of English essays. The subjects' performance in the first essay is clearly shown by table B. Table A, in both tables, shows the scores out of 100 as received by each subject on each item on both topics. Table B classifies the subjects into categories. For instance, based on English Department evaluation system in Libya, those who obtained scores of zero to 49 are rated 'poor'; 50 to 64 rated is rated as a 'pass'; 65 to 74 is 'good'; 75 to 84 is 'very good' and 85 to 100 is rated as 'excellent'.

The raters' perception of the subjects' grammatical construction was not consistent i.e. the first rater found 7 subjects to be poor writers on the first topic, and 6 subjects to be poor on the second one, in opposition to the second rater who found only 2 poor writers in each essay. The majority of the subjects were rated poor and average by the first rater, whereas the majority were rated average, good and very good by the second rater. The significant finding that can be drawn from the raters' evaluation is that the subjects were not only poor in cohesion and cohesive devices, sentence and paragraph connectors, as noticed by Ostler (1987) among others, but also were much poorer in grammatical constructions.

Subjects		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Grammatical Structures	1	43	49	47	57	45	31	34	74	57	45	51	68
	2	43	40	57	51	42	28	34	60	51	45	60	62
Organization	1	47	47	53	53	40	33	26	80	53	53	60	73
	2	53	47	67	60	40	13	33	46	40	60	80	46
Cohesion and Cohesive devices	1	50	40	50	60	60	30	40	80	50	50	70	70
	2	50	50	80	50	50	20	30	60	50	70	70	50

(A)

		0-49	50-64	65-74	75-84	85-100
		Poor	Average	Good	V. Good	Excellent
Grammatical Constructions	1	7	4	1	0	0
	2	6	6	0	0	0
Organization	1	5	5	1	1	0
	2	7	3	1	1	0
Cohesive and cohesion devices	1	3	6	2	1	0
	2	2	7	2	1	0

(B)

Table 7.14 (a) shows the first English rater's evaluation of the written texts. Table 7.14 (b) shows the rating according to the English Department's evaluating system.

Subjects		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Grammatical Structures	1	57	51	65	71	54	28	28	71	54	54	77	77
	2	51	60	74	74	62	34	37	68	51	60	68	77
Organization	1	60	40	6	60	60	26	26	80	46	55	80	66
	2	60	53	60	60	60	20	26	80	46	60	66	60
Cohesion and cohesive devices	1	70	60	60	70	30	10	10	80	50	50	80	80
	2	40	60	50	70	30	10	30	70	30	30	70	80

(A)

		0-49	50-64	65-74	75-84	85-100
		Poor	Average	Good	V. Good	Excellent
Grammatical Constructions	1	2	5	3	2	0
	2	2	5	4	1	0
Organization	1	4	4	2	2	0
	2	3	7	1	1	0
Cohesive and cohesion devices	1	3	4	2	3	0
	2	6	2	3	1	0

(B)

Table 7.15 (a) shows the second English rater's evaluation of the written texts. Table 7.15 (b) shows the rating according to the English Department's evaluating system.

Table 7.16a shows the overall evaluation submitted by the first Arabic rater on both essays. It is extremely alarming that the subjects' Arabic writing performance was dramatically much worse than their writing performance in English. Such a finding is not only startling, but also very disappointing and frustrating from the point of view of our efforts as teachers. Table 7.16b shows the scores obtained by the subjects on each item.

Table 7.17a shows the overall evaluation as submitted by the second rater. It shows a similar correlation with table 7.16a in terms of number of poor subjects with regard to grammatical constructions in both the first and second essays of Arabic.



Subjects		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Grammatical Structures	1	62	63	56	56	51	32	32	43	51	49	58	58
	2	54	45	40	51	49	34	26	51	63	52	56	51
Organisation	1	60	40	46	40	53	20	26	33	60	53	46	40
	2	40	33	40	46	40	20	26	33	66	33	60	33
Cohesion and Cohesive devices	1	60	26	60	46	40	26	26	26	60	46	40	40
	2	33	33	60	53	40	26	26	40	73	46	66	33

(A)

		0-49	50-64	65-74	75-84	85-100
		Poor	Average	Good	V. Good	Excellent
Grammatical Constructions	1	4	8	0	0	0
	2	5	7	0	0	0
Organisation	1	8	4	0	0	0
	2	10	1	1	0	0
Cohesion and cohesive devices	1	9	3	0	0	0
	2	8	2	2	0	0

(B)

Table 7.16 (a) shows the first Arabic rater’s evaluation of the written texts. Table 7.16 (b) shows the rating according to the English Department’s evaluating system.

Subjects		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Grammatical Structures	1	60	52	51	52	54	36	33	47	56	46	52	56
	2	51	41	34	50	49	30	31	54	64	51	64	55
Organization	1	55	30	25	47	50	24	38	36	63	57	50	43
	2	38	35	40	41	48	17	23	39	69	34	59	34
Cohesion and Cohesive devices	1	60	21	61	50	31	21	29	28	59	42	44	42
	2	22	33	51	58	44	25	38	46	72	44	66	35

(A)

		0-49	50-64	65-74	75-84	85-100
		Poor	Average	Good	V. Good	Excellent
Grammatical Constructions	1	4	8	0	0	0
	2	5	7	0	0	0
Organization	1	7	5			
	2	10	1	1	0	0
Cohesion and cohesive devices	1	8	4			
	2	8	2	2	0	0

(B)

Table 7.17 (a) shows the first Arabic rater’s evaluation of the written texts. Table 7.17 (b) shows the rating according to the English Department’s evaluating system.

The number of ‘average’ subjects is also similar, with no subjects in the ‘good’ and ‘very good’ categories, let alone the ‘excellent’ one. Table 7.17b indicates, also, a similarity in terms of organisation in Arabic, at which most of the subjects have been rated poor in both essays. With regard to cohesion and cohesive devices, tow thirds of the subjects have been categorised as poor. This category, in particular, is reflected in the poor performance of the subjects in their English essays.

It is therefore not surprising that the standard the of the subjects’ English composition is low. It can be attributed to the fact that writing competence, as well as linguistic

knowledge and poor L1 writing conventions, have their impact on L2 writing processes and product.

Comparing Tables 7.14, 7.15, English, and 7.16, 7.17, Arabic, to see how similar are the performances in both languages, one will be surprised by the findings. As expected, there were only four subjects, (33.3%) rated poor in terms of Arabic grammatical constructions in the first essay; there were 7 subjects, (58%), rated poor in English. 8 subjects, (66.6%), were rated average in Arabic, while there were only 4 in the same English essay category. There were no subjects rated good in Arabic, whereas there was 1 subject rated good in English.

Concerning organisation, there were more subjects rated poor in Arabic than in English, 8 subjects to 5. Controversially, there was a higher number of subjects rated 'good' in English than there were in Arabic, 5 and 4 respectively. Although two subjects were rated 'good' and 'very good' in the first English essay organisation category no subjects were found in these categories in the first Arabic essay.

With regard to *cohesion and cohesive devices*, the 'poor'-rated subjects in the first Arabic essay were numerous, i.e. 9 subjects, or (75%), were rated 'poor', while only 3 subjects, (25%) were rated 'poor' in the first English essay. Moreover, 3 subjects or (25%) were rated 'average' in Arabic, whereas 6 subjects or (50%) were in English. No subjects were rated 'good' or 'very good' in Arabic but there were 2 subjects rated 'good' and 1 subject rated 'very good' in English. The subjects' performance in the second Arabic essay was poor. 8 subjects, or 66.6%, were rated poor in Arabic while only 2 subjects, or 16.6%, were rated poor in English. While there were only 2 subjects rated 'average' and 'good' in Arabic, there were 7 subjects rated 'average' and 2 subjects rated 'good' in English.

The overall evaluation of the second Arabic essay was not different from the first, but did not altogether correspond with the ratings for the second essay in English. In terms of grammatical constructions, 5 subjects, or 41.6%, were rated 'poor' opposed to 6 subjects, or 50%, in the same category in English. 7 subjects (58.3%) were rated 'average', while 6 subjects (50%) were average in English.

With regard to organisation, 8 subjects (66.6%) were rated poor in Arabic compared with 7 subjects (58.3%) in English. That is, the number of poor subjects in Arabic was a little greater than in English. While there were 3 subjects rated 'average' in English organisation, there were 4 in Arabic, which meant the number of subjects rated 'average' in Arabic was a little higher. None of the Arabic subjects was rated 'good' or 'very good' compared with the English essay in which two subjects were rated 'good' and 'very good'.

Cohesion and cohesive devices seemed to be the most difficult area confronting Libyan university students in Arabic composition. Consequently, 8 subjects, or 66.6%, were rated poor, as opposed to 2 subjects, or 16.6%, in English. In addition to 2 subjects (16.6%) rated 'average', 2 more subjects (16.6%) were rated 'good' in Arabic cohesion, which did not correspond with the ratings for this category in which 7 subjects (58.3%) were rated 'average', 2 or 16.6% were 'good' and 1 or 8.3% was 'very good'.

It is apparent that these subjects were suffering from a considerable lack of skill in using Arabic cohesive devices, as a result of the poor instruction they had received throughout their academic life.

Generally, the first Arabic rater's overall comments have attributed the insufficient command of various grammatical aspects, organization and content to the poor background in Arabic writing conventions of the subjects. Also, the poor organisation

and content were correlated with the incorrect utilisation of basic punctuation marks such as full stops and commas. Moreover, the rater's comments included the fact that the subjects' most common problem was illustrated in their use of redundant material, and unnecessary repetition. Most of them lacked concentration and adopted apparent verbosity and circumlocution in their writing. They might have produced better and more meaningful essays if they had focused on succinctness and directly addressed the essay's gist. The poor performance in Arabic writing is a significant finding of this study.

However, my own evaluation of the subjects' written texts in both languages seemed a little different. My first impression of the L2 essays was almost the same as that of the raters, although I had no difficulty in understanding what the subjects wanted to say, as I am familiar with their thinking and culture. I also understood what they meant by many phrases and sentences that they translated literally from Arabic structures. On the other hand, I was shocked by the Arabic written texts of some subjects. These texts were poorly written reflecting their real situation. As mentioned earlier, the subjects relied on the spoken language form to produce their written text, but though colloquial expressions should not be written down at all. I hold that the subjects did much better in English than they did in Arabic.

### **7.8.2 Linguistic Knowledge of Written English**

This section attempts to investigate the problems encountered by the Libyan subjects while writing in English. The written products and raters' evaluations will be examined.

The subjects' linguistic background, before college, seemed almost non-existent or at least did not qualify them to perform any writing tasks. That is, they were not instructed or well-guided as how to write in English as a result of certain factors. The



allotted time for learning English was very short, not more than two classes a week, 45 minutes per class of 40 students. There was no time devoted specifically to writing. Teachers were not trained to teach English as a foreign language. Moreover, some of them did not even specialize in English, but, as subject 5 put it, *'imagine that the one who taught us English in the secondary school specialised in French'*. Consequently, the subjects were not well-qualified to start university-level English. They lacked the basics not only in writing but also in English in general.

Data analysis showed this was the case among all the students of the third year. The teachers' opinions were similar, that their students needed to start from scratch and do a lot more polishing. The subjects have the desire and ambition to learn but they lack the means.

As far as the distance between the L1 and L2 is concerned (Nunan, 1992), learners are often misled by the partial similarities between languages. That is, there are concepts and forms shared by both languages just as there are language-specific ones. In the case of Arabic, the problem is further complicated by the fact that there are two main types of Arabic: MSA and SA (see section 4.7.1). There are differences at all linguistic levels between these two varieties. Libyan students learn English after they have mastered SA as a mother tongue. They start learning MSA as an official language at the elementary level. In this respect, their mastery of SA exceeds their mastery of MSA and they are considered native speakers of SA rather than of MSA. Consequently, much of the transfer affecting their L2 writing was due to their SA repertoire rather than to MSA.

Data from both think-aloud protocols and written texts showed that these subjects had been misled by their SA version at the expense of MSA, which can be clearly seen in the utilisation of the nominal sentences instead of the verbal sentences. Also, a lack of

instruction in L1 writing caused these errors. Feedback and error correction were almost totally neglected, as the subjects confirmed in the interview and questionnaire responses. In addition, teachers who teach Arabic are not writing specialists, and may have no interest in writing.

This section attempts to trace the roots of the lack and misuse of linguistic knowledge that the subjects demonstrated in their writing processes and written products. As a result, the analysis of the essays revealed frequent grammatical, lexical, semantic and syntactic errors brought about by the transfer of Arabic linguistic structures into English

#### **7.8.2.1 Grammatical Errors**

Among the grammatical errors made by these subjects are errors in agreement, articles and prepositions.

##### ***7.8.2.1.1 Agreement***

Arabic verbs agree with their subjects in person, number and gender. The subjects of this study made various subject-verb agreement errors in their essays.

In English, a few adjectives show agreement in number with the nouns they modify, such as 'this/these' and 'that/those'. Other adjectives are used to modify singular as well as plural nouns. In Arabic, however, the situation is different. Adjectives agree in number, gender, and case with the nouns they modify. As a result, agreement errors of this type occurred in the English writings of these subjects. Subject 5 said and wrote (*To me this teacher were ideal teacher and ideal human*) (*The size of classrooms are not wide*). Subject 2 wrote (*There is some teachers like him...*). (*Sometimes he make a quiz and answer difficult questions*). (*My classroom seem clean*). Subject 5 said and wrote (*She were say "I want your feel I am a student like you, .....*). Subject 9 wrote (*some of them was very good. However the other one are*

not fortunatly). (*The classrooms which I have seen is very good and sutible to teach the students*) (...and this itself make me stop talking...) Subject 10 made an agreement error between a noun and a pronoun (*they really has a good teacher*) (...because there is no visual aids, wall charts, books of language). Subject 11 wrote (*because there are a large number of students*). (*There is not any teaching aids*). (*My classroom is not suits the learning process of foreign language*). Subject 1 said and wrote (*our classroom are not big enough to include us because we are too many and the classroom are small for us*).

#### **7.8.2.1.2 Articles**

In English, abstract words referring to ideas, attributes, or qualities are used without the article 'the' to refer to that idea or attribute, etc., which belongs to everybody or everything. In Arabic, however, such abstract words are preceded by the definite article 'al' (the). The English indefinite article has no equivalent in Arabic. Subject 1 wrote (*she hit me hardly when I made mistake*). When describing her teacher, subject 2 said and wrote (*because he is true man and true teacher*). Both subjects dropped the indefinite article in these sentences as a result of L1 interference. Subject 6 wrote (*Dr, linguistic is very nice and good teacher*). Subject 7 wrote (*I want to write about good teacher*). Subject 9 misused the definite article as a result of the interference of Arabic genitive construction (*and the background in teaching the English*). Subject 10 wrote (*he is a good teacher and has a qualifications* ).

#### **7.8.2.1.3 Prepositions**

As mentioned above (see section 4.7.1.4.9), prepositions pose a great difficulty for EFL learners since there are various prepositions in English that perform the same function. Therefore, when learners are not sure which preposition to use in a certain sentence, they compare that sentence with its Arabic equivalent, giving a literal

translation of the Arabic preposition in English. This is exactly what was found in the texts of these subjects. Subject 1 said and wrote (*there was a teacher taught me in math*) since the spoken Arabic version would be 'in' followed by the word 'subject of math'. Subject 2 wrote (*he was looking in my paper*), since the preposition used in Arabic is equivalent to 'in'. She also said and wrote (*I was afraid from this new life*) since the Arabic version is equivalent to 'from'. Subject 3 said and wrote (*I had met a strange one in the third year in school*) as the Arabic is equivalent to 'in' rather than 'at'. As a result of a lack of particle verbs in Arabic, subject 3 wrote (*but I think they must be supplied by required techniques which helps*) instead of 'with'. Subject 5 wrote (*my teacher Halima was sit on the first desk, because she don't like sit in her private chair*) since the Arabic version of the first word is equivalent to 'on' but the second preposition has no equivalent in Arabic. Subject 9 wrote (*The good doctors can always be remembered from the students*) since the Arabic word is equivalent to 'from'.

#### 7.8.2.1.4 Singular vs. Plural Words

The difficulty arises when constructing plural words in English, specially the irregular ones (see section 4.7.1.4.7). Also Arab EFL learners are unable to determine whether a certain word is singular or plural based on its form alone. Some words that end with the plural form 's' are actually singular in number, whereas others indicate a singular or plural number while maintaining the same form. It is natural that Arabic EFL learners resort to literal translation from Arabic when determining whether a particular English word is singular or plural. The following examples were written by the subjects: subject 9 wrote (*that glasses is not avaluable in our windows*). The word 'glass' takes the plural form in Arabic and can be plural in number. One may see here that this subject has also misused the subject-verb agreement.



#### 7.8.2.1.5 Sentence Order

Sentence order is an important aspect of linguistic knowledge that students must learn.

The current subjects, as they admitted, were not taught how sentences were ordered in English, so they applied what they had learnt in their L1 when they wrote in English.

An investigation of the subjects' protocols and written products revealed that some subjects had, consciously or unconsciously, used the Arabic sentence order instead of the English. That is, they used '*and*' excessively as the most likely sentence connector to reflect what is called 'parallelism', which is very common in Arabic writing, although not always acceptable. Rater 2 in particular noticed this phenomenon among a large proportion of the subjects' essays. For example, subject 5 said, and wrote, (*I will talk about my teacher in high school, her name*), subject 6 (*there are good teacher and there are bad teacher, they are such as grammar teacher*); subject 9 (*in my life study*) and problems in punctuation and capitalization such as in (*My class room has about fifty chairs. and black board. and three windows. and one door. and lights*).

#### 7.8.2.1.6 Tenses

Most subjects complained about tense usage in English. The main difficulty they encountered was in how to distinguish between the past simple and present perfect tenses. Subject 12, for example, admitted (*I have a problem in tenses, the past tense and the present perfect*). Some subjects had problems with modal verbs. Subject 1 wrote (*But there was another teacher taught science. and she deals kindly*). Subject 5 wrote (*she was laughing and talk with us and mak jokes at first*). There were several errors in modal verbs as well: subject 10 wrote (*the good must knows*).

#### 7.8.2.1.7 Vocabulary

Due to their limited English vocabulary, Libyan EFL learners frequently translate words from Arabic to express a certain idea in English, unaware of the English collocations i.e., word 'A' in a certain English sentence coexists with word 'B' and not with 'C' even though 'B' and 'C' may be synonymous. In other words, one word in Arabic can be translated into English by several words. It remains for students to determine which word collocates with the meaning expressed in the sentence. The following lexical errors are, therefore, made by these subjects. Subject 1 wrote '*in my thoughts*' instead of '*in my opinion*'. '*degrees*' for '*marks*'. Subject 7 wrote (*she carry us*) instead of '*she cares for us*'. Subject 5 wrote '*our teacher was big*' instead of '*old*'. Some subjects wrote Arabic words in stead of English equivalents when they got stuck. Subject 7 (Dr. فاطمة (trans. Fatma) is very nice in the طرق التدريس ((Teaching methods)).

#### 7.8.2.1.8 Punctuation

This is a very problematic area for all Arab EFL learners and mainly Libyan students because they were not taught how important punctuation is in L1 and as mentioned above (see section 7.8.2) they learn and master SA before MSA. They, therefore, started learning English with no interest in punctuation marks. They were surprised that punctuation was so important and influential in writing. One of the main remarks was that the subjects spent a considerable part of the essay r revisions reviewing the form and the position of punctuation marks. However, not all subjects saw punctuation as a serious problem like vocabulary or spelling. Subject 9, for example, wrote (*My class room has about fifty chairs. and black board. and three windows. and one door. and lights*).The reader is referred to all the Arabic copies, mainly subject 3 essays, attached in appendix 16.

### 7.8.2.2 Semantic errors

Semantic and often funny errors occur when students use literal translation to convey in English flowery Arabic expressions, idioms or proverbs. This, they hope, will enrich their essays. The outcome is disappointing. Subject 10 wrote *'the oral teacher'* meaning the teacher who teaches them Lab, instead of saying 'the teacher of oral classes' for example. Subject 7 wrote the following (*This كل هذا ((all this)) his all from sabbatarian المسؤولين ((people in charge)) or أما الدول الخارجية ((but the foreign countries)) Dhole out twardness or out خارج ليبيا ((outside Libya))*).

### 7.8.2 3 Organisational Errors

The clumsy essays written by subject 6 are good examples of organisational errors. Both raters indicated these essays did not make sense because the subject had used a lot of Arabic and put the English sentences in an unstructured way which made it difficult, if not impossible to grasp what she had been trying to say.

*(there are good teacher and there are bad teacher in the universtey. such as Grammar teach is good teacher. and Dr, lingustic is very nice and good teach, there are dislike teacher in secondry school such as in subject gergraph جغرافيا (Geography) Becouse dislike تصرفات (Behaviors), there are differents teacher of them varities are very bad I don't like, Becouse التدريس طرق (Teaching methods) differents from teacher grammar. Dr. فاطمة (Fatma) is very nice in the طرق التدريس (Teaching methods) Becouse always solation exercius always مهتمة بنا (taking care of us) carry us).*

Arabic essays seemed even worse to me. She wrote:

يوجد أساتذة مختلفين في مدرسة منهم الجيد ومنهم مش كويس "ردئ". الابالات في مدرسة (  
الابتدائية تختلف عن الابالات في مدرسة الثانوية ومنهم الجامعة، أبله علم التفسير مدرسة جيدة لانها  
دائماً تراجع في الدروس التي أعطيتاهم  
أما في الثانوي أحسن أبله الانجليزي لانها طرق التدريس جيده جداً. أما في الجامعة هناك دكاترة  
ممتازين ومنهم الردئ في طرق التدريس ويجب كل دكتور يعطي حق الطالب في الدراسة لان منهم لا  
يعطي حق الطالب في الدراسة. أما دكتورة قواعد في سنة ثالثة كويسة كويسة لانها دائماً تراجعنا في  
دروس التي تعطي فيهم. كذلك في الابتدائي هو الاساس في تعلم طالب خاصة في المرحلة الاولى سنة  
اولى ابتدائي لو كانت الابله جيدة فان طالب يظهر أو يطلع ممتاز والعكس. كذلك أنا لما كنت في صف  
الاول درستني أبله جيدة في طرق التدريس . فانا طلعت أو ظهرت ممتازة ولكن في جامعة "نص-نص  
هذا يعني إلى الدكاترة التي يدرسوا فيا منهم الجيد ومنهم.

The underlined words and sentences reflect the erroneous extent this subject suffers in every area, form, organisation and content.

### 7.8.3 Teachers' Views

The teachers' views on the linguistic knowledge of the subjects seem consistent to a large extent with the very personal attitudes and reservations that these teachers had about the students. When interviewed, the teachers explained what the most difficult linguistic areas were for their students, of whom our subjects represent a small sample.

Teacher 1 was explicit in introducing her point of view about the students and about why these linguistic problems prevailed among the majority (see appendix 7b). When asked 'what part of English do you think that Libyan students find as the most difficult?', her response was clear. She summarised the subjects' linguistic problems as lying in the rules of English writing. That is, the subjects did not comprehend these rules yet; so even if they could talk and communicate simply orally, these ideas could not be well- conveyed textually because the subjects did not know the writing rules in English. She also selected 'capitalization, spelling and punctuation' as examples of the difficult linguistic aspects *'you know, using of capitals and punctuation, all that is difficult for them. The spelling (is difficult) as well'*. She explained why English writing was difficult for them by adding another linguistic aspect which she considered to be the most important. Confirming that the subjects wanted and were able to generate good ideas but that their problems lay in the lexical repertoire, she said *'Yes, of course, because they don't have vocabulary at their command. They know exactly what they want to write but they cannot'*. She confirmed that Libyan students did not apply the writing rules, even if they knew them. Responding to the



question, 'Do you think Libyan students apply writing rules?' she promptly and confidently said, 'No'.

**Teacher 2** claimed that grammar was the linguistic problem, because English grammar is different from that of Arabic '*mastery of grammar, English grammar. It's important for the Libyan students*' because '*it's different. There are a lot of differences*'. When asked 'do you think that Libyan students apply the writing rules?' his answer was reasonable. He explained that '*most of them don't use the writing rules because they are influenced by L1. Even if there are rules in Arabic writing, they are different, e.g. letter writing*'.

**Teacher 3** confirmed that what the students had always complained about were in fact the most difficult linguistic aspects. He summarised these as being '*words, grammar, and spelling*' despite his constant advice to them not to believe it. When asked whether the Libyan students apply writing rules, his answer was that he had been doing his best to teach them how to use such rules when writing in English '*we used to teach them these rules, how to start, how to go on, how to finish. Definitely they have difficulty but they are improving in different degrees*'.

**Teacher 4** was more negative when defining the difficulties his students encountered. He said that writing is not taught abstractly but a teacher should think of other elements directly or indirectly related to make the writing meaningful. He emphasised organisation as being the most crucial part of writing the subjects lacked. He also referred to various other types of mistake in vocabulary, mainly word choice, spelling, word order, grammar, structural mistakes, tenses, prepositions and relative pronoun mistakes. When asked whether Libyan students apply writing rules in English, his answer was '*it depends on the students' background, those who were born or taught abroad in UK, USA, or Canada, though very rare, they apply rules and know how to*

*write. But the majority, 90% of them, don't know the principles and mechanics of writing. They write just as it goes'.*

The teachers' questionnaire and interview responses revealed that the students had difficulties in all linguistic aspects. Two teachers considered grammatical structures '*very difficult*' whereas the other two considered them to be '*fairly difficult*'. 50% of the teachers categorised punctuation and sentence connection as '*very difficult*'. One teacher evaluated punctuation, sentence connection, organization, paragraph building, and other features as '*fairly difficult*'. There was consensus among the teachers that these linguistic aspects were difficult in general. Only teacher 1 thought that organisation and paragraph building would be '*easy*' for the students. 75% of the teachers confirmed that spelling was '*very difficult*' for the Libyan students. When asked 'do your student writers apply the English writing rules?' 25% said they '*rarely*' did, whereas 75% indicated that the students '*sometimes*' applied the rules.

From the tables above, and from the interviews, questionnaires, and written products as well as the teachers' opinions one may select the following factors as the most influential of low scores among these subjects:

- 1) Lack of experience in English composition as a result of poor instruction and time allotted for teaching English in pre-college schooling.
- 2) Lack of English linguistic knowledge.

Generally speaking, the teachers seemed to agree that the majority of the Libyan students needed special care and help in all aspects of linguistic knowledge, because they were not properly taught and prepared during their pre-college learning. I think what the Libyan students need is not only for their English learning to be enhanced, but also they desperately need a new teaching methodology in L1 that would prepare them for foreign language learning.

## 7.9 Sub-Research Question 2

### *Do Arabic Rhetorical Patterns Affect The Subjects' English Writing? OR, Are Arabic Rhetorical Patterns Transferred into The Subjects' L2 Writing?*

Negative transfer, or interference, of mother tongue writing conventions into the writing of the target language has been one of the foci in contrastive rhetoric since the emergence of Kaplan's seminal work (1966) (see section 4.6). It has been assumed that each language and culture has its own unique rhetorical conventions, which negatively interfere with L2 writing (Kaplan, 1966, 1972, 1988; Grabe and Kaplan, 1989). Such interference occurs even when languages are very similar in origin (like the European languages) and even more so when the languages are entirely different in origin, like the two languages in question.

Studies designed specifically to analyse English essays written by non-native speakers, EFL/ESL students, have concluded that some unusual discourse features that are manifest in the essays may be attributed to the transfer of L1 rhetorical conventions, confirming L1 interference in L2 writing. Some studies analysed both L1 and L2 texts and identified the interference based on the L1-L2 textual similarities, while others found no evidence supporting such L1-L2 transfer.

Contrastive rhetoric studies, however, have speculated about, L1-L2 transfer by examining ESL essays only, to view the L1-L2 transfer as a group rather than within-subject phenomenon, and thus overlooking the possibility of positive transfer. Thus, this study designed to involve both Arabic, L1, and English, L2, writing by the same subjects, on the same topics, and within-subject analyses of text structures and writing quality, in order to explore certain questions regarding L1-L2 transfer of rhetorical styles.

The L1 transfer will thus be looked at by means of an examination of the written texts of the subjects, the raters' overall evaluation, the teachers' views, and the subjects' views as to the effect of L1 on L2 writing.

### **7.9.1 Raters' Views**

The two native English-speaking raters showed consensus that the subjects' essays included several deficiencies. These deficiencies included an absence of paragraphing within the general discourse; organisation deviated from what the English reader might expect, and incoherent ideas caused segmentation and lack of paragraph-coherence as a result of an illogical linear development of the theme; parallelism, repetition, and super-fluous material, as a result of poor lexical competence, confused and misled readers; overuse of the co-ordinator '*and*' detracted from the quality of the essays; and the vagueness of thought, as interpreted by these raters, made it hard to follow the development of some essays (see section 7.5.3).

The raters' remarks focused on two things: paragraph style and paragraph organisation. Remarks on the former indicated that some subjects had made the necessary points, but that their style was awkward for native speakers to read, as rater one put it, commenting on some subjects' essays (*sounds much more narrative than textualized*). In other words, some sentences were very long; there was a use of redundant phrases, and the repetition of certain ideas complicated the 'run-on compositions', which exhibited the further imbalance of the paragraphing. Remarks on the latter showed that some subjects used many unconnected facts to reiterate earlier points. Some could organise their sentences in paragraphs. Some repeated their ideas in a circular but not cumulative way, caused by the use of L1 parallelism which appeared in the English essays. The first rater commented (*although the individual aspects of this writing are good, I didn't find the overall meaning very coherent*). It



has long been perceived that Arabs' English writing could be recognised by the infrequent use of subordination and the overuse of co-ordination constructions. Also, some of the subjects' essays included material unrelated to the topic of the essay, while some paragraphs did not hang together the way they should for communication purposes.

### ***7.9.2 Subjects' Views***

The subjects' interviews and questionnaires include items asking about how they had been instructed to write compositions in both languages. Their answers reflected the different backgrounds in rhetorical instruction and the ways in which the two languages differ. There was consensus among subjects that they had not received any type of instruction in their Arabic writing, or in English, before college. In other words, these subjects, like other students, were generally self-dependent in learning how to write. Feedback and correction were aimed at form and mechanical errors, while organisation and content were entirely neglected (see appendix 6a, b, and c; appendix 7a)

Most of the Arab writings have been described as subjective and impressionistic. This might be attributed, as Kharma (1985) believes, to the students' confusion 'between the objective, logical treatment of a point and a judgement of its value' (p. 20). As in their Arabic writing, their English appeared to be dependent on the colloquial and informal type of the language in which subjectivity prevails.

On this basis, we investigated the mistakes committed more frequently by these subjects in their essays both in Arabic and English.

In terms of mistakes in paragraphing, some subjects 6, 7 and 10, for example, produced segmented sentences rather than coherent paragraphs. Neither definite ideas nor the objectives were conveyed. That is, the subjects were not taught how to set up a

paragraph in their L1 because feedback and corrections were concerned with form and not with organisation or content. Most subjects lacked the motivation to generate ideas for topics, which were suggested by the teachers, not by the subjects themselves. Subjects 4, 5 and 6, for example, said, in their own words *'they write the title on the blackboard and ask us to write about it at home. So I give to my father to write it for me. They did not teach us how to write'*.

Some of the essays were not even minimally organised. Subject 7, for example, wrote scattered, slang term sentences conveying no meaning. This subject's essays were characterised by a total lack of organisation and ubiquitous mistakes everywhere. Both of her two essays lacked paragraphing, i.e. each essay could have been organised into more than one paragraph. Mistakes were made in punctuation, capitalisation, and linking devices, as well as in the repetition of the connector *'and'*. The subordinators used included *'although'* by subject 5 who was the only one too use quotation marks when conveying her teacher's advice, *'I want your feel I am a student like you, I don't want you feel I am a teacher. Consider me your sister or friend and don't make* (wrote the word in Arabic) *between us'*; subject 10 used the subordinating device *'so'* when began some sentences; subject 11 used words *'finally'* and *'generally'* when concluding his essays. Subject 12 used the words *'generally'* and *'consequently'*.

In general, the subjects were not trained to use subordination devices as an advanced alternative to co-ordination, so they transferred their earlier L1 writing experience into L2 writing, which made their English essays sound immature.

Repetition, which is common in Arabic writing styles, appears frequently in their English essays. Most of the subjects have made unnecessary repetitions in order to emphasise their views. However, this repetition seemed more redundant in English, and confused the English reader, rather than helping him to follow the reading of the

essay. Repetition in these subjects' essays could be attributed to their lack of lexical repertoire, synonyms and antonyms in particular. It was clear that the use of repetition and flowery language, common in Arabic, had been transferred into L2 as a result of the subjects' poor command of English, which did not enable them to use the lexis flexibly. It was also clear that some subjects tended to use long sentences without any insertion of appropriate punctuation marks which assist the reader to determine the boundaries of each phrasal chunk. Most of the subjects used the indirect way of expressing themselves, which is completely different from the English style of writing. Lack of paragraphing and organisation, as well as of content coherence, were clearly an L1 transfer.

All subjects stated that they were not taught how to develop their essay writing in Arabic. Instruction about organisation and content was neglected in L1 writing. The only feedback received focused on mechanical problems.

It was clear that the majority of these subjects tended to write short essays in both languages as a result of the fact that they were more concerned with accuracy than with fluency, which made the unit-size of the discourse perforce small in scale. These subjects, like others, were not taught how to write in L1, nor were they instructed in writing in English during pre-college stages. Accordingly, their focus was on spelling and grammar while writing in English; however, they did not pay much attention to these two aspects in their L1 writing.

The indications from the protocols, interviews, questionnaires, and written products were that the difficulties for Libyan-third year student writers resulted from the differences between Arabic and English language conventions with regard to rhetoric and cultural orientation. In comparison with English teaching and educational practices, Libyan students spend much less time learning to write in their L1. That is,

L1 writing, either at early or advanced stages, was totally neglected, and this background was reflected in the students' poor performance. Consequently, the poor writing skills in L1 could be easily transferred when these subjects started to compose in English, reflecting poor writing competence and poor command of writing conventions. It was also clear that when these subjects took up English composition practice they were typically under-exposed to the rhetorical and invention devices that they would need to make pure translations of sentences from L1 into L2, i.e. L2 discourse and rhetorical organisation were totally ignored. This main study finding could be seen in the reflection of the subjects' background and attitudes about writing in both languages and the effect of L1 on L2 rhetoric and conventions in many aspects such as organisation, content, grammatical constructions, vagueness, and incoherence.

### ***7.9.3 Teachers' Views***

The teachers' responses to the problems facing their students emphasised the point the students made. All the teachers indicated that the subjects' L1 influenced their L2 compositions in terms of vocabulary and grammar, while 50% extended their views to include punctuation, sentence connection and organisation. One teacher, I do not know why, considered English spelling to be influenced by L1, even though there is no relationship between the two languages in this regard (see appendix 6d, item 8).

In order to give a more detailed explanation of the rhetoric problems that faced the third-year Libyan university students, this study attempted to determine whether these subjects had been aware of the importance of the reader when producing their Arabic and English compositions. We also investigated the issue of whether or not they were able to observe the components of the English rhetorical structure when approaching their English essays.



#### 7.9.4 Audience

Although the researcher did not make any explicit reference to audience, some subjects happened to consider the importance of their readers, as shown by the responses of interview questions. From these responses, it became clear that some subjects fully understood the role of audience, though their definition was not clear: were they writing for the researcher, or for other readers who might draw conclusions from these essays?

Answering the question 'do you identify your audience when you write?' subject 1 said *'it is always different from one to another, but I do identify my audience'*. Subjects 2, 4, 9, 10 and 11 said *'yes I do'*. Subject 5 misunderstood the question and said *'no I write for my own'* then she corrected herself *'it is necessary to consider the readers'*. Subject 6: *'I always consider others in my writing'*. Subject 7 was quite aware of the importance of the audience and was concerned about their opinions: *'yes, and I always hope they like what I write'*. Subject 12 made it clear that the reader was the target of his writing *'of course, you are not writing for yourself but you are writing for someone else. So you put in mind that there different kinds of people and culture you are writing to. You keep that in mind. You try to make yourself understood and clear'*.

Generally, the majority of the subjects demonstrated that they been aware of the concept of audience when they wrote in both languages. The teachers, on the other hand, presented a different evaluation of the students' concern with audience. When asked *'Do Libyan students demonstrate concern with audience in their English writing?'* Teacher 1 claimed that her students paid attention to the issue of their audience, but that they had a problem with the tools which help them communicate well and smoothly: *'yes, they do. They want to rather. They want to but their problem*

*is the tools they have are so limited. They are not able to do that, to communicate'. Teacher 2 thought that the students' concern with audience was limited and that they were only 'supposed to write to their lecturers. I mean they are concerned with these readers'. 'They lack motivation' to pay attention to the idea of an audience. Unlike other teachers, teacher 4 was pessimistic about his students' audience interests because, as he thought, 'they just write and they just finish the task without thinking of who is going to read it. That is, most of them but there are some students, very rare, some students who think of who is going to read what they write. The majority just want to write and finish'.*

It was clear that the subjects had considered their audience to be either their teachers or outside readers. During the interviews, the subjects referred to the fact that the researcher was their audience in these topics. It was obvious that the subjects wanted to address the researcher by giving him as much information as they could. Their responses to some of the interview questions, such as the last question 'what do you think of the writing process approach?' seemed overly polite and courteous.

Although some subjects' essays were confusing and not well-organised, they did have an awareness of audience which might be developed if they were trained and well-instructed.

#### ***7.9.5 Rhetorical knowledge of English Writing***

The subjects' interviews and questionnaires indicated that, in their opinion, Arabic and English were different languages in every respect, which made it difficult for the subjects to comprehend many aspects of English, particularly English rhetoric. Teachers confirmed this difficulty, though not explicitly with reference to rhetoric, when asked '*What part of English do you think that Libyan students find most difficult?*' They said that poor pre-college English teaching and learning made them

unable to keep up with English writing requirements. That is, if they had had enough instruction and had acquired a good command of English during their foundation and basic learning stages, they would be now able to approach English writing well and successfully (see appendix 7b, 1 and 3).

The protocols and written production analysis showed that the subjects desperately needed to learn how to use the concepts of introduction, support, conclusion and organisation appropriately in order to write cohesively and coherently.

The areas of rhetorical knowledge chosen for examination in this study were easily spotted in the subjects' English essays. Although they tried to apply what they had grasped about rhetoric, most of them failed to introduce and support their ideas, since they had not been taught how to apply the concepts of introduction and support. Most subjects, 83%, confirmed that they *'had not taken any English composition at all before college'* (see appendix 6a, item 4).

The teachers' questionnaire responses to the related questions confirmed the difficulties encountered by the Libyan students while writing in English. The question, *'do your students have difficulties in any of the following while writing in English?'* was aimed at determining which were the areas that hindered the students most when writing. The responses varied according to each teacher's perception. **Teacher 1** thought all areas except organisation and paragraph building, were *'very difficult'*. She rated organisation and paragraph as *'not difficult'*. Such a response might be attributed to the fact that the students had not mastered the basic elements of the language so they might be able to produce well organized paragraphs once they commanded them. **Teacher 2** referred to subordination and co-ordination as *'very difficult'* though he did not deny the importance of organization and paragraph building and referred to them as *'difficult'*. **Teacher 3** rated organization and

paragraph building as *'fairly difficult'* while teacher 4 rated them as *'very difficult'* and added that the students have difficulty in *'paragraph integrity and coherence'*.

The question 'do you think that Arabic influences your student writers when they write in English?' was another question related to the effect of Arabic style on English writing. Teachers' responses confirmed such an influence on various aspects of writing. All of them considered Arabic 'grammar and vocabulary' to exist widely in the students' English writing. Two teachers pointed out that Arabic punctuation, sentence connection and organisation had worked their way into the English writing of their students. Only one teacher said that Arabic spelling had affected her students' English writing, I could not believe that she was really serious.

Teachers were also asked about the similarities and differences between Arabic and English 'To what extent do you think that English is different from Arabic?' Two teachers pointed out that the languages were *'totally different'* from each other; one teacher said that English was *'fairly different'*; whereas the fourth one claimed it was merely *'different'*. The last two teachers were either unthinking about their answers or did not know both languages.

Concerning the application of English rules application, 'do your student writers apply English writing rules, conventions, rhetoric, mechanics, etc., when writing in English?' the teachers did not entirely agree. While three of them stated that students *'sometimes'* applied these rules, one teacher claimed that they *'rarely'* did.

Such responses did not explicitly either confirm or reject the students' implementation of English rules of rhetoric. Thus, it would be helpful to look at the subjects' protocols and written products to investigate how they approached their English essays in terms of rhetoric.



### 7.9.5.1 Introduction

The first issue of written rhetoric examined was the use of an introduction. Although Taher (1990) pointed out that the nature of introduction in both languages, Arabic and English, is equally important, the raters indicated that subjects 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 9 had provided poor introductions to their essays, in particular essay two.

The introduction is an important part of any essay because it gives the readers a clear indication of the topic. Most of the essays in question showed that the subjects had failed to use an appropriate introduction. For instance, subject 1 started her first essay by mentioning the relationship between students and teachers and its effect on learning. She failed to state exactly what she wanted to say and where she was leading her reader. She was not influenced by the essay and topic prompts. Her sentences were disjointed without any appropriate connectors that could make the sentence or the meaning flow smoothly. Subject 6, on the other hand, wrote a very weak introduction, i.e. she failed to introduce the fact that she was going to respond to the prompts. She misled the reader by introducing him to *'there are good teacher and there are bad teacher in the university'*. These subjects and others seemed unaware of the importance of introducing their essays clearly.

The teachers indicated that the introduction issue was part of their teaching material and curriculum, because they were using a bottom-up approach. Teachers 3 and 4 were interested in this issue and tried to make their students aware of it.

The first rater's comments concerned the issue of the rhetorical clarity and accuracy of the subjects. For instance, her comments on subject 4's first essay were: *'interesting, this subject uses complex vocabulary and his/her message comes across powerfully, despite some weaknesses in the grammar'*, whereas her assertion that this subject needed more improvement in paragraphing was clear in essay 2, *'Again, a*

*strong message. It would be improved by more careful use of punctuation and paragraphing*'. Subject 5 was criticised for her *'long sentences and missing of capitalization'* which made the essay weak and distorted. Subject 6 wrote the worst essays in all aspects-*'very difficult to understand'*-either because of the use of Arabic or word order and the disconnected nature of sentences.

Generally, most of the essays were short and consisted of one paragraph, which did not give a correct picture of the writing levels of these subjects. The introduction did not exceed a sentence or at most two sentences, generally badly connected and disjointed. It was apparent that the subjects had not been instructed in how to use the introduction to introduce what they wanted to say. They needed more instruction to help them develop and enhance this ability during their exposure to English writing.

#### ***7.9.5.2 Usage of Support***

The second rhetoric issue that seemed weak or even non-existent was the support sentences in the English writing by the Libyan students. Some subjects were apparently unable to support their main ideas or to explain them in such way as to help their readers figure out where they were heading. Support sentences are stylistically used in Arabic through examples, Holy Quran citation, the Prophet's sayings, popular proverbs, and poetry. That is, the subjects already knew the importance of support sentences but they did not know how to use them in English, either because of their poor command of English or due to ignorance of their importance with regard to English readers. Raters found that many subjects had not used support sentences and rated them poor in this regard. Subjects 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9 and 10 used support poorly in both essays. This fact reflects the subjects' poor command of writing conventions in L1 which, in turn, made it difficult for them to figure out its importance in L2.

### 7.9.5.3 Conclusion

The last rhetoric issue is the conclusion. Subjects seemed aware of this aspect of rhetoric but failed to approach it correctly, either because they did not understand its significance or were not instructed in how to conclude their essays when writing in English. Some subjects were not quite sure of the importance of the conclusion so they thought of its broader sense and concluded their essays with one single sentence that often did not show the purpose of the essays. Some believed it was merely a required part, not as essential as any other part of the writing process. In most of the essays, conclusions did not reflect the whole idea of the topic because they were too short, mainly one sentence, to convey the main ideas behind the essay. They misunderstood the idea that the conclusion should link the main idea of the text to the future, or to broader issues not specifically covered in the essay (Leki, 1989). In this short paragraph, the writer should conclude his ideas and refer the reader to the significance of the essay and to where he could find more related information if needed.

The teachers stated that their students were unaware of the function of the conclusion due to the nature of pre-college schooling in English. They forgot that these students had not been taught how to conclude their composition essays in Arabic, as it was an important part of the whole essay.

The raters were aware of the importance of this issue so their overall comments and grading included some brief remarks in this regard. They found that subjects 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7 and 9, or 58%, of the subjects concluded their essays weakly. Moreover, subjects 6 and 7 did not give any type of conclusion. Concerning subject 6, rater 1 said '*the meaning is not clear immediately*' because she did not make any transition from the body of the essay to the conclusion. Subject 2 wrote more of a '*narrative essay*', in

which it was really hard to figure out where it ended. Although subject 3 explored a *'strong point with some interesting details'*, she failed to end with a suitable conclusion. Subject 5's essay was generally affected by her handwriting and her misuse of capitalisation, which hindered the raters' understanding of the whole essay. Subject 6 wrote in segmented phrases full of Arabic expressions and vocabulary, which meant the raters were unable to evaluate what had been written in English. Subject 7 was similar to subject 6 in her overuse of Arabic in the English essay, which led to a complete misunderstanding of the topic. Subject 9 was successful in some respects, but his concluding ideas were not consistent with the rest of the essay, which affected the overall meaning.

Most subjects, regardless of what they said, appeared unaware of the importance of the conclusion, and needed more specific instruction on this issue, as with other aspects of writing. They needed to improve in terms of observing English rhetorical structure in their writing.

The analysis above shows that some subjects tended to use long sentences unnecessary in English, which is also a reflection of the Arabic style, where using long sentences is common.

Rhetorical duality (Halimah, 2001) was evident in most of the subjects' English essays. That is, their long-winded approach to the text topic reflected the influence of the Arabic style of writing, as in the flowery introductory information given before the text topic had been introduced. Tautology was another problem: words were repeated unnecessarily in both English and Arabic versions, i.e. examples lacked precision and conciseness.



Culturally speaking, the majority of the subjects showed a tendency to give a religious dimension to the introduction of their arguments, i.e. they used the religious formula “in the name of God, the Compassionate, the Merciful”.

On the basis of this discussion, research question 2 has been answered and we may conclude that the rhetoric patterns of L1 at a variety of levels have clearly been used in the English written tasks by these subjects (see section 7.8).

### **7.10 Sub-Research Question 3**

*How does instruction influence the writing process and product among Libyan students?*

This question will be answered by an analysis of the subjects’ responses in their interviews and questionnaires, and by examining their written tasks. The teachers’ responses will also be used, and compared with the subjects’ responses. In addition, a variety of factors, including the students’ and teachers’ characteristics and attitudes, as well as the teachers’ qualifications and the type of writing process they adopted, are considered with regard to the students’ outcomes in mutually interactive and reinforcing ways.

There is in fact no clear syllabus that may reflect the writing curriculum in L1 or L2 during the pre-college stages. The writing tasks are chosen by the L1 writing teachers who usually concentrate on descriptive topics, based on the historical, religious, and national events. The L2 attached syllabus illustrates the assumed writing tasks unless teachers tend to change them according to certain reasons such as class size, time allotted for writing and the students background (see appendix 10).

Purves et al. (1988) indicated that the most apparent differences in the acquisition of rhetorical as opposed to grammatical skills are that L1 grammar is perceived naturally within the home environment, while L1 as well as L2 rhetoric are learned at school, which, in turn, reflects the power and effectiveness of instruction. Mohan and Lo

(1985) attribute the students' lack of English writing skills not to cultural thought patterns but rather to developmental factors. That is, the major cause of problems in writing seems to be the instructional emphasis on sentence-level accuracy rather than on discourse organisation.

Instruction differs from one teacher to another according to the teacher's background and attitudes towards the language. Native-speaking teachers (NST) have different views of instruction from non-native speaking (NNST) teachers. NSTs were more tolerant of grammar errors as well as errors in formal accuracy by ESL students than NNSTs. Many studies have focused on how accurately a teacher corrects errors and what kind of errors a teacher tends to correct (Sheory, 1986; Kobayashi, 1992). Although these studies were limited to an investigation of error correction and instructions, a more recent study conducted by Usui and Asaoka (1999) found that differences in philosophy, perception of problems, feedback procedure and types among teachers could not simply be explained by the differences in their native languages, but were more closely related to these teachers' past experience, beliefs, the programmes, and students' needs and goals. Furthermore, educational background and teaching and learning experiences appeared to cause these personal differences among teachers.

#### ***7.10.1. Subjects' Interviews***

In addition to poor instruction in Arabic writing courses, the subjects expressed their utmost concern about their instruction in English writing during their pre-college learning. There was quasi-consensus among them that they had received no writing tuition at all (see appendix 6a).

The subjects' responses to the relevant interview questions revealed explored the subjects' reactions to instruction. The first related question, '*did they use English or*

*Arabic instruction while teaching during pre-college period?* was answered according to each subject's background. Subjects 1, 5 and 7 indicated that all their instruction had been carried out in Arabic, while the other subjects (75%) confirmed that instruction had been in both languages, but no subject indicated that instruction had been totally in English. Subject 2 said *'sometimes they use Arabic and...'* sometimes they used English, logically. Subject 4 was more elaborate *'they were three. The first, because it's the first that we, that she teach us English, she used to speak Arabic. The other one, the third one they were they learn us how to speak in English'*. Subject 6 pointed out that *'they speak in English at the beginning, then they speak in Arabic'*. When asked *'what do you think of your writing teachers?'* Subject 1 was diplomatic and realistic and did not put all the blame on the teacher: *'we don't blame him. He teaches us as if we were actually qualified but in fact we were not'*. Subject 2 put it honestly that *'frankly, I don't have any problem in Arabic. but you cannot find what you want in the teachers. They taught us a little about English writing , how to write a sentence while in secondary school'*. Subject 4 judged the teachers of both languages: *'in Arabic they did not teach us how to write. In English, only this year we have a teacher who really teach how to write and how to make a topic, and how to start. And how to conclude our, the paragraph and that's all'*. Subject 5 was passive and irritated *'composition does not have certain rules. What all they do is that the teacher tells you the title and asks you to write about it. So I ask my father to write it for me. Moreover, they sometimes just write the title on the board and never tell us what to do'*. Subject 6 made it clear that their teachers *'concentrate on what they write only'*. Subject 8 was fair enough when she said *'at the beginning they instruct us in Arabic because we cannot understand them. Even in secondary*

*school they use the same. They were not fluent and they just consider the English as a subject not as a language'.*

Most subjects were negative about their writing teachers in both languages. Responding to the question *'do they instruct in Arabic or in English, at college?'* all subjects confirmed that instruction was in English, and very rarely, or with a little supplementary material in Arabic. Concerning the question *'what do you think of Arabic writing teaching?'* all responses were similar in that these subjects had not received any type of instruction in Arabic writing. The only exception was subject 8 who was honest and fair towards her Arabic writing teachers: *'in general they did not teach us how to write except one teacher'*. In terms of responses to the question *'what do you think of English writing teaching at college?'* subject 2 put it bluntly: *'they follow the textbook and handouts'*. Subject 4 was quite happy: *'it's good. It makes us to write in a good way'*. Subject 5 felt that she was learning English writing: *'I feel that there are rule for English writing'*. Subject 10 was fair enough: *'in secondary school some teachers tried to do something. In the university they are much better'*. All subjects were positive and satisfied with how they were taught, although subject 8 was an exception and much more ambitious: *'it is not taught as it should be, in all ways, they do teach us but not as much as we need'*.

In general, none of the subjects was satisfied with the English writing instruction provided during their pre-college schooling, but they were all more positive about it at the university. They were extremely concerned about Arabic writing teaching at all stages.

#### **7.10.2 Subjects' Questionnaires**

The relevant question in the 'Background and attitudes' questionnaire, related question *'how often did you write English compositions before college?'* showed that



67% of the subjects had not been taught English composition before college, while 33% had learned it once a week (see appendix 6a, b and c). To the question in the 'Writing-Process Strategies' questionnaire, when writing composition '*does your teacher's instruction help you?*', 67% replied that it '*helps a lot*' '*before*' English writing while 33% said it '*helps a lot*' '*before*' Arabic writing; 42% said it '*helps a little*', 8% it '*does not help much*', and 17% it '*does not help at all*' before Arabic writing. On the other hand, 67% said it '*helps a lot*', 25% said that it '*helps a little*' and 8% it '*does not help much*' before English writing. 17% said it '*helps a lot*', 17% '*it helps a little*', 33% '*it does not help much*' and 33% '*it does not help at all*' during Arabic writing. 42% replied that '*it helps a lot*', 17% that '*it helps a little*', 8% '*it does not help much*' and 33% that '*it does not help at all*' during English writing. These calculations indicate that the majority of the subjects were interested in receiving instruction before writing because it was more effective and beneficial. Concerning the question '*when do you receive feedback from your teacher?*' most of the subjects confirmed that they had received feedback after writing in English and Arabic. That is, the drafting stage was neglected by the teachers, who complained of the '*class size and number*'. When asked '*does your teacher help you in your composition classes?*' before, during, or after the writing tasks, most of the subjects were not aware of the writing process approach and its significance, so their answers were not consistent with their previous responses. However, 42% emphasised the teacher's help before writing, 67% indicated '*it does not help at all*' during writing, and 50% confirmed '*it does not help at all*' after writing.

### **7.10.3 Teachers' Views**

In the current study, 4 teachers, 3 of whom were native speakers of Arabic, though non-Libyan Arabs, and an Indian teacher who was a native speaker of neither English

nor Arabic teacher, were engaged in teaching writing to Libyan university students. Table 6.2 shows the teachers' gender, nationality and years of experience. It is clear that these teachers' teaching experience was extensive especially teacher 2, who had been teaching English for 31 years. However, they had not been teaching writing all their professional lives as teacher 1 put it: *'I am not a teacher of language basically. I am a teacher of literature. So I am a bit a sort of blundering myself into teaching composition, writing composition'*.

#### **7.10.3.1 Teachers' Interviews**

The teachers' responses to their interview questions revealed discrepancies among them. In addition to the textbook approach, they try to use their experience and teaching background in their teaching of writing. The questions *'how do you teach writing? What approaches do you use?'* resulted in more personal answers than methodologically based approaches (see appendix 7b). Teacher 1 explained how she suggested the topic and then invited the students to participate in generating ideas, which she wrote on the board: *'I suggest a topic and then we think of, we discuss ideas that coming to their minds'*. When asked *'do they suggest the topic'* she said *'yes, sometimes. They're afraid, because they're not be able to write or they feel they won't be able to write'*. Thus topics were generally suggested by this teacher and the students were asked to generate ideas by which they might be stimulated. The teacher referred to the number of students' and their poor command of English as the most complex problems she faced: *'and the problem is that I have about forty-five students in class around at least thirty of them have very, very poor command of English. So it becomes a very, very big problem'*. Question 11 *'what do you do to help your students solve their writing problems?'* obliged the teacher to describe what she provided in the way of assistance. In addition to paying attention to psychological ease, she always

tried to get them over the '*sense of inferiority*' they had when writing. She was concerned with spelling errors and asked her students to '*write them again and again*' because that is the way she had been taught. She added that spelling errors resulted from the fact that her students were used to writing words the way they speak them, '*you know, the problem with English is that it sounds different the way you write it. So Arabic interferes there, yes very much*'. In her response to question 12, '*how do you correct the writing errors committed by your students?*' she said: '*I mark it and then I write the correct words or whatever. Yes, I do ask them to write it again, write the sentences or the whole composition again*'. Question 13 was concerned with the writing approach: '*what do you focus on when you teach composition, writing process or writing product?*' The teacher confirmed that she focused '*on both, actually. I have to focus on both*'.

Teacher 2 differed from his colleague in that he was restricted by the syllabus and textbook but agreed about the class size. He also indicated that the same subject was taught by more than one teacher as a result of the size and number of classes, so they ought to stick to the syllabus and the available textbook, '*it depends on the syllabus itself and the textbook and the number of students, size of classes, and the number of lecturers*'. This response indicated out that this teacher did not feel free to suggest the topic or invite the students to participate in generating ideas, which means the first stage of the writing process was entirely absent. The teacher clearly stated that the textbook was based on the '*guided writing approach*' and '*it focuses on organization of ideas and paragraph formation*'. When asked '*what do you do to help your students solve their writing problems?*' he said that he identified the errors as a first step, then corrected them and asked the students to rewrite the corrected errors: '*first of all I usually identify their errors. I give them notes and I ask them to correct to get*



*them more practice and chance to rewrite the mistakes*'. These two teachers were similar in their methods of defining and correcting errors, as well as in asking students to rewrite them, although the first teacher did not mention whether she did that during the first or final draft. When asked 'how many drafts do they usually write?' teacher 2's answer was *'one or two. I sometimes do correct the first draft'* by writing *'the correct form of the committed mistakes'*. He also added that I *'sometimes add comments at the end of the essay'*. Like the first teacher, he affirmed that he focused on *'both'* approaches, writing process and writing product, because *'both are essential to develop their capacity, imagination, thinking and writing. I mean the mechanism of writing'*.

Teacher 3 agreed with teacher 2 about the textbook and syllabus; however, he did not believe in theory and devoted *'no less than 75% of time for practice'* because *'writing is writing'*, by which he meant it can be learned through intensive practice, not through theory recitation. Concerning the writing approach, this teacher said that he preferred to use integrated methods in one package *'I like this woman which he called the interactive approach where all these skills are brought together'*. Thus, he integrated the *'communicative approach together with guided approach with free approach'*. In other words, he did not stick to the approach intended by the textbook. When asked *'what do you do to help your students solve their writing problems?'* his answer was different from that of his two colleagues in that he asked his students to *'come with questions for each lecture'* and he encouraged them to *'write free topics, they choose irrespective to or unlinked to the material'*. However, he did not mention anything about the writing process but was totally concerned with written products, which he promised to *'take home and correct them'*. Responding to the question *'how do you correct the writing errors committed by your students?'* this teacher was well



aware of what to do and of how important error correction was, so he *'both referred to the errors and corrected them'*. Moreover, he tried to push his students to correct their own errors by making *'some indications'* of the errors and encouraging them to correct them in order to help *'their minds be creative'*. The teacher was aware of theoretical writing approach concepts and tried to apply them. When asked *'what do you focus on, writing process or writing product?'* his answer was convincing: *'sometimes it's hard to divide them because they are mixed together'* although, influenced by the traditional paradigm, *'I find myself interested in the second one, how they bring at the end'*, but tended to emphasise the importance of the writing process: *'of course, before reaching the end there are certain processes and steps to follow, we try to bring them these products'*.

**Teacher 4** did not refer to the textbook or syllabus but concentrated on how he taught writing his own way, because *'it depends on paragraph writing the corner stone in the writing process'* which requires a lot of effort to correct the errors and solve the problems. He indicated that he supplied the students with *'samples of erroneous sentences to discover mistakes'*. He was concerned with all the linguistic errors that appeared in the written paragraphs, which were *'a hard task'*. He was also concerned with other aspects and paragraph characteristics *'which are related to the coherence, cohesion'* and with organisation. Answering the question *'what do you do to help your students solve their writing problems?'* he emphasised how he approached correction: *'when I correct, I collect the writing tasks, take them home, and I write. I underline the mistake'* He said that he would *'underline the spelling mistakes only'* unless they were new or uncommon. However, grammatical errors, tenses and structures, were treated differently: *'concerning the grammar, structure, or word order, I have to give them the correct answer on paper'*. Moreover, he said that he

would *'discuss the common mistakes by writing them on the board'*. The teacher confirmed that he focused on both the writing process and the writing product: *'yes on how and what, both of them. I mean legibility, clarity, or the organisation. And what they write, I mean the content of the writing'*.

#### **7.10.3.2 Teachers' Questionnaires**

The teachers' questionnaire answers (see appendix 6d) revealed that **teacher 1** used the *'guided writing approach'* *'most of the time'*, whereas **teacher 2** used a variety of approaches for differing amounts of time such as the *'guided writing approach'* for *'sometimes'*, *'process writing'* *'most of the time'*, but he *'rarely'* used the *'free writing approach'*. These answers conflicted with his interview responses in which he confirmed his complete commitment to the textbook and the syllabus, which was originally based on the communicative writing approach. **Teacher 3**, as well, used a variety of approaches, which confirmed his previous emphasis on the importance of the integrity of one's approaches. However, he indicated that he used the *'product writing approach'* and the *'communicative writing approach'* *'most of the time'* and he *'sometimes'* adopted the *'guided, free, process, and genre-based approaches'*. Although **teacher 4** indicated that he concentrated on both the process and product approaches in his interview responses, he ticked all the boxes referring to all approaches with a different time duration for each. He *'sometimes'* used *'guided writing, product, and genre-based approaches'* but he used the *'free writing approach'* *'most of the time'*. The biggest contradiction was clear when the teacher ticked the *'rarely'* box for the *'writing process approach'*, having emphasised its importance a little bit earlier.

The second related question was *'how do you correct the writing errors and what feedback do you provide them with?'* which showed that three of the teachers *'indicate*

*and give the correct form*' of the errors. Two teachers *'write comments on margins'* and only one teacher writes *'comments at the end'* which reflected the fact that, as teacher 2 previously commented that they were not actually confined by the syllabus and textbook because as he said that his students needed more explanation and practice than that being suggested.

Concerning the question *'do you focus on the writing process or the writing product?'* three of them ticked the *'both'* approaches box, while one teacher ticked the *'writing process'* box. These answers were also incompatible with their interview answers.

Finally, the teachers were highly positive about the methods of instruction they adopted and seemed satisfied with what they had been doing, except for the problem of class size and number.

## **7.11 Conclusion**

In this chapter we have examined each stage of the writing processes following similar procedures to answer the research and sub-research questions. The focus was on the think-aloud protocols, interviews, questionnaires as well as the written products of the subjects.

We have analysed the data with regard to our research questions and we have found that subjects had no instruction in either language during the pre-college stages. Arabic writing was neglected and given no emphasis that might have provoked the subjects' interest. English writing was totally ignored within the specified time for English learning classes and during the teachers' training. They thought that writing was not as important as the other skills and could be self-learnt. This view was common among teachers of both Arabic and English.

The subjects agreed that they had received no instruction in either language during pre-college schooling, whereas they had received some instruction at college with regard to English but not to Arabic. However, the poor education background of these

subjects might be an obstacle to their progress and they demanded more concentrated instruction in English.

With regard to writing strategies manifested within the subjects' think-aloud protocols, it has been obvious that they adopted similar and different strategies while writing in both languages, the fact that confirms many previous studies. They paused, rehearsed, reread, and asked questions in L2. In general, the subjects made thirteen similar strategies in both languages and seven more different strategies while writing in L2.

All the subjects planned before writing in L2 but only half of them did in L1. They all made internal revisions but only some of them made final revisions in both languages. A few subjects wrote two drafts in L1 although a bit more did in L2. None of the subjects seemed aware of the revision function and why s/he revised. Most of the subjects revised for form and neglected the organization and content in L2. Their revisions in L1 focused mainly on content and organisation but unfortunately ignored the form.

Based on the analysis findings we may say that our subjects have adopted different strategies when writing in either language according to certain factors such as: type of instruction, L2 learning background, rhetoric differences, and the subjects' attitudes towards writing. One striking finding was that some subjects wrote better L2 essays than they did in L1 essays, the fact that reflects the L1 writing instruction was entirely absent.

The next chapter will present the findings of the data analysis, discuss them and link these findings with previously conducted studies.



## **CHAPTER EIGHT**

### **FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

#### ***8.1 Introduction***

In Chapter Six, the research questions and sub-questions were presented, and the research methods and methods of data analysis were specified. In Chapter Seven, the data were presented in relation to the research questions.

It is the purpose of this chapter to present the findings from the data analysis in terms of their relationship to the existing literature.

The chapter is divided into nine sections. The summary of the findings of this study and an examination of how they are related to the literature are presented in section two. Section three presents the findings with regard to each stage of the writing process. The effect of linguistic knowledge is discussed in section four, while section five deals with rhetoric patterns. The importance of instruction for writing in L1 and L2 is described in section six. Section seven suggests a composing process model for these subjects. Section eight discusses the think-aloud protocols, use of Arabic, translation and thinking in English. Section nine concludes the chapter.

#### **8.2 Summary of Findings**

In this section, the results of the analysis are summarised. These results are then related to the findings reported in previous similar studies.

The analysis of the writing processes and strategies of these subjects showed differences and similarities between L1 and L2:

- The most significant finding regarding the subjects' composing processes is that each subject exhibited a similar composing style in both languages, with minor but interesting variations. For instance, they used mental planning only. Some of the subjects relied entirely on translation from

Arabic to English, i.e., they thought in Arabic and then translated their thoughts into English before they wrote them down. This finding confirms Lay's (1982/1983) statement, that the subjects' use of L1 depends on "the relationship between the writers' experience and the topics". It is also clear that L1 and L2 writing strategies were basically similar, which indicates that L1 writing strategies may be transferred to L2 writing (see, e.g., Arndt, 1987; Cumming et al., 1989; Jones and Tetroe, 1987; Uzawa, 1996; Whalen and Menard, 1995). Some subjects' L2 essays were negatively affected by their low linguistic proficiency (Whalen and Menard, 1995). However, it was apparent that the quality of the written L2 texts was associated more with the quality of the subjects' L1 and/or L2 writing strategies than with their L2 proficiency (see, e.g., Jones and Tetroe, 1987).

- Another important finding is that all the subjects tended to plan before they engaged in L2 writing, whereas only half of the subjects planned in their L1. A much longer planning time and many more rehearsed utterances were used while writing in English. All of the subjects, except subject 10, seemed to be in a rush to get through the tasks in order to 'generate texts' (Jones, 1983; Zamel, 1983). They used mental planning (Bacha, 2001) in Arabic as well as in English. However, some subjects planned their English texts covertly but globally, with no outlines observed (see section 8.3.1.1). Perhaps one reason for such brevity of planning or the absence of explicit planning is that neither the first nor the second topic was particularly difficult. The subjects were able to think and write without too much effort, apart from those who used a large amount of LTM. This

effort was less for those who selected their college teachers to write about. Another possible reason could be that the planning processes were activated automatically, without entering short-term memory, which might have reduced their accessibility for verbalisation. Basically, the subjects planned their texts in three stages. At the beginning, when they saw the topic to write about, they thought of a rough general plot, then began writing and thought of more details as they wrote. When they had difficulty in using the L2 vocabulary items, they got stuck and resumed planning by using L1. These findings confirm those of Jones and Tetroe (1987).

- It was apparent from the protocols that most of the subjects adopted a local planning strategy (see, section 8.3.1.1). It was also demonstrated (see, e.g., Whalen and Menard, 1995) throughout the protocols that procedural planning to regulate the texts in a desired direction occurred more frequently than content planning within the English essays, but this was not the case in the Arabic essays. This differs from the findings of Sasaki (2000), which confirmed the existence of global planning. Such a difference may indicate that the subjects were not aware of, or not able to consider, content planning as a crucial part of the composing process, as a result of a lack of instruction during earlier pre-college education.
- All of the subjects' composing processes, particularly in English, confirmed that their writing had been totally recursive, i.e., non-linear, as suggested by Khongpun, (1992); Pennington and So (1993). In other words, the subjects used the three-process pattern of writing, repeating, and rehearsing at various intervals. For example, while writing, they

interrupted themselves by commenting, questioning, evaluating, reading, and revising. They shuttled back and forth among these processes (see section 8.3.1.2). This fact is consistent with the results of earlier L1 and L2 composition studies conducted by researchers such as Flower and Hayes (1981a) and Raimes (1985).

- The protocols confirmed that the L1 had been employed in the L2 composing processes while the subjects attempted to establish their English texts. Although the majority attempted to employ the L2 as much as they could, most of them stumbled over lexis, grammar, and mechanics such as punctuation and capitalisation, which forced them to verbalise their difficulties in L1 (Bacha, 2001). It was also observed that some subjects switched from L2 to L1 when they had difficulty generating ideas in L2, but none of them wrote the first draft in Arabic or translated the entire text in order to keep their cognitive loads as light as possible, as had been found in Khongpun (1992).
- L1 usage may occur throughout the L2 composing process. Some previous findings (e.g., Pennington and So, 1993; Bacha, 2001) revealed an extensive use of L1 at linguistic, textual, and ideational processing levels. The present study also found L1 involvement in various composing activities (see section 8.3.1.2). It has revealed that the frequency of L1 occurrence varies with individual composing activities: L1 is more likely to be used in process-controlling, idea-generating, idea-organising and text-generating activities than in revising activities.
- The protocols revealed that the subjects had revised and edited their texts more during the drafting process than they had during the final revision



(see section 8.3.1.3). Such revising and editing processes did not appear at the final stage except in the case of a few subjects. Most of the subjects in this study made local and internal revisions when writing in both languages (Whalen and Menard, 1995). Apparently, all of the subjects carried out internal revision and editing while composing, which made them, for one reason or another, not concerned with final revision.

- Most of the subjects' attention was paid to lexical items and sentence construction, while little attention was paid to idea generation, and even less, or may be no attention was paid to organisation in L2 (see appendix 16). This finding is clearly indicative of the more laborious nature of generating text in L2, which has already been discovered in previous studies of the L2 composing process (e.g., Bacha, 2001; Silva, 1993; Whalen and Menard, 1995). This seems to imply that text-generating activity might be the most difficult among all composing activities.
- The subjects used more strategies in L2 than they did in L1. All the subjects composed using relatively large segments of ideas and with a total reliance on internal resources (see section 7.6.1). The Arabic composing strategies, which seemed to be effective for immediate problems, were identified as planning, rehearsing, repeating, reading, internal resourcing, self-questioning, monitoring, considering topics, guessing, highlighting, and abandoning.

The English protocols were produced at a relatively slower pace with different segments of texts: raters considered some of them too long to read because of the influence of L1. Difficulties with vocabulary and mechanics occurred throughout the English protocols. The subjects'

performance in L2 seemed very poor in terms of vocabulary and language components (see, e.g., Whalen and Menard, 1995; Bacha, 2001). The subjects' English composing strategies included planning, rehearsing, repeating, reading, monitoring, self-questioning, self-reassuring or self-reinforcement, invoking grammar rules, affirmation of ideas, lexical search strategies, and a number of special composing strategies such as language switch, translating, and use of external resources.

- The use of L1 while composing in L2 took place at different levels such as the word, phrase and sentence level. The subjects who resorted to language switch and translation did so because this strategy seemed to facilitate the writing act for them, and to be an integral part of the composing processes at this level of their L2 composing development. If they had not resorted to these techniques, the subjects would have been blocked and would have stopped writing much earlier, producing much shorter paragraphs (Cumming, 1989). These strategies adopted by the subjects seemed to serve different purposes from those observed in Lay's study (1982) and by Alam (1993).
- It was apparent that each subject had had an objective for his/her writing in mind; nevertheless, the subjects paid hardly any attention to audience, especially when composing in English. The only audience for these tasks was the researcher, as some of them admitted. However, although the subjects were well aware that good writers write in order to communicate with their readers, their compositions were not intelligible enough to reflect such awareness. This was either because the subjects understood the concept of communication but were unable to communicate well, or

because they did not understand the concept of writing as a means of communication. This finding matches some earlier L1 studies conducted by Emig (1971), Mischel (1974), and Stallard (1974). In the 1980s and 1990s, L2 composition research also indicated that EFL/ESL writers ignore the audience (Alam, 1993; Al-Jamhur, 1996; Halimah, 2001; Arndt, 1987; Raimes, 1985, 1987; Uzawa and Cumming, 1989). Disregard for audience might result from the fact that the idea of audience was developed at a later stage in the study writing, after the concept of purpose. This lack of audience concern is considered to be a characteristic typical of novice writers, as in Flower and Hayes (1980b).

- Some subjects made more errors in their L1 essays than they did in their L2 essays. The high error proportion in L1 may be attributed to poor instruction. The responses to interview questions and questionnaires emphasised the fact that these subjects had not received instruction in L1 during their pre-college education. However, the subjects were more satisfied with L2 writing instruction at university level. This might also be seen as another pretext for relying on L2 writing instruction. (Hall, 1990; Akyl and Kamisli, 1996).

### **8.3 Discussion of Results**

This lengthy section summarises what the data reveal about the writing processes of the subjects and position these findings in relation to the existing literature. Our discussion will start with writing processes in general and then consider the planning, writing, and revising stages.

### 8.3.1 *Writing Processes*

The writing processes of the subjects proved to be non-linear, involving a constant interplay of thinking, writing, and revising, as identified by Pennington and So (1993). Pauses to think for the purposes of planning and revising occurred frequently as the subjects proceeded in their verbalisation and production of the written texts. As suggested by Edelsky (1982) and Arndt (1987), each individual writer revealed a similar pattern in his/her writing process in the L1 and L2, with little difference in terms of fluency and speed of writing. An individual consistency in the pattern of the writing process across languages would appear to suggest that linguistic skills do not greatly influence the writing process skill, as the subjects' writing behaviour and strategies remained more or less the same even while writing in a language in which they were much less proficient, that is, English.

It has been observed that as writing proceeds, content generation becomes more difficult, and the subjects become unable either to generate new ideas or to put them in order. At this point, the subjects of this study had to fall back on reviewing (the term used by Hayes and Flower, 1980) their already written texts. During such reviews, the subjects paused, backtracked, read, reread, rehearsed, and contemplated the written texts in an attempt to fill in the gaps with fresh ideas, which made it difficult for them to continue text production (see Raimes, 1985, 1987; Zamel, 1983). The back-and-forth interplay of encoding or actual writing acts and rereading acts occurred more frequently for some subjects, whose writing strategies reflected the fact that their writing abilities were superior to those of others. As was observed in the think-aloud protocols, most subjects paused often to read the text and think aimlessly when they got stuck, as was revealed in Hall's (1990) and Pennington and So's (1993) studies.



### ***8.3.1.1 The Planning Stage***

In this study, local planning showed a stronger relationship with L2 writing ability than did global planning, which is consistent with the results of many previous L1 and L2 writing studies (e.g., Raimes, 1987; Pennington and So, 1993; Whalen and Menard, 1995). This does not mean that none of the subjects employed global planning, however. A few subjects did plan globally before they started their L2 essays (see, e.g., Boshier, 1998; Sasaki and Hirose, 1996).

The subjects in this study engaged different kinds of planning activity, which showed that although they constituted a homogeneous group having similar linguistic and cultural backgrounds, their writing behaviour was more diverse. For them, the most difficult part of the writing process came before the actual writing. They could not decide what to do. Shuy and Robinson (1990) found similar types of behaviour among their subjects. Table 7.1 shows that the planning, or pre-writing, activities may be classified as one type-mental planning. It was observed that the subjects did not follow their plans, but that they paused, corrected, erased, and made changes as soon as new ideas came into their minds. Such behaviour is similar to that observed in Kaufer, Hayes, and Flower's (1986) study, in which none of the subjects 'followed their plans exactly in producing their essays' (p. 124).

Planning time for the English compositions of these subjects varied from one to another; however, all of them engaged in the planning process in one way or another (see Table 7.1). All of the subjects engaged in both overt and covert, but mainly local, planning as a result of poor instruction during pre-college learning stages.

With regard to L2 proficiency, differences in linguistic processing behaviour between L1 and L2 show that their limited knowledge of L2 did in fact constrain the subjects' from employing global planning strategies. It was clear from the protocols and written

texts that, in terms of planning, the linguistic processing constrained only the quantity of upper-level processing, not the quality or levels of abstraction of textual planning occurrences. This finding was consistent with Whalen and Menard's (1995), Raimes' (1987) and Zamel's (1983) findings concerning skilled and unskilled writers' strategies.

The few subjects who adopted global planning strategies were similar to those in the study of Flower et al., (1992). Flower called global planning "constructive planning" where "writers must create a unique network of working goals and deal with the special problems of integration, conflict, resolution and instantiation this constructive process entails."(p. 181).

Compared with the English essays, the planning time for writing the Arabic essays was shorter and the writing more spontaneous. As soon as the subjects received the Arabic topic, they engaged in mental activity, mainly in order to formulate thoughts of what to write, but not how, and to seek relevant information from their LTM. The planning time varied from one subject to another. For instance, 6 subjects did not plan at all but started writing on the spot. All the subjects were influenced by the English essays they had written about the same topics. Thus, their Arabic compositions seemed more like translations of their English essays. All the subjects voiced what they wrote in rehearsing, structuring, reading, and thinking. Some subjects carried out a relatively longer and more interesting rehearsal before they started writing. They considered their composition as a whole during the planning period. They planned globally and organised their thoughts aloud, but they did not jot down any outlines (Alam, 1993; Halimah, 1991, 2001).

### ***8.3.1.2 The Writing Stage***

The subjects of this study used more strategies to complete their L2 writing tasks than they did in L1. As they were writing, the subjects read back over phrases and sentences. Most of the subjects relied on translation as one of the main strategies for writing an L2 essay. Although this strategy was employed by most of the subjects, it was manipulated in very different ways. In this section, we contrast the writing behaviour of the more strategically proficient writers with that of the less strategically proficient writers.

#### ***8.3.1.2.1 More Strategically Proficient Writers***

Four subjects used writing to formulate more precise lexical and syntagmatic choices that contributed to the readability and coherence of the written products. These writers retained an explicit mental representation of textual goals as they generated ideas and transcribed them into written discourse. In other words, they manipulated this strategy as a way of expressing their intended meaning more clearly in L2. This proved to be particularly effective for all of them as their transcription flowed in an effortless manner even when writing was used to generate further transcription. Although all subjects shared a similar level of L2 linguistic knowledge, these four subjects' fluency of language production was significant. Their writing behaviour resembled that of Beretier and Scardamalia's (1987) "knowledge-transforming" process (see section 2.7.3). Their verbal protocols clearly indicated that subject 4, for example, developed her description and generated ideas entirely in L2:

"What make us, or what made us really dislike this teacher,....., made us dislike this teacher, really made us really dislike , what maaaaade us dislike this teacher, dislike this teacher that he, that he....., he is not helpful, is not helpful while he should be the best judge, judge, of the, of the student, of the student, of the individual, individual abilities of students, and he should help us to appreciate, or evalua, appreciate the practical value of the subject, the subject by relating to the, by relating to the study, ummm, by the study, by the, relating, reeeelaaaating, relating the actual study, he should aaaaaa, practical relating to the study but ....., by the study, ahuhhhh".



With regard to L1, a few subjects retained an explicit mental representation of textual goals while generating ideas and transcribing them as written discourse. Subject 12 wrote the following:

لازلت أذكر أحد أساتذتي الذين، لازلت أذكر أحد أفضل أساتذتي الذين درسوني، .....، مادة الجغرافيا.  
لازلت أذكر أحد أفضل أساتذتي، .....، الذي درسنني. لازلت أذكر أحد أفضل أساتذتي، .....، الذي  
درسنني مادة الجغرافيا. ....، .....، بمعهد المعلمين. كان رجلاً محترماً، أو كان شخصاً محترماً،  
.....، .....، وعطوفاً. كان يعاملنا وكأننا أصدقاءه. طريقة تدريسه للمادة كانت رائعة. ....،  
.....، .....، مستخدماً وسائل، مستخدماً وسائل تعليمية مختلفة تمكن، أو مكنتنا من فهم المادة  
بشكل مفصل. كان يستمع إلينا، يستمع إلينا بصبر، ويجب على أسئلتنا بوضوح. وإذا لم يكن متأكداً من  
الإجابة، فإنه وبكل بساطة يقول سوف أتأكد أولاً وأعطيك الإجابة في الدرس التالي.  
كان يشجعنا على الدراسة، وكتابة البحوث، ورسم الخرائط بدقة. لازلت احتفظ بالخرائط التي رسمتها  
تحت إشرافه.  
في الحقيقة، أو في الواقع، في حقيقة الواقع، في الحقيقة أن هذا الأستاذ ترك انطباعاً أو، في الحقيقة أن  
هذا الأستاذ قد ترك انطباعاً جيداً في حياتي.

All these subjects had constructed a definite basic writing plan, allowing it to evolve during the actual text production. Although these subjects spent some time switching between languages, this strategy was employed with definite pragmatic and textual goals in mind.

#### 8.3.1.2.2 *Less Strategically Proficient Writers*

On the other hand, eight subjects showed that their translation strategy impeded and often blocked the transcription and generation of ideas. These subjects' writing behaviour resembled that of Beretier and Scardamalia's (1987) "knowledge-telling" behaviour (see section 2.7.2). According to this model, the less expert writer generates a series of ideas related to a given writing topic, without constructing a pragmatic operational plan. Rather, all thinking effort is spent on accessing concepts relevant to the topic. These subjects showed no evidence of the expert writer's "knowledge-transforming" writing behaviour, according to which the writer constructs, structures, and often changes meaning as the text itself emerges. These subjects sought to translate, word by word, the first idea that came to mind in their L1, without testing its relevance within the context of a defined pragmatic and textual plan. They merely





the subjects intended to go back to the previously written sentence or words to check ideas. Second, reading the last sentence helped them to be more specific. Third, they reread the last sentence or words to help them think about what to write next. Raimes (1987) calls this reading of a part or all of the last sentence 'rescanning', and says it 'appears to have helped them [her subjects] to work out how to move forward and develop the next idea' (p. 455). Fourth, editing for grammar, spelling, punctuation etc., was also done while rereading the last sentence. Most of subjects did not reread in order to change sentences or to connect them in a coherent style. Rescanning was observed to be the most prominent characteristic of the composing process in the English essays, during which the subjects read aloud while correcting their surface errors. Similar findings were obtained by Pianko (1979), whose remedial students' behaviour was the same. That is, her subjects were 'worried about their spelling' (p. 13). The subjects of this study might have known the words but, because they were not sure of the correct spelling or how to use them in the structure of the sentence, they just avoided using them, subject 5 being a good example of this (see appendix 16).

The general writing speed was slower in L2 than in L1, probably due to the demands of the cognitive search for both the ideas and the language itself. Some subjects tended to pause at each word, phrase, or sentence boundary. They appeared to want to stop and think about what they were going to write each time they finished writing one coherent chunk. Novice subjects, using Beretier and Scardamalia's (1987) "knowledge-telling" expression, employed a kind of 'what next' strategy. This strategy was employed by many inexperienced L1 and L2 writers in previous studies (e.g., Cumming, 1989; Grabe and Kaplan, 1996; Uzawa, 1996; Sasaki, 2000).

Most subjects had problems with vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics. When needed words were not at their disposal, and when mental research failed, they resorted to synonymous L1 equivalents in order to simplify finding these words. It was apparent that some subjects had failed to choose the appropriate lexical items, for example, the written texts of subjects 5, 6 and 7 (see appendix 16). When they felt totally blocked they resorted to external materials, mainly dictionaries. Some of them were not capable even of looking up words in dictionaries, so they inserted many L1 words into their English texts, which confused both the reader and the rater.

On the other hand, some subjects, while writing their L1 essays, interrupted their composing process now and then, especially when they questioned, commented on, evaluated, revised, and read the texts (the underlined words are examples). Their writing shuttled back and forth in an interactive manner among these composing activities when they were not satisfied with what they had composed. Subject 5 was a good example of this :

بعدها، وكانت، لقد كانت، لقد كانت كل، كل الطالبات؟، كانت كل الطلاب؟ full-stop وكانت، لقد كانت، اندير  
 وقد كان كل الطلاب في الفصل، لقد كان كل الطلاب في الفصل يفهمون منها ما تقوله، لأنها، لأن كان لها وإلا  
 كيف؟ لقد كان كل الطلاب في الفصل يفهمون لها ما تقوله و ما تشرحه، لأن لها طريقة خاصة في الشرح.  
 انديرها، انديرها شنو؟ لقد كان لها طريقة خاصة في الشرح. وقد كانت لها طريقة خاصة في الشرح، وقد كانت  
 لها طريقة خاصة في الشرح. ....، ....، ....، لقد كانت تجمع بين المرح و الجد في  
 الحصة. ففي الجزء الأول كانت من المحاضرة، من الحصة كانت، ففي الجزء الأول من الحصة كانت تتحدث  
 معنا وكانت تمزح، ....، ....، ....، تنكت، اندير ثاني تنكت؟ تمزح و خلاص وكانت تمزح. وفي الجزء الثاني  
 الحصة، وفي الجزء الثاني من الحصة كانت جدية وتشرح الدرس، وتشرح الدرس بأمانة، بأمانة؛ وهذا ما  
 جعلني أحترمها، أحترمها. باهي؟

As soon as they were told to begin, the subjects wrote and thought of more ideas to write, springing from one sentence to another. Local planning could occasionally be seen during the writing phase (see the example above). The subjects who appeared not to be planning explicitly or implicitly tended to stumble more quickly than those who had mentally organised or planned in advance. Some subjects exhausted their ideas



more quickly, so they stopped to reread and to work out what ideas might come next.

Some kept commenting and asking what they should write next.

The results show that there are some significant differences between the operations of planning, rehearsing, and reading the topic employed by the subjects for Arabic and English compositions. Pauses are also significantly different, i.e., more and longer pauses were noticed during the English composition than during the Arabic. This was expected, since the subjects' L2 proficiency was lower than their proficiency in L1. The subjects also questioned and commented a lot more while composing in English than they did during the Arabic essays. They approached the Arabic composition more fluently than they did the English. The switches to L1 during L2 writing occurred when they were planning what to include and write next and making personal comments and assessments or rehearsing for writing (Raimes, 1987; Pennington and So, 1993; Whalen and Menard, 1995). Cumming (1989) reported that L2 writers with L1 writing expertise demonstrated similar behaviour- that of paying special attention to word and phrase choices. Both good and weak subjects in this study support Cumming's report, i.e., some subjects approached their writing tasks with less trial and error (Sasaki, 2000). However, the subjects who received high ratings on their L1 essays did not necessarily receive similar ratings on their L2 essays, and vice versa. These findings are consistent with those of Pennington and So (1993), which confirm that general proficiency in L2 might be a better predictor of the quality of writing in that language than the quality of writing in the L1.

The results shown in Tables 7.13, 7.14, 7.15 and 7.16 indicate that some subjects were better writers in L2 than in L1, as the majority of them had achieved better scores in L2 than they had in L1. This may be attributed to the fact that these subjects had been taught L1 writing skills neither at pre-college nor at university levels. On the other



hand, although their L2 writing did not seem to be good, it was still better than their L1 probably because they had studied it overtly.

In short, the subjects composed the English texts gradually and were hindered by their linguistic problems. The subjects wrote their Arabic texts by alternating writing, repeating, and rehearsing, and with the interruption of comments, questions, evaluations, revisions, and reading. Individual composing styles were also exhibited.

### ***8.3.1.3 The Reviewing Stage***

In short, three different kinds of reviewing were detected in this study. First, the subjects reviewed while creating the text in order to keep going. They read a portion or the last word of a composed text, to find the flow of their text so that they could add more connected ideas. Secondly, they reviewed after a part of the text had been completed to see how it was going and in order to decide how to continue creating the text or how to conclude it. In this case, the subjects read what they had written before creating a new episode. Thirdly, some of them made final revisions when the text was completely written. In this case, most subjects read their texts over in order to polish the language and spot errors.

L2 writing research has begun to explore the nature of revision strategy processing by adopting the assumptions and theoretical constructs of L1 research. The literature shows that Chelala (1981), Zamel (1983), Gaskill (1986), Hall (1991), Khongpun (1992), Pennington and So (1993) and Whalen and Menard (1995) compared the revising behaviour of L1 and L2 writers. The findings of these studies indicate that writers with a similar background exhibit identical processing behaviour across languages, but this was not absolutely confirmed in this study. Although, as revealed in Chapter 7, the subjects' revising strategies were relatively similar, in both L1 and

L2, there were individual differences. That is, some subjects made more revisions in L2 than they did in L1 (see section 7.5).

All the subjects made internal revisions but only some of them made final revisions after they had finished writing their essays in both languages. The majority of internal revising attended to grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, etc., but not to organisation and content in the English essays (see section 7.5). It seems that revision for grammatical adjustment was also rare because they did not correct all the grammatical errors. They corrected only what they knew while revising and most of them complained of the grammar difficulty, particularly tenses. It was found that these subjects had problems with basic grammatical rules, which accounted for such common errors. In addition, the subjects thought that it was the duty of the teacher to correct the errors, as Raimes (1987) points out: 'EFL students expect their instructors to help them out and to deal with linguistic errors' (p. 457). Third, if they had known the rules, they would not have failed to use them, due to what Krashen (1982 and 1984) calls 'monitoring constraints'. Also, in his research into second language writing, Krashen (1992) has found that developing writers usually do not understand that revision can help them generate new ideas. Most of the subjects thought that their first drafts contained all the ideas and that revising an essay simply means making the first draft neater by correcting language errors, which was not necessary for most of them. None of the subjects revised on sentence or text level, as with Alam's (1993) and Aly's (1992) subjects.

In their revision strategies, the subjects paid less attention to meaning than to surface form, which I attribute to their past learning experiences in both languages. That is, such subjects need more training in revision strategies. This fact is in accordance with certain previous studies such as Porte's (1997).

All of the subjects were concerned with their internal revisions in order to check grammatical and mechanical problems, but none of these numerous revisions was devoted to organisation and content, except in the case of the more strategically proficient writers. Some subjects considered themselves to have finished the writing tasks only when they had copied the final version onto a clean sheet of paper without any additional reading. Some subjects polished their texts in small units at word and phrase levels, whereas others were not aware of or concerned with this technique and handed in unpolished texts made up of long sentences (see Appendix 16), which meant the raters were unable to follow their argument. Generally, all of the subjects reviewed their English texts by reading, questioning, and revising them while they were composing.

The Arabic review was totally different from the English review, the focus being on ideas and organisation rather than on grammar and mechanics. Also, all of the subjects reviewed their texts while they were creating them in the writing phase, indeed some of them made several internal reviews while writing, such as subject 9, who made 6 internal revisions during the first Arabic essay. The final revisions were also different from those of the English essays (Pennington and So, 1993), in which final revisions were more likely to be carried out. Some subjects did not make such revisions, either because they were not used to doing so, or because they did not know what to revise, since their essays were lacking in properly-used grammar, vocabulary, spelling, etc. In general, the subjects read through their texts, and revised by adding, deleting, and substituting words or phrases. While they were making revisions, they also rehearsed for better ideas, evaluated their texts if they were still not clear to them, raised questions when they were in doubt, and repeated them while they were writing them.

Although the general revision framework among all of the subjects was similar, there were some observable individual differences that should be pointed out. Subjects who did not revise were either not used to doing so, or were unable to add anything to their written texts. Revisions were mainly focused on vocabulary items, punctuation, spelling, and grammar as previously indicated, but none of these revisions was directed at organisation and content.

These findings add a further dimension to previously reported cross-linguistic similarities and differences related to the abstraction levels at which writers plan (Jones and Tetroe, 1987), the attention to overall organisation before and while writing (Sasaki and Hirose, 1996), the integration of mental representations at the verbatim, prepositional, and situational levels (Cumming et al., 1989), the overall approaches to the writing task (Arndt, 1987; Edelsky, 1982; Smith, 1994) and rhetorical duality (Halimah, 2001).

#### **8.4 The Effect of Linguistic Knowledge on Writing**

Lack of linguistic knowledge is reflected in the number of strategies reported that could be regarded as examples of communication strategies, e.g., rehearsing for compensatory reasons (Arndt, 1987), translating (Cumming, 1989), and generating and assessing lexical alternatives (Bosher, 1998). The subjects in this study paid more attention to the various linguistic aspects of their L2 writing than they did in their L1 (Uzawa, 1996). A lack of linguistic knowledge was the main reason for poor fluency, as revealed by the think-aloud protocols, when the subjects approached their L2 essays. Tables 7.6 and 7.7 (see pages 217 and 218) show that some subjects wrote longer texts, whereas others kept their texts brief as a result of a lack of interest or the fear that they would be full of errors.



The analysis of the verbalised and written data showed that most of the subjects had experienced linguistic problems while writing in L2. They had problems with grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, and spelling. Since the subjects did not possess the prerequisites for writing or a knowledge of the basic writing conventions in English, they found it hard to learn writing. In addition, some of the subjects' L1 essays were much worse than their English essays. It became evident that the subjects' linguistic background in Arabic was extremely weak, which might be taken as a possible reason for the poor quality of their L2 writing (Halimah, 2001). The teachers' questionnaires and interviews support the existence of these problems in L2, i.e., third-year students have severe linguistic knowledge problems.

With regard to the aspect of tense, for example, in the subjects' writing, it was noticed that most of these subjects' errors were frequent in both languages. They were of two types: first, those having low-level syntactic or morphological errors such as subject-verb agreement and second, high-level errors in using appropriate tense choices to express time concepts (Kharma and Hajaj, 1989). The rating processes showed that a large proportion of the subjects made agreement errors in both kinds of their English writing. The following extract from subject 9's first English essay is a good example of subject-verb agreement error:

*'Some of them was very good, However the other one are not fortunatley'.*

This extract not only shows the error in subject-verb agreement but also reveals errors in capitalisation and sentence connectors.

While writing about her secondary school teacher, subject 1 used the present simple tense instead of the past simple tense:

*'she deals kindly so I love her and so I like to study her subject and I got high marks on it'*

One may get confused when reads this quotation as to whether the writer is speaking

about her current or her old teacher.

Subject 7 made many spelling and grammatical mistakes in her second Arabic essay which reflects her poor L1 linguistic knowledge as shown in the following extract:.

وهية ليست معدة اعداد كامل لكي يدرسون بها طالبة في جامعة  
ولا يوجد الامكانيات التي تساعدنا للدراسة منها الكتب الخارجة مثلا.

## 8.5 Rhetoric Patterns

The most obvious linguistic weakness which was noticed in the Arabic and English compositions was a lack of cohesion and coherence. Two main points can be made. First, the texts lacked the logical connectors of sequence, consequence, contrast, addition and illustration. The majority of the subjects (90%) did not use signal words to guide the discussion of their arguments. While reading these texts, it was felt that the burden of working out the subjects' intended meaning was time-consuming, and sometimes confusion or misunderstanding occurred due to the lack of signal words.

The following English essay illustrates this point:

“there are good teacher and there are bad teacher in the universtey. /they are/ such as Grammar teach/er/ is good teacher. and Dr, lingustic is very nice and good teach , there are dislike teacher in secondry /school/ school such as in subject /gergraph/ جغرافيا (geography) Becouse dislike تصرفات (behaviors), there are differents teacher of them varities are very bad I don't like, /and/ Becouse التدريس طرق (Teaching methods) differents from teacher grammar. Dr. فاطمة (Fatma) is very nice in the طرق التدريس (Teaching methods) Becouse always solation exercius always مهتمة بنا (taking care of us) carry us” (The first English essay by subject 6).

The logical link between the sentences of this essay is not as clear as it might be. It would be better if the topic sentence generalised and introduced the purpose of the essay followed by 'for example' to support and lead the flow of the topic. This essay clearly shows a lack of coherence, cohesive devices and linguistic competence in L2 (El-Hassan, 1984, Kharma, 1985c; Kamel, 1989). It appears to be merely a series of unconnected sentences: the subject gives specific examples concerning her teachers of grammar and linguistics but does not put them in any meaningful order, supported by

other examples. A lack of enumerators and /or sequential words makes the essay sound clumsy and lack unity (Kharma, 1987).

In Arabic, more than half of the subjects wrote compositions with no appropriate logical linking of ideas. The following extract exemplifies this point:

في حياتي التعليمية الماضية (كان هناك أحد المعلمين الذي جعلني أحبه وأقترب منه أنا وباقي زملائي) جعلنا  
ايضاً نحب مادة التاريخ التي كان يدرسها (لأنه دائماً يتحدث معنا حتى خارج الحصص) ويساعدنا في حل  
مشاكلنا الشخصية)

(In my academic life, there was a teacher who made me and my colleagues like him and come closer to him He also made us like the subject of history which he was teaching because he was always talking to us, even outside the classes he was helping us solve our personal problems)

The lack of punctuation makes it very difficult to follow this extract. It is hard to see where each sentence begins or ends. If the subject had used connectors such as 'moreover' or 'in addition' at the beginning of the second sentence, the meaning would be clearer. The use of (لأنه) 'because', is not appropriate, as it does not show any relationship between the subject 'teaching of history' and 'talking with us outside the classes'. The subject did not use transitional phrases to introduce his new ideas and, as he had not divided his text into paragraphs, all the ideas were compressed into one single paragraph (Halimah, 1991, 2001).

The results of this study confirmed that there were rhetorical pattern problems in the subjects' writing. Most subjects could not produce well-organised essays because they were unable to learn the required rhetoric for writing, as they had not yet achieved linguistic competence in L2. Most of the essays sounded more like informal spoken language than formal texts. Long sentences were joined by coordinating conjunctions. Repetition and syntactic balance were two other common features of L1 rhetoric that appeared in the L2 essays. There was a lack of organisation evident, not only in L2 but also in the L1 essays. These findings were identified in earlier studies on Arabic students (e.g., Kharma, 1985; Leibmann, 1992)



Some subjects' compositions satisfied neither English nor Arabic writing requirements since the compositions in both languages lacked cohesion and cohesive devices. Indeed, the teachers' responses indicated that the third-year students had not mastered L2 rhetoric patterns, which meant they tended to produce poor quality, weak essays.

## **8.6 The Importance of Instruction for Writing**

It was clear from the interviews and questionnaires of both subjects and teachers that the parties on each side were trying to defend themselves. The subjects denied having received any writing instruction during pre-college schooling in either language, Arabic or English. Although 90% of the subjects expressed negative attitudes towards the lack of writing instruction in Arabic during the pre-college stages, 10% were rather more positive and admitted that they had received instruction when they were studying at the teachers' institute.

English writing instruction was virtually unavailable during early schooling (i.e., pre-college) because the teachers were not qualified. Also, the time allotted was inadequate for teaching writing. The English language curriculum was not designed to include writing as one of the four main skills, so teachers did not pay attention to writing but focused instead on reading and speaking skills where possible.

The interview responses confirmed that the subjects had received writing instruction as soon as they started university. The written texts revealed that the writing instruction was helpful in improving the subjects' composing strategies and production. This finding confirmed earlier studies in EFL contexts (see Edelsky, 1982, 1984; Spack, 1984; Urzua, 1987)

It was apparent from the written texts in this study, that the writing instruction in L2 had a 'bi-directional' influence on these subjects' L1 writing ins. Such a finding lends



support to Hall's (1990) and Akyle and Kamisli's (1996) perspectives, that L2 writing instruction might have an influence on L1 writing strategies.

The teachers' comments on the instruction were similar in one respect, in that they all adhered to the text-book approach. However, they had different views on other aspects of the instruction. While some of them usually suggested the topic themselves, others said they asked their students to propose any topic to write about. While some were totally restricted by the syllabus, others felt some freedom to use their own teaching ideas. We noted above (see section 8.3.1.1) that learners spent a longer time planning L2 writing and used more strategies in combination than they did in L1. These findings suggest that instruction is important and that the lack of such instruction has a considerable impact on the writing process.

### **8.7 Composing Process-Model of the Twelve Libyan EFL Students**

From the evidence of the analyses of the Arabic and English protocols, a composing process model of the twelve Libyan EFL subjects is tentatively proposed to represent the internal processes of the Libyan student writers' minds.

Figure 10 (see appendix 16) suggests an EFL writing model which is similar to Flower and Hayes' (1981a) cognitive process model of L1 writing, (see also Kellogg, 1987; EL Mortaji, 2001), attempts to account for the three interactive mental processes the subjects engaged in: the task environment, the writer's long-term memory, and the composing process. The task environment contains two elements: the rhetorical problem, which consists of the writing topic, the purpose, the audience and the text produced. The writer's LTM comprises knowledge of the topic, the audience, the writer's plans, and external resources, dictionaries, in the current study.

However, the main difference is in the composing process component per se. The composing process component, which is hierarchically organised, contains four sub-

processes: planning, composing, reviewing, and L1 utilisation. L1 utilisation refers to the subjects' use of Arabic while composing in English. This element includes language switch and translation, which is optional, as it is hypothesised that this sub-process can be skipped by proficient EFL writers, (subjects 8, 10 and 12), whose think-aloud protocols and interviews were usually verbalised in English. L1 utilisation is another element that does not appear in the Flower and Hayes' (1981a) model, but it should be included in the EFL writing process of this study, since language switch and translation seem to be integral parts of the writing in English of the Libyan subjects.

Although the Libyan subjects did not elaborate their plans in detail when they composed, planning seems to have been present. In general, the subjects retrieved relevant information from their long-term memories and planned either covertly or overtly, globally or locally. Composing, which is synonymous with sentence generation (Hayes and Flower, 1987), includes the writer's expressing of ideas into written, or visible, language as well as the written and non-written rehearsal of ideas. In addition, reviewing, which attempts to improve the text quality, consists of rereading, evaluating, revising, and editing. The reviewing process interrupts other processes at any time while the writer is composing.

Finally, the writer is able to switch his processes back and forth and embed one process or sub-process within another by using the cognitive monitor, which controls the writer's process and progress. The bi-directional arrows show how flexible the model is, indicating that the composing process components do not occur in a fixed order or in stages but, on the contrary, that they can affect and be affected by each other.

The suggested Arabic EFL composing process model is intended to be applied to both English and Arabic writing. In the case of Arabic writing, the L1 component is an irrelevant element.

### **8.8 Summary of Think-aloud Protocols, Use of Arabic, Translation and Thinking in English**

The findings of this study confirm that the L2 writing process is a bilingual event: L2 writers have two languages (L1 and L2) at their disposal when they are composing in L2, as noted by some previous studies (e.g., Cumming, 1989, 1990; Lay, 1982; Uzawa and Cumming, 1989). For the majority of the subjects in this study, the use of L1 accounted for, on average, about 45% of their think-aloud data; however, some subjects used more L1 than L2 in their thinking-aloud protocols.

The majority of the subjects relied on L1 at every stage and in every sub-process, planning, composing, and reviewing, when they switched from English to Arabic to varying degrees (see Tables 7.6 and 7.7). The distribution of the occurrences of Arabic segments in the English protocols shows a tendency for the subjects to comment and repeat in words, rehearse in phrases, and engage in other composing activities at the sentence level (Arndt, 1987; Cumming, 1989; Pennington and So, 1993; Whalen and Menard, 1995).

The subjects' misunderstanding of English writing conventions caused them to transfer their L1 conventions, which did not help in conveying the ideas in English exactly. Their heavy reliance on L1 in a variety of aspects was a result of their basic thinking in Arabic, which in turn made them approach their English writing similarly to the way in which they approached their Arabic writing (Kharma and Hajaj, 1989; Ali, 1992; Alam, 1993; Halimah, 1991). Since they wrote the English essays prior to writing in Arabic, they adopted the translation approach when they wrote in Arabic. That is, the Arabic essays seemed to be a translated copy of the English in terms of

thinking, idea generation and actual writing, which reflects Hall's (1990) views about the influence of L2 on L1. In fact, this was expected as the subjects were asked to write about the same topics, but not so much as it turned out. Translation was expected if the subjects had been asked to write in L1 first. Our justification for having the subjects write in L2 first was to see how they plan, generate ideas, put them on paper, and revise in English; what strategies they would adopt when encountering any difficulties through these sub-processes, particularly during the actual writing. Some subjects' essays seemed to be affected by the L2 writing style and conventions, e.g., subject 12 (see appendix 16)

The majority of the subjects admitted in the interviews that they thought in Arabic when they wrote in English. The interim L1 thinking was like a mediator to bridge the linguistic gaps; it also facilitated the process of thinking and writing in L2 (Arndt, 1987; Jones and Tetroe, 1987; Kharma, 1987; Bhela, 1999).

## **8.9 Conclusion**

The major finding emerging from the current study is that one of the main factors that sets unsuccessful writers apart from the good writers of previous studies is the degree of L1 writing competence, of linguistic knowledge, of instruction and use of L2 writing conventions. Findings from interviews, questionnaires, and think-aloud protocols suggested that these subjects did in fact know and could describe many strategies that have been deemed necessary for good writing. However, the lack of effectiveness of their application was significant. These findings are similar to those obtained by other researchers (see, e.g., Pennington and So, 1993; Whalen and Menard, 1995; Cava, 1999; Halimah, 2001). Cava's (1999) findings provide evidence against the commonly held belief that the more strategies a learner is aware of, the better. Rather, our findings clearly support the perspective that learners need to know



how to use these strategies effectively, with a special focus on the social and cultural differences between the two languages in order to avoid L1 rhetoric influence on L2.

The ineffectiveness of strategy use was perhaps due to a lack of linguistic knowledge, a lack and/or absence of writing instruction, learners' attitudes, social, cultural and educational background, or all of these. It was apparent that the subjects had no experience of verbalisation while writing, which might have affected their writing in this instance. However, it is difficult to justify the poor quality of the written essays in both L1 and L2 purely on this basis.

## **CHAPTER NINE**

### **CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **9.1 Introduction**

This chapter is divided into six sections. The first section introduces the chapter to the reader. Section two summarises the purpose of this study, and presents the research question and sub-questions. The third section presents reflections on the methodology used in this study, and on its limitations. Recommendations are presented in section four, which includes the composing process approach, the use of Arabic and translation, and the promotion of reading. The fifth section presents the implications of writing instruction for both languages. Suggestions for further research are provided in section six.

#### **9.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY**

This section outlines the purpose of the study, the research questions and the techniques, subjects, materials, and procedures used.

##### ***9.2.1 Purpose of the study***

This study examined the writing processes and strategies of twelve Libyan third-year English major students learning English as a foreign language at the University of El-Fateh, Tripoli. Using think-aloud procedures, several strategies were identified in the subjects' verbal performances; the data were then analysed qualitatively as well as quantitatively.

The findings elicited from L1 composing process research (see section 8.2) have clearly shown that student writers engage in writing in a non-linear fashion, moving back and forth among the processes of planning, composing, and reviewing. These findings were established by previous composing process studies of L2 writers (see section.2.8.2), which showed that their processes are basically similar to those of their L1 counterparts, apart from the language switch. Although the non-linear approach

appeared to dominate the subjects' composing processes, some of them seemed to proceed in a linear fashion, i.e., writing in a lock-step manner (Cava, 1999). The current study was thus intended to reveal the actual relationship between the composing processes and strategies in L1 and L2, as well as to shed light on the factors affecting these writing processes in Libyan universities.

### ***9.2.2 Research Questions***

The current study was designed to answer the following research questions and research sub-questions (see section 6.2).

- 1- What writing processes do Libyan University students adopt while writing in L1, Arabic, and L2, English? Do they follow similar or different strategies?

Research sub- questions:

- 1- How is the linguistic knowledge of the students reflected in L1 and L2 writing?
- 2- Does the Arabic rhetoric pattern affect the students' English writing?
- 3- How does instruction influence the writing process and product of Libyan university students?

It was clear that a non-linear technique had dominated the writing processes of the subjects. The subjects' protocols showed both a similarity and a disparity of strategies when writing in both languages. Their poor linguistic knowledge in L2 tended to affect the subjects' written texts and obliged them to rely on their L1 linguistic knowledge, thus causing severe problems and numerous errors in L2. The subjects were generally not aware of English rhetoric and writing conventions and switched to using L1 conventions; the result of this was the production of extremely disorganised paragraphs in their L2 essays. A lack of instruction influenced the subjects' compositions in both languages, mainly their L1 writings.

### 9.3 Reflections on the methodology used

One aspect of the originality of the methodology designed for this study is that we adopted a qualitative methodology to show how the writing processes and strategies took place in an EFL educational context. We also used a quantitative methodology as a means of revealing how this takes place. Most research has been conducted in native English-speaking countries. Researchers generally provided little information about the subjects and the educational setting where the learning and teaching process took place: for example, the schools, teachers, curriculum, educational policy in the given country, and the purpose of learning English were overlooked. Such background information concerning the educational context is necessary because it all has an effect on our explanations of and justifications for the results. Therefore, we tried to give as much information as possible about the educational context in Libya so that our explanation of results would make more sense.

Piloting the methodology may be accounted as another aspect of the originality of this study. Some tasks were abandoned, others were modified. No previous research has conducted a pilot study to test the credibility (validity) of its tasks (see section 6.8.4).

Most studies have compared the L1 and L2 writing process by using different types of topic with different genres, in order to assess the similarities and differences between the skilled and unskilled writers. In this study, the use of the same topics to be written in both languages, beginning with L2, also contributes to the originality of this research and makes it a new contribution in the field of writing process research.

The literature review revealed that most of the relevant research used few data-collection instruments (see Chapter Two). Employing a triangulated methodology using a variety of methods such as think-aloud protocols, interviews, questionnaires,



observation, and written texts is another aspect of the methodological originality of this study.

With regard to the limitations of the study, although the size of the subject sample was small, it was suitable for this type of study, and provided rich information concerning the writing processes in both languages. However, it suggested that the larger the sample, the richer are the data available for various analyses; however, a large sample involves a huge amount of work and time, beyond the scope of this thesis.

With regard to the think-aloud protocols, which in this study represent the core source of data-collection, it is important to note that they do not provide a complete picture of the writers' thought processes. Not all writers are able to verbalise all their thought processes in the think-aloud protocols, for a variety of reasons, such as the artificial nature of the contexts in which the written texts are produced (see section 6.6.2.2). In spite of their shortcomings, however, the think-aloud protocols have proved to be suitable, useful, informative and reliable in eliciting the cognitive process data for analysis in this study.

## **9.4 Recommendations**

### ***9.4.1 Writing Process Approach***

The think-aloud protocol analyses in this study provide insights into the complexity of the composing processes and strategies of Libyan students, and highlight the composing problems that inhibit these writers from crafting more successful L1 and L2 texts. It is apparent that these subjects, who differed in their composing styles, planned very little, were more concerned with form and accuracy than with content, and encountered a host of linguistic problems. They also came across stumbling blocks when they ran out of ideas to continue writing. Teachers should take into account these problems and design appropriate and effective writing activities to

promote their writing, rather than being constrained by the shallowness of the syllabus and textbook orientation, which most of the time are not designed for subjects such as these. Teachers should also create environments conducive to writing, emphasising the three-part content (introduction, body, and conclusion) and mixing the product approach with composing process instruction. In addition, they should provide ample opportunities and plenty of time for the subjects to explore demanding tasks, gather information, and create texts (e.g. Raimes, 1983, 1985; Zamel, 1982, 1983, 1984).

Students must be taught how to approach their composing tasks in an effective and productive way. They must be taught how to postpone revising and editing and pay more attention to overall content issues, rather than to concentrate on minor mechanical issues, which take up much time but are less effective and produce less rich results. The students should be able to use word processors, which should be provided by the college, to free them from concern with spelling errors and penmanship. Additionally, the teachers should familiarise students with the conventions of L2 syntax, spelling, and punctuation, especially when their L1 is totally different from English, as Arabic is. The syntactic differences between the two languages and their underlying semantic representations reflect discrepancies not only at the rhetorical level of written text organisation but also in the amount of oral residue they allow in the written medium.

Furthermore, teachers need to build upon the strategies the students are already utilising and guide them in the development of such effective process writing strategies as invention heuristics (see, e.g., Raimes, 1985; Scardamalia and Beretier, 1986; White and Arndt, 1991). These strategies could be used as tool kits when the students face composing difficulties.

In addition, L2 writing should be taught at early stages, as this would help reduce writing problems at the later stages, when they are often difficult to correct, as is the case with the subjects of this study. Such early writing instruction could, in turn, improve the students' self-confidence in writing. As self-confidence in L2 writing ability increases, the students' reliance on L1, translation, and thinking in the L1 will diminish.

It was apparent from the interview and questionnaire responses that these subjects had received very poor instruction in English in general, which is reflected in their conversational and writing performances. The subjects' speaking responses were very poor and they could hardly understand the questions, which forced the researcher to translate and explain every question. Only 25% of the subjects responded in English, though not accurately, and their writing products were much better than those of the others.

#### ***9.4.2 Use of Arabic and Translation in the L2 Composing Process***

The findings of this study confirm that the L2 writing process is a bilingual event: L2 writers have two languages at their disposal when composing in L2, as noted by previous studies (e.g., Cumming, 1990; Lay, 1982; Uzawa and Cumming, 1989). The majority of these Libyan subjects (75%) used L1, Arabic, as the main resource when they composed in the L2, English (see section 8.8). Some of them translated parts of their verbalised utterances, whereas others relied entirely on Arabic to generate ideas, construct sentences, and produce meaningful chunks which were then translated into English before being written down. It appeared that the use of L1 and translation were integral parts of L2 composing in this study. Theoretically, the students may be encouraged to use their native language, think in it, or translate their texts, in order to facilitate the process of writing and help them avoid any linguistic barrier that may

hinder their writing flow. Moreover, considering the language proficiency and the writing ability of the EFL students at earlier stages\_preparatory and secondary schools\_ a limited use of L1 and translation, is acceptable and necessary in order to facilitate the students' understanding of and familiarisation with L2 rhetoric and conventions at the time of text generation (cf. Friedlander, 1990). The use of L1 should be reduced gradually as the students start to pick up and learn more English, and one should assist them to employ L2 more frequently instead of L1. Lay (1982) encouraged the use of L1 to help students develop their L2 writing. This is useful at least at the beginning of their L2 learning.

#### ***9.4.3 Promote Reading in Writing Classes***

It was noticed that the subjects of this study had been complaining of too little reading. They needed to read as much as they could but English material was scarce. Reading would teach them a lot and generate more ideas when they were involved in a variety of writing styles. It was clear that these subjects' written products were relatively short because they ran out of ideas. Teachers must be aware of these problems and try to solve them by encouraging the students to read more and by exposing them to interesting and naturally written texts which deal with their interests and hobbies. The more the students read, the more they will develop sensitivity to the language and absorb additional ideas, as well as more vocabulary, which they lack dramatically.

These implications can also be extended to L1. Since the subjects complained that they had had no writing instruction in L1, this issue needs to be re-examined and emphasised. Arabic writing teachers should learn how to introduce and teach this subject.



## 9.5 Implications for Writing Instruction

The findings of this study could have several implications for L1 and L2 writing instruction:

- We should be aware that even if the students come from the same L1-educational background, the experiences they have had within the context of schooling could vary greatly. Therefore, it is important for teachers in EFL contexts to find out about their students' backgrounds, particularly in terms of what kind of literacy training they have received in L1 and L2. By eliciting this kind of background information, we can become aware of students' strengths in relation to L1 literacy and build on those strengths when helping them to acquire L2 literacy.
- With regard to L1 reading instruction, if our students have received extensive training in drawing inferences from what they read, they can use their L1 inferencing skills to enhance their L2 reading abilities. In particular, we emphasise reading activities that focus on finding referents and drawing implications from L2 texts, pointing out similarities and differences between such activities and their previous L1 training. Similarly, students who report having learned to write in L1 through reading extensively can be encouraged to transfer this approach to their acquisition of L2 writing. Thus, as teachers, we can make effective use of our students' view of learning to write through reading. At an early stage, they may rely on imitation of the texts they read; however, with careful guidance, for example, by changing the nature of writing tasks from controlled to less controlled, the degree of reliance on imitation should be lessened.

- With respect to the students' L1 writing instruction, teachers could find out whether each student has had specialised training in writing essays for course work and/or examinations. If so, the knowledge students have gained may be transferable to their L2 writing. Although the notion of composing competence across a writer's L1 and L2 still remains controversial, the positive effects of L1 writing, including L1 writing ability, expertise, and writing strategies, on L2 writing have been documented. The experience students have gained from their L1 training may facilitate their L2 writing, especially in terms of generating and organising ideas for their compositions.
- If it turns out that our students have had only expressive writing experience in their L1, it would be useful for them to start with personal writing in L2, including journal entries or letters or e-mail exchanges. In this way we can provide opportunities for our students to feel that they can express themselves through L2 writing, though how much they are able to write will depend upon their level of L2 proficiency.
- Lack of meaningful writing is a result of poor reading experience. Our high school and university students have never been trained, in terms of information evaluation, to develop critical reading. Furthermore, many of our students have had no experience of the process of obtaining information from external sources and incorporating it in their arguments. Our students have not been taught the academic conventions for the citation of external sources. This was evident in their writings in both Arabic and English, although external source materials are available in terms of the Holy Quran, The Prophet's Hadith, Classical Poetry, etc.

- The similarities noted between the processes of EFL students and native-speaker students, both from the literature and from the findings of the current study, suggest that many of the teaching techniques recommended for L1 students are appropriate for L2 learners, particularly if social and cultural aspects are accounted for. It is apparent that EFL students start learning L2 when they have already experienced their L1 and bring different linguistic backgrounds to a writing class. Therefore, any programme of instruction should take into account the fact that EFL students have internalised strategies for their writing, not all of which may be facilitative, which may need to be developed, refined, or even changed.
- An EFL curriculum should take into account the difficulty of the skill of writing. While the literature on the process approach to teaching EFL students emphasises revision as the main component of instruction, the findings of this study indicate that rehearsing and planning need more focus, since they provide EFL writers with a sense of choice and therefore give them more confidence and more to write about. Revising becomes possible only once the students have explored a topic thoroughly.
- Despite the similarities between writing strategies in composing in L1 and L2, teaching plans should take into account the differences between the languages, especially when students are asked to write on the same topic. The literature indicated that EFL students showed a greater commitment to the task of writing, though difficulty and the lack of L2 writing conventions often restricted them to producing only one unrefined draft.
- It was evident that the main reason for switching to L1 while writing in L2 was the subjects' poor mastery of English. It was apparent from the protocols

that these subjects paused and switched to Arabic in order to continue their writing processes and complete their written tasks. They rehearsed and attempted to construct sentences in Arabic, then went back again to translate them into English. Their ideas were clear in Arabic but they lacked the linguistic repertoire to express themselves in English. Thus, the best course of action may be to find ways of improving the students' general proficiency in English by offering more hours at the fundamental stages.

- In order to improve the EFL students' proficiency, we need to concentrate on the communicative approach, paying special attention to their culture and beliefs. The traditional instructional methods cannot accommodate these significant aspects of teaching writing.
- Correlating the subjects' writing abilities in both languages implies that most of their problems in L2 writing can be linked to the deep-rooted problems in L1 writing. It follows from this point that learners of English need to be taught about English text awareness rather than about transferring. This can be done by guiding learners to look critically and analytically at English texts written by native speakers of English, which will in turn assist their own writing. Simultaneously, the learners will improve their general language proficiency by following these strategies. In addition, more attention should be paid to L1 composition, and instruction methods may need to be revised. The lack of instruction seemed to be the primary reason for the poor L1 texts.
- There should be an accommodation between the writing process and product approaches, which would offer a rich potential for ESL writing pedagogy since one cannot divorce the process from the product.



- Although traditional writing pedagogy has addressed certain composing problems such as grammar and rhetorical organisation and text errors, they do not account for others. Therefore, instructors need to ascertain which factors and behaviours have played a role in inhibiting composition growth. Such a diagnostic action requires the identification of those components of each student's writing process that facilitates or inhibit his or her writing before any further teaching occurs.
- In addition to types of writing behaviour, instructors must be aware of an important factor that plays a prominent role in the EFL writer's production of a text, namely, the attitudes and perceptions he or she holds about him or herself as a writer, and about the writing act itself. These attitudes and perceptions can influence approaches to writing tasks with regard to both composing process and final product.
- In the light of what has been mentioned above, a reconsideration of Arabic teaching objectives and curricula needs to be the first priority at Libyan universities. Accordingly, Arabic course-books need to deal with the applied aspects of writing, not just with classical structural issues. Following the same pattern applied to ELT (English Language Teaching), Arabic teaching would be very practical if it was communicative. Ignoring Arabic communicative writing skills and sub-skills means Arabic teaching is still lagging behind modern language teaching even in countries where it is spoken as the first language.
- The study shows that Arab student writers need to distinguish between English and Arabic rhetorical features when they are involved in any type of written discourse. They need to be aware that they should not allow Arabic rhetoric to

interfere with their English writing because it negatively affects the communication intended.

- Of much relevance to this issue is the idea that English major students need to be taught and encouraged to think in English when writing in English, rather than translating literally and ignoring linguistic and cultural aspects in their translation. This study found that, when writing in English, most subjects usually thought and prepared their ideas in their L1 and then translated them into English, which resulted in a sort of negative transfer that produced unsatisfactorily written L2 samples.
- It was very clear that lack of L1 writing instruction had resulted in a deficiency in these subjects' writing not only in Arabic, but also in writing in L2, English. The subjects claimed that they had received no instruction whatsoever in L1 writing during their whole academic life, including elementary and intermediate schooling. They had received no guidance that might have resulted at least in distinguishing between the written text format and narrative forms. All the subjects acknowledged the discrepancy in standards between their writing in L1 and L2, and attributed this to poor instruction in L1. If they had been well-instructed in their early academic life, they probably would have not encountered these problems.
- Students will be able to communicate more effectively if they are exposed to models not only of standard paragraph and/or essay writing, but also a variety of genres of writing, including flyers, magazine articles, letters, etc. Various writing models can be beneficial in text analysis, which assists L2 writers to determine how particular grammatical features are used in authentic discourse contexts.

- In addition, attention should be paid to social factors which influence the quality of contact that learners will experience. Instructors should recommend and encourage their students to read academic texts, attend academic lectures and, if possible, work with L2 native speakers to become more familiar with the discourse. Unfortunately, lack of exposure slows down L2 development in all skill areas. Therefore, we recommend regular visits to L2-speaking environments in order to help our students interact with their L2 native-speaking peers and benefit from their social life, experience their culture, and learn the target language in its homeland.
- One of the significant implications of this study is that there should be co-ordination between university writing courses and pre-college writing curricula in both L1 and L2. University staff and pre-college teachers would preferably be encouraged to meet and discuss the writing problems encountered by their students, try to determine the causes of these problems and suggest the best solutions to help their students write properly in both languages.
- As revealed by the findings of this study, some subjects were unsuccessful in producing their essays. They need special care and advice on the part of the teachers. They need to know how to use writing strategies in a fruitful way. Therefore, the researcher suggests a need analysis approach in teaching writing, to help inspire course designers and teachers not only at university level but to include the whole education system.
- Needs analysis helps us to understand how our students write in terms of their strengths and weaknesses, and how we can help them develop strategies achieving the goals of writing. It also helps to make us aware of the formal

instruction the subjects have received over previous years and how that could be amended and developed. And it helps us in knowing what feedback they should receive.

Finally, if the suggested recommendations are implemented, we will certainly obtain good results and greatly improve the L1 and L2 writing performance of our students.

## **9.6 Suggestions for Further Research**

Although the current study has answered various related questions, it has also raised some questions for further research. An intensive inquiry is needed broadly to investigate the nature of the writing act. A descriptive study such as this serves as a springboard for a number of further composition studies. These studies are needed fully to construct the cognitive processes of EFL student writers, and should examine each sub-process individually in order to carry out an in-depth investigation and obtain more concrete results.

- This study should be replicated to confirm the results. Teachers may benefit from it if they are interested in understanding their students' writing strategies. Replication of the results may help in designing writing courses for university students.
- Although the sample of the current study is reasonable, the researcher suggests further research on larger samples and on groups of more widely differing writing proficiency. This would provided more information on how to deal with and assist our students' writing.
- The importance of writing in L1 as well as in L2 must be stressed to language teachers and curriculum designers, and then to the students, so that they make use of their writing classes. Since this study is the first of its type, and since it has investigated the writing process stages, planning, writing, and reviewing,



without particular focus on any one of them, it is necessary to investigate each aspect individually, with more subjects majoring in English as a foreign language, in order to make a more exact assessment of what occurs during each stage.

- Future research should include topics of the subjects' own selection, since this might uncover other interesting cognitive processes which are not revealed by this study.
- We need further research on multilingual subjects. Since this investigation was a case study involving a group with only one linguistic background and a limited domain approach, it would be interesting to examine the L1 and L2 writing behaviour of other linguistic groups to determine whether the types of behaviour exhibited by the subjects of this study are language-specific or if they are used in other L1 and L2 writing settings, regardless of the subjects' native language.
- The present study was undertaken in order to describe general composing processes. Thus specific aspects need to be investigated thoroughly in both L1 and L2, such as planning, writing and revising; pauses also should be paid some attention to see when the writers pause and how they react when they have specific problems in any aspect, etc.
- The focus of this study has been on descriptive types of discourse. We suggest further research on different genres, such as narrative, expository, exploratory and argumentative discourse. An examination of these genres would provide insight into the cognitive processes of the students and the strategies they use.
- Although the subjects who participated in this study exhibited different levels of L2 linguistic and rhetorical competence, they could be characterised as low

intermediate and elementary level EFL writers. The question could be asked whether the behaviour of these subjects is typical of only this particular level.

- Since the students wrote in the way they had been instructed at school, the influence of L1 and L2 composition instruction, including information on curricula and interviews and questionnaires for teachers, should be investigated with a broader scope, using students' written products and writing processes.
- Additional research is needed to determine whether the use of translation is natural or necessary in the development of EFL writers.
- Since we have not found any significant differences between genders, further research should focus on this issue and investigate to what extent gender affects the EFL students' writing processes and strategies.
- As word processors are now commonly used in many different fields, EFL composition research may find an exciting new territory to explore, looking at the differences between the effects of composing with pens and with computers. Technology should be exploited in teaching EFL writing.

The researcher hopes that this study on the composing processes of the third-year Libyan university students will significantly contribute to the understanding of the L1 and L2 writing processes of non-native speakers of English. The production of the EFL writers in both languages differs according to their writing competence in their L1, which has an effect on their writing in general. The teachers' instruction in writing classes should be sufficiently clear and accurate to help students acquire the capabilities they need before engaging in the writing process. The rhetorical conventions of the different languages should be considered and the development of a

theory of composition should be extended to L2 languages other than English in order to make it universal.

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# APPENDICES

## Appendix 1

### Subject's Consent

#### *Dear subject*

I am working on my doctoral degree in teaching English as a foreign language. I am particularly interested in teaching writing. There is a large body of research that describes what students write but on the contrary, very little about how these students write. I suspect that the writing processes are quite different from the written products. Therefore, this study aims to investigate your writing processes rather than written products. I have chosen to study this phenomenon in order to understand how our students write their essays and assignments and what should be done to avoid any difficulties encounter us in the future.

We want to know how you (1) plan your essays, (2) get your thoughts on paper, (3) how much revising, crossing out, or changing you are likely to do, and (4) how that can be similar or different from your native language (Arabic) writing.

Since the study is more likely descriptive, it will mainly focus on the process you use to write your essays in both languages Arabic and English. We are interested in capturing realistic scenarios including breaks, interruptions, and any other environmental influences on your writing.

If you decide to participate in the study, here is what would happen:

- 1- You will be given an '*Educational Background and Attitude Questionnaire*' in order to see how you used to write in both languages.
- 2- You will be trained on a certain writing technique that you might not be familiar with. It is called "Thinking-aloud Protocols" in which you will verbalise, speak out, whatever comes to your mind while you are writing your essays in both languages.
- 3- You will be asked to write an essay in English and then in Arabic, the same topic will be written twice.
- 4- I will tape record you as you are writing your essays. A tape recorder will be switched on as soon as I give you the writing prompt. In addition, I will keep observing you from a near distance to capture your writing environment.
- 5- After a short break you will discuss with the researcher what you have written in each essay. You will be asked some questions related to your writing, how, why, and what.
- 6- I will interview you to find out about your writing style, any writing instruction or assistance you have received. The interview will likely last 30-45 minutes. The interview and your comments will be tape-recorded and transcribed for future reference.
- 7- The second questionnaire, *Writing Processes Questionnaire*, will be explained in both languages and given to you to answer. It takes 15-30 minutes to fill it in.

- 8- You will be asked to write another essay about a similar topic in both languages considering the same procedure that we followed in the previous one.
- 9- Both You and I will listen to your tape-recorded essays and I will ask you some questions about your writing and will tape record responses. I might ask you how you use your notes, which parts of the essay were the easiest or the most difficult and why, why you chose a certain word instead of the other, or what you were thinking during pauses. Moreover, your notes, drafts, and the main copy of your essay will be used in the analysis phase of the study.
- 10- After collecting all the necessary data for the study, I will analyse the results. Of course, you will be given the opportunity to read the final and completed dissertation copy that will be given to the English Department.

Therefore, participation in this study is *voluntary*. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your relationship with the English Department. Furthermore, your personal information and documents will be held in full confidentiality and privacy. The study will be conducted during your regular studying hours. You can withdraw your consent and discontinue participation at any time and under any circumstances.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please sign the statement below. This form will be collected and separately maintained from your writing essays.

---

I have read the information on the form and I consent to volunteer as a subject in this study. I understand that my responses are completely confidential and that I have the right to withdraw at any time.

Name: .....

Signature: .....

Date: .....

**Appendix 2**

**Informed Consent Form**

**Chairman of English Department  
Faculty of Education  
University of El-Fateh  
Tripoli, Libya**

**University of Newcastle  
Department of Education  
Centre for International Studies**

**Fax:  
E-mail:**

**Date: .....**

**Dear Dr. M. Tuns:**

**This field study project is a part of a Ph.D. dissertation at University of Newcastle, England. The researcher aims to investigate the writing processes of English and Arabic compositions written by a sample of third year students, 2000/2001.**

**On part of students, this project includes 3 questionnaires, 1 interview, 2 thinking-aloud protocols, and 1 observation. The teachers will be given a questionnaire and interviewed.**

**The student sample will be met several times through a period of 8 weeks, whereas the teachers will be met only twice. The researcher intends to observe some writing classes when obtain permission from the class teachers.**

**Your permission and assistance are highly appreciated.**

**Thank you.**

**Dr. Paul Seedhouse  
Project Supervisor  
Dept. of Education**

**Aboubaker A. El-Aswad  
Dept. of Education**



## Appendix 3a

### Topic One

#### *Prompts*

- 1- Be sure that the tape recorder is switched on the minute you receive this prompt.
- 2- Read, carefully, what you are asked to do.
- 3- Try to think-aloud; speak aloud, all your thoughts to be recorded.
- 4- Your thinking-aloud protocols must be recorded in all drafts.
- 5- Don't be quiet when want to change anything of your essay.
- 6- If you have any difficulties please let me know.

Here is the *topic*

***In our academic life, we meet different teachers, males and females. Some are so good and leave positive impression in us. Others, unfortunately, are the opposite. Both types leave attitudes toward them.***

Write an essay about *one* of these two types of your teachers. Mention what made you classify him/her in that position. Make yourself as explicit as you can.

#### Directions

Here, you are asked to write about your 'good' or 'bad' teacher. The teacher you liked best or disliked most. Write about how s/he used to behave while teaching. What methods did s/he use in teaching? How s/he treated you as students and human beings. Was s/he qualified to teach that certain subject or not. Other characteristics that made you like or dislike him or her.

***Please speak out whatever comes to your mind while composing.***

Topic Two

*Prompts*

- 7- Be sure that the tape recorder is switched on the minute you receive this prompt.
- 8- Read, carefully, what you are asked to do.
- 9- Try to think-aloud; speak aloud, all your thoughts to be recorded.
- 10- Your thinking-aloud protocols must be recorded in all drafts.
- 11- Don't be quiet when want to change anything of your essay.
- 12- If you have any difficulties please let me know.

Here is the *topic*

***Describe your classroom and compare it with the model classrooms you have seen or read about. Mention the advantages/ disadvantages of your classroom and how it suits the learning process, students number, general healthy atmosphere, and a foreign language learning.***

Subject (1) Written and verbal Composition

Topic One

English Essay

Original Copy

The relationship between students and teachers must be very close, Because when student love his teacher will study if it is very difficult.

In primary school, There was a teacher taught in mathatics she hit me hardly when I made mistake so I hate me and I don't like her subject because when I wont study that subject I remmber that so I cannot

But there ano was another teacher sience taught me sience and she deals kindly so I love her and so I like to study her subject and I got high marks on it I like stile remmber remmber Bcause my good teacher and I will remmber all of life

Written words 125

Errors 35

Percent 28%

Thinking-aloud Protocols

- 1 ((In the name of God, Most Gracious, Most Merciful)). بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم
- 2 The realtionship, relaaaaa.... relaaaa...tion..ship العلاقة ((the relationship)),
- 3 the relationship between العلاقة بين المدرس و العلاقة ((the relationship
- 4 between the teacher and the relationship)) the relationship between the
- 5 students and teachers must be, must be very close, must be very close because
- 6 when because when شني ((what?)) because when, because when,
- 7 whennnnnnn....the because when student love his teacher, love his teacher,
- 8 teacher, will study, will study, will study if it is very difficult, diffiiiiiiicult.
- 9 In primary school, in primary school there was, there was شنو ((what)), there
- 10 was, there was كانت هناك معلمة ((there was a teacher)) كانت هناك معلمة ((there
- 11 was a teacher)), there was a teacher, there was a teacher taught me in matics,
- 12 tics, tics (mathematics) انقول ((I would say)), she hit me hardly when I made
- 13 mistakes, missss taaakessss, when I made mistakes, when I made mistake ترة
- 14 مرة ثانية ((let me see , what I have written, again)) (rereading) In primary
- 15 school there was teacher taught me in mathtics. She hit hardly when I made
- 16 mistakes. So I hate me. A....., a....., and so I hate me انقول لهذا اتي نكرها
- 17 لهذا انا ((I say I hate her for this reason)) لهذا السبب
- 18 نكرها وبعد شنو لهذا انا ((I hate her for this reason, what else?)) So I hate
- 19 شنو ((what)) so hate me and and....., a....., and....., I don't like
- 20 that, her subject, I don't like her subject لا غلط ((no wrong)) because when I
- 21 study because when I study that subject I remember.....
- 22 (The researcher came in and saw that the subject was silent. He urged her not
- 23 to be quiet while writing, otherwise she would rewrite the whole essay. The
- 24 subject responded باهي ((yes)). I remember, and I don't like her subject

25 because when I study that subject I remember, I remember that so I لا لا لا  
 26 ((no. no.no)) لا نقول ((no, I say)), when I want study that subject I remember  
 27 that so I cant. ,....., وبعدين انقول ahhh وبعدين انقول ((what else I may say,  
 28 what else I may say)).But there, there ano, there was another, خطأ ((wrong))  
 29 لكن هناك كانت but there was another teacher, but there was another teacher  
 30 معلمة أخرى ((but there was another teacher)) (knocking on the table while  
 31 thinking over what to write next) صح كانت هناك ((right, there  
 32 was)) ا ا ا كانت معلمة أخرى ((there was another teacher)), another teacher  
 33 sine, science taught me افة خطأ ((ahh wrong)), but there was another teacher  
 34 taught me science, science, science and she deals kindly so I love her. So I  
 35 love her, so I love her مرة ثانية نقول ((I say for the second time)), there is but  
 36 there was another teacher taught me science and she deals kindly. So I love  
 37 her, I love her, I love her and نقول ((I say)) and I love her and I like and so I  
 38 like نقول ((I say)) , so I like, so, so, so I like to study her subject her subject,  
 39 her subject. I like to study her, I like to study her, I like to study, I like to study  
 40 her subject وبعدين نقول ((what I may say later on)) umm, umm, umm, I, I,  
 41 انقول خطأ ((I say, wrong)), marks all big. بعدين انا تحب نذكرها ((I would like to say I want to  
 42 remember her)) انا نحب نذكرها ((I love to remember her)) still now انقول ((I  
 43 say)) I like, like still والا ((or else)) I still like, I like still, I like still remember,  
 44 نذكرها remember, remember, I like still remember, I like still remember  
 45 ((remember her)) because , because....., my good teacher, because my good  
 46 teacher, because my good teacher اة مدرسة كويسة ((ahh she was a good  
 47 teacher)) وبعدين نقول ((I also say)) I will remember انقول ((I say)) I will  
 48 remember وبعدين نقول ((I say also)) and I will remember all of life.

Total Text Words 669

Commenting Words 45

Arabic Used Words 154

Pure Spoken English 318

Translating Words 151

Written Words 125

Written Word Proportion 39.30%





العلاقة بين الطالب والمعلم حبذا لو تكون علاقة ود واحترام متبادل من كلا الطرفين وذلك حتى يدرس الطالب تلك المادة العلمية التي يعطيها له المعلم بحب وتقدير حتى لو كانت تلك المادة يوجد بها صعوبة. عندما كنت أدرس في الإعدادية كانت هناك معلمة تدرسنني في مادة الرياضيات وكان استيعابي أنا إلى مادة الرياضيات بطيء حيث أن المعلمة لم تتفهم ذلك وأنا هنا أتكلم عن نفسي كمثال للعدد من الطلاب الذي كانوا في نفس المرحلة أو غيرها من مراحل الدراسة حيث كان أسلوبها الوحيد هو الضرب والعقاب لذلك أنا توجهت في الدراسة الثانوية إلى الدخول في التخصص الأدبي وذلك لعدم دراستي تلك المادة. وفي تلك الفترة كمثال آخر لشريحة من المعلمات كان يوجد لدينا معلمة في مادة العلوم حيث كانت تبدل مجهود في الشرح ومحاولة توصيل المعلومة بشتى الطرق وكان أسلوبها جداً رقيق وودود لهذا أنا عندما أدرس مادة العلوم أدرسها براحة وعمق حيث أنعكس ذلك بالتالي على علامات تلك المادة ومن هنا أقول بأن الأسلوب التعليمي الحضاري يجب أن يكون أسلوب متفهم ومنظم بحيث تكون العملية التعليمية للطلاب والمدرس صحيحة ومنظمة وبالتالي تعود بنتيجة تحصيل دراسي جيد لدى الطلاب. ونفس المنوال يكون عليه في الجامعة التي هي الفترة التي أدرس بها الآن حيث يوجد العديد من نماذج من الدكتوراة فمنهم يكون متفهم للطلاب ويبدل مجهوداً في الشرح وكذلك له القدرة في إيصال المعلومة بأسلوب مبسط وواضح بدون وضع أي مقدمات حول صعوبة تلك المادة وبالتالي التحصيل الدراسي للطلاب الذي لديه الرغبة الفعلية في الدراسة وبذل المجهود جيدة ( ) ولكن يوجد جانب آخر من الدكتوراة في الجامعة حيث يكون شرحه غير واضح ومختصر ( ) حيث للطلاب لا يستوعب تلك المواد ( ) وكذلك تخويف بعض الدكتوراة للطلبة من ناحية منهج تلك المادة ( ) أنا شخصياً تعرضت وزميلاتي لذلك الموقف ( ) حيث أخبرنا دكتور إحدى المواد بأنه سوف تكون أسئلة النصفية للمادة الذي يدرسها صعبة ولن يستطيع الإجابة عنها إلا الممتاز ( ) وبالتالي الأمر يكون تعجيز لنا كطلاب وتحطيم للمعنويات ( ) وبذلك لم ندرس تلك المادة حيث النتيجة ستكون متوقعة

Written Words 336

Errors 65

Error Proportion 19.34%

التفكير بصوت عل

ناقشت الطالبة بعض النقاط مع الباحث

سألت عن الوقت خوفاً من فواته

قالت: "ما هو خاتمة يفوت الموضوع هذا"

ثم قالت: "بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم" وشرعت في الكتابة

لولا أقول العلاقة ..... لا موش العلاقة ..... صلة التواصل بين ..... ما تجيش ..... لا.....

أقول العلاقة بين ..... لا ما تجيش موش نفسها صلة التواصل. ليه ..... بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم، أقول

صلة التواصل بين ..... مني صلة التواصل؟ ما تجيش. باهي أنا كتبت التواصل، صلة التواصل بين، صلة

التواصل بين الطالب ومعلمه، صلة التواصل بين، العلاقة بين المعلم، خلي نكتبوا العلاقة وخلص. العلاقة،

العلاقة، العلاقة بين الطالب والمعلم ..... العلاقة بين الطالب والمعلم، العلاقة بين الطالب والمعلم أه .. حبذا

لو تكون علاقة ود واحترام متبادل من كلا الطرفين .. وذلك حتى يدرس الطالب، حتى يدرس الطالب

تلك المواد، حتى يدرس الطالب تلك المادة العلمية التي يعطيها له المعلم بحب وتقدير، حتى لو كانت تلك المادة

يوجد بها صعوبة، يوجد بها صعوبة، وتقدير حتى لو كانت تلك المادة يوجد بها صعوبة. وبعدين إجي لنقطة،

أقول ..... أقول، ببعدين أقول، أقول ..... عندما كنت أدرس، عندما كنت أدرس، عندما كنت

أدرس في الإعدادية، كانت هناك معلمة تدرسنني في مادة الرياضيات. وكان استيعابي أنا في مادة الرياضيات

بطيء. حيث أن المعلمة لم تتفهم ذلك. وأنا هنا أتكلم عن نفسي كمثال لعدد من، من الطلاب الذين كانوا في

نفس، نفس المرحلة أو غيرها من مراحل الدراسة. حيث كان أسلوبها الوحيد هو الضرب والعقاب، والعقاب.

لذلك أنا توجهت في الدراسة الثانوية إلى التخصص ..... لا ..... إلى الدخول، إلى التخصص، إلى الدخول،

إلى الدخول في التخصص، التخصص الأدبي، وذلك لعدم دراستي تلك المادة، تلك المادة، عدم دراستي تلك المادة.

وبعدين أقول، إندبر نقطة. وبعدين أقول عندما كنت أدرس في الإعدادية كتبت هناك معلمة تدرسنني في مادة الرياضيات وكان

استيعابي أنا إلى مادة الرياضيات بطيء. حيث أن المعلمة لم تتفهم ذلك. وأنا هنا أتكلم عن

نفس كمثال لعدد من الطلاب الذين كانوا في نفس المرحلة أو غيرها من مراحل الدراسة. حيث كان أسلوبها

الوحيد هو الضرب والعقاب. لذلك أنا توجهت في الدراسة الثانوية إلى التخصص الأدبي وذلك لعدم دراستي تلك

المادة، عدم دراستي تلك المادة، تلك المادة.  
وفي تلك الفترة، كمثال آخر لشريحة من المعلمات، كانت يوجد لدينا معلمة، كان يوجد لدينا معلمة في مادة العلوم حيث كانت تبذل مجهود في، تبذل مجهود في الشرح ومحاولة توصيل المعلومة إلى الطالب، خطأ، بشئ الطرق. وكان أسلوبها جداً رقيق وودود وودود. لهذا أنا عندما أدرس مادة العلوم أدرسها براحة وعمق، براحة، مادة العلوم أدرسها براحة وعمق حيث تعكس ذلك بالتالي على علامات تلك المادة.  
ومن هنا، ومن هنا أقول بأن الأسلوب، الأسلوب التعليمي الحضاري يجب أن يكون أسلوب متهم، أسلوب متهم، التعليمي الحضاري يجب أن يكون أسلوب متهم، وودود، أن يكون أسلوب متهم، و.....، أسلوب متهم، متدبرش و، أسلوب متهم، حبذا، أسلوب متهم، أسلوب متهم و منظم بحيث تكون العملية التعليمية، بحيث تكون العملية التعليمية للطالب والمدرس صحيحة، صحيحة ومنظمة وبالتالي، ومنظمة وبالتالي  
تعود بنتيجة تحصيل دراسي جيد لدى الطلاب. أ..... أ..... تعود بنتيجة، حبة نتيجة غلط بنتيجة، تعود بنتيجة تحصيل دراسي جيد لدى الطلاب.

(مست الطالب فترة طويلة تزيد على أربع دقائق.....،.....،.....، ثم تستأنف الكتابة)  
أقول باختصار، باختصار، بشئ أقول؟ باختصار، بشئ، باهي باختصار، باختصار، باختصار، باختصار، مش باختصار، خطأ. أقول ونفس المنوال يكون عليه في الجامعة التي هي الفترة التي أدرس بها الآن حيث يوجد العديد من نماذج الدكتوراة. فمنهم يكون متهم للطالب ويبذل مجهوداً في الشرح وكذلك له الفترة في إيصال المعلومة بأسلوب أ.....، بأسلوب مبسط وواضح بدون أي، بدون وضع أي مقدمات حول صعوبة تلك المادة. وبالتالي التحصيل الدراسي للطالب الذي لديه الرغبة الفعلية في الدراسة وبذل المجهود. أ.....، ولكن أقول يوجد جانب آخر للدكتوراة في الجامعة حيث يكون شرحه غير واضح ومختصر ومقتصر على ما وجد، غير واضح ومقتصر حيث الطالب لا يستوعب تلك المواد وكذلك وضع وضع، وكذلك، كذلك، كذا؟ كنتك يوجد جانب آخر للدكتوراة في الجامعة حيث يكون شرحه غير واضح ومختصر حيث الطالب لا يستوعب تلك المواد.  
(توقف الطلبة لشطب بعض ما كتبت) وكذلك تخويف بعض الدكتوراة للطلبة من ناحية منهج تلك المادة.  
أقول أنا شخصياً تعرضت لموقف، أنا شخصياً تعرضت وزميلاتي لذلك الموقف، حيث أخبرنا في السنة حيث كن، لا.....، حيث أخبرنا دكتور إحدى المواد بأنه سوف يقدم لنا، سوف تكون، تكون لسنة النصفية للمادة، الكادة التي يدرسها صعبة ولن، ولن يستطيع الإجابة عنها إلا الممتاز. وهذا الأمر يكون تعجيز لنا كطلاب وتحطيم للمعنويات، وتحطيم للمعنويات. وبذلك لم ندرس تلك المادة جيداً. لم ندرس لك المادة جيداً. حيث النتيجة ستكون متوقعة والحمد لله.  
قرأت الطالبة ما كتبت كمراجعة أخيرة.

العلاقة بين الطالب والمعلم حبذا لو تكون علاقة ود واحترام متبادل من كلا الطرفين وذلك حتى يدرس الطالب تلك المادة العلمية التي يعطيها له المعلم بحب وتهم حتى لو كانت تلك المادة يوجد بها صعوبة. عندما كنت أدرس في الإعدادية كانت هناك معلمة تدرسني في مادة الرياضيات وكان استيعابي أنا إلى مادة الرياضيات بطيء حيث أن المعلمة لم تتهم ذلك وأنا هنا أتكلم عن نفسي كمثال للعديد من الطلاب الذي كانوا في نفس المرحلة أو غيرها من مراحل الدراسة حيث كان أسلوبها الوحيد هو الضرب والعقاب لذلك أنا توجهت في الدراسة الثانوية إلى الدخول في التخصص الأدبي وذلك لعدم دراستي تلك المادة.  
وفي تلك الفترة كمثال آخر لشريحة من المعلمات كان يوجد لدينا معلمة في مادة العلوم حيث كانت تبذل مجهود في الشرح ومحاولة توصيل المعلومة بشئ الطرق وكان أسلوبها جداً رقيق وودود لهذا أنا عندما أدرس مادة العلوم أدرسها براحة وعمق حيث تعكس ذلك بالتالي على علامات تلك المادة ومن هنا أقول بأن الأسلوب التعليمي الحضاري يجب أن يكون أسلوب متهم ومنظم بحيث تكون العملية التعليمية للطالب والمدرس صحيحة ومنظمة وبالتالي تعود بنتيجة تحصيل دراسي جيد لدى الطلاب. ونفس المنوال يكون عليه في الجامعة التي هي الفترة التي أدرس بها الآن حيث يوجد العديد من نماذج من الدكتوراة فمنهم يكون متهم للطالب ويبذل مجهوداً في الشرح وكذلك له الفترة في إيصال المعلومة بأسلوب مبسط وواضح بدون وضع أي مقدمات حول صعوبة تلك المادة وبالتالي التحصيل الدراسي للطالب الذي لديه الرغبة الفعلية في الدراسة وبذل المجهود جيدة ( )

ولكن يوجد جانب آخر من الدكتوراة في الجامعة حيث يكون شرحه غير واضح ومختصر ( ) حيث الطالب لا يستوعب تلك المواد ( ) وكذلك تخويف بعض الدكتوراة للطلبة من ناحية منهج تلك المادة ( ) أنا شخصياً تعرضت وزميلاتي لذلك الموقف ( ) حيث أخبرنا دكتور إحدى المواد بأنه سوف تكون لسنة النصفية للمادة الذي يدرسها صعبة ولن يستطيع الإجابة عنها إلا الممتاز ( ) وبالتالي الأمر يكون تعجيز لنا كطلاب وتحطيم للمعنويات ( ) وبذلك لم ندرس تلك المادة حيث النتيجة ستكون متوقعة

Total Text 705

Written Words 336

Commenting Words 16

Dropped Words 353

Pure Arabic Spoken Words 689

Written Word proportion 48.76%



I am a student in Libyen university at English department. our classroom are not big enough to include us because we are too many and the classroom are small for us and we can not understand cerefully from our doctors and it is dirty.the generell healthy atmosphere is not good also the windos they are broken and the doors to that make the externel view is too bad and the desks are broken and are bad.about the height it's ok. The learner process is not good enough on to the studens in third year at English department and about a foreign language learne they don't teach in a perfect way and this is a big misteke.in short our room is bad andnobody can to learn in it.and if campere between our between our classrooms and model classrooms I find our classroom are quite different from the model classrooms, I feel sorrow for that

Written Words 161

Errors 46

Error Proportion 28.57

Thinking-aloud Protocols

"بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم"

((In the name of God, Most Gracious, Most Merciful))

نكتب

((I write))

I am a student a sto in Libyan Libyan libyan very city in English, in English, at , at at English de part ment department وبعدين إتدبروا نقطة ((we put a full stop)) our classes classes are not our classes)) our classes room is are are not big eenough enough enough خطأ ((wrong)) enough enough enoughh to include to, to to, to a.. include, include, include include include, include us ليوه ((yes)) because , because they are toooooo شنو ((what)) toooo many too many and and the classes room and the glassesroom smell لا ((no)), are smell for us, for us, for us, for us, for us, for us إتقول ((I say)) and, and we cannot and we cannot understand and we can not understand, undeceeeerstand understand care, care, carefully, carefully, carefully, carefully شني ((what)) carefully, carefully, carefully, our understand carefully from doctor from, from, fromنا من (دكتورنا, من ((from our doctor, our doctor)) from our doctors, doctors, doctors, and it is and it is so and, and it is , it is so ما تجيش ((cannot be done)) so much, too much, so, so, it is dirty, it is dirty, it is dirty, and it is dirty إتقول ((I say)) it is dirty. إتدبر نقطة، وبعدين نبدا من هنا. إتقول ((I say)) ahhhhh, ahhhhh, the general لا ((no)) the general hellllll, the general hellllllllllll, the general healthy ولا ((or)) healdy, the general helll الصحة ((health)) the general عموما الصحة ((generally, the health)) is not good ما تجيش ((cannot be said like that)) the general heady atmosphere وبعدين إتقول ما تجيش، وبعدين إتقول ((cannot be said like this, I carry on saying)) the, the, the geneeral general or generel, general, generel, general, generel heandy ولا ((or)) healthy, healty healthy atmos pher is not good is not good, is not good إتقول .....، إتقول ((I carry on saying, saying also, also, also)) the windows they are broke ما تجيش ((cannot



توة حكينا على الروشن، توة نحكوا على be said like that)) break, broke, broken and the الباب ((we have already spoken about the window, now let's talk about the door)) the door نكتبوا ((we write))door نكتبوا ((or we write)) doors صفة ((the plural of door)) the doors that mek, and the doors to that mek, that make the external view, view is toooo bad. And the desk are not enough ما ما ..... , ..... , انقول ((I say)) and the desk, and the desks, and the deskz and the desk are broken, broken and are bad, bad, and bad and bad نقطة وبعدين اندير نقطة ((or)) وانا ((I put a full-stop and say)) about the about the height it, it, it وانا ((then I say, I put a comma, then I say)) the learner, ner process is not process is not good enough, enough, enough ؟ شني ((what?)) Enough as enough on to, to students in third year at English department, department انقول، انقول، انقول ((I say, I say, I say)) ahhh , and about, about a forejin language, language, language ,language learner, language learner they don't, they don't study, they don't teaching, teaching وانا ((or)) teach, teaching, teaching, teach, teach, and about forjin language learner they not teach, teach, teach in a pair fact and this is and perfect way, and this is a big mis take mistake, mistake, mistake, mistake انقول ((I say))

In short, in short, our room is bad ولا أحد يستطيع التعلم فيهم ((no one can study in them)) the classrooms, and , and they cannot and ؟ شني ((what?)) And, and nobody, and nobody, nobody ؟ nobody ((can we use 'nobody'?)) And nobody can to learn, learn in it, learn in it, learn in it, and in and, and, and, if come pair between, between our classes rooms and, and انقول الفصل المثالي أو انقول النموذجي، انقول شني؟ Model classes room, room إحليلي ((alas)) (expressing devastation), and the model classes room is, I find our classes room, glassesroom are quiiit, quite different from the model classes room rooms انني أشعر بالأسف انقول انني أشعر ((I write)) and نكتب ((I put a full-stop, comma?)) اندير نقطة، فاصلة ((may I write and or put a full-stop)) I mmmmm, I feeling, I feeling, I feeling أني نشعر الزمن مضارع اني نشعر ((I feel, the present tense)) I feeling sore, I feeling sorry, I feeling sorry اني نشعر ((I feel sorry)) I feeling, I feel ايوة ((yes)) I feel sorry I feel sorry for our glasses room ما تجيش هكة ((cannot be constructed this way)) I feel sorrow for that and if compare between our glasses room and model glasses rooms I find our glasses room are quite different from the model glasses rooms I feel sorrow for that. مرة ثانية انقول ((I say for the second time)) and compare[cumper] between our glasses rooms and model glasses rooms I find our glasses rooms are quite different from the model glasses rooms I feel sorrow for that.

*(The student revised her essay more than once)*

<u>Total Spoken Text 888</u>	<u>Commenting Words 002</u>
<u>Arabic Used Words 121</u>	<u>Purse Spoken English Words 531</u>
<u>Written Words 161</u>	<u>Translating Words 234</u>
<u>Dropped words 370</u>	<u>Written Word proportion 30.32%</u>

أنا طالبة في الجامعة الليبية قسم اللغة الإنجليزي  
الفصول ليست كبيرة لتكفي عدد الطلبة بالنسبة للجامعة الليبية. وكذلك النوافذ مكسرة والأبواب  
ليست سليمة () كذلك مساحة الغرفة الدراسية ليست واسعة () أما بالنسبة إلى ارتفاع سقف الحجرة  
لا بأس به. بالنسبة إلى العملية التعليمية ليست مثالية () وذلك لكثرة عدد الطلبة بحيث لا يستطيع  
الطالب استيعاب المعلومة الذي ينقلها الدكتور. وأيضاً الدكتور لا يستطيع إعطاء شرح وافي وواضح  
وذلك لكثرة عدد الطلبة وصغر حجم الغرفة الدراسية () كذلك لا يستطيع الطالب () بالنسبة لقسم  
اللغة الإنجليزية () فهم المنهج بمهارة وذلك لعدم وجود معامل لمساعدة للطلاب في فهم اللغة وإتقانها.  
ونعود نقول بأن قلة وجود المقاعد الدراسية بحيث لا يستطيع الطالب الجلوس أثناء المحاضرة  
وإذا قارنا الفصل الدراسي في بلدنا مع الفصل النمودحي الذي ينبغي أن يكون عليه الفصل هنا. وهو  
توفر المقاعد الدراسية كاملة وكبر حجم الغرفة وتوفير المعامل اللازمة حسب التخصص الدراسي.  
وبذلك أنا أتأسف وأشعر بالأسى اتجاه حال الفصول عندنا هنا.  
حيث تكون الغرفة الدراسية غير نظيفة و كثيرة العناكب في السقف. والضغط الهواء في الحجرة لكثرة  
الطلبة وصغر المساحة. أخيراً أتمنى أن يكون عليه الحال مستقبلاً أفضل مما عليه الفصول الآن في  
المبنى  
الدراسي للغة الانجليزية () حيث لا يوجد عامل يساعد على الدراسة الجادة من حيث المبنى () وعدم  
توفر المعامل () والأجهزة () والكمبيوتر () مما يشمله الانترنت وفائدته لطلبة اللغة الانجليزية وغيرها  
من التخصصات ()  
والسلام ختام ()

Written Words 221

Errors 28

Error Proportion 12.66%

التفكير بصوت عال

أنا طالبة في الجامعة الليبية بقسم اللغة الإنجليزية. الفصول ليست كبيرة لتكفي عدد الطلبة بالنسبة  
الجامعة الليبية وكذلك النوافذ مكسرة والأبواب ليست سليمة كذلك مساحة الغرفة الدراسية ليست  
واسعة أما بالنسبة إلى ارتفاع سقف الحجرة لا بأس به.  
بالنسبة إلى العملية التعليمية ليست مثالية وذلك لكثرة عدد الطلبة. بحيث لا يستطيع الطالب  
استيعاب المعلومة التي ينقلها الدكتور. وأيضاً الدكتور لا يستطيع إعطاء شرح واف وواضح وذلك  
لكثرة عدد الطلبة، وصغر حجم الغرفة الدراسية. كذلك لا يستطيع الطالب بالنسبة لقسم اللغة  
الإنجليزية فهم المنهج بمهارة وذلك لعدم وجود معامل لمساعدة الطالب في فهم اللغة وإتقانها.  
ونعود نقول بأن قلة وجود المقاعد الدراسية حيث لا يستطيع الطالب الجلوس أثناء المحاضرة.  
ونعود نقول بأن قلة وجود المقاعد الدراسية بحيث، بحيث، بحيث لا يستطيع الطالب الجلوس  
أثناء المحاضرة. وإذا قارنا الفصل الدراسي في بلدنا مع الفصل النمودجي الذي ينبغي أن يكون عليه  
الفصل وهو توفر المقاعد الدراسية كاملة وكبر حجم الغرفة وتوفير المعامل اللازمة حسب  
التخصص الدراسي. وتوفير وتوفير (لا نكتبوا/ وتوفير مش توفير نكتبوا/ وتوفير) وبذلك أنا أتأسف  
وأشعر بالأسى اتجاه حال الفصول عندنا هنا حيث تكون الغرفة غير نظيفة، وكثيرة العناكب في  
السقف، والضغط الهواء في الحجرة لكثرة الطلبة وقلة المساحة (لا مش قلة المساحة، وصغر المساحة)  
وصغر المساحة.  
أخيراً أتمنى أن يكون عليه الحال مستقبلاً أفضل مما عليه الفصول الدراسية الآن وخصوصاً  
مما

يوجد الآن في المبنى الدراسي للغة الإنجليزية حيث لا يوجد أي عامل يساعد على الدراسة  
(وبعدين/يقول) الجادة، الدراسة الجادة من ناحية المبنى وعدم توفر المعامل والأجهزة الكمبيوتر مما  
يشمله الأجهزة واوا (كتب/ ونسيتها) والكمبيوتر مما يشمله الانترنت وفائدته لطلبة اللغة الإنجليزية  
و غيرها من التخصصات.  
والسلام ختام. إلى اللقاء.

تمت مراجعة الموضوع مرة واحدة فقط  
 أنا طالبة في الجامعة الليبية قسم اللغة الإنجليزي  
 الفصول ليست كبيرة لتكفي عدد الطلبة بالنسبة للجامعة الليبية. وكذلك النوافذ مكسرة والأبواب  
 ليست سليمة ( ) كذلك مساحة الغرفة الدراسية ليست واسعة ( ) أما بالنسبة إلى ارتفاع سقف الحجرة  
 لا بأس به. بالنسبة إلى العملية التعليمية ليست مثالية ( ) وذلك لكثرة عدد الطلبة بحيث لا يستطيع  
 الطالب استيعاب المعلومة الذي ينقلها الدكتور. وأيضاً الدكتور لا يستطيع إعطاء شرح وافي وواضح  
 وذلك لكثرة عدد الطلبة وصغر حجم الغرفة الدراسية ( ) كذلك لا يستطيع الطالب ( ) بالنسبة لقسم  
 اللغة الإنجليزية ( ) فهم المنهج بمهارة وذلك لعدم وجود معامل لمساعدة للطلاب في فهم اللغة واتقانها.  
 ونعود نقول بأن قلة وجود المقاعد الدراسية بحيث لا يستطيع الطالب الجلوس أثناء المحاضرة  
 وإذا قارنا الفصل الدراسي في بلدنا مع الفصل النمودي الذي ينبغي أن يكون عليه الفصل هنا. وهو  
 توفر المقاعد الدراسية كاملة وكبر حجم الغرفة وتوفر المعامل اللازمة حسب التخصص الدراسي.  
 وبذلك أنا أتأسف وأشعر بالأسى اتجاه حال الفصول عندنا هنا.  
 حيث تكون الغرفة الدراسية غير نظيفة و كثيرة العناكب في السقف. والضغط الهواء في الحجرة لكثرة  
 الطلبة وصغر المساحة. أخيراً أتمنى أن يكون عليه الحال مستقبلاً أفضل مما عليه الفصول الآن في  
 المبنى  
 الدراسي للغة الانجليزية حيث لا يوجد عامل يساعد على الدراسة الجادة من حيث المبنى وعدم  
 توفر المعامل والاجهزة والكمبيوتر مما يشمله الانترنت وفائدته لطلبة اللغة الانجليزية وغيرها من  
 التخصصات  
 والسلام ختام

Total Spoken Words 273      Dropped Words 052  
Written Words 221      Written Word Proportion 80.91%

## Interview

This interview is an extension to the questionnaire you have responded to.  
 N/B All the questions were translated and explained in Arabic.

- 1) *How long have you been learning English?*  
 1st) Five year, الى توة ((so far)) seven year.
- 2) *How many years have you been studying Arabic?*  
 A) ((ok, ok, for fourteen years)) باهي ايوه
- 3) *Have you ever enrolled in any medium English school?*  
 1st) لا لا ((no, no))
- 4) *Have you ever lived in foreign country?*  
 A) لا لا ليبي ((no, no, Libya (only)))
- 5) *DO you like writing?*  
 لا لا نقرا هكي حاجات و لكن ما نكتبش.  
 ((No, no, I read things but I don't write.))
- 6) *How many English classes did you weekly take before college?*  
 حصتين في الاسبوع.  
 ((Two classes a week))
- 7) *How many English writing classes did you take before college?*  
 لا شئ.  
 ((Nothing))



- 8) *How many English writing classes are you taking in college?*  
السنة اللي فاتت اربع ساعات. لا السنة هذي ساعتين.  
((last year four hours, no, this year two hours, two lectures, four hours)).

- 9) *How many Arabic writing classes are you taking in college?*  
ما خذينا كتابا. خذينا لغة عربية. لا.

((We did not take any Arabic writing classes. We only took Arabic language, no writing)).

- 10) *Who taught English in school?*  
مدرسين ليبيين في المرحلة الاولى، مدرس مصري في ثالثة ثانوي.  
((‘I was taught by’ Libyan teachers in the first stage, and an Egyptian teacher in secondary school.))

- 11) *Did they use English or Arabic instruction while teaching?*  
كله بالعربي، لا عربي. مانفهموش بالانجليزي لما كنا في الثانوي.

((They instructed in Arabic, no, Arabic. When were in secondary school we could not understand what they said in English)).

- 12) *Can you see any relationship between writing in Arabic and writing in English?*  
مختلفة

Different  
*How different?*

لان القرامر طريقة القواعد عندنا تختلف عن طريقة القواعد عندهم. عندنا الاسم، والفعل، والمفعول حتى هم عندهم نفس الشيء؟ لكن التركيب للجملة عندهم يختلف. المفردات طبعا وطريقة التعبير والاسلوب، اسلوبهم سطحي انحس فيهم موش زي اسلوبنا، زي حياتنا  
((Different)).

*How different?*

((Because the grammar in our language is different from their language. We have the noun, verb, subject, and the object. But they do have the same? But the sentence structure in our language differs from theirs. The vocabulary items, how to express and produce your ideas, the style all these are different from our language. I feel that their style is vague, not as deep as our style, and or our life)).

*What do you think of the punctuation systems?*

موش مختلفة هلبة

((No much difference.))

*Do you use the punctuation marks when writing in Arabic?*

لا موش هلبة هلبة

Not very much.



13) *Do you follow similar strategies when you write in both languages?*

لا لا ما انتعش دماغي لما نكتب بالعربي، لكن بالانجليزي نبدا مرات المفردات  
مانعرفهاش نبدا باش نكتب اندور في مفرد

((No, no, I don't think so much when I write in Arabic, but  
when I write in English I spend much more time thinking  
of what vocabulary items I should write.))

*This means your writing processes are different when you write  
in either language?*

14) *Do you read English books, magazines, newspapers, etc.?*

لا لا اذاعات فقط.

((No, no. Listening to news only)).

*You mean you listen to the English news?*

لا لا نفتح على اذاعة البي بي سي.

((I just listen to the BBC radio)).

15) *When you write in English, do you think in Arabic or in English?*

نفكر فيها بالعربي وبعدين نكتب بالانجليزي.

((I think about it in Arabic then I write it in English)).

16) *Do you use bilingual or monolingual dictionaries?*

لا انجليزي \_عربي مرات انحاول لكن حتى الشرح امتعة ما نفهمش فيه.

((No, (I use) an English-Arabic (dictionary). I sometimes use  
the monolingual dictionary (oxford) but I cannot understand  
even its explanation.))

17) *How do you write in English and in Arabic?*

بالانجليزي مرات اندير الكلمات بروحهم ونفكر هلبة بالعربي لا.

((I sometimes write down the words and think a lot, but not in  
Arabic)).

18) *Do you plan before you start writing?*

بالعربي لا، بالانجليزي ايه

((Not when I write in Arabic, but I do when write in English)).

19) *Do you stop, read, and revise what you write?*

نوقف ونقرأ بالانجليزي اكثر مما اعمل في العربي.

((I stop and read in English more than I do in Arabic)).

20) *Do you revise your writing when you finish?*

ايه انراجع فيه

((Yes, I do revise it)).

21) *What do you think of your writing teachers?*

هنا في الجامعة؟

((Here in the university?))

هنا في الجامعة؟ لا لا مرات هو العيب موش فيه هو. فهو يعطينا فعلا بطريقة كان انتم عندك  
لغة وخلص مرات العيب موش فيه لاننا نحن من البداية ما اخذناش ولما انجوا انكلموا فيهم يقولون لنا  
انتم طلبة جامعة المفروض مستواكم احسن من هكه والمشكلة انهم تلقاهم يقارنوا فينا باللي قاريين

برة ولما انقولولهم هدول قاريين برة ديمة يديروها فينا ولا بوها كان يقرأ برة المفروض يديروولهم كلية بروحهم ويديروولهم حتى منهج قوي زيهم واحنا يديرونا منهج يناسبنا

((Here in the university? No, no. Sometimes we cannot blame him [the teacher]. He actually teaches us as if we were really qualified. We cannot blame him because we were not taught English from the beginning. When we complain they just tell us that we are university students and our [learning capacity] must be better. The problem is that they compare us with those who studied abroad. When we tell them those students had a chance to study abroad, they just neglect our complaint. A private college and advanced syllabus must be established for those who studied abroad. We must be taught according to our capabilities)).

22) *How do they provide you with feedback?*

إذا سألته مرات يجاوبك هو يشرح في المحاضرة بطريقته الخاصة مثلاً دكتور الكريتييف دكتورنا السنة هذي يشرح ويعطي أمثلة واضحة. السنة اللي فاتت لم نحصل على مدرس إلا في آخر السنة، أربع ساعات فقط.

((If you ask him, he sometimes gives an answer. He, the teacher, uses his own method to explain the lesson i.e. the teacher of 'creative writing' who is teaching us this year, explains well and gives clear examples. There was no teacher for us last year except at the end of the year. We studied four hours only.))

23) *Do they instruct you in English or in Arabic?*

بالإنجليزي؟

((In English)).

24) *What do you think of Arabic writing teaching?*

No comment.

25) *What do you think of English writing teaching?*

No comment.

26) *Do you plan before you start your Arabic writing?*

أيه انخطط له. لكن مش هلبة.

((Yes, I plan for it but not too much)).

27) *Do you stop, read/revise your essays in Arabic while writing?*

مش ديمة. بعد ما انكمل

((Not always, but only when I finish)).

28) *Do you revise your Arabic essays when you finish?*

نقراه كله ونصحح الأخطاء

((I read the whole essay then I correct the errors)).

29) *Do you think you are a good writer in both languages?*

*Which is better?*

لا لا. لا عربي و لا إنجليزي. لا. حتى العربي؟ لا أبداً لا لا.

((No, no, neither in Arabic nor in English. Even in Arabic? Definitely not)).

30) *How many drafts do you usually write in each language?*

إنجليزي ما نعرفش قداش، مرتين، ثلاث، حتى أربعة. لكن بالعربي مرة واحدة، ممكن.

((In English I write more than one copy, could be two, three, even four. I write just one copy in Arabic)).

31) *Do you identify your audience when you write?*

لا. يختلف من شخص الى آخر، بمعنى أهتم بالقارئ.

((No it is not always the same, I mean I identify my audience))

32) *Do you have any problems in writing?*

ايه، في الإنجليزي أكثر الشيء. والعربي؟ حتى هو، لكن الإنجليزي أكثر. ما هي المشكلة اللي تواجهك في الإنجليزي؟ المفردات. مرات عبرت، عبرت ووين إنجي في النص ما عنديش مفرد للكلمة تلخبطني الموضوع وإلا نوقف ما عايش انكمل. ما عندكش مشكلة في القرامر؟ مرات نسهى اندير حاجة، ضمير مثلاً. لكن لما انراجع انصلحها. أحياناً نستعمل قاموس عربي/إنجليزي و لما نحتاج للكلمة انطلعها من القاموس.

((Certainly, the major problem is in English. I have a problem in Arabic as well but not as serious as in English. What is the problem that confronting you in English? Vocabulary, sometimes I write but suddenly I stop writing because I lack a vocabulary item, which results in confusion or total stop. I cannot complete what I am writing. Don't you have a problem with grammar? Sometimes I just forget what I am writing and use a wrong pronoun, for instance, but this is corrected when I revise. I sometimes look up in a bilingual dictionary to find out the missed words)).

33) *What do you think of the writing process approach?*

انا اول مرة نكتب ونتكلم. هل حسيت انها سهلة او صعبة؟ لو انطبقها في المستقبل هل تعتقدن انها مفيدة؟ أحسن من الطريقة التقليدية لأنها تذكرك بإخطائك

((This is the first I write and talk at the same time. Did you feel that it was easy or difficult? If applied, do you think it would be beneficial? (it is) better than the traditional way (of writing) because it reminds you of your mistakes)).

Thank you.

شكراً

The relationship between student and teachers must be

very close. Because when student love his teacher

will study if it is very difficult

In primary school, there was a teacher taught me in mathematics

she hit me hardly when I made mistake so I hate me

and I don't like ~~the~~ subject B because when I <sup>won't</sup> study

that subject I remember that so I cannot

But there ~~was~~ another teacher science taught me

science and she deals kindly so I love her

and so I like ~~to~~ study her subject and I got

high marks ~~on it~~ I like still ~~remember~~ remember

Because my good teacher and I will remember all of life



حالة العمل بين  
العلاقة بين الطالب والمعلم تحبدا المتحورين علاقة  
وأن واحترام متبادل من كائنات العرفين وذلك حتى  
يدرس الطالب تلك المادة العلمية التي يعطيها له  
المعلم يحب وتغمة حتى لو كانت تلك المادة يوجد  
بما هو مودة.

عندما كنت أدرس في الابتدائية كانت هناك معلمة تدرس  
في مادة الرياضيات وكانت إسمها بي أننا إلى مادة الرياضيات  
بعض حيث إن المعلمة لم تنضم خلافاً وأننا  
أنتكلم عن نفس كمال العدد من الطلاب الذي كانوا  
في نفس المرحلة أو غيرها من مراحل الدراسة حيث كان  
أملوبها الوحيد هو الضرب والقسمة لذلك أننا توجهت  
في الدراسة الثانوية إلى القسم الأول في التخصص الأدبي  
وذلك بعد دراسة تلك المادة.

وفي تلك الفترة كمال آخر لشريحة من المعلمين كان يوجد لدينا  
معلمة في مادة العلوم كانت تفضل عموماً الشرح  
ومحاولة تحويل المعلومة إلى الطالب بأسى يشق الطرق  
وكان أملوبها جتاً أوفية هو ودوداً هذا أن عندما أدرس  
مادة العلوم أدرسها بمرادفة وعمق حيث أن عكس ذلك بالثاني  
على علمات تلك المادة ومن هنا أقول بأن الأسلوب

التعليم الجليل يجب أن يكون أسلوب متفهم ومنظم بحيث  
تكون العملية التعليمية للطلاب والدرس صحيحة ومنظمة وبالتالي  
تعود بنتيجة تحصيل دراسي جيد للطلاب.

وَنَفْسُ الْمُرْءِ الْيَبُودِ عَلَيْهِ فِي الْجَامِعَةِ الَّتِي هِيَ الْفَتْرَةُ الَّتِي أَدْرَسَ  
بِهَا الْإِسْلَامَ حَيْثُ يَرُودُ الْعَدِيدُ مِنْ فَاعِلِي تِلْكَ الدَّكَاتَرَةِ فَمِنْهُمْ يَكُونُ  
مِنْهُمْ لِلْخَالِبِ وَيُجَدِّلُ مَجْهُولًا فِي الشَّرِيعِ وَكَذَلِكَ لَهُ الْقُدْرَةُ  
فِي إِتْيَالِ الْعُلُومَةِ بِإِسْلَامِهِ عِبَسًا وَوَاضِحٌ يَسِيرٌ لَمْ يَضَعْ لَمْ  
مَقْدَمَاتٍ حَوْلَ صِبْوَةِ تِلْكَ الْحَادَةِ وَبِالتَّالِيِ التَّحْقِيلِ الدَّرَاسِيِ  
الْخَالِبِ الَّذِي لَهُ الرُّغْبَةُ الْفَعْلِيَّةُ فِي الدَّرَاسَةِ وَبِذَا السَّبْعِ وَبِجِدَةِ

ولكن يوجد جانب آخر للدكترة في الجامعة حيث يمكن شروحه غير  
واضح ومختصر حيث الطالب لا يشرب تلك الموارد ~~الطبيعية~~  
ومع ذلك تخويف بعض الدكاترة الطلبة من ناحية منهج تلك  
المادة، أنا شخصياً تعرضت بؤرميلاتي لذلك الموقف حيث أخبرنا  
في الامتحان الدكتور أحمد بن المواد بأن سوف تكون أسئلة التعريف  
للمادة التي يدرسها عمدة ولن يستطع الاجابة عنها إلا المختار  
المختار

وبالغالب  
وخص الامور يكون توجيز لنا الكتاب وتمطيه للمعانيات وباللآ  
لم تشذ من تلك المادة جيداً حيث بالتحقيق سنكون متدققة.

المادة الرابعة  
4/4  
المادة الرابعة  
Goup A  
Laila

Typed 4/10/2001

## Topic Two

2001-4-18

I am a student in Libyan university at English department. our class room are not big enough to include us because we are too many and the class room are small for us and we can not understand carefully from our doctors and it is dirty.

the general healthy atmosphere is not good also.

the windows they are broken and the doors to that

make the external view is too bad and the desks

are broken and are bad.

about the height it's ok. The learner process is not

good enough on to students in third year at

English department and about a foreign language

learner they don't teach in a perfect way and

this is a big mistake.

in short our room is bad and nobody can to

Learn in it.

and an if compare between our classrooms and

model classrooms. I find our class room are quite

different from the model classrooms. I feel sorrow for that



أنا جالبة في الجامعة الليبية قسم اللغة الإنجليزية.  
الفصول ليست كبيرة لنكفي عدد الطلبة بالنسبة للجامعة الليبية.  
وكذلك النواخذ محسرة والابواب ليست سليمة كذلك مساحة  
الفرقة الدراسية ليست واسعة أما بالنسبة إلى ارتفاع سقف  
الحجرة ليس به.

بالنسبة إلى العملية التعليمية <sup>ليست</sup> مثالية وذلك لاختلاف عدد  
الطلبة بحيث لا يستطيع الطالب استيعاب المعلومة الذي  
تلقاها الدكتور. وأيضا الدكتور لا يستطيع إعطاء شرح وافض  
وواضح وذلك لاختلاف عدد الطلبة ومقر حجم الفرقة الدراسية  
كذلك لا يستطيع الطالب بالنسبة لقسم اللغة الإنجليزية فهم  
المنهج بعمق وذاك لعدم وجود معامل لمساعدة الطالب  
في فهم اللغة واتقانها.

ونعود <sup>نقول</sup> لآبائنا قلة وجود المقاعد الدراسية <sup>ليست</sup> عند <sup>يستطيع</sup> الطالب الجلوس أثناء المحاضرة.

وإذا قارنا الفصل الدراسي في بلدنا مع الفصل الموجود الذي  
ينبغي أن يكون عليه الفصل هنا وهو تتوفر المقاعد الدراسية  
كاملة وكبر حجم الغرفة وتوفر المعامل اللازمة حسب التخصص  
الدراسي.

وبذلك أنا آسف وأتمنى بالآس أنجاه حال الفصول  
عندنا هذا.

حيث تكونت الفرقة الدراسية غير نظيفة وكثيرة الغناكب  
في السقف. والضغط الهوائي في الحجرة لاختلاف الطلبة وكثرة  
المساحة. أخيرا أتمنى أن يكون عليه الحال مستقبلا أفضل مما عليه

الفصول الدراسية الآن وحقوقها ما يوجد الآن في <sup>المقنن</sup> المجلس الدراسي  
للغة الانجليزية حيث لديه جدوى عامل يساعده على الدراسة  
الجادة من ناحية <sup>حيث</sup> الكين وعدم تدهور المعامل والجهزة الكمبيوتر  
مما يشمله الانترنت وفائدته لطلبة اللغة الانجليزية  
وغيرها من التخصصات (والسلام ختاماً)

Appendix 4b  
 Subject (11) Written and Verbal Composition  
 English Essay  
 Topic 1  
 Original Copy

In my academic life, I met a teacher who made me very close to the subject that he was teaching, [The subject is history] I liked history very much, because of his way of teaching it, The students used to tell him about any problem they faced might face in at school. At that time we cannot did not know why we were very very close to him, But now I can discover why we admired him and liked the subject of history he teaches, Firstly, he was so friendly, and polite, secondly he is good qualified in the subject of history he explained the lessons like stories, This way made us understood lessons very easy, he simplified the lessons by using different teaching aids. Finally his kindness was such that I will never forget him.

Written Words 135

Errors 21

Error Proportion 15.55%

### Thinking-aloud Protocols

Um, in our academic life we meet.....[Reading the prompts and the topic question]  
 [Spent sometime thinking about what to do and how he would start his essay but he did not write down any ideas] Then he started his essay:

So, ah....., ....., ....., in our, in our academic life في حياتنا التعليمية ((in our academic life)) in my, in my academic life I [capital letter], in my academic life, life, life I meet ولا ((or)), I met [past, in the past], I met, I met, I met which I teacher, كان جعلني أرغب المادة، هو الذي جعلني أرغب المادة، (I met the teacher)، قابلت المدرس ((he made like the subject)), he was the one who made me like he subject, who makes me, who الماضي ((the past)) made, who made me, who made what? ((أحب المادة؟)) like the subject, المادة ((the subject)) أحب المادة ((to like the subject)) who made me very close, very close to the subject, to study the subject مادة شئو؟ ((what subject?)) of history, subject, subject جعلني قريباً من المادة التي هو يدرسها ((the subject, he made me close from the subject he teaches)) which he was, ah,....., ....., that, that he was teaching, that he was teaching, that he was teaching. ما بيناش المادة توة شئو؟ ((we have not stated what subject yet?)) [rehearsing what he has written so far in order to make a smooth transition from one idea to another. He should have started a new paragraph. His original copy shows nothing of this procedure i.e. he just kept generating new ideas without topic sentences or new paragraphs]

In my academic life I met a teacher who made me very close to his subject that he was teaching. المادة شئو؟ ((what subject?)) The subject is history. The subject is history. ما نجيش ((cannot be said like that)) [rereading what he has written again, the last sentence as an opening line to his new sentence or how to introduce and use the idea he intended to say] who made me very close to the subject that he was teaching. لا ((no)) [scratching what he has written] The subject I likes, I like it, I liked it the history very much. الآن اصبح واضح. ((now it is clear)). (Rereading again) In my academic I met a teacher who made me very close to the subject that he was teaching. I liked history very much. لماذا؟ ((why?)) why? Because لأن ((because)) ah, ....., ....., أحب



(I very much like the subject because of his teaching method)) because, because of his way of teaching, because of his way of teaching, teaching it. باهي ((ok)) (he narrated some unknown words in Arabic) ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., (unknown words again) ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., The all students, [not all] students, the students تخصمهم التي بعض الأشياء التي تعودوا، اعتادوا على بعض الأشياء التي تخصمهم ((they 'the students' got used to 'tell him' about their own things)) told him, ah....., ....., used, used, used, did not used to tell him about, about all problems, not all, some, about some problems, any problems, about any problems. They هم ((they)) أو التي يمكن أن تواجههم ((or those that might encounter them)) problems they find ما تجيش ((cannot be said like that)) التي ((that may encounter them)) they may, they might, ....., ....., they might face, face تواجههم ((encounter them)) in or at? At school, in school?, at school, ah....., ....., ....., لماذا في ذلك الوقت لم نكتشف؟ ((why did we not find out at that time?)) At that time, at that time we, we cannot, we cannot know, we did not (scratching) we did not know why, why we, we are, we were very, we were very, we were very friends, or we were very like, we did not know why we were liked him. We were close to him. At that time, we did not know why we were ....., ....., ....., close to him, why we were very close to him. ....., ....., ....., (coughing) ....., ....., like him, but, but, capital B or small? New sentence, capital. But now, but now I can, I can, I can, I can't, I find out, I can tell, I can know

شنو؟ نكتشف الآن الذي كان يربطنا به و يجعلنا قريبين منه. ((what? We now discover what was connecting us to him, and made us close from him)) I discover why we, why we ((why were we admiring him?)), ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., admire, why we admired, admired, admired بمادته و معجبين به ((we were admiring him as well as his subject)) أو مادة التاريخ ((or the subject of history)). ما تجيش ((cannot be said that way)) I admired him and his subject كنت أحب ((I liked)) him and liked, and liked the subject of history.

*(Rereading and rehearsing what has been written in order to start the next paragraph, I guess. I did not see any refurbishing)* At that time we did not know why we were very close to him but now I can discover why we admired him and liked the subject of history. توه ما بيناش انه هو يقري في التاريخ. ((now, we have not stated that he teaches history)). *(rereading in order to see whether or not he mentioned his teacher was teaching history)* In my academic life I met a teacher who made me very close to the subject that he was teaching. I liked history very much أه باهي ((oh ok)) (He became certain that he had mentioned the subject being taught by his favorite teacher. It is also clear from his rehearsing that he wants to generate a new idea and start his new paragraph.) because of his way of teaching. The students used to tell him about any problem they might face at school. At that time, we did not know why we were very close to him, but now I can discover why we admired him and liked the subject of history he teach. He ....., ....., ....., he ....., ....., in taught, teaches, taught? المادة التي كان يدرسها، المادة التي كان يدرسها ((the subject he was teaching, the subject he was teaching)), present simple?, that he teaches باهي ((ok)) ما هي الأسباب؟ ((what are the reasons?)) إنه كان، إيه كان ((he was, yes he was)). He is friendly. Firstly, at the first? In the first? First, first, first, firstly, ah...., ....., ....., ....., he, he, firstly he was so, he was so, he was very friendly and, and polite, and polite, friendly and polite. Polite or respect? Respectable? Polite and respectable. So friendly and polite. Secondly, he was, he was, ....., ....., ....., he was qualified. He was qualified. He was qualified. He is, he is, he is good qualified[quaa lii faa id] he is good qualified, qualified in the subject, in the subject? at the subject, qualified, qualified, he is qualified in, he good in English? At English? He is good qualified in the subject,



subject of history. ...., ...., ...., ...., ...., باهي ((ok)) he explained, explained؟ شني؟ ((what?))  
 ((the lessons? He was explaining the lessons? As story telling? He was using a story telling technique? He was explaining as.....?)) He explained student explained lessons, the lessons, he explained the lessons, يستعمل الطريقة ((using the method)) he explained the lessons as stories? Like stories? Like stories, like stories? هذه الطريقة، طريقة القصص جعلت ((this method, technique, made the students, or made us)) this way, this way made, made us understood lessons very easily, very easily. كان يبسط، يستعمل في طرق ((he simplified. Used teaching methods. Simplified the lessons. Used various teaching aids; by using different teaching aids, different teaching aids)). ...., ...., ...., ...., ...., قلنا ((we said)) firstly, قلنا ((we said)) secondly (he was revising what he has written in order to write the concluding sentence, it sounds!!!))  
 Finally, he is kind, kindness, was, was, was, ...., ...., ...., ...., was such that, that I, I will never, never, never, never, وإلا مثله شخصيا ((I have never met a person like him)) I, personally, have never met a person like him. Finally, his kindness was such that I will never forget in..... . خللي انشوفوا ((let's see))  
 (To see what he has written. He meant he was going to revise his essay and see how coherent and cohesive it was. I thought he was going to correct his essay but it turned out that he just read it without adding and deleting any word, except very few!!!!)  
 This is what he did:

## Revision

In my academic life I met a teacher who made me very close to his subject that he was teaching. I liked history very much because of his way of teaching. The students used to tell him about any problem they might face at school. At that time, we did not know why we were very close to him but now I can discover why we admired and liked the subject of history he teaches. Firstly, he was so friendly and polite. Secondly, he is qualified in the subject of history. He explained lessons like stories. This way made us understood lessons very easily. He simplified the lessons by using different teaching aids. Finally, his kindness was such I will never forget it.

<u>Total text 1552</u>	<u>Arabic Used Words 185</u>
<u>Translated words 252</u>	<u>Pure English Spoken Words 882</u>
<u>Comments 233</u>	<u>Actual Written Words 134</u>
<u>Total Spoke Words 1067</u>	<u>Dropped Words 748</u>
<u>Written Word Proportion 15.19%</u>	

## Arabic Version

Original Copy

## النص العربي

في حياتي التعليمية الماضية كان هناك أحد المعلمين الذي جعلني أحبه وأقرب منه أنا وباقي زملائي جعلنا أيضاً نحب مادة التاريخ التي كان يدرسها لأنه دائماً يتحدث معنا حتى خارج الحصص ويساعدنا في حل مشاكلنا الشخصية. في ذلك الوقت لم نكن نعرف لماذا نحن نحبه بهذا الشكل ولكن الآن استطعنا أن نعرف السبب و الذي لا يزيد عن كونه مهتم بنا وبدراستنا لأنه كان أستاذاً فاضلاً ومحترماً وموهلاً بشكل ممتاز) كان يشرح دروس

التاريخ على شكل قصص تشد انتباهنا وتجعلنا نستوعب المواضيع التاريخية ودائماً يختار وسائل الايضاح المناسبة ويستعمل الأمثلة القريبة كان يتعامل معنا وكأننا اصدقاء له. إن استاذاً فاضلاً مثل هذا لا يمكن أن يُنسى وسيبقى دائماً جديراً بالاحترام.

التفكير بصوت عال

[توه نكتبوه بالعربي]

Now, we write it in Arabic

في حياتي التعليمية الماضية كان هناك أحد المعلمين، .....، .....، المعلمين الذين، أحد المعلمين، أحد المعلمين الذي جعلني أحبه، وأقرب منه أنا وباقي زملائي. جعلنا، أيضاً، نحب مادة التاريخ التي كان يدرسها. التي كان يدرسها، التي كان يدرسها. .....، .....، .....، في حياتي الماضية كان هناك أحد المعلمين الذي جعلني أحبه وأقرب منه أنا وباقي زملائي. وجعلنا أيضاً نحب مادة التاريخ التي كان يدرسها. .....، .....، .....، لأنه .....، لأنه .....، لأنه كان .....، .....، .....، لأنه .....، دائماً يتحدث معنا حتى .....، خارج، حتى خارج الحصص على، يتحدث معنا حتى خارج الحصص. ويساعدنا في حل مشاكلنا الشخصية، الشخصية. ....، .....، .....، .....، في ذلك الوقت لم نكن نعرف .....، .....، لماذا نحن نحبه بهذا الشكل. ولكن الآن استطعنا أن نعرف السبب، والذي .....، والذي .....، لا يعد، أو لا يخرج أنه، والذي .....، .....، والذي لا يزيد عن كونه مهتماً، مهتم بنا وبدراستنا. ....، .....، .....، أنه كان استاذاً فاضلاً، ومحترماً، ومؤهلاً .....، .....، بشكل ممتاز. ....، .....، .....، .....، كان يشرح دروس التاريخ على شكل قصص تشد انتباهنا. وتجعلنا نستوعب المواضيع التاريخية. ....، .....، .....، ودائماً يختار وسائل الايضاح المناسبة. ويستعمل، ويستعمل الأمثلة القريبة، .....، .....، .....، .....، القريبة. كان يتعامل معنا وكأننا اصدقاء له. [باهي] إن استاذاً فاضلاً مثل هذا لا يمكن أن يُنسى. وسيبقى دائماً جديراً بالاحترام.

روجع الموضوع

في حياتي التعليمية الماضية كان هناك أحد المعلمين الذي جعلني أحبه وأقرب منه أنا وباقي زملائي جعلنا أيضاً نحب مادة التاريخ التي كان يدرسها لأنه دائماً يتحدث معنا حتى خارج الحصص ويساعدنا في حل مشاكلنا الشخصية. في ذلك الوقت لم نكن نعرف لماذا نحن نحبه بهذا الشكل ولكن الآن استطعنا أن نعرف السبب و الذي لا يزيد عن كونه مهتم بنا وبدراستنا لأنه كان استاذاً فاضلاً ومحترماً ومؤهلاً بشكل ممتاز) كان يشرح دروس التاريخ على شكل قصص تشد انتباهنا وتجعلنا نستوعب المواضيع التاريخية ودائماً يختار وسائل الايضاح المناسبة ويستعمل الأمثلة القريبة كان يتعامل معنا وكأننا اصدقاء له. إن استاذاً فاضلاً مثل هذا لا يمكن أن يُنسى وسيبقى دائماً جديراً بالاحترام.

## Topic Two

### Original Copy

My classroom is completely different from the modal Classroom I have heard It is simply a big room has some windows and two doors, one is in the front and the other is in the back. It is full of desks and chairs, because there are a large number of students. It is not well light, and that makes the black board not seen clear. In comparing it with the modal classroom you can see many differences. Firstly, it is not furnished, there are not curtains at the windows, the light is not enough and it is not good situated. Secondly, there is not any teaching aids, which help the students for learning foreign language. Thirdly, the number of students is not limited, and that makes it very difficult for the teacher to work with each student separately. Finally, the place where the classroom is very noisy. Generally my classroom is not suits the learning process of foreign language.



## Thinking-aloud Protocols

Reading the prompts and the questions.

My classromm, my class room is is different[scratching] frent, frent, my classroom is different completely, completely, completely different, classroom is completely different from the modal classroom I have, I have, I have seen, seen, I have seen there, have seen there. I have heard, I have heard (باهي baahi) ok. My classroom is completely different from the modal classroom I have heard.[*that is the topic sentence*] now, it has, it is, it is , it is, aaaaa, it is , so room, it is a big room, ....., it is, it is just abig room? It is simple, it is simple a big room? It is simply a big room. It is simply a big room, simply a big room with some window, has, a big room has, a big room has some windows, windows and two doors, tow doors, two? [T..W..O] two doors, doors in the back and in the front, one is in the front and the other as in the back, is in the back, it is in the back. [switched the tape recorder off] on is in the front and the other is in the back. Now the room, there are [unknown words] desks, ....., it is , it is full, it is full off desks and chairs and chairs. That is , that is, [scratching] because, because the are, there are a lot off, because there are a large number, a large number off student, a large number of student. [rehearsing what has been written to see how starts his new sentence]

(نوافذ، أبواب، وعدد كبير من الطلبة، و الكراسي، والإضاءة) nawaafith, abwaab, wa adad kabir mina attalabah walkavaasi, wa alidhah) windows, doors, a big number of students and chairs and the light. Right, it is not, it is nor, it is not, not well light, it is not well light, and it is not well light, ....., ....., and that makes the blackboard, the blackboard, not clear, the blackboard not seen clear....., ....., [rereading what has been written] my classroom is completely different from the model classroom I haaave heard. It is simply a big room has some windows, and two doors one is in the front and the other is in the back. It's full of desks and chairs, because there are a large number of students. It's not well light and that makes the blackboard not seen clear.

.....; ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., .....

[rehearsing again] then (النوافذ، الأبواب، الكراسي، الإضاءة) ....., ....., ....., describe your classroom and compare it with the model classroom, anawaafith, alabwaab, alkaraasi, alidhah) the windows, doors, chairs and light, describe your classroom.....

In comparing, in comparing, comparing [C..O..M..P..A..R..E.. ing]comparing it with the model classroom, classroom, ahhhhhh, ....., ....., comparing it with classroom it is it is, e o you can see many differences, [D..I..F..E..R..E..N..C] differences, many differences. Number one, first of all, [you have seen or read about, mention and describe your classroom and how it suits the students and the second language learner. You are asked to write as much as you can about your classroom][reading the prompts again to see what he has written matches and answeres the target questions] In comparing it with the model classroom you can see many differences. Firstly, ....., it is not it is not furnished, not furnished, not furnished. There are not, there are not ....., curtains, there are not curtains at the windows. The light is not, (اللايت؟ خيره ) al light kheirah al light?) the light? What about the light? [notice that he put the English word light in an Arabic spoken form to express his wonder] ....., ....., the light is not enough, is not enough, is not ....., ....., there is not a lamb, a lamb on the black, on the black, the light is not, ....., ....., the situation, the situation of the light, light isn't enough, and is not good situated , the light is not good enough and it is not good situated, ....., ....., ....., ....., situated [comma] Secondly,....., ....., ....., there is not any teaching aids, any teaching aids which help the students to learn, for learning, for learning. For learning a language foreign language, foreign

language[full stop] Thirdly, thirdly, thirdly, there are there are there thirdly, the number off student numbe of student is ....., ....., ....., is (شنو shinu)what? Is not limited, is not limited. ...., ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., ....., the number of student is not limited.is not limited and that, and that, and that makes it very difficult for the teacher teachers to to to ....., ....., tooooo, explain to work to work with the students [scratching] to work with each student separately, separaaaaately, separately. [rereading] secondly, there is not any teaching aids which help the students for learning foreign language. Thirdly, the number of the student is not limited and that makes it very difficult for the teacher to work with each student separately. ...., ....., ....., ....., Finally, finally [comma] the place, the place is very, [which place?] the place where the classroom is, place where the classroom ....., ....., is very is very noisy, is very noisy, very noisy, ...., ....., ....., ....., ....., because of the ever, the ever. Generally, generally , my classroom is not suits the learning process off foreign is not suits foreign language.

### *Second draft*

My classroom is completely different from the modal classroom I have heard. It is simply a big room has some windows, and two doors one is in the front and the other is in the back. It is full of desks and chairs because there are a large number of students. It is not well light and that makes the blackboard not seen clear.

In comparing it with the modal classroom, you can see many differences. Firstly, it is not furnished. There are not curtain at the windows. The light is not enough and it is not good situated. Secondly, there is not any teaching aids which help the students for learning foreign language. Thirdly, the number of the student is not limited and that makes it very difficult for the teacher to work with each student separately. Finally, the place where the classroom is very noisy. Generally, my classroom is not suits the learning process of foreign language.

### **Arabic Version**

#### **Original Copy**

#### **النص العربي**

لكي أصف الفصل الدراسي الذي أتلقى فيه دروس أستطيع أن أقول. إنه عبارة على حجرة كبيرة بها عدد من النوافذ وبابان. يقع أحدهم في الجهة الأمامية والآخر في الجهة الخلفية والحجرة ملئة بالمقاعد والكراسي الفردية. ذلك بسبب العدد الكثير للطلاب الدراسية في هذا الفصل، والإضاءة غير كافية مما يتسبب في عدم رؤية السبورة بوضوح

وعند مقارنته بالفصل النموذجي، أستطيع القول بأن الفارق كبير، حيث إن هذا الفصل غير مؤثث ولا توجد به ستائر للنوافذ. والإضاءة غير كافية، وليست في مواقعها المناسبة، ولا توجد به وسائل الإيضاح اللازمة لتعلم اللغة الأجنبية

و بالنظر إلى عدد الطلاب فاعنه كبير جداً وهذا يتسبب في عدم قدرة المعلمون على التحدث مع الطلاب بشكل فردي للتأكد من إستيعابهم للدروس. وأخيراً وجود الفصل بالقرب من التجمعات الطلابية وأصوات السيارات و الموسيقى الصاخبة التي تسمع من مسجلات السيارات. كل هذه الاشياء لا تجعل من هذا الفصل فصل مناسب لتعلم اللغة الأجنبية.



إن الفصل الدراسي الذي ألتقى فيه دروسي. إن الفصل الدراسي الذي ألتقى فيه دروسي. إنني أستطيع أن أصف الفصل الدراسي الذي ألتقى فيه دروس اللغة الإنجليزية. لكي أصف الفصل الدراسي الذي ألتقى فيه دروسي، أستطيع أن أقول .....، إنه عبارة على حجرة كبيرة بها عدد من النوافذ، وبابان. يقع أحدهم في الجهة الأمامية، والآخر في الجهة الخلفية. والحجرة ملئة بالمقاعد، الكراسي الفردية ذلك بسبب، أو بسبب، ذلك بسبب العدد الكثير، بسبب العدد الكثير من الطلاب، بسبب العدد الكثير للطلاب الدارسين في هذا الفصل. والإضاءة غير كافية مما يتسبب، مما يتسبب في وضوح، مما يتسبب في [يكشط بعض ما كتب] في عدم رؤية السبورة، في عدم رؤية السبورة، بوضوح. لكي أصف الفصل الدراسي الذي ألتقى فيه دروسي، أستطيع أن أقول .....، إنه عبارة على حجرة كبيرة بها عدد من النوافذ، وبابان. يقع أحدهم في الجهة الأمامية، والآخر في الجهة الخلفية. والحجرة ملئة بالمقاعد، الكراسي الفردية ذلك العدد الكثير للطلاب الدارسين في هذا الفصل. والإضاءة غير كافية مما يتسبب في عدم رؤية السبورة، بوضوح. وعند مقارنته، مقارنته بالفصل النموذجي، أستطيع القول، أستطيع القول بأنه، لا، بأن، بأن الفارق كبير. لذلك، بأن الفارق كبير، حيث إن هذا الفصل غير مؤث. و لا توجد به ستائر للنوافذ. وهو، والإضاءة غير كافية. ....، .....، عير كافية، غير كافية وليست في مواقعها المناسبة. ولا توجد وسائل الإيضاح اللازمة لتعلم اللغة الأجنبية. وبالنظر إلى عدد الطلاب، فإنه كثير جداً. وهذا، وهذا يتسبب، وهذا يتسبب في عدم قدرة المعلمون على التحدث مع الطلاب بشكل فردي حتى للتأكد، للتأكد من، من استيعابهم للدروس. وهذا يتسبب في عدم قدرة المعلمين على التحدث مع الطلاب بشكل فردي للتأكد من استيعابهم للدروس. وأخيراً، وجود الفصل بالقرب من التجمعات الطلابية وأصوات السيارات، و الموسيقى السا، الصاخبة التي تُسمع من السيا، مسجلات السيارات، وأخيراً، وجود الفصل بالقرب من التجمعات الطلابية، وأصوات السيارات، و الموسيقى السا، الصاخبة التي تُسمع من السيا، مسجلات السيارات. كل هذه الأشياء لا تجعل من هذا الفصل فصل مناسب لتعلم اللغة الأجنبية.

## المراجعة

لكي أصف الفصل الدراسي الذي ألتقى فيه دروسي، أستطيع أن أقول إنه عبارة على حجرة كبيرة بها عدد من النوافذ، وبابان. يقع أحدهم في الجهة الأمامية، والآخر في الجهة الخلفية. والحجرة ملئة بالمقاعد، الكراسي الفردية ذلك بسبب العدد الكثير للطلاب الدارسين في هذا الفصل. والإضاءة غير كافية مما يتسبب في عدم رؤية السبورة، بوضوح. وعند مقارنته بالفصل النموذجي، أستطيع القول بأن الفارق كبير. حيث إن هذا الفصل غير مؤث. و لا توجد به ستائر للنوافذ. والإضاءة غير كافية، وليست في مواقعها المناسبة. ولا توجد به وسائل الإيضاح اللازمة لتعلم اللغة الأجنبية. وبالنظر إلى عدد الطلاب، فإنه كبير جداً. وهذا يتسبب في عدم قدرة المعلمون على التحدث مع الطلاب بشكل فردي للتأكد من استيعابهم للدروس. وأخيراً، وجود الفصل بالقرب من التجمعات الطلابية وأصوات السيارات، و الموسيقى الصاخبة التي تُسمع من مسجلات السيارات، كل هذه الأشياء لا تجعل من هذا الفصل فصل مناسب لتعلم اللغة الأجنبية.

## Interview

Some questions were translated and explained into Arabic. The interviewee answered in both languages. He relied on L1 in many answers.

- 1) *How long have you been studying English and Arabic?*
  - 1st) English and Arabic both?
  - Yes
  - English is nine years.

*And Arabic since you have been 6 years old?*

Yes, that's it.

2) *Have you gone to any English medium school?*

1st) Medium school? Yes. I did.

*Where?*

I have been to Malta.

*For how long?*

For two years.

*And all instructions and teaching were in English?*

Yes.

3) *Have you lived in any English speaking country?*

*Of course you have. I mean you have lived in Malta?*

1st) No, I think, but I want to comment in Malta they, they, they don't speak English. I mean they speak Maltese.

*But English was one of the communicating language, they use everyday?*

Yes.

4) *Do you like writing, in general?*

1st) Not exactly.

*What do you mean by not exactly? [Sometimes you write something?*

Yes.

*What do you write?*

Reports, assignments.

*Is writing one of your habits?*

Y.Y.Y

((No, no, no)).

5) *How many English classes did you weekly take before college?*

1st) Mainly nine classes. That's, that, that when I was in I mean in the teaching institute.

*How about those in Malta, How many hours a day?*

In Malta, mainly, two hours a day.

*Only two hours a day?*

Only two hours a day, sometimes, sometimes they are which You spent the whole day in the university or the institute and communicate in English?

Yes.

6) *How many English writing classes are you taking in college?*

1st) Her? [here], once a week, two hours a week.

7) *How many Arabic writing classes are you taking in college?*

No.

- 8) *Who taught English in school, before college?*  
 1st) Libyan teachers.  
*Even in the institute?*  
 Yes.
- 9) *Did those teachers use English or Arabic instruction?*  
 In preparatory school they use both. They were trying when they there is something to explain, they give it in Arabic. When difficult to understand.  
*How about in the institute?*  
 Even it is.  
*Even there they were instructed in Arabic?*  
 Nodded his head.
- 10) *Can you see any relationship between writing in Arabic and writing in English? I consider you an expert, please tell me if there is any?*  
 For me?  
 Yes.  
 There isn't any relation, I think.
- 11) *Do you follow similar strategies in writing in Arabic and in English?*  
 For me, I think the same strategy.
- 12) *Do you read any English books, magazines, newspapers?*  
 No. There is for...  
*Do you read?*  
 Before I was but now because I am away from the language for umm , fifteen years.  
*How about when you were in Malta?*  
 In Malta, yes we did. We read newspapers, magazines, and watched TVs.
- Here, in Libya, are books, magazines and newspapers are available?*  
 I don't know because I didn't ask for them.
- 13) *When you write your English essays, do you think in, translate, or use Arabic to keep on composing?*  
 I think in Arabic. Then I try to translate it into English or get its meaning in English.  
*Suppose you are writing in English and got stuck to find a word, do you write it down in Arabic and keep writing?*  
 No. If I have time I try to look and find in the dictionary.
- 14) *Do you use bilingual or monolingual dictionaries?*  
 I use the monolingual because it's, it give the meaning exactly which goes with the, *sequence of the context*, yes.  
*You mean you don't use bilingual dictionaries?*  
 Very rare, when I can't find exactly they meaning of the word.

15) *How do you write in Arabic and in English?*

1st) In Arabic, I try to find the idea or theeeeeee I need for the all subject, *the outlines*, the outlines, yes. I try to do them.

*Do you write them down or keep them in mind?*

No, I write them down.

*Do you write these outlines down in Arabic or in English?*

No, when it's Arabic I write in Arabic, when English I use English.

*Do you do the same in English?*

In English, it's different.

*In what way?*

Of course I find the ideas and try to carry on with the writing and I write it down.

16) *Do you plan before you start writing in English?*

1st) In English?

Yes.

Of course, I have to plan. Because to see what I am. I want to write.

17) *Do you stop, read and revise your writing?*

1st) I understand what you mean, no I revise each sentence to see what I have written and to see what I am going to write.

18) *Do you revise your essays when you finish?*

1st) Yes, of course, I do.

19) *What do you think of your writing teachers?*

1st) About teaching English in previous schools, specially when I was a student in preparatory school and even in the teachers institute, in fact their ways did not go with, with the I mean is not a good way to teach writing or the language, in general, because they I mean they involve to write thing we don't think, *are not interested in*, yes, and we and because they didn't try to give us the language exactly.

*They did not teach you how write, you mean?*

Yes, or how to think in English, or how to.....

*How about in Arabic? Did they teach you how to write your composition in Arabic?*

In Arabic, some of them did. I, there was a teacher, he was an Egyptian, he gave us the best how to write English and Arabic.

*What do you think of your writing teachers in the university nowadays, in English? I mean.*

I don't know how, the good way of teaching way of teaching it because I think the, the teacher or the doctor give this subject is doing his best.



*You mean he takes care of everything such as punctuation, spelling, coherence, how connect sentences in the paragraph, how to start your topic sentence, etc.?*

He does all this.

*Do you apply these or just do it theoretically?*

No, no, *meaning* yes, he trying to apply it with us, when he gives a new idea, he uses the blackboard to explain.

20) *Do you plan before you start writing your Arabic essay?*

Of course, I do

21) *Do you revise your Arabic essays?*

Yes.

22) *Do you think that you are a good writer in both languages?*

1st) I don't think so.

*Why?*

Because I mean they are different in Arabic and in English. In Arabic when I concentrate and in different subject I can do at least accept it. But in English, I think I am not a good writer in English because there some difficulties face may in vocabulary, may be how can I choose my tenses, grammatical structures, punctuation yes may be yes.

23) *How many drafts do you usually write in each language?*

May be two.

*In both languages?* Yes.

24) *Do you identify your audience when you write?*

Yes.

25) *Do you have any problems in writing?*

No problems in Arabic.

*In English?*

In English, as I told you, if the subject, *the topic*, and I have time to do I can collect and write it down.

*Do you have problems in punctuation in English?*

In punctuation rarely.

*In vocabulary?*

Yes.

*In grammatical structures?*

Sometimes.

*Do you have problems in organisation? How to organise your paragraph?*

Yes. I mean not in organisation.

26) *Do you think this writing process approach is similar to the traditional writing approaches you are used to?*

بالضبط أنا موش قادر انحدد لأنني أنا موش عارف القصد منها

((I am definitely unable to define it because I don't what is the purpose of this approach.))

*Excellent, the purpose of this approach is to see how you think, what process of thinking you adopt, when write in English and in Arabic. Also, to see whether or not you adopt similar thinking process when you write in each language.*

إذا هذه طريقة كويسة. طريقة أفضل هذي

((Accordingly, this is a good approach. It is much better))

*Than the traditional approach.*

Thank you

In my academic life I met a teacher who made me very close to the subject that he was teaching. ~~The subject is~~ history I liked history very much, because of his way of teaching it. The students used to tell him about any problem they ~~face~~ might face ~~in~~ at school. At that time we ~~could~~ did not know why we were ~~very~~ <sup>very</sup> close to him, But now I can discover why we admired him and liked the subject of history he teaches, Firstly, he was so friendly, and polite, Secondly, he is good qualified in the subject of history he explained the lessons like stories, This way made us understood lessons very easy, he simplified the lessons by using different teaching aids. Finally his kindness was such that I will never forget ~~to~~ him.

من صلاتي العلية بالعبية كانه هناك احد بالعبية  
 الذي صليت احميه وانزوي منه انما رايته في رطلاني  
 صليت ايضا بحب مادة التاريخ التي كانه يدرسها  
 لونه دائما مكرت صناع من طابعه الكعبه وساعدنا  
 عن كل من اللنا المستحبة . فرفله المرقف  
 لم نكده موفن لانا انكم سجدت سونا الشكل والله  
 الله استطعنا انه يعرف السبب والله  
 لا نريد سجدت كونه موقفا لنا وبيد استنا لانه  
 كانه استاذنا قاضيا ومفتيا ومفتيا بشكل  
 ممتاز كانه يشرح دروس التاريخ على شكل  
 قصص تشرح اشياءنا ويجمعنا في شجرة  
 المعاديس التاريخية ودائما يجتهد مسائل في رفاح  
 المناسبة ويشرح الاصل الفريدة كانه يبالغ معنا  
 وناشنا اصدقائه له .  
 انه استاذنا قاضيا مثل هذا له عليه انه ليس  
 وسبقه دائما صديرا بالامم .

المراد 5

كحو 4

مفردات 3

أسلوب 2

كحو 4

تنظيم 2

بعض الاعمال جيداً في مقوله لكذا

23  
35



My classroom is completely different from the model classroom I have heard. It is simply a big room has some windows and two doors, one is in the front and the other is in the back. It is full of desks and chairs, because there are a large number of ~~50~~ students. It is not well lighted, and that makes the blackboard not seen clear. In comparing it with the model classroom you can see many differences. Firstly, it is not furnished, there are not curtains at the windows, the light is not enough and it is not good situated. Secondly, there is not any teaching aids, which help the students for learning foreign language. Thirdly, the number of students is not limited, and that makes it very difficult for the teachers to work with each student separately. Finally the place where the classroom is very noisy. Generally my classroom is not suits the learning process of foreign language.

١ كل أخص للفضل الدراسي الذي أتلق فيه درس  
 أستطيع أنه أقول . إنه عبارة على خبرة كبيرة  
 على عدد من الشرائع وبيان . يقع أخص في خبرة  
 الوضائية والوضعية في خبرة الكيفية والخبرة فائدة  
 بالماضي والماضي الضمنية . ذلك بسبب العدد  
 الكثير للطلاب الدراسي في هذا الفصل . والبرهان  
 غير كافية مما يتسبب في عدم روية السيرة بصفحة  
 وقد تمكنت من الفصل العنصر . أستطيع القول  
 بأنه لفكره كبير . حيث أنه هذا الفصل غير مؤتمت  
 ولا ترمي به رسائل للناقد . والبرهان غير  
 كافية . وليس في موافقها المناسبة . وقد ترمي  
 به رسائل التي يصاح الضرورة لتلقي اللغة الأجنبية  
 وبالنظر إلى عدد الطلاب فإنه كبير جداً وهذا  
 يتسبب في عدم قدرته على تلقي العنصر  
 مع الطلاب . كما أن عدد النقاد من أسسها  
 للدراسة . وأيضاً وجود الفصل بالمعرب من لغتي  
 الطلابة وأصوات السيارات . ولذا سيقدر الصانع  
 التي ~~تتمتع~~ تجمع من سيارات السيارات .  
 كل هذه الدراسات لتدبر من هذا الفصل  
 فضل مناسبت لتلقي اللغة الأجنبية .

APPENDIX 5a

CODING OF GENERAL WRITING STRATEGIES

- PRE-WRITING
  - PL PLANNING
  - RH REHEARSING
  - RW READING THE TOPIC
  - ACQ ASSESSING  
COMMENTING
  
- WRITING PROCESS
  - PL PLANNING
  - RH REHEARSING
  - R RESCANNING
  - RE REREADING
  - RW READING THE WHOLE TEXT
  - P PAUSING
  - TR TRANSLATING
  - W WRITING
  - CES CONSULTING EXTERNAL SOURCE
  - PAR PARAGRAPH READING
  
- REVISING
  - IR INTERNAL REVISING
  - FR FINAL REVISING
  
- EDITING
  - DLES DEEP-LEVEL EDITING STRATEGY
    - A ADDITION
    - DEL DELETION
    - SUB SUBSTITUTION
    - RO REORGANIZATION
    - CO COMBINATION
  
  - SLES SURFACE-LEVEL EDITING STRATEGY
    - A ADDITION
    - DEL DELETION
    - SUB SUBSTITUTION
    - SPL SPELLING
    - WF WORD FORM
    - V VERB FORM/TENSE
    - WC WORD CHOICE
    - PUN PUNCTUATION
    - SS SENTENCE STRUC

APPENDIX 5b  
CODING CHART

SECONDS	10	20	30	40	50	60		10	20	30	40	50	60
(Mins) Prewriting													
COMPOSING													
1		PL		RH			21						
2	RW		W	P TR	RE		22	P	RE	P	DEL	RE	A
3		W	IR	ED		P.	23	RE	ED	V	WC	RE	P SS
4	W		P	ACQ	W		24	W				PUN.	W
5	PL	RH		C	W		25					DEL	
6		P	RE	ED	W		26	W				PUN.	
7	W					P WC	27	RE		PL	C	W	
8		W				P	28				P	ED	SUB
9	W			IR	RE		29		W		P	ED	SPE
10	ED	V	WC	PUN	RE		30					W	
11		CM			PUN.			P		RW		COMPLETING THE FIRST	
12	PL		RW		ACQ		32	DRAFT				W THE CONCLUSION	
13	W						33						
14							34			P		PUN.	
15	RE		ED	WC	V	SPE	35	FR			P	ED	DEL
16		W		P	W		36	SUB		A	W	RE	
17						PUN.	37			P		DEL	SUB
													PUC
NPA (New Paragraph)							38	RE					
PL				RE		RW	39						
RE			CM			TR	40					PUN	FINISHING.
W													



Appendix 6 (a)

1- Background and Attitudes Questionnaire (Prewriting Questionnaire)

This is an anonymous questionnaire to determine the writing habits of Libyan University students at University of El-Fateh. We would appreciate your honest responses to the questionnaire, which should take only about 15 minutes to fill out. Thank you for your co-operation and assistance with this project.

Name:                      Gender: (male/female)

Years of English learning: Age (     )

- 1-        How long have you been studying English before coming to this college?  
Please Choose the most appropriate range of years given below?

1-3	
3-6	
6-9	
More	

- 2-        What type of schools/colleges did you attend before this college?

Public School	
Private School	

- 3-        How often did you write Arabic compositions?

Once a week	
Twice a week	
Three times a week	

- 4-        How often did you write English compositions before college?

Once a week	
Twice a week	
Three times week	

- 5-        Of the four major English skills, which is/are the most important for  
            success in college? (4 most important, 3 very important, 2 fairly

Reading comprehension	
Listening comprehension	
speaking	
Writing	

- 6-        How did you find writing in English?

Very difficult	
Rather difficult	
Difficult	
Easy	
Very easy	

7- How did you find writing in Arabic?

Very difficult	
Rather difficult	
Difficult	
Easy	
Very easy	

8- How much do you like English/Arabic writing?

	Really like	like	Neither like nor dislike	dislike	Really dislike
Arabic					
English					

9- What did you think about writing in Arabic and in English? Please explain why?

<i>Very similar</i>	<i>Similar</i>	<i>Fairly similar</i>	<i>Different</i>	<i>Very different</i>

10- Did you plan before writing in English and in Arabic?

	Yes	No
Arabic		
English		

11- Did you revise after finishing your writing in English and in Arabic?

	Yes	No
Arabic		
English		

12- How many drafts did you write in English and in Arabic? Please tick the appropriate box in front of either language.

	None	One draft	Two drafts	Three drafts	More
Arabic					
English					

13- Please rate the items below in terms of how *important*, you think, they were for good writing? (4 very important; 3 not too important; 2 somewhat important; 1 not important)

Punctuation	
Spelling	
Vocabulary	
Grammar	
Organisation	
Content	

14- What areas of your English and Arabic writing do you want to improve?  
(4 need much improvement; 3 need little improvement; 2 need some improvement;1 no improvement)

	punctuation	spelling	vocabulary	grammar	organisation	content
Arabic						
English						

15- When writing in English, what language did you think in?

Always English	always Arabic	Usually English	Usually Arabic	Rarely English	Rarely Arabic	First in Arabic, then translate into English

16- In what language did you write down your ideas when writing English compositions?

Completely in English	In English but use Arabic when English is not available	Supplement English heavily by Arabic	Write first in Arabic then translate into English

17- What did you usually write about? Choose as many categories as you want.  
(4 most common; 3 rather common; 2 fairly common; 1 common; 0 not at all common)

	Letters	Notes	Essays	Stories	Reports	Diaries	homework	others
Arabic								
English								

*Please specify others*  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

Please *Add* any *Comments* that you think were not included above. You can write in either language, Arabic or English.

Thank you so much  
**END OF QUESTIONNAIRE**

Appendix 6 (b)

2- Writing Process Strategies Questionnaire

Name:.....

Gender: (male    female)

Years of English learning:.....

Age (    )

This questionnaire aims to investigate the students’ behaviours and activities while adopting writing process approach through thinking-aloud protocols.

- 1) Have you ever used think-aloud protocols while writing? Choose the best answer.

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
1 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 12	2 11			10

75% have never used the writing process approach.

16.6% have rarely used the writing process.

8.3% have always used the writing process approach.

- 2) Do you often do any of the following when composing in Arabic and in English?

		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always	before	during	after
List down ideas	Arabic	1 2 3 4 5 6 8 9 11 12	10		7			7	
	English	2 9 12	5 10	4	1 3 8	7	3	1 5 6 7	
Look into dictionaries	Arabic	1 3 5 7 8 9 10 11 12		2	4 6			2 9	
	English			2 6 8 11 12	3	1 4 5 7 9 10		1 2 3 5 7 9 12	
Think before writing	Arabic		6 9	8 12	2 3 5 7	1 4 10 11	3 9	1 2 5 7	
	English			12	2 3 7 9	1 4 5 6 8 10 11	3	1 2 5 7 9	
Plan what to write	Arabic	1 5	8 12	4	2 7	3 6 9 10 11	2 3 9	3 7	
	English				2 7 12	1 3 4 5 6 8 9 10 11	2 3 5 9	1 3 7	
Read questions aloud	Arabic	1 2 3 5 9	6 8	7	10 11 12	4	7		
	English	1 2 3 9	5	7 8	10 11 12	4 6	5 7		
Read questions silently	Arabic		3 4 8 11	6 7 10		1 2 5 9 12	2 5 7 9	1 1 2	
	English		3 4 11	7 10	5	1 2 6 9 12	1 2 5 7 9	1 2	
Ask peers and teacher	Arabic	1 4 6 8 12	3 5 9 10 11		7	2	2 5 7		
	English		10 11 12	3 4 6 8	1 5 7 9	2	2 5 7	1	

Arabic    83.3% never list down ideas. 16.6% list down ideas

75% never look up words. 25% look up words (

100% think before writing.

16.6% never plan what they write.

41.6% never read aloud

100% read questions silently

41.6% never ask peers

English



75% list down their ideas 25% never list down their ideas.  
100% look up words in dictionary.  
100% think before writing.  
100% plan what they write  
25% never read questions aloud  
100% read questions silently.  
100% ask peers.

3) How do you feel when writing your compositions this way?

	Very diff.	Rather diff.	Difficult	Neither difficult nor easy	Easy	Rather easy	Very easy
Arabic		3		279 10 11 12	1468		5
English		3689	14	257 10 11 12			

Arabic: 25% RD. 50% Neither Nor. 33.6% Easy. 8.3% V Easy  
English: 33.3% RD. 16.6% Difficult. 50%Neither Nor.

4) Do you feel that L1 (Arabic) conventions have an effect on your composing in English?

	In all aspects	In most aspects	In a few aspects	None aspect
A very large effect	7	10		
A large effect		1569	2	
Some effect		3 11 12		
No effect				48

8.3% There is a very large effect in all aspects.  
8.3% There is a very large effect in most aspects.  
33.3% There is a large effect in most aspects.  
8.3% There is a large effect in a few aspects.  
25% There is some effect in most aspects.  
16.6% There is no effect in a

5) What areas do you always pay more attention to when writing compositions in Arabic and in English? Number your choices 1-4 as follows (4 most attention; 3 rather attention; 2 fair attention; 1no attention). *Please* specify the other possibilities.

		grammar	vocabulary	punctuation	spelling	Ideas	organising	Other possibilities
Lei	A	1	0	1	4	3	2	handwriting
	E	4	4	1	4	4	4	
Ima	A	4	3	1	2	4	3	
	E	3	4	2	4	3	3	
Su	A	1	2	1	1	4	1	Style
	E	4	3	2	3	4	2	
Nj	A	4	4	4	4	4	4	
	E	4	4	4	4	4	4	
Nd	A	3	1	2	1	1	1	
	E	4	3	3	2	4	4	
Ma	A	0	4	0	0	4	0	
	E	4	4	1	4	4	4	
Mj	A	4	4	1	3	3	3	
	E	4	4	3	3	3	2	
Gh	A	3	3	0	4	3	4	
	E	4	4	3	4	4	4	
Al	A	4	2	2	3	3	3	Planning
	E	4	3	2	3	3	3	
Wa	A	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	E	4	4	4	4	3	4	
Nu	A	0	4	0	0	3	0	
	E	3	4	0	0	2	0	
Ah	A	2	2	1	1	1	1	
	E	4	4	3	4	3	4	
T	A	26	29	13	23	33	22	
	E	46	45	28	39	41	38	

*Total numbers in each category are out of 48 as a maximum rationale.*

6) When write in Arabic and in English, what is similar and what is different?

	Totally different	A little different	A little similar	Totally similar
Gram. Structures	1235679 11 12		48 10	
Punctuation	48 11	257 10	139 12	
Spelling	123456789 10 11 12			
Vocabulary	123456789 10 11 12			
Sentence connection	248 11	13679 10 12	5	
Organisation	2 11	1567 12	39	48
Paragraph building	24568 10 11 12	17	3	9

75% Totally different grammatical structures and 25% a little similar.  
25% Totally different, 33.3% a little different and 33.3 a little similar punctuation.  
100% Totally different spelling.  
100% Totally different vocabulary.  
25% Totally different, 58.3% a little different, 8.3% a little similar sentence connection.  
25% Totally different, 41.6% a little different, 16.6% a little similar and 16.6% totally similar organisation.  
66.6% Totally different, 16.6% a little different, 8.3% a little similar, 8.3% totally similar paragraph building.

7) When writing compositions, does your teacher’s instruction help you?

		Helps a lot	Helps a little	Doesn't help much	Doesn't help at all
Before writing	Arabic	49 11 12	1257 10	8	36
	English	124589 10 12	36 11	7	
During writing	Arabic	24	5 10	1789	36 11 12
	English	12458	10	37	69 11 12

BEFORE WRITING

Arabic 25% helps a lot, 41.6% helps a little, 8.3% doesn’t help much, 16.6% not at all.  
English 66.6% helps a lot, 25% helps a little, 8.3% doesn’t help much.

DURING WRITING

Arabic 16.6% helps a lot, 16.6% helps a little, 25% doesn’t help much, 33.3% not at all.  
English 41.6% helps a lot, 8.3% helps a little, 16.6% doesn’t help much, 25% not at all

How does s/he help?  
.....

8) When do you follow similar writing process strategies in Arabic and in English composing?

When topics are similar.					
When topics are culturally bound.					
When I receive enough feedback before and while writing.					

9) When do you receive feedback from your teacher?

		Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
During Writing	Arabic					
	English					
After Writing	Arabic					
	English					

10) Do you do any of the following *while* writing your compositions in Arabic and in English?

		Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Revising	Arabic					
	English					
Rehearsing	Arabic					
	English					
Reading	Arabic					
	English					
Checking form	Arabic					
	English					
Checking content	Arabic					
	English					
Organising	Arabic					
	English					
Other possibilities	Arabic					
	English					

Specify other possibilities  
.....  
.....

11- Does your teacher help you in your composition classes?

		Helps a lot	Helps a little	Doesn't help much	Doesn't help at all
Before	Arabic	489 11 12	6 10	257	13
	English	489 10 12	35 11	27	16
During	Arabic	5		279 10	13468 11 12
	English		5 10	237	14689 11 12
After	Arabic	5 10	2 12	79	13468 11
	English	5 10	2 12	37	14689 11

BEFORE

Arabic 41.6% helps a lot, 16.6% helps a little, 25% doesn't help much, 16.6% doesn't help at all.  
English 41.6% helps a lot, 25% helps a little, 16.6% doesn't help much, 16.6% doesn't help at all.

DURING

Arabic 8.3% helps a lot, 33.3% doesn't help much, 58.3% doesn't help at all  
English 16.6% helps a little, 25% doesn't help much, 58.3% doesn't help at all

AFTER

Arabic 16.6% helps a lot, 16.6% helps a little, 16.6% doesn't help much, 50% doesn't help.  
English 16.6% helps a lot, 16.6% helps a little, 16.6% doesn't help much, 50% doesn't help.

12-Do you do you any of the following *after* finishing your compositions in Arabic and in English?

		Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Revising	Arabic	12348 10 11	56	7 12		9
	English	12345678 9 10 11		12		
Rehearsing	Arabic	246 11	37	15	8 12	9 11
	English	24568 11	37	19	12	11
Reading	Arabic	24568 10 11	12	17	39	
	English	24568 10 11	9	17 12	3	
Checking form	Arabic	1346	2578 10	9 11	12	
	English	1468	2579 10	11 12		3
Checking content	Arabic	134	2678 11	10 12	59	
	English	13468 12	257 10 11	9		
Organising	Arabic	4	37 12	125 10	69 11	8
	English	3456	7	1289 10 12	11	
Other possibilities	Arabic					
	English					

REVISION

Arabic 58.3%Always, 16.6%Often, 25%Sometimes, 00% Rarely, 8.3%Never  
English 91.6%Always, 8.3%Sometimes

REHEARSING

Arabic 33.3%Always, 16.6%Often, 16.6%Sometimes, 25%Rarely, 25%Never  
English 50%Always, 16.6%Often, 16.6%Sometimes, 16.6%Rarely, 16.6%Never

READING



Arabic 58.3%Always, 8.3%Often, 16.6%Sometimes, 16.6%Rarely, 00%Never  
English 58.3%Always, 8.3%Often, 25%Sometimes, 8.3%Rarely, 00%Never

Please specify other possibilities:  
*Please* feel free to add any more comments of your own that might not have been included, in the given space. *You can write in either language*

**END OF QUESTIONNAIRE**

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Appendix 6 (c)  
3- Post-Writing Questionnaire

1) What similarities and/or differences did you find between this type of writing and those you are familiar with?

Totally different	145 12
Different	26789 10 11
Totally similar	
Similar	3

Totally different 33.3%, Different 58.3%, Totally similar 00%, Similar 8.3%

2) Concerning this type of writing, what do you think that you need to improve your writing skills in Arabic and in English?

	Arabic	English
Form skills	78	3678 10 11 12
Content skills	24567	1236789 10 11 12
Communicative skills	179	57 10 11 12
Other skills		10 11 12

<i>FORM SKILLS</i>			
Arabic	16.6%.	English	58.3%
<i>CONTENT SKILLS</i>			
Arabic	41.6%	English	83.3%
<i>COMMUNIVATIVE SKILLS</i>			
Arabic	25%	English	41.6%
<i>OTHER SKILLS</i>			
Arabic	00%	English	25%
Specify other skills			
Mainly handwriting skills.			

3) How were you provided with feedback while and after composing in Arabic and in English? How effective was the feedback?

		Very effective	Effective	Effective a little	Not effective at all
Teacher's feedback	Arabic	489	137 10 11 12	25	6
	English	4589 11 12	1367 10	2	
Peers' feedback	Arabic		5	247 10	136
	English		12458	367 10	
Material feedback	Arabic	4 10	2369	5	17
	English	348 10	2569		17
Dictionaries	Arabic	4		2369 10	157 11 12
	English	458	2 10	369 11 12	17
None	Arabic				1
	English				1

Teacher’s Feedback

Arabic 25% Veffective, 33.3% Effective, 16.6% Effective a little, 8.3% Not effective  
English 50% Veffective, 41.6% Effective, 16.6% Effective a little, 00% Not effective

Peers’ Feedback

Arabic 00% 8.3% 33.3% 25%  
English 00% 41.3% 33.3% 00%

Materials’ Feedback

Arabic 16.6% 33.3% 8.3% 16.6%  
English 33.3% 33.3% 00% 16.6%

Dictionaries

Arabic 8.3% 00% 41.6% 41.6%  
English 25% 25% 41.6% 16.6%

None

Arabic 00% 00% 00% 8.3%  
English 00% 00% 00% 8.3%

4) Was there anything that you paid particular attention to during the process of writing in Arabic and in English?

		Very important	Not too important	Somewhat important	Little important	Not important
Gram. Structures	Arabic	47	29 10	5 12	16	3
	English	12345679 10 11 12				
Punctuation	Arabic		249 10	7	5	136 12
	English	39	245 10	7 12		16
Spelling	Arabic	1467 10	2			35 12
	English	12345679 10 11 12				
Vocabulary	Arabic	167	49 10		2	35 12
	English	123679 11 12	45 10			
Sentence Connection	Arabic	4679	25 10		1	3 12
	English	124679 12	3 10 11	5		
Organisation	Arabic	478	9 10		126	35 12
	English	1346789 12	25 10			
Paragraph Building	Arabic	1478	9 10	12	56	23
	English	134679 12	2 10 11	5		

Comments: 8) I paid attention to nearly all of them

Grammatical Structures

Arabic 16.6% V.important, 25% Not too important, 25% Somewhat important, 25% L.important, 8.3% Not important  
English 91.6% 00% 00% 00% 00%

Punctuation

Arabic 00% 33.3% 8.3% 8.3% 33.3%  
English 16.6% 33.3% 16.6% 00% 16.6%

Spelling

Arabic 41.6% 8.3% 00% 00% 25%  
English 91.6% 00% 00% 00% 00%

Vocabulary

Arabic 25% 25% 00% 8.3% 25%  
English 66.6% 25% 00% 00% 00%

Sentence Connection

Arabic 33.3% 25% 00% 8.3% 16.6%  
English 58.3% 25% 8.3% 00% 00%

<b>Organisation</b>					
Arabic	25%	25%	00%	25%	25%
English	66.6%	25%	00%	00%	00%
<b>Paragraph Building</b>					
Arabic	33.3%	25%	8.3%	16.6%	16.6%
English	58.3%	25%	8.3%	00%	00%

5) If you were to evaluate your composition in this type of writing process, how would you rate it and *why*?

	Very good	Good	Fair	Weak
Arabic composition		245678 11 12	19 10	3
English composition	49	6	25 10 11 12	1378

Comments: 1) Because Arabic is my first language and I am not very good English.

<i>Level of fluency</i>					
Arabic	00%	Vgood	66.6%	Good	25%
English	16.6%		8.3%	Fair	41.6%
				Weak	33.3%

6) What did you do **before** you started your composing in Arabic and in English?

	Planned	Listed ideas	Read the prompt	Discussed with teacher	Wrote on the onset
Arabic	7 8 10 11 12		1 5 6 7	1 7	1 2 3 9
English	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	1	1 7	1 7	

Comments

4) In Arabic composition, I start writing after reading the topic, and then I come up with ideas during the writing.

Strategies

	Planned,	listed ideas,	Read the prompt,	Discussed with researcher,	Write on the onset
Arabic	41.6%	00%	33.3%	16.6 %	33.3%
English	100%	8.3%	16.6%	16.6%	00%

7) Describe what you did **during** the process of writing your composition.

**Arabic:**

- 1) Extemporaneously wrote my essay without any preparation of my ideas.
- 2) I started writing the composition straight away without planning.
- 3) I thought of the topic, then I just began writing.
- 4) In Arabic composition I start writing after reading the topic and then I come up with ideas during writing and when I finish writing I revise what has writing.
- 5) I didn't plan Before writing I come up with ideas as I writes.
- 6) I write fluently without ideas preparation.(in Arabic)
- 7) Firstly, I thought about what I would write. When the ideas generated I started writing up the topic. My Arabic vocabulary is much more accessible than that of English. So I feel I can write better essay.



- 8) I try to revise what I wrote in English just to take ideas then try to form it in Arabic.
- 9) I already begin with out thinking because when i write the idea comes after the beginning, Maybe because it's the first language acquisition.
- 10) I always plane what I am going to write.
- 11)
- 12) I think a little of the topic then I start writing.

English:

- 1) I organise my sentences and look up words in dictionary.
- 2) I plan before writing. I thought of ideas before start writing. I had difficulty in spelling.
- 3) I prepared bilingual dictionaries, asked my friend about some points.
- 4) In English composition, I always plane befor writing, and liste my ideas, and during writing I read the topic for many times, and try to rivise all what I've written, and correct any mistake during writing.
- 5) I plan Befor writing I had difficulty in vocoublary and with sentence connection.
- 6) Contrary to Arabic, I prepare and organise my ideas. (in Arabic)
- 7) Firstly, I thought of what to write about but in Arabic. Then I translated it into English. I lack English vocabulary. I feel I have written unsatisfactory essay.
- 8) Planning is a first step then revise each sentence to see if it is well connected with the privious sentence or not and sure I correct in spelling and grammatical structures.
- 9) I think before I write in English and put a plan because there a big differences between the two languages for me as a concios learner.
- 10) When I write in English, I always think in Arabic, plan in Arabic in my mind, then I write on paper in English.
- 11)
- 12) I think and plan more before I write.

7- How many drafts did you write in Arabic and in English?

	3 drafts	2 drafts	I draft	None
Arabic		2 10 11 12	134678	59
English	1	24 10 11 12	356789	

DRAFTING

	3 drafts	2drafts	1 draft	None
Arabic	00%	33.3%	58.3%	16.6%
English	8.3%	41.6%	58.3%	00%

8-What did you do when you finished your writing process?

	Stopped writing	Revised all the essay	Checked form	Checked content
Arabic	3489	1245678 10 11 12	17	1
English	348	124678 10 11 12	14579	14

FINAL STRATEGY

	Stopped Writing	Revised all the essay	Checked form	Checked content
Arabic	33.3%	83.3%	16.6%	8.3%
English	25%	75%	41.6%	16.6%

9- How did you feel about this type of writing?

	Very satisfied	Fairly satisfied	Satisfied	Not satisfied
Arabic composition	17	89 10	2456 11 12	3
English composition	1789	25 10	46 11 12	3

**WRITING SATISFACTION**

	V.Satisfied	F.Satisfied	Satisfied	Not Satisfied
Arabic	16.6%	25%	50%	8.3%
English	33.3%	25%	33.3%	8.3%

If there any comments regarding writing process *please* don't hesitate to add. You can write in either language.

- 1) (It) is very nice Because I learnt from it.
- 2) It seems somehow confusing but if one gets used to it it would be normal.
- 3) The tape-recorder seems to be an undesirable observer because man, naturally, tries to hide his mistakes not to display them.
- 4) As for me, I think that it is different type of writing and its good for students.
- 5) This writing process is good, but it is difficult to apply in practice, Because facilities Needed for This kind of writing are not available.
- 8) This kind of writing it is very different from the one that we got used to write with, but at the same time I find it normal because you nearly use the same process the only one difference is in loud thinking and
- 9) recording.
- 10) As I have earlier explained that we as English language major students very much need this idea because it enhances the students' composing style.
- 11) When I write in Arabic, I just plane in Arabic and write in Arabic. But, when I write in English, I plan in Arabic then I write in English.

*Thank you very much*

**END OF QUESTIONNAIRE**

Appendix 6 (d)  
TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Name:..... Gender (male/female)  
Department:..... Years of experience (20-30)

1- How do you instruct your writing classes?

In Arabic	
In English	1 2 3 4
In both languages	1

Language of Instruction  
English 100% Both languages 25%

2- How do you instruct your students?

Individually	1
In small groups	
As one group	1 2 3 4

Way of Instruction  
As one group 100% Individually 25%

3- Do your student writers do any of the following activities in their compositions? Please specify if there are any more possibilities.

		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always	before	during	after
List down ideas	Arabic			4					
	English			3	1 4	2		1 2	
Look into dictionaries	Arabic			2	1 4			1 2	
	English			3 4	1				
Think before writing	Arabic				1 2 4			1 2	
	English			4	3				
Plan what to write	Arabic			2 4	1		1 2		
	English		2	3	1	4	1 2		
Read questions aloud	Arabic	2 4							
	English			1 2 3		4	2	1	
Read questions silently	Arabic		4						
	English		3		2	4	2	1	
Ask peers and teacher	Arabic			1 2 4				2	
	English		2	1	3	4		1 2	

4- Do your students have difficulties in any of the following while in English?

	Very difficult	Fairly difficult	Difficult	Not difficult
Gram. Structures	1 2	3 4		
Punctuation	1 3	2	4	
Spelling/dictation	1 3 4		2	
Vocabulary	1	2 3	4	
Sentence connection	1 2	4	3	
Organisation	4	3	2	1
Paragraph building	4	3	2	1
Other possibilities		2		

Difficulties encounter writers

	v.Dif.	F.Dif.	Dif.	N.Dif.
Gram.Structures	50%	50%	00%	00%
Punctuation	50%	25%	25%	00%
Spelling/Dictation	75%	00%	25%	00%
Vocabulary	25%	50%	25%	00%
Sen.Connection	50%	25%	25%	00%
Organisation	25%	25%	25%	25%
Paragraph Building	25%	25%	25%	25%
Other Possibility	00%	25%	00%	00%

Other possibilities:

- 2) *Forming ideas*
- 4) *Paragraph integrity and coherence.*

5- What approaches do you adopt to teach writing? *Please* specify if there are any other possibilities.

	All the time	Most of time	sometimes	Rarely	Never
Guided writing approach		1	2 3 4		
Free writing approach		4	3	2	
Process writing approach		2	3	4	
Product writing approach		3	4		
Communicative approach		3	4		
Genre-based writing approach			3	4	
Other possibilities					

*Guided Writing Approach is used 75%*

6- How do you correct the writing errors and what feedback do you provide them with?

Indicate the errors only	
Indicate and give the correct form	1 2 4
Write comments on margins	3
Write comments at the end	2 4
None of these	

*Indicates and gives correct form 75%*

*Comments on margin 25%*

*Comments at the end 50%*

7- Do you focus on the writing process or writing product?

Writing process	2
Writing product	
Both	1 3 4
None	

*Writing Approach in focus*

*Both 75%*

*Writing Process 25%*

8- Do you think that Arabic influences your student writers when they write in English? What area/s do you think have salient influence?

Grammar	vocabulary	Punctuation	Sentence connection	Spelling	Organisation
1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2

*Arabic grammar and vocabulary have 100% influence while others do not exceed 50%*



9- To what extent do you think that English is different from Arabic?

Totally different	Fairly different	Different	A little different
13	4	2	

*Half of teachers think that English is totally different from Arabic.*

10- Do your student writers apply the English writing rules: conventions, rhetoric, mechanics etc., when writing in English?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
	1	2 3 4		

*English Writing Rules: 75% think the students do.*

11- Are students given enough time to discuss and complete their writing compositions during the class time?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
			2 3 4	1

*75% think that their students are often given enough time.*

If there are any more comments you would like to add, *please* don't hesitate to do so.

*Thank you very much*  
**END OF QUESTIONNAIRE**

## **Appendix 7 (a)**

### **SUBJECTS' INTERVIEW QUESTIONS**

- 1- How long have you been studying English/Arabic?
- 2- Have you gone to English medium schools?
- 3- Have you lived in any English speaking country? If yes, where?
- 4- Do you like writing? If yes, what do you usually write?
- 5- How many English classes did you weekly take before college?
- 6- How many English writing classes are you taking in college?
- 7- How many Arabic writing classes are you taking in college?
- 8- Who taught you English in school?
- 9- Did they use English or Arabic instruction?
- 10- Can you see any relationship between writing in Arabic and in English?
- 11- Do you follow similar strategies when writing in Arabic and in English?
- 12- Do you read any English books, magazines, newspapers, etc.?
- 13- When you write in English, do you think in, translate, and/or use Arabic to keep on composing?
- 14- Do you use bilingual or monolingual dictionaries?
- 15- How do you write in Arabic and in English?
- 16- Do you plan before you start writing?
- 17- Do you stop and read/ revise your writing?
- 18- Do you revise your writing when you finish?
- 19- What do you think of your writing teachers?
- 20- How do they provide you with feedback?
- 21- Do they instruct you in English or in Arabic?
- 22- What do you think of Arabic writing teaching?
- 23- What do you think of English writing teaching?
- 24- Do you plan before you start your Arabic writing?
- 25- Do you stop, read/revise your essays in Arabic while writing?
- 26- Do you revise your Arabic essays when you finish?
- 27- Do you think you are a good writer in both languages?
- 28- How many drafts do you usually write in each language?
- 29- Do you identify your audience when you write?
- 30- Do you have any problems in writing?
- 31- What do you think of the writing process approach?

## **Appendix 7 (b)**

### **Teachers' Interview Questions**

- 1- What part of English do you think that ESL/EFL students encounter as the most difficult?
- 2- Do you think Arabic speaking students are good writers of English?
- 3- Do you think that Libyan students, in particular, are good writers of English?
- 4- Do Libyan students demonstrate concern with audience in their writing?
- 5- Do you think that if a student is considered a good writer in his native language that he is also good in L2?
- 6- Do you think that L1 (Arabic) help Libyan students master English writing? Why or why not?
- 7- How do Libyan students encounter problems different than other L2 learners?
- 8- How do you teach writing? What approaches do you use in teaching writing?
- 9- What do your students do before they start composing?
- 10- What do your students do while composing?
- 11- What do your students do after finishing composing?
- 12- What approaches do you use to help your students solve their writing problems?
- 13- How do you correct the writing errors your students make in their essays?
- 14- What do you focus on, writing process or writing product? Why?
- 15- To what extent do you think that your Libyan students are influenced by their L1?
- 16- Do you think that Libyan students apply the English writing rules, conventions, rhetoric, mechanics etc., when write in English?
- 17- Do you give your students enough time to discuss and complete their compositions during the class time?



Appendix 8 (a)

In-Class Data Collection Format

*Teacher Observed: 1*      *Materials Textbook*      *Date:*      *Objectives*      *Number of Students: 60*

	<i>Time duration spent on each item (in minutes)</i>											
	1-10	20-30	30-40	40-50	50-60	60-70	70-80	80-90	90-100	100-110	110-120	
Teacher stating the lesson objectives												
Teacher gives information in L2												
Teacher gives information in L1												
Teacher asking questions in L2												
Teacher asking questions in L1												
Teacher commenting on students participation												
Teacher praising students participation												
Teacher criticising students behaviour												
Teacher speaking while students listening												
Teacher writing on BB and students copying												
Teacher giving feedback to groups												
Teacher helping individuals while writing												
Students requesting help from teacher												
Students consult previous materials												
Students discuss objectives in groups in L2												
Students discuss objectives in L1												
Students asking questions in L2												
Students asking questions in L1												
Students writing first draft												
Students discussing first draft with teacher												
Students writing second draft with feedback												
Students discussing second draft with teacher												
Students writing final draft												



**APPENDIX 8 (b)**  
**In-Class Data Collection Format**  
**Teacher Observed: 2 Materials**

**Date:**      **Objectives**      **Number of Students: 64**

	<i>Time duration spent on each item (in minutes)</i>										
	1-10	20-30	30-40	40-50	50-60	60-70	70-80	80-90	90-100	100-110	110-120
Teacher stating the lesson objectives											
Teacher gives information in L2											
Teacher gives information in L1											
Teacher asking questions in L2											
Teacher asking questions in L1											
Teacher commenting on students participation											
Teacher praising students participation											
Teacher criticizing students behavior											
Teacher speaking while students listening											
Teacher writing on BB and students copying											
Teacher giving feedback to groups											
Teacher helping individuals while writing											
Students requesting help from teacher											
Students consult previous materials											
Students discuss objectives in groups in L2											
Students discuss objectives in L1											
Students asking questions in L2											
Students asking questions in L1											
Students writing first draft											
Students discussing first draft with teacher											
Students writing second draft with feedback											
Students discussing second draft with teacher											
Students writing final draft											



APPENDIX 8 (c)

In-Class Data Collection Format

Teacher Observed: 3 Materials

Date:

Objectives Number of Students: 60

	Time duration spent on each item (in minutes)										
	1-10	20-30	30-40	40-50	50-60	60-70	70-80	80-90	90-100	100-110	110-120
Teacher stating the lesson objectives											
Teacher gives information in L2											
Teacher gives information in L1											
Teacher asking questions in L2											
Teacher asking questions in L1											
Teacher commenting on students participation											
Teacher praising students participation											
Teacher criticising students behaviour											
Teacher speaking while students listening											
Teacher writing on BB and students copying											
Teacher giving feedback to groups											
Teacher helping individuals while writing											
Students requesting help from teacher											
Students consult previous materials											
Students discuss objectives in groups in L2											
Students discuss objectives in L1											
Students asking questions in L2											
Students asking questions in L1											
Students writing first draft											
Students discussing first draft with teacher											
Students writing second draft with feedback											
Students discussing second draft with teacher											
Students writing final draft											





APPENDIX 8 (d)

In-Class Data Collection Format

Teacher Observed:4

Materials TEXTBOOK

Date:

Objectives

Number of Students:56

	Time duration spent on each item (in minutes)										
	1-10	20-30	30-40	40-50	50-60	60-70	70-80	80-90	90-100	100-110	110-120
Teacher stating the lesson objectives											
Teacher gives information in L2											
Teacher gives informations in L1											
Teacher asking questions in L2											
Teacher asking questions in L1											
Teacher commenting on students participation											
Teacher praising students participation											
Teacher criticising students behaviour											
Teacher speaking while students listening											
Teacher writing on BB and students copying											
Teacher giving feedback to groups											
Teacher helping individuals while writing											
Students requesting help from teacher											
Students consult previous materials											
Students discuss objectives in groups in L2											
Students discuss objectives in L1											
Students asking questions in L2											
Students asking questions in L1											
Students writing first draft											
Students discussing first draft with teacher											
Students writing second draft with feedback											
Students discussing second draft with teacher											
Students writing final draft											



APPENDIX 9 (a)  
English Rating Chart

	MARKS			RATER'S COMMENTS
		TOPIC		
		1	2	
Grammatical Constructions				
Sentence order	5			
S-V agreement	5			
Punctuation	5			
Vocabulary	5			
Spelling	5			
Articles	5			
Prepositions	5			
Total	35			
Organization				
Introduction	5			
Support Sentences	5			
Conclusion	5			
Total	15			
Rhetoric				
Cohesion and Cohesive Devices	10			
Total	10			
OVERALL COMMENT	..... ..... .....			

### Arabic Rating Chart

التعليق	ضعيف متوسط جيد جليدا ممتاز				
	1	2	3	4	5
تكوينه					
الكتلة					
حمل					
الطعم					
الرائحة					
القيمة					
رطوبته					
البروتينات					
الحبوب					
الإسلاء					
علامات التربة					
المحرق					
2- التخمير					
التخمير					
الموضوع					
المحرق					
3- القيمة					
نظرة العين					
البروتينات					
المجموع					

التعليق العام :  
يرجى كتابة رأيكم بشكل عام عن مستوى الطلاب وأهم مبررات القصور التي يعانيها

مع خاصه بشکر

COMPOSITION - I4 hours per week.

This course is designed mainly to acquaint students with the necessity fundamentals of writing by guiding them through ample practice to write their own compositions.

It focuses on writing good and clear sentences and then leads the student to the structure of the paragraph. Students are taught to write simple, direct and clear paragraphs through use of topic sentence and the supporting sentences. A brief introduction to the order of arranging a paragraph is given so that students learn how to arrange their paragraph using time order (description) or rank order (discussing) a topic

A. Grammatical items to be covered and practiced:

1. Simple present
2. Progressive present
3. Present perfect
4. Simple past
5. Past progressive
6. Past perfect
7. Future
8. Nouns and pronouns
9. Adjectives and adverbs
10. Prepositions and interjections
11. Conjunctions

B. Sentences:

1. Simple sentence
2. Complex sentence
3. Compound sentence
4. Compound complex sentence
5. Statement (Declarative)
6. Question (Interrogative)
7. Command (Imperative)
8. Exclamatory sentences



## COMPOSITION II

4 hours per week

Composition II is a more advanced course where students are to be acquainted with the necessary techniques of paragraph writing and later with planning and writing a whole composition. Here, students ought to be taught how to apply what they have already studied in Composition I. In other words, students at this point ought to know how to join the well-punctuated and constructed sentences, they have already learned in composition I and Grammar I, into a basic unit of thought, namely a paragraph. Later in the course students will be able to join several well written paragraphs into a well coherent and organized composition of any sort.

Composition II will be the following topics:

1. Paragraph and Development:

- Thesis statement.
- Body
- Conclusion

2. Unit of a paragraph:

- Arrangement of sentences
- Transitions between sentences
- Contrast and comparison in paragraphing
- Cause and effect in paragraphing

3. Planning and writing a composition:

- Purpose
- Central idea
- Working plan
- Sentence outline
- Topic outline
- Paragraph outline
- Effective beginning and ending
- Practice





2 hours per week

### Advanced writing I

This course is designed for third and fourth years students of English . It is intended to achieve the following major objectives :

- To provide an understanding of the total writing process and to explain how that process can be used to communicate effectively in writing .
- To look at the difficulties that students often experience in writing . It examines the errors which are frequently made and gives practice in correcting them .
- To guide students through the acquisition of skills indispensable in developing writing proficiency and to teach them to write more perceptively .
- To introduce the basic techniques , tools and forms that lead to a successful writing .
- To practice various methods for developing ideas in single paragraphs and essays .
- To look at the organization and style of writing which is required for academic purposes .
- To help prepare students for writing assignments actually required for their life and career .
- To stress the writer-reader relationship , and writing as a practical craft .
- To make a detailed analysis of writing samples (by students and professionals) and to furnish students with the necessary techniques for analyzing their own as well as other's work .
- To achieve growth in both thinking and writing skills through the use of contemporary models of good writing or interesting topics .

In practice , this course intends to disclose the skills of accomplished writing through a logical step-by-step approach . It proceeds systematically from the syntax of the sentence , as the seat of trouble in language use , through the structure of the paragraph , and to the form of the essay . It begins with an introductory discussion of the basic techniques of writing-gathering information , forming generalization , organizing , paragraphing and basic elements of style . Then , it moves to more specialized techniques including methods of development and advanced principles of writing .

Among the aspects of writing to be covered in this course are the following :

- Words
- The sentence
- Developing sentence patterns
- Sharpening coordination and subordination
- Mechanics
- Grammar
- Spelling
- Punctuation
- Paragraphing
- paragraphs- types and topic sentences
- selection of details



- models of development
- unifying sentences in a paragraph
- arranging sentences in a paragraph
- linking sentences in a paragraph.

• Recommended text-books:

Hilton, Catherine and Margaret Hyder. Getting to Grips with Writing,  
Exeter: BPCC Wheatons Ltd, latest edition. ISBN 1 85758 092 3  
Getting to Grips with Punctuation and Grammar. London: Aldine House,  
Aldine Place, latest edition. ISBN 185758 0907.  
Getting to Grips with Spelling. Livesey Ltd, latest edition. 185758 0915.  
 Conlin, Mary Lou. Patterns Plus: A short Reader with Argumentation  
 Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, Latest edition. ISBN 0-395-35761-6



2 hours per week

## Advanced writing II

This course is designed for third and fourth years students of English. It is intended to achieve the following major objectives :

- To provide an understanding of the total writing process and to explain how that process can be used to communicate effectively in writing .
- To look at the difficulties that students often experience in writing . It examines the errors which are frequently made and gives practice in correcting them .
- To guide students through the acquisition of skills indispensable in developing writing proficiency and to teach them to write more perceptively .
- To introduce the basic techniques , tools and forms that lead to a successful writing .
- To practice various methods for developing ideas in single paragraphs and essays .
- To look at the organization and style of writing which is required for academic purposes .
- To help prepare students for writing assignments actually required for their life and career .
- To stress the writer-reader relationship , and writing as a practical craft .
- To make a detailed analysis of writing samples (by students and professionals) and to furnish students with the necessary techniques for analyzing their own as well as other's work .
- To achieve growth in both thinking and writing skills through the use of , contemporary models of good writing or interesting topics .

In practice , this course intends to disclose the skills of accomplished writing through a logical step-by-step approach . It proceeds systematically from the syntax of the sentence , as the seat of trouble in language use , through the structure of the paragraph , and to the form of the essay . It begins with an introductory discussion of the basic techniques of writing-gathering information , forming generalization , organizing , paragraphing and basic elements of style . Then , it moves to more specialized techniques including methods of development and advanced principles of writing .

Among the aspects of writing to be covered in this course are the following :

### - The Essay

- purpose and strategy
- preliminary planning
- limiting the subject
- the thesis statement
- models of development :  
narration , description , examples , classification and division , comparison and contrast , cause and effect , argumentation and persuasion , process , definition.



- Style

- diction – denotation  
context  
connotation
- diction – using words correctly and effectively

A compilation of essays and excerpts on a broad selection of topics by both student and professional writers today are selected to be used for models and source materials for composition in this course. This collection of reading is arranged according to crucial writing strategies. The focus is on how the students discover and get ideas and styles for their own writing from what they read to formulate and express them precisely, and to develop, defend, and explain them in different situations.

- Style / Mode of teaching :

Discussion, lecture in and out of class writing. Heavy emphasis placed on class discussion / participation. Individual consultation as needed.

- Exams and major assignments :

Various writing assignments as needed Mid-term and comprehensive final examinations, quizzes as necessary.

- Recommended text-books :

Hilton, Catherine and Margaret Hyder. Getting to Grips with Writing.

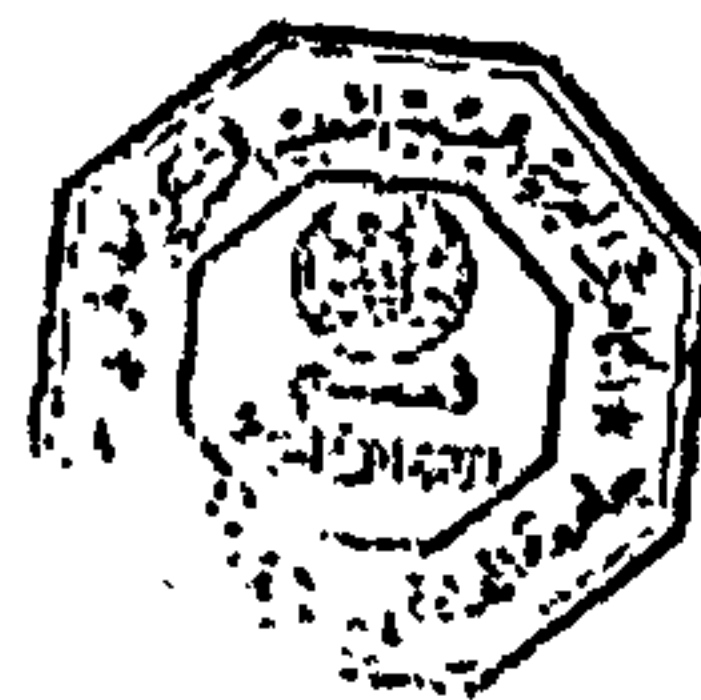
Exeter : BPCC Wheatons Ltd, latest edition. ISBN 1 85758 092 3

Getting to Grips with Punctuation and Grammar. London : Aldine House, Aldine Place, latest edition. ISBN 185758 0907.

Getting to Grips with Spelling. Livesey Ltd, latest edition. 185758 0915.

Conlin, Mary Lou. Patterns Plus : A short Reader with Argumentation

Boston : Houghton Mifflin Company, Latest edition. ISBN 0-395-35761-6





## APPENDIX 11

### Planning

**Subject 1**, like many others, did not plan on Arabic essays whereas she did plan on the English essays. She spent 8 minutes preparing to start topic one, and 6 minutes before she had started topic two. This subject was different from the others by speaking out a topic sentence to introduce her main idea (*The relationship between the teacher and the relationship, the relationship between the students and teachers must be, must be very close because ...*) She kept repeating these chops for several times searching for what might be written next. She read the topic and prompts repeatedly. She did not list her ideas down on a piece of paper but she relied on her memory. She was observed thinking and talking to her to herself in different ways in both languages. She adopted her L1 as the basis of thinking and constructing sentences and then translated them into L2. She paused a lot and used a variety of L1 structures in different forms i.e. questioning (*because when, because when* شني؟ 'what?' *because when student love his teacher...*) commenting and editing (*I don't like her subject* 'no wrong' *because when I study that subject I remember her*), confirming (*كانت هناك معلمة، كانت هناك معلمة* 'there was a teacher, there was a teacher.) This subject paused in different places and for different reasons but most of her pauses were an extension of her planning strategies in which she spent some time thinking of to do next. Her pause time scale was 3 minutes during the English first topic and 1 minute during the second.

In her English second topic, the subject adopted a slightly different strategy on planning and starting her opening sentence. She spent less time planning this topic. She was observed that she had been concerned with 'punctuation' while processing the second topic (*اندير نقطة وبعدين نبدأ من هنا* 'put a full-stop then I start from here') The subject's interview responses concerning planning confirmed her planning strategy behaviours. When asked whether she planned before writing her English essays, her answer was (*بالعربي لا بالانجليزي ايه* 'I don't plan in Arabic, but I do plan in English.) Although she said that she had not planned before writing the Arabic essays, her response to the related question was not consistent. Being asked whether she planned before the Arabic essays, she promptly answered (*ايه انخططله، لكن مش هلبة* 'yes I do but not much') (see appendix ' ' questions 18 and 26) Such inconsistency was reflected also in the related questionnaire question responses of this subject. Answering the question 'what did you do before you started your composing in Arabic and in English?', she left the related square to planning in Arabic blank whereas she ticked English one. (see appendix question 6). In her response to questionnaire 1 related question, she chose the square saying that 'write first in Arabic then translate into English' which was confirmed in both observing and thinking-aloud protocols.

**Subject 2** spent 9 minutes on planning the English first topic. This subject adopted a different way of approaching planning. That is, she started thinking of what to write immediately after she had received the prompts. Such a behaviour surprised the researcher while observing her. When she was asked why she did not pay enough attention to the planning stage, her answer was that she had been planning when the researcher was explaining the prompts and reading the topic (*I was thinking of what and about whom to write while you were [the researcher] explaining the topic.*). She read the prompts several times underlining certain words as the key words she wanted to concentrate on while writing her essay. She was different from some subjects, in

that she immediately defined her target teacher but she kept thinking about some specific characteristics of this teacher because he was no longer available in the department, as she said (*I wonder that I , I don't see him may be, may, may be travelled to his country.*) She clearly relied on her LTM to remember certain things she would like to write about. She spent about 6 minutes thinking of her target teacher collecting the related information from her LTM and trying to put it in a sequenced order; however, she did not successfully work it out. Although she wrote down some words on a separate piece of paper, they seemed not enough to help her write smoothly and concretely. On the contrary of the first subject, this subject did not use much Arabic while planning. She was heard uttering English chops, words, and phrases trying to construct them in an accurate, or at least acceptable structures.

On her English second topic, this subject spent 6 minutes. Everything related to the topic was at hand. She was not supposed to generate ideas but to organize them. She did not need to exercise any brainstorming because all she needed to think about was available for her. She could look around her and see what her classroom looked like. The observation notes showed that this subject had been talking to herself and pointing to different items of the classroom furniture while planning and trying to compare them with what she had read, heard, or watched. However, the most interesting thing that this subject was observed using many more L1 utterances while writing this topic. Also she paused more frequently than she used to on the first topic. She paused to answer questions about uncertainty of spelling (*it hasn't modern kimuu كيف 'how? To write 'communication'*), what to write next (*there is many students in this classroom 'ربعين' What is next?*), confirmation after short pause of thinking (*and there is a lot of noise, yes 'صح right 'a lot of noise*) Her planning strategy as well as the time scale on the English second topic were similar to subject 1. However, they were different on the English first topic i.e. the first subject used a lot of L1 to plan and write whereas subject 2 did not use much Arabic but a little bit longer time.

Like many others, subject 2 did not plan before she had started writing her Arabic first essay nor did she on the second. What is impressing here is that the subject paused for several times if compared with her English first topic. She was observed and heard using L1 only while planning; however, she did not rely on her colloquial.

The interview responses of this subject indicated that this subject had not been instructed to plan before writing. She said (*أمرات أنخططه لما يكون صعب ويبي تركيز وكلمات وأفكار ' sometimes plan when the topic needs is difficult and it requires concentration and vocabulary'*.) She also commented (*أحيانا أنخطط في رأسي وأحيانا نكتب أفكار في ورقة ' I sometimes use mental planning, and sometimes I list my thoughts on a piece of paper'*.) (Q16) This shows consistency between what was observed and actually done. Her responses concerning planning before writing in Arabic were relatively consistent (*I don't plan much, I start on the onset*) she did not exert any efforts to plan before the Arabic two essays (Q 24)

The questionnaire 2 related questions showed that this subject had written on the onset in Arabic but did some planning before she started the English essays (Q2, Q6). Responding to the related background and attitudes questionnaire question, she ticked the square that saying 'in English but use Arabic when English is not available'. (Q1, Q 16). This fact was clearly reflected in her English first topic but not consist in her second topic.

In fact, I could not find any explanation for this phenomena particularly this topic was chosen to be much easier than the previous one. The Arabic word proportion used in both topics of this subject will be discussed in detail in the next section.



**Subject 3**, was not deviant from the first two i.e. she had not planned before she wrote the Arabic essays. Once she received the topic and the prompts she started asking the researcher some questions. Those questions took up 5 minutes. She kept reading the prompts and thinking for a while. While the researcher was explaining the topic and the prompts this subject was reading silently and thinking of what to do. She was thinking of how to start her topic sentence after she pointed out which teacher she wanted to talk about. She spent 7 minutes planning for the English first topic. She constructed the first sentence and kept saying it a little bit loud (*In our life, in our life we meet, meet, meet, kinds of people either good or bad.*) She wrote it, put her pen down, and continued looking into the topic and murmuring some unknown chops in English. She paused for a while thinking of how to connect the next sentence with the previous one. Her planning seemed more comprehensive than the previous subjects i.e. she was concerned with different things while planning. While she was structuring the next sentence she started rereading the written one and suddenly said (*full-stop*) and took her pen to put a full-stop. This subject, similar to subject 1, heavily relied on L1 while planning but she did not write anything in Arabic.

Although she spent less time on planning, she adopted similar strategy to approach the English second topic. That is, she thought of the first sentence and wanted to write it immediately. She, like others, did not pay attention to the global planning and how her ideas should be constructed and related to each other to make a meaningful final purpose. Once she had mentally formed some phrases of the sentences she wrote it down (*Our school, or our classrooms, classrooms are very different from ....., our classrooms are very different from those, from those that I had, I had read or hear about ....., ....., .....*) She also used various expressions of her L1 when trying to plan in English. Similar to the first topic, this subject paused a lot to look for vocabulary (‘How can I say specialization?’ (في هذه الأيام شن بنقول؟)، ‘How can I say ‘in these days?’)

No planning was observed when the subject wrote her Arabic essays. She was more fluent and writing smoothly on topic 1. She was not sure of what to do when she started to write the second topic. She held her pen and tried to write something but she was reluctant. She tried to ask her friend of how to say something in standard Arabic but when found out that the researcher was sitting at the back she regressed. The researcher smiled and asked what was the problem. Then she said to her friend as she were blaming herself (‘For god’s sake leave me alone, the problem lies in the beginning, what is the first word to say?’) Once she got the first word she started writing smoothly and fluently almost the end of the end of the essay.

The questionnaire related questions responses extracted more information from the subject concerning her planning strategies. Responding to the background questions she ticked ‘no planning’ before Arabic essays and ‘yes planning’ for the English ones (Q 10). She also said that she wrote her ideas “in English but use Arabic when English is not available” (Q 16). When she was asked what she did before writing her essays she ticked the square ‘wrote on the onset’ in Arabic, but ‘planned’ in English. Her responses for the related question she said ‘never list down ideas’ in Arabic but she ‘usually’ does before she writes in English. All these answers were entirely confirmed during the observation field.

Although **subject 4**, as shown in the above table, did not plan before writing the Arabic first topic nor did she on the second one, she was one of the five subjects who spent the longest time on planning on the English essays. She spent 10 minutes

planning and preparing for the English first topic and 8 minutes on the second one. Most of her thinking and utterances were in English.

She spent most the time thinking about whom she would write. She was uncertain whether to choose one of her previous or current teachers. Suddenly she made her mind up and said in Arabic (*أخيرا*). When she identified her target teacher she started rereading some of the prompts such 'how he behaves, treats them, his teaching methods etc.', but she did not list down any ideas. She did not rely on the LTM because she decided to write about one of her college teachers. Frankly, she did not spend much time thinking about what to write. Once she pointed out her target teacher, looked at the prompts, then she picked up her pen and started writing her first topic.

She paused several times for various occasions but mainly on finding out vocabulary words. She paused for rereading and spelling. She paused a few times for revising what she had written before. Most of her comments were in English except very few which were murmured out unconsciously in Arabic.

On topic two, the subject was clearly concerned with two key words, similarities and differences, in her planning stage. She spent 8 minutes thinking of what to do. She spent most of the planning time repeating the same words (*similarities? Differences?*) (*What similarities?*). She was also heard repeating the topic sentence with which she opened her writing (*There are many differences and a few similarities.*) The subject seemed attracted by her first sentence and wanted it to include the main and general idea of her essay. She continued repeating what she had written for several times in order to generate more supportive ideas. At this time the subject seemed stuck somehow and put her pen down to reread what she had written comparing it with the prompts. A little bit confused by what to write next, the subject started speaking out her thoughts and planning more specifically what things come first. She said (*I will talk about the model, ok? And then what we have, what they have and then what we have in our classrooms.*) She thought of this strategy for a while till she was convinced it was the best way to approach her essay. Then she took her pen and resumed writing.

The subject was one of the few who responded entirely in English to her interview questions. Being asked whether she had planned before she wrote her English essays her answer was quick and self-confident (*Of course.*) When asked what she did while planning, she explained that as (*I try to write noted or just making, try to, try how to write it in my mind and try to talk about, list my ideas, and then I start to write.*) She also confirmed that she had listed her ideas (*in English.*) (Q 16). On the contrary, this subject has never planned her Arabic essays because she was not taught how to plan or even what planning meant before writing in Arabic. Answering the related question, she said (*Never. When I find a topic I just start to write because I know what I am writing about.*) (Q 24)

The background questionnaire related questions indicated that this subject, like others, was not supplied by means of planning. She ticked the 'No' square concerning Arabic and 'Yes' square concerning English (Q 10). When asked in what language she wrote down her ideas while composing in English, she said that she did '*in English but use Arabic when English is not available*' (Q 16). The 'Writing Process strategies Questionnaire' related question revealed that this subject never listed down her ideas before Arabic compositions whereas she sometimes used to list them before English writing (Q 2). The third questionnaire related question response was consistent with observing, interview, and the other two questionnaires. When asked what she did



before writing in Arabic and English, this subject did not fill any Arabic related squares whereas she filled the planning square related to English (Q 6).

**Subject 5** was also one of the five subjects who spent 10 minutes on planning before indulged in actual writing on the English first topic. However, she spent only 4 minutes on the English second topic. While planning for the first topic, this subject read the questions and the prompts silently, underlined some key words in the topic as the target words she wanted to concentrate on in her essay. She also wrote, in Arabic and English, some scattered words, as notes, on a separate piece of paper in case she needed them while writing. She looked at the ceiling many times while thinking of what to do. She again read the prompts, inspected her notes, looked right and left, then sighed unsatisfactorily and loudly complained (Ahhh ‘ *أهوش عارفة شن نكتب* ‘ don’t know what to write’) She asked the researcher some questions related to how she should write. She continued thinking of what to do and suddenly she spoke loudly (*I will talk about my teacher, teacher* ‘ *أتكلم على بكتورتي* ‘ *I will talk about my teacher, and in, and in high school, high school, and high school.*) She used L1 on several different occasions with or without reasons but she did not pause a lot. She kept talking all the time and produced the biggest total amount of spoken out utterances (see table) almost half of it was in Arabic. She adopted the translation procedure i.e. one could rarely hear her saying a word, phrase or sentence without being translated into L1 before being written down.

Although the only subject to put a title for her second topic, she adopted the similar strategy that she used in topic one. She spoke out every sentence before writing it down. She constructed all her sentences in L1 first then translated them into English. Although she spent only 4 minutes on planning this topic, she wrote more and longer because she did not pause a lot during this topic. She was looking around her and writing down what came to her mind. She did not write down any notes but she used her mental abilities in planning and constructing ideas. However, the problem of L1 usage along with L2 was obvious here as well.

In her Arabic essays no planning was made at all. She started on the spot immediately after she had read the prompts. She wrote more on the Arabic second topic than she did on the first one in less time duration. However, she was more fluent while writing the first topic and somehow reluctant on the second i.e. she might be concentrating on two different things looking and examining the classroom furniture and writing at the same time. She was a little bit slower on topic two.

Her interview responses were entirely in L1. She did not try a single word in L2. She was the only subject who asked the interviewer to translate all the questions into L1. Responding to (Q 16) she said ( *أيه نقعد نفكر شن بندير. أول حاجة شنهبي اللي نتكلم عليها، وبعدين* ) Yes I plan. I think of what I am going to do. The first thing is what I am going to talk about, then I find out the points I want to say’. In her answer to (Q 24) she said ( *لا لا الأفكار تجي من خلال الكتابة* ) No, no, thoughts and ideas are generated during the process of writing’.

The first questionnaire related responses were consistent with the observed behaviors and the interview responses. She ticked the ‘No’ square for Arabic and ‘Yes’ square for the English (Q 10). However, her response to (Q 16) was not consistent with what had been observed while planning and writing. Her choice of the square that she wrote (in English but use Arabic when English is not available) did not really match her actual behaviors. The second questionnaire related question revealed that this subject ticked the (Never) square for listing ideas down in Arabic, and she (Rarely) did during her writing process in English (Q 2). Questionnaire 3 related question responses

confirmed that she did not plan for Arabic but (*Read the prompt*) whereas she (*Planned*) before writing in English (Q 6).

Subject 6, like the last two subjects, spent 10 minutes planning her English first topic and 8 minutes of the second one. She, unlike the fifth subject, spent a considerable time on topic 2 planning. While the researcher was reading the questions and explaining what they should do, this subject interrupted him by saying she had received a different topic. She read the prompts for several times blurted unknown utterances in L1, checked some materials, and suddenly she spoke out (*There are, there are good teacher and there are bad teacher in the onversty.*) She repeated this sentence many times. She stopped for a while and kept thinking of to write next and how to write it. The problem she was apparently facing was that she sometimes got blocked how to structure English sentences or phrases such as (*teacher grammar*) which reflects the L1 construction instead of the English one. She paused for several times and occasions expressing her inability to write. Her planning was not global enough to continue writing. She had to stop after every word, phrase and sentence. She was stuck to write down something, she repeated it many times in L1 but she could not figure out how to say that in English. Then bravely enough she asked the researcher in Arabic (*Sir, I want to tell you something. How can we say "in secondary school", in English?*) She was complaining a lot of her linguistic competence i.e. she found everything difficult when she tried to write it. Got stuck by the spelling of the word 'geography' she angrily complained (*swear to god, I don't know anything*)

Although the planning time scale on the English second topic was not big different from the first one, the outcome of the actual written words was apparently unmatched. She adopted similar strategies in planning this topic. However, she expressed lack of information at the beginning by saying (*From where can I get the information, the words?*) Such a complaint surprised the researcher while observing because the information sources were at hand and she could just look around her to write what she wanted. Like on her first topic, she heavily relied on L1. She lacked self-confident and complained a lot but wrote less.

Her Arabic topics were not different from the English versions. She had almost similar problems in generating ideas, constructing sentences, choosing right lexical items, spelling and dictation flaws and punctuation. She was heard, during the observation, using colloquial structures could never be written at all. It was apparent that this subject's writing competence was terrible in both languages.

The interview related questions confirmed what she had done before she started to write while being observed. Responding to (Q 16) she said (*نخطط له. نفكر فيه وبعدئذ نكتب*) 'I plan. I think about it and then I write'. Like many others, her answer to (Q 24) was different from the previous question (*No. I start writing on the spot*)

The background questionnaire related questions were consistent as well with the interview and observation findings. She selected the 'No' answer for planning before Arabic composing and 'Yes' answer for the English (Q 10). She was different from the previous subjects in her response to (Q 16) i.e. she picked the answer in which she pointed out to '*Write first in Arabic then she translate into English*'. She was observed that she had been producing all her utterances in L1 then translating them into English but most likely in an Arabic structure. She was confused in responding to the related question in the questionnaire two. In other words, she ticked the 'Never' square for Arabic but left the English square blank. The third questionnaire related questions were consistent with the interview, and the background questionnaire. She



ticked only the '*Read the prompt*' for the Arabic and the '*Planned*' for the English essays.

**Subject 7** spent 7 minutes planning on the English first topic and 5 minutes on the second one. However, her planning was apparently constrained by her poor writing competence in both languages. This subject was urged to switch on the tape-recorder as soon as she received the prompts. She was the only subject who wanted to write the Arabic essay first. The researcher denied that for two reasons, to comply with the rule the other subjects stick to, and not to make a general conclusion in Arabic and then translate it into English. Then she asked some questions to be sure that what she had understood was correct. She read the prompts for a while, underlined and translated most of the words into L1. She was very anxious during all the planning time. She was not certain of what to do. She lacked self-confidence. She was reluctant and hesitated for several times while thinking and writing. She did not show any planning strategy. She was different from the others i.e. the pre-writing time scale was devoted to understanding the prompts and the difficult words as she classified them. Then she promptly said ( *نتكلموا على أستاذ كويس* 'We talk about a good teacher') when started her writing she mentioned every word in L1 first and then tried to find out its counterpart in English. She spent more than 5 minutes to construct the first sentence in chops, pauses, and hesitation. She was speaking loudly when she wrote the first sentence (*I speak about good teacher. ...., ...., ...., I write about who quite, good teacher, teacher, ahhh, in 'مرحلة' stage, grade 'in 'مرحلة' stage, grade 'كيف يا ربي؟' how can I write it, oh god 'فصل' tree 'class' school, 'الصف الثالث' third grade 'three school 'ما cannot be said like that 'ok, teacher, school, ahhh, ....*) This is how she was trying to write one short sentence such as 'I want to write about the teacher who taught me in the third grade'. All those L1 lexical items were spoken out and used in the sentence. She was not heard using any sentence connectors but she spoke out each sentence independently as if she were writing an exercise drill not a composing essay. Her English second topic was not different from the first one in terms of planning but less in terms of production. She adopted similar strategies in planning relying on her L1 as the source of information and linguistic competence. Lack of lexicon had a great influence not only on sentence production but also on word and phrase generation. As a result, this subject had adopted different strategies to address the English topics.

Lack of lexicon was not confined to English topics but it was apparent to the Arabic essays. This subject wrote the worst topics in Arabic in all language aspects. She was using a colloquial form in addressing these topics.

The interview related questions were consistent with what had been observed during the planning stage i.e. the subject was not quite sure of what to do. This was clear in think-aloud protocols especially when she had a lexical difficulty to generate the appropriate words. She said in (Q 16) (*أحيانا، مرات نبدا نكتب وخلص. ومرات نستعد، نخطط*) 'Sometimes I plan. Sometimes I write on the spot. And sometimes I prepare, plan and organize') She did not say when she used to write on the spot or when to plan. It seemed that all the process was affected by the subjects' mood. Answering (Q 24) she surprised the researcher when she said (*أحيانا* 'Sometimes') because she was not observed doing any type of planning but reading the prompts.

The questionnaires related questions were not consistent with the observation. Responding to (Q 10) questionnaire 1 she ticked the 'Yes' square for both Arabic and English. Her response to (Q 16) emphasized that she would '*write first in Arabic then translate into English*' because she was heard doing all the planning, mentally, in Arabic before she conveyed and translated it into English. As an indication to

confusion, the subjects' response to the related question in questionnaire 2 she ticked the square that saying '*Usually*' listed down ideas in Arabic whereas she '*Sometimes*' did '*During*' the process of writing. What seemed confusing that this subject ticked the square saying '*Look into dictionary*' for Arabic but not for English. She also ticked that she '*usually*' used to '*think before writing*' in English but not in Arabic. The choice she made in the (Q 6) questionnaire 3 revealed that this subject was totally unmotivated to write anything. She ticked similar squares for both languages i.e. she '*Planned, Read the prompts, and Discussed with the researcher*'. Such a choice might be true with English but not at all with Arabic as the observation notes revealed. **Subject 8** was different from the previous female subjects in that she was one of the two females who planned before starting their Arabic essays. She spent 4 minutes planning on the Arabic first topic and 2 minutes on the second one. However, she took up longer time planning on the English essays i.e. 7 minutes on the first topic and 5 minutes on the second. Planning before writing on both topics was one of the characteristics distinguished this subject from others.

This subject seemed so enthusiastic to write in English. Her planning was global and comprehensive. She read the prompts three times to figure out what she was asked to do. Then she started thinking thoroughly of what and how to say it. She was thinking in English and never heard using any Arabic word while constructing some ideas together. Although her opening sentence sounded good to the researcher she made a slight grammatical mistake while thinking it aloud. She said (*I met so many teachers in my life ....., ....., ....., some of them or let me talk, frankly, few of them were good.*) She repeated the first sentences for several times and then she made her mind up to write it down and to see what might come next. On the contrary to subject 7, this subject was quite aware of what she wanted to say and where she was heading in general. As a result of global planning strategy, this subject seemed writing her essay fluently i.e. she did not pause a lot like many other.

Such fluency was apparent in the English second essay. Although she planned less, her planned ideas were clear and well organized. She said (*In order to talk about our classroom I will firstly describe it.*) She did really well in that by looking at different items in the classroom trying to make sense of what to write about. The other meaningful idea she made was that when she finished describing her classroom she mentioned some advantages of the model classrooms. Then she compared them with her classrooms. All this was done in quick and confident movements while planning. In her Arabic essays planning was not that much but seemed useful and helping. She firstly figured which teacher to talk about based on a quite reasoning background she already had about him. She generated her ideas globally, organized them and wrote them down in fluently, despite she some mechanical problems in spelling, punctuation and vocabulary. She did not have difficulty in recalling ideas from her LTM because she talked about her teacher in college.

Her second Arabic essay was much easier for her in terms of planning and writing. Although she did not describe her classroom thoroughly in this version she gave more details to the model classrooms.

The interview responses revealed a lot of information about this subject. She was very self-confident defending her views clearly and evidently. She was open, expressive and brave. She spoke in English and did not use any type of L1 switching during the interview. Responding to (Q 16) concerning planning before writing her English essays she said (*Yes. And sometimes I plan for it for a day or even before a week.*) This clearly revealed that she was keen to plan before she got involved in writing. Her response to planning in Arabic was different from that in English, she said (*Not*



*always*) (Q 24). This meant that she only planned in Arabic when she felt it was necessary.

The questionnaire 1 responses were consistent with the observation and interview as well as the protocols. She ticked 'Yes' square for both Arabic English in (Q 10). Supporting the observation notes, this subject listed down her ideas (*Completely in English*) (Q 16). Questionnaire 2 related question revealed that this subject 'Never' listed down her ideas in Arabic whereas she 'Usually' in English. She 'Sometimes' looked into dictionaries. She was observed using an electronic dictionary when got blocked. She said that she 'Sometimes' think before writing in Arabic, whereas she 'Always' did in English. Contradiction was noticed in this related question i.e. the subject 'Rarely' read questions loudly in Arabic and 'Sometimes' read them in English. Responses to questionnaire 3 related questions confirmed all the previous behaviours. In other words, the subject chose the 'Planned' square when asked about what she had done before writing in both languages.

Subject 9 is the first male subject. This subject, like other male subjects, planned for both Arabic and English essays. He spent 8 minutes on planning before writing his Arabic first essay and 5 minutes on the second one. His planning time scale was not much different in both languages i.e. he spent 8 minutes planning before started writing the English first essay and 6 minutes on the second one. On the contrary of other male subjects, he wrote the Arabic version first.

He read the prompts for several times underlined some words, and tried to make a local plan for the opening sentence. He was concerned of how to construct this sentence as the cornerstone of his essay. He was reluctant and repeated some chops many times. he was heard producing English words in an Arabic structure (*In my, in my life study, in my life study I met several, several, several teachers, teachers, and doctors, doctors, full-stop, full-stop.*) What was observed that this subject had spoken his essay almost entirely in English. When he was blocked in terms of lexicon, he immediately looked them up in the dictionary and continued writing. He was somewhat fluent i.e. he did not pause much till the end of the essay. He paused for 2 minutes reading silently what he had written and stopped for a while to plan out his concluding sentence, as I observed. The subject was a little bit vulnerable to write about his teachers. He was afraid that they might hear of what he had written about them.

In the English second topic, this subject seemed more relaxed and enthusiastic to describe the classroom. He was a little bit haste to start his writing. After he had read the prompts, looked around to examine what was available around him, and defined what to talk about, he blurted out (*Now I want to describe the classroom in English, in English language because it described, desc, described a ....*) then stopped suddenly and started reading the prompts again. He neither used L1 lexical items except twice nor he paused except once.

Arabic essays planning was apparent in this subject's case. He spent 8 minutes planning for the first essay. He planned in Arabic at the beginning then he read the topic in English. Reading the prompts in English seemed not enough for him so he translated what he had read into Arabic again but in a colloquial form. In his verbalization he intentionally avoided mentioning certain words because, I said above, he was vulnerable to overtly accuse his teachers of any negative characteristics e.g. he avoided to use the word 'bad' but used 'unlucky teachers' instead. He planned his essay most likely in Arabic as soon as he finished reading the prompts. He used only one English word when happened to stop for generating more ideas to what next. He said 'Ok' to approve what had come to his mind.

The second topic, as in English, was easier for him that he encountered no embarrassment that might affect his relationship with his teachers. He made a global planning before he started writing his essay. He said:

أتكلم عن القاعات الدراسية، وأقارن بينها وبين القاعات النموذجية، وأشرح الفضائل والأضرار ('I talk about the classrooms, compare them with the model ones, and explain the advantages and disadvantages') by this he made a general plan how to start and precede his essay.

The interview related questions showed consistency between his planning behavior and responses. When asked whether he had planned for English essays, his answer was quick and firm (*Yes I do plan*). Similar response was repeated when asked about planning before Arabic essays (*Yes I do plan*).

The questionnaire 1 related questions revealed that there was inconsistency between observation and interview responses, and this response i.e. the subject ticked the 'No' answer for planning before composing in Arabic and 'Yes' for that in English. His response to in which language he listed down his ideas before writing was '*In English but use Arabic when English is not available*'. This was so consistent with observation and protocol behaviors. The questionnaire 2 related questions showed some contradicts to what had been said. The subject selected the 'Never' square for listing down ideas before writing in both languages. He chose 'Never' for using dictionaries in Arabic but 'Always' during writing English essays. He 'Rarely' used to 'Think before writing' in Arabic but 'Usually' in English. What amazing here is the when asked how much he planned what to write, his answer was 'always' before Arabic but, unexpectedly, 'Usually' before English. He also confirmed that he did not 'Read questions aloud' whereas he 'Always' did silently in both languages. The questionnaire 3 related question showed contradiction as well between what was noticed, selected in the other questions. That is, this subject ticked the 'Wrote on the onset' for Arabic and 'Planned' for English when asked what he had done before composing in both languages. This was very confusing although it was interesting. The subject, like others, was asked to ask about everything he could not understand. He had to think of the questionnaire questions and items carefully before taking any initiative to answer. If there was any difficulty of any kind he had to report me and I would be happy to help.

Subject 10 planned before addressing his actual writing in both languages. He spent 6 minutes planning before he started his Arabic first essay and 4 minutes before the second one. His time scale was a little bit longer before the English essays. He spent 7 minutes before the English first essay and 5 minutes before the second one.

After he had read the prompts for three times he made his mind up defining his target teachers and said (*I want to talk about, ummm, ....., good teachers, ....., ....., who, who, who taught me, ....., ....., who taught me the few years ago.*) Once he verbalized this sentence he started thinking and looking for a particular teacher about whom he made a good impression. He thought for a while about whom he would like to write but it seemed that there was none at hand or there were many but he had difficulty to choose among them. In order not to waste time, he picked up his pen and spoke out and wrote (*In my academic life I met a lot of good and bad teachers, ahhh, ....., .....,*) He repeated the sentence for four times then stopped again in order to find out what might come next. He paused a lot for different occasions but mainly for vocabulary and spelling. He used the dictionary to sort these problems out. He did not write notes but was observed repeating that good teachers (*are able to teach according to suitable curriculum*) He faced difficulty to remember the word 'curriculum'. He tried hard but was unable to find the word so he used 'teaching methods' instead.



He adopted similar strategy while planning for the second essay. He used almost an identical introduction to address his essay (*I am going to talk about, or describe, describe my classroom.*) In fact, he was different from other subjects while describing his classroom. He did not mention the furniture items as others did. He spoke in general and prepared his ideas in a global way. What was observed that the subject had paused more than he had during the first topic.

Planning before Arabic essays was generally global and concentrated on organizing. This subject seemed adopted similar strategies that he had used in English. He paused for several times in order to figure out what might be written next. He read the prompts only twice and once he figured out the requirements he said ( *أريد أن أتحدث عن* 'I would like to talk about the good teachers') Once he said this he started to collect information from the available sources concerning what characterizes the good teachers from the bad ones. He did not write notes or underlined certain words because he did not have lexical problems here. The Arabic second essay was much easier although this subject tried to write something feasible, but, unfortunately, he failed to do that.

The interview related question response was not clear-cut. When asked whether he planned before writing the English essays he said (*look like*) I was not surprised to hear this ambiguous answer. On the contrary, my interpretation, based on his other responses, was that he was not satisfied with planning time i.e. he should have planned more before writing. However, he was clear and confident when responded to the (Q 23) concerning planning before Arabic essays he said (*I plan*).

The questionnaire 1 related responses confirmed what he was doing during the observation. His answer was 'Yes' for planning before writing in both languages (Q 10). His response to (Q 16) was not actually true. He chose the token '*Supplement English heavily by Arabic*' I never heard him using any Arabic when he was planning unless he did that silently. This potential should be taken in consideration. Even when he was interviewed he chose to speak in English all the time. Although there were some difficulties, he shifted to Arabic in very limited situations. The questionnaire 2 related response showed that this subject had adopted similar strategies while planning for either language. He 'Rarely' listed down ideas before writing in both languages. When he said he 'Never' used dictionaries in Arabic, he confirmed that he 'Always' used dictionaries when write in English. He selected the 'Always' squares for both thinking before writing and planning what to write in both languages. Similarly he 'Usually' read the questions loudly in both languages and 'Sometimes' read them silently. Questionnaire 3 revealed that this subject did 'Plan' before he started writing in Arabic and in English.

Subject 11, like other male subjects adopted planning strategies before writing in both languages. He spent 5 minutes planning on his Arabic first topic and only 3 minutes on the second. His planning stage took up 10 minutes on the English first topic and 7 minutes on the second. The planning time duration was mismatched between the two languages.

Listening carefully to the researcher, this subject wrote down some notes in Arabic. He then started reading the prompts and underlying the key words he wanted to concentrate on while producing his English first essay. He continued thinking of what and how to write. His ideas seemed local more than being global. He focused on the primary opening sentence but he was unable to create any sentence containing what he wanted to say. he verbalized several utterances in both languages but he was observed resorting to L1 as immediately as he felt that he was not sure of the English structure. He suddenly read the first part of the opening sentence of the original topic

in order to help him construct his own. He loudly said (*Umm, in our academic life we meet.....*) then he stopped again and reread the prompts. He struggled a lot to figure out how the first sentence could be written. He thought that the beginning was always difficult. Therefore, the best way was to rephrase the original sentences available in the topic per se. He made his mind up to verbalize and write the following (*So, ahh .... In our academic life ....., ....., in our academic life 'حياتنا التعليمية' In our academic life 'in our academic life, in my [raising his voice here] in my academic life I [capital letter], in my academic life, life, life, I meet 'لا' or 'met? I met [past, in the past] I met, I met, which teacher? .....*) He paused a lot for different occasions and reasons. He used his LTM to remember the target teacher. He used his dictionary for several times. However, he mainly was dependent on language switch whenever he got blocked.

Topic two was easier for sure. He spent less time on planning and generating ideas. He read the prompts less times and looked around to refresh mind of the classroom furniture items. He did not seem have difficulty with vocabulary as he had in topic one. He spent a little time organizing his ideas and how start his essay. However, when verbalized his topic sentence he sounded reluctant and he repeated some chops in order to get the suitable next word or phrase (*My classroom, my classroom is, is different, fent, fent my classroom is different completely, completely, completely, classroom is completely different from the model classrooms I have, I have, I have seen, have seen there, I have heard.*) It took him a while to construct a sentence like this. He adopted similar strategies to construct each sentence. He did not switch much to L1 except in very narrow situations. He was more fluent at this topic.

His Arabic planning was apparently effective and assisting. He read the prompts for four times and started thinking of how to start. Unfortunately, he adopted the same strategy he used for the planning of his English essays. He did not adopt a global planning strategy. Therefore he paused a lot while writing to find what he should write next.

The second Arabic topic seemed even much easier for this subject. He did not plan much but he was more fluent and smooth while writing. He did not pause for generating extra ideas but his global planning was successful and effective.

His interview responses were consistent with the observation and protocols. Answering (Q 16) he said (*Yes, of course. I have to plan because to see what I am, what I want to write.*) Also he used similar response when asked whether he planned before writing Arabic essays (*Of course, I do.*)

The questionnaire 1 related questions emphasized that he planned for both languages by ticking the 'Yes' square. He also confirmed that he used to list down his ideas '*In English but use Arabic when English is not available*' despite this was not apparent while he was writing his English first topic. Questionnaire 2 responses revealed that this subject '*Sometimes*' looked into dictionaries when wrote in English and '*Always*' though as well as '*Always*' planned before writing in Arabic and in English. He '*Usually*' read questions aloud in either language but he '*Rarely*' did that silently.

**Subject 12** was the best not only among his male group but also the best of all subjects. His planning strategies were clearly global and effective. He planned for both languages almost similarly although his thinking was entirely directed in L2. He spent 7 minutes planning before approaching his Arabic first essay and 5 minutes before the second one. His planning on English essays took up longer time i.e. 10 minutes before started writing the English first essay and 8 minutes before the second one.



Before writing the first essay in English, this subject read the prompts for several times. He also thought thoroughly of what to do. On the contrary of the others, he adopted a global planning procedure, which was effectively reflected on his written production. He generated his ideas in an organized style. He did not write down any notes but he planned and organized his thoughts in mind. He repeated reading the prompts to make up a clear vision of what and how he was going to write. He was heard constructing the opening sentence to make as clear as possible because he was quite aware of his audience. He did not use L1 while planning but he was totally absorbed in L2. He retrieved more information from his LTM to bring it to the working memory. He also thought of how to put this information in a logical flow. This subject made use of simultaneous sentence construction and retained a global mental representation of his essay. That is, he tried to make a parallel connection between processing and writing strategy. When he got all his sketchy planning done and was ready to start, he loudly said (*He is one of my best, he is, it's ok let's start*) As soon as he got this in mind and verbalized it twice he started writing his essay fluently.

Planning on the English second topic was somewhat different as a result of the topic form i.e. the second topic needs less retrieve from LTM but more likely dependent on the working memory. However, the subject was observed planning, reading the prompts, underlying some concepts, and comparing between the classrooms. He was aware of the global planning and tried to describe his classroom. He used a dictionary when he was constructing some ideas mentally.

His Arabic essays gained prewriting planning as well. However, it was clear that he was influenced by what he had written in English. As in the English first topic, he was reluctant a little bit to introduce the opening sentence. He tried to construct the sentence before writing it down. He said :

( لا زلت اذكر احد افضل اساتذتي الذين درسوني، الذين درسوني؟ الذي درسني.....' ) I still remember one of my best teachers who[plural] taught me, who [plural] taught me? who [singular] taught me....) He was confused of which relative pronoun to use, singular or plural. Once he solved that problem he started writing.

He did not face any difficulty in planning for the Arabic second essay. The ideas were clear in his mind and he only organized them and decided what to say next.

The interview related questions were not very consistent with the protocols and the observation. He was observed using English chops and phrases while planning his Arabic essay but not vice versa which made the researcher conclude that this subject was thinking and planning in English in both topics, Arabic and English. On the contrary to this assumption, the subject's response was '*In English because the plan depends on Arabic, because I plan in Arabic so I follow the plan I put in Arabic and then I translate it or reflect it*' (Q 16). When asked whether he planned before writing his Arabic essays, his answer was '*You think about the subject then you put some notes in brief then you start to extend your thoughts*' (Q 24) . This response, also, mismatched what had been observed i.e. the subject did not write down any outlines or notes before writing.

Questionnaire 1 responses showed that he had ticked the 'Yes' square for both languages (Q 10). Although the subject emphasized the impact of L1 on the planning process, he choice of the concept 'Completely in English' (Q 16) was somewhat confusing. Responding to questionnaire 2, the subject 'Never' listed down ideas before writing. He used dictionaries before and during composing. He 'Sometimes' used to 'think before writing' in both languages. What was really confusing was that his choice of the 'Rarely' answer to 'Plan what to write' before writing in both

languages. He used to ‘*Usually*’ read the questions aloud whereas he ‘*Rarely*’ read them silently.

## APPENDIX 12

### Writing

As shown in table 3, subject 1 spent different time spans on both languages as well as on each topic of either language. She spent 23 minutes on the English first topic and produced 125 written words (table 8.2.2) with error proportion 28%. The subject paused for almost 2 minutes in order to look mainly for some lexical items and grammatical structures. She also paused to reread and rehearse (table 8.2.3). She kept talking all the time; however, many of her utterances were in Arabic (table 8.2.4).

Table (8.2.4) also shows that this subject had uttered 473 words, mixed with (33%) 154 Arabic words in different statements. That is, she used Arabic in positive, negative, interrogative, grammatical structures, or individual lexical items when she was blocked to perform the L2 counterparts. The written word proportion did not exceed 39% of the total uttered English 319 words. Her performance in the English topic 2 was somewhat different from topic 1 in word total but more in written production. In other words, she uttered 652 words with (19%) 121 Arabic words. She wrote 161 words (table 8.2.4).

Her performance in The English topic two was not different from the first topic. A close look at the English second topic (8.2.2) revealed that this subject had approached this topic in an easier and a more fluent way. Consequently, she produced 161 words in less time span, 16 minutes, and no pauses at all i.e. she spent all the allotted time speaking and writing. The error proportion was a little bit higher than the first topic, 28, 57%. Lack of immediate knowledge about writing the English first topic caused some difficulty for this subject to proceed smoothly. She faced hardships and it was difficult for her to get started despite the planning time she had spent preparing for this topic. Although she seemed develop some ideas in her mind, she was blocked writing them down. This subject uttered 689 words in her Arabic first essay with no English included (table 8.2.5). She wrote almost the half of her utterances (49%).

During her L1 topic, this subject paused several times with approximate total of pause length 2 minutes. Her thinking-aloud protocols showed that she had paused for different reasons mainly searching for vocabulary items ( كانت هناك معلمة، كانت هناك ) *there was a teacher, there was a teacher....*), restructuring phrases, ( تره مرة ثانية؟ ) *let me check again*) rereading, ( لا لا لا ) *again say*) correcting herself ( لا غلط، لا غلط، لا غلط ) *No, no, no, I say*), asking questions ( شني؟ ) *what?*) deciding the next sentence in the paragraph ( وبعدين انقول ) *I will say next*).

The subject spent less time on English topic two, 16 minutes; however, she wrote more words 161 but with a little higher error proportion 28.57%. The larger quantity and less time scale might be attributed to the type of the topic, which seems much easier and requires no LTM. Also, when reviewed her protocols, the subject did not pause much while composing this topic despite that she adopted similar strategy in writing and editing.

It was obvious that this subject, while writing English topics, continuously referred to the lexical, grammar and mechanics as being important and difficult areas at the same time. She was preoccupied by how she simply could get down as many ideas as possible in English regardless for clarity or organization. It was also clear that this subject relied on translating ideas from L1.



The Arabic first topic observation showed that the subject spent sometime constructing her opening sentence trying to direct the reader to the importance of the relationship between the writer and reader (*how nice if the relationship between the teacher and students were close...*)

Her Arabic second topic was smoothly written with regular few pauses to select accurate lexical words (نكتبوا توفير موش توفر) *We write providing not being available.*)

The comparison between both Arabic topics reveals that the time spent 10, and 7 minutes relatively, does not show a big difference; however, discrepancy is clear in the written amount, 336 and 221 relatively. Even in Arabic the quantitative difference between these topics might be attributed to the type of the topic.

Comparing the Arabic and English writings reveal that the subject had suffered a lot to get her English essays done. She faced hardships generating and collecting ideas in an appropriate way. Although there was a clear discrepancy between the written quantities in both languages, it seemed that the subject had adopted the translating approach to adhere in her Arabic essays. The difference between topic two versions was not as large as it was in topic 1 versions. Also the pausing intervals did not exist during the Arabic second topic.

The differences shown above might be attributed to some factors such as being not familiar with writing in front of a tape-recorder, the topic recalls more long-term-memory, the target questions in the prompts require more thinking and organization etc. But what is amazing here was that this subject wrote the third higher number of words on the first topic, which seemed more difficult and required more mental processes to be finalized.

The interview related questions indicated that this subject was not familiar with this type of writing and this was the first time she had engaged in it. When the subject was interviewed and asked whether she liked writing, her answer was (*no, no, I read things but I don't write.*) This seemed to be a result of her past writing experience at which she had taken only (*two English classes per week*) but (*nothing*) was devoted to composition, as she put it. The differences resulted in her writing could be attributed to her point of view concerning the relationship between writing in both languages. She said that both languages are (*different*) in many aspects such as (*the grammar, vocabulary, sentence structure, the style and how one can express herself*). Perceiving such an attitude about English writing made the subject, like others, panic and hesitant to write confidently. Asked whether or not she followed similar strategies when writing in both languages, her answer was clear and reflecting her actual images about writing. She said (*No, no, I don't think so much when I write in Arabic but when I write in English I spend much more time thinking of what vocabulary items I should write.*) She also indicated that (*I think in Arabic and then I write it in English.*) This was clear in her answer to the question (how do you write in English and in Arabic?), she said (*I sometimes write down the words and think a lot in English but I never do that in Arabic.*) Assessing herself, this subject perceived that she described herself as a poor writer in both languages (*no, no neither in Arabic, nor in English.*) Responding to whether she had any problems in writing, she recognised her problems, which included her inability to find appropriate vocabulary, uncertainty about word order, and grammatical structures. She also said that (*certainly the major problem is in English. Vocabulary is the main problem, and sometimes I have a problem with pronouns but I can correct it when I revise*) Finally, she perceived that the writing process approach seemed more effective than the traditional approaches because it (*reminds you of your mistakes*).

Reviewing “writing process strategies questionnaire” of subject 1 showed that the subject had never experienced this type of composing in either language (see Appendix ....). Although this was the first time she was exposed into writing in front of a tape-recorder, the subject said it was ‘*difficult*’ to do such a task while some subjects classified it as very or rather difficult. This subject also rated some L2 aspects as totally different from her L1, which in turn caused difficulty in approaching L2 composition. That is, grammatical structures, spelling and vocabulary had been the most difficult for this subject. The subject also admitted that she followed similar writing strategies when are similar as the topic at hand, whereas she adopted different strategies when the topic was culturally bound.

The “post-writing questionnaire” responses indicated that this subject perceived that L1 and L2 were (*totally different*.) She also emphasized that she had paid more attention to certain linguistic concepts such as grammar, spelling and vocabulary. She evaluated her writing compositions as (*fair*) in Arabic and (*weak*) in English with a brief comment explaining and justifying her feelings (*because Arabic is my first language and I am not very good [in] English*.) When she was asked how she approached her L1 and L2 essays, her answer clarified exactly what she did during her writing (*In Arabic my writing was such improvisatory because I did not organize my thoughts*) but on the contrary to English (*[I] organize my sentences and look up words in dictionaries*.)

Responding to the interview related questions, this subject expressed herself clearly by saying that she is not keen in writing and she prefers reading to writing ( لا أكتب ، لا أكتبش. نكتبش. نقرأ حاجات ‘ No, no. I don't write. I read some materials only) She emphasized that L1 and L2 were (*different*) and there is not any relationship between them particularly in (*grammar, sentence structure, vocabulary, and how to express and produce your ideas as well as the style*.) However, she admitted that the punctuation (*is not much different*) between both languages. The main response to the most related question revealed that this subject always adopted different strategies when wrote in L1 and L2. (*No, no, I don't think much when I write in Arabic but when I write in English I spend much longer time thinking of and searching for lexical words*) was her response. She also explained how she wrote her L2 essay (*I think about it in Arabic then I write in English*.) When was asked about how she usually writes in L1 and L2, she said that (*in English I sometimes write down the words and think a lot, but not in Arabic*.) This reflects the way she has been taught how to write in Arabic at which she has not received any type of guidance. The subject had a negative attitude about herself as a writer. When she was asked whether or not she considered herself a good writer in both languages, she promptly said ( لا عربي، ولا انجليزي ‘ No, No. Neither in Arabic nor in English.). The thinking-aloud protocols precisely reflected the strategies this subject had adopted in this stage.

Subject 2, as shown in table 8.1, was one of the three subjects who spent a considerable longer time while composing the English first essay. She spent 41 minutes, produced 490 words with an error proportion of 25.1%. This subject differs from subject 1 in that she did not use much Arabic while composing this essay. In her protocols she uttered 1186 words with a very small proportion of Arabic. She used only 19 Arabic words 10 of them were unrelated comments such as (راجعت ياكتور “*revised, doctor*”) (table 8.2.1) that is, she spent most of the time thinking in English. She paused for 7.2 minutes mainly thinking of what to write next, pursuing a lexical item, or how a grammatical structure could be constructed.

Table (8.2.4) shows that this subject spent 22 minutes on writing the English second topic to produce 220 words with error proportion 17%. Unlike her topic 1 the subject



used a considerable number of Arabic words 80 out of 702 utterances revealed in her writing protocols. Most of these Arabic chunks were used to ask questions, or what to do next. She paused less while writing this topic 4.6 minutes (table 8.2.3).

The subject spent 18 minutes writing her Arabic first topic (table 8.1) She uttered 589 words including English chunks. She wrote down 56%, 331 words of the total spoken out amount with an error proportion 17% (table 8.2.2).

Although the English second topic was much easier and did not recall LTM, this subject took up less time, produced small quantity, and used many more Arabic words. What is amazing here is that this subject spent less time on the English essay two, 22 minutes. The time span was decreased to almost the half. As a result she wrote only 220 words with error proportion of 17%. On the contrary to the first essay, this one had been written in a relatively different strategy. That is, she relied on her L1 while approaching this essay. She used much more Arabic words in her protocols. She uttered 898 words mixed with 80 Arabic ones. Those Arabic words were used to serve several purposes, asking questions ( *How?* كيف؟ ) ( *What else?* شني ثاني؟ ), explanation ( *painted and clean, they have just painted it* نظيف و مزوق، زوقوه توه راهو ), editing ( *and talk* موش *not* 'speak), looking for vocabulary words ( *this is because we are compare with us* 'ايوه وبعدين ' *Yes ,what else?* ' because, because, there is many people ' *Not* ' موش *Not* ' people because there is many students ,(...spelling ) *I feel comfooortable* الله ما نعرف ال *spelling* 'امتعتها' *I swear to god I don't know its spelling*). In her Arabic first topic, the subject spent 18 minutes uttering 589 words bur wrote only 331 words i.e. the written words represent 56% of the entire verbalization, with an error proportion 16% which is considered relatively high. All the utterances were in Arabic except one English word written in an Arabic transcription (جنتلمان gentleman). The subject paused for many times for 4.1 minutes. During her pauses she mainly looked for reformulation, restructuring and lexical items.

The Arabic second topic was sharply reduced, one third less, although the time spent was almost the same, 17 minutes. What was significant was that the subject uttered more verbalizations, 655, than the first topic but wrote only 237 words, representing 36.18%, with an error proportion 18.56% which was rather high. One of the differences between these topics was that the subject had paused much longer than she did on the first topic. However, I could not see any reasonable justification for these longer pauses in the second topic except that the subject had translated her first topic from its counterpart in English.

Comparing the first two topics, English and Arabic, indicates that both gained longer time but were different in their own time and verbalized utterances. Also the written word proportion was different i.e. 41.31% in English but 56.19% in Arabic out of the total spoken out utterances. The subject paused about 5 minutes during the English first essay but paused only 3 minutes on the Arabic first essay. She was expected to pause less than that during her Arabic essay.

The second topics were supposed to be written more smoothly with less time span, less pauses, and larger quantity. On the contrary, these topics were more difficult for this subject. That is, she paused and rehearsed more. She paused 5 minutes on English and 4.1 minutes on Arabic.

The observation of these writing sets emphasized that this subject had approached L1 and L2 essays fairly similar in certain strategies. The number and length of pauses were almost the same. While she paused to edit and solve some problems in the English essays, she paused for grammar corrections, vocabulary items, and because she lacked writing fluency in Arabic too. Although she paused many times remembering vocabulary items, she did not use a dictionary, neither she consulted any

previous material nor asked peers. She was sitting by her own concentrating on her essays trying to perform what she knew.

The interview related questions indicated that this subject's attitude was positive and she confirmed that she (*liked it*) and preferred to (*write about poetry*). Like many others, this subject had not attended enough classes but only (*four English classes per week*); however, none of them was devoted to writing. During college the subject took two writing lectures a week, each lecture took up two hours in first and second year whereas she was taking only one writing lecture a week in the third year. When about the relationship between English And Arabic writing the subject responded that she did not (*expect any relationship in words and grammar but there is big difference in these two aspects meanwhile one can see similarities in terms of content and ideas*). She emphasized that she did not (*follow similar strategies*) when write in both languages. When asked why, she explicitly said (*frankly, I am better in Arabic, because it is my mother tongue, in expressing myself, writing, simple words, in everything, I can add as many ideas I want, but that is not possible in English*). This was confirmed when the subject said she always (*thinks in Arabic, translates into Arabic, and uses bilingual dictionaries*) when asked how she writes in either language she said (*I prepare myself more in English*). Her attitude was not so negative about her ability in writing i.e. she considers herself as a (*good writer*) in Arabic whereas an (*average writer*) in English. She also cares about her audience when she writes. She was aware of writing problems that she could not overcome. She recognized that her main problems lie (*certainly in vocabulary more than in grammar*). Her impression about writing process approach was encouraging and supporting for (*it is very effective and helps us correct ourselves when we revise. If I were a writing teacher I would have used it*).

Subject 3 spent 35 minutes verbalising and writing the English first topic. She verbalized 719 utterances including 77 Arabic chunks, 11% of the total spoken text. The actual written words did not exceed 252, 39%, with error proportion 10%. This subject paused 7.8 minutes mainly trying to construct new sentences and connect them with the previous ones and remember or look for vocabulary items. (زعمه صح؟) 'I did it this way, is it right?' The used Arabic words, chunks and sentences indicated that this subject had heavily relied on the L1 to compose the L2 essays. She paused many times trying to generate and construct an Arabic expression then she translated it in English before writing it down.

Although it was perceived as an easy topic, the protocols and written product showed that this subject had spent much longer time on the English second essay. 45 minutes were spent on verbally and textually producing this essay. However, the produced quantity was notably less than topic one. She produced 639 total utterances including 31, 05% Arabic chunks. The English written word proportion was within the 30% range, 181 words. Despite discrepancy of time span to the first topic, the pausing time was almost similar in both essays. The subject paused 7.9 minutes while producing this essay. She exploited these pausing intervals in finding vocabulary items (*what does specialization mean?*), idiom expressions (*nowadays*), grammatical structures (*how can I say 'lack'*) etc.

The subject took up 23 minutes to produce the Arabic first essay in total utterances 412 including no English words (table 8.2.5). The actual written words were 278, 67%. She paused for 1.9 minutes mainly to select the appropriate words or find out the accurate connectors for the following sentences. There were many spelling errors 19% which were higher than the committed errors in the English first topic.



Although the subject seemed panic and excited to start writing this topic, she produced even little more words than she did in the Arabic first topic in sharply less time. She spent 14 minutes to verbalize 469 utterances and write 306 words, 65%. Similar to the Arabic first topic she paused 1.9 minutes to find and write the suitable words in the running context. Also the error proportion was similar to the first topic 18%. Such similarity between the two Arabic essays pointed out that the subject had adopted similar strategies in processing and writing them down.

However, if the English and Arabic whole essays were compared, we would clearly understand that both Arabic essays contained more error proportions than those made in the English essays. This significant phenomenon is worth scrutiny and meticulous investigation. While she showed fluency in the Arabic essays writing, her pausing during the English ones was due to the more attention paid to vocabulary and grammatical structures.

Responding to the related items in '*Background and attitudes*' questionnaire, this subject expressed herself clearly and honestly. As a result of the '*difference*' between the two languages the subject was more keen about and '*like*' writing in Arabic but she was not exactly sure about English writing because she '*neither like nor dislike*' it. Concerning her experience in writing, she said that she had written Arabic composition '*twice a week*' in her college previous schooling whereas she had '*never done any composition*' in English during such a period. Although she rated writing, as a skill, '*difficult*' in English but '*very easy*' in Arabic, she considered writing as a '*very important*' English major skill to succeed in college. When exposed into writing process the subject found herself contented by the importance of various aspects. Therefore, she rated these items according to her own rating. She rated spelling as '*very important*', punctuation, grammar, and vocabulary as '*not too important*'; however, organisation and content were considered the least as '*somewhat important*'. In other words, the subject was concerned with form aspect on the expense of the content and organisation, the two main factors, which affect the soul of writing as a communicating tool. The subjects writing interests vary from one language to the other. While she '*most common*' writes '*letters*' in Arabic, she '*not at all common*' does the same in English. She '*most common*' takes notes in both languages but '*rather common*' writes essays in Arabic. She also '*most common*' writes '*homework*' in both languages.

Responses to the '*Writing Process Strategies*' questionnaire confirmed the observation and protocols findings concerning the writing stage behaviours. Since the subject has '*never*' experienced this type of writing it was expected that she would encounter some obstacles while writing in both languages. Consequently, she was anxious and rather panic because she considered writing, according to this approach, as '*rather difficult*'. Although she earlier claimed that the two languages were different she admitted her that she had found some L1 writing conventions had '*some effect*' when she composed in English. The two languages discrepancy was apparently revealed when responded to the directly related question '*what areas do you always pay more attention to when composing*' (Q 5). She paid grammar, punctuation, spelling, and organization in Arabic '*no attention*' whereas she paid '*most attention*' '*fair attention*', '*rather attention*', and '*fair attention*' to English grammar, punctuation, spelling and organization respectively. Vocabulary in Arabic was paid '*fair attention*' and '*rather attention*' in English. She paid '*most attention*' to ideas in both languages. Concerning other possibilities item she said that always paid '*fair attention*' to '*some Arabic flourish words*'. Explaining when adopting similar strategies to compose in both languages, the subject said that she '*usually*' adopts one

strategy '*when topics are similar*'. Her response to final related item was consistent with observation and think-aloud protocols. She said that she '*often*' revised and rehearsed in Arabic but '*always*' did in English. She '*sometimes*' read in Arabic whereas she '*always*' did in English. She '*rarely*' checked form in Arabic but '*often*' did in English. As pointed earlier, she was not concerned with content and organization; therefore she picked the '*never*' square for both languages.

Replying to the related items in '*Post-Writing*' questionnaire revealed inconsistency to some previous questionnaires items. First of all the subject said that she writing in different approaches was '*similar*' i.e. she did not see any difference between writing via process-oriented approach and writing via traditional methods. The second contradiction was shown in her answer to where she needs improvement, she said improvement is needed in form and content skills although she mentioned earlier that content and organization skills were not important. Moreover, she rated grammatical structures, punctuation, spelling, vocabulary, organization and paragraph building as '*very important*' whereas sentence connection as '*not too important*'. The subject was not confident in her writing abilities in either language, so she rated herself as '*weak*' writer. When asked what she did while approaching her writing her answers briefed her actual intentions in Arabic '*I thought of the topic, then I just began writing*' but in English '*I prepared bilingual dictionaries, asked my friend about some points*'. The last two briefings indicated that the subject had approached each language essays differently not in a similar way despite the fact that both topics were the same.

Subject 4 did not have difficulty in writing English composition especially when she had enough knowledge about the topic. So this subject verbalized 748 utterances including 7 words 0.9%, in Arabic while processing her English first topic. The actual written amount, 43%, of the total English utterances was 317 words with approximate error proportion 10%. She spent 30 minutes to get this topic completed. She paused 7.3 minutes for several times with different interval lengths. The subject used the pauses to look for vocabulary, and sentence construction. She also paused for rereading previous written sentences and thinking of how to connect the following ones. She never relied on her L1 to reformulate the English sentences. The written products of this topic showed that the most salient problem lied in punctuation, which had affected sentence connection and paragraph structure in general. Problems with tense and subject-verb agreement were among those very clear obstacles hindering the subject to write fluently.

A little longer time was spent on the English second topic, 34minutes. Although the topic seems easier and requires no LTM knowledge, the subject suffered more to get it done. Her protocols showed that she had verbalized 1212 utterance, the most maximum ever, including 64, 12%, Arabic words, chunks and sentences. The actual English written words did not exceed 298 words representing only 26% of the total spoken out utterances. The error proportion, 07%, was less than that of topic one. The subject paused for 9.0 minutes i.e. about 2 minutes longer. The amazing thing is that the subject relied heavily on L1 while approaching this topic. A quick examination of the Arabic used words in this topic indicated that some words were merely unrelated comments whereas others were used to help construct sentences and confirm written ones. The subject adopted somewhat different strategy to addressing this topic i.e. mainly her reliance on L1 which did not exist during the first topic.

Investigating the written products of this topic revealed that she had suffered problems in punctuation, subject-verb agreement, and tense. She was also clearly affected by Arabic sentence structure and superfluous as well as circumlocution.



The Arabic first topic was written more fluently in 13 minutes producing 298 utterances. The actual written words were 225 with, unfortunately, error proportion 16% approximately. The Arabic topic error proportion is dramatically higher than that of the English first topic. The subject paused for 1.5 minutes mainly for silent reading of previous sentences or looking for specific appropriate words.

A close look at the written production pointed out that the subject had difficulty in Arabic grammar, style, punctuation and dictation, spelling. Quite clearly revealed that the subject adopted the English writing rhetoric and style which made her Arabic sound like an odd. She did not succeed in organizing her topic accordingly while the content was somewhat acceptable.

The Arabic second topic was similarly written. One could see no differences in both strategies. However, a twice-longer time, 26 minutes, was spent on this supposed easier topic to produce even higher quantity of verbalized utterances, words including no English chunks. The actual written words 301 represented 51% of the verbalized utterances. The error proportion in this topic was 12% less than that of the Arabic first topic but twice higher than its counterpart in the English second topic. The written production version lacked organization as well as full of misplaced punctuation marks and some wrong prepositions.

A brief comparison between both versions, Arabic and English, made it clear that the accuracy and fluency in English essays were more existing than those in Arabic ones. The interview related questions indicated that this subject had a positive attitude about writing but was much keener to write personal thoughts in English but not in Arabic (*when I have to write I write but in English I write my diary and stories.*) The subject said she had not enough English classes before college (*once a week in preparatory school and two classes a week in high school*) with no writing indication along those years. Her comments on writing classes during college pointed that she had four hours a week during first and second academic years and two hour-writing course in the third year. She did not see any relationship between both languages (*they are completely different*). When asked whether she followed strategies when wrote in Arabic and in English, her answer was (*in Arabic, I write whatever comes to my mind about the subject. In English I take a little, to find out the suitable words to use and write them, and correct them. In Arabic it's so easy, I guess, I just take a pen and start to write.*) The subject, like few others, said that she always (*think in English*) while composing her English essays. She had a negative attitude about Arabic writing teaching (*all they did they asked us to write a composition.*) whereas her attitude about English writing teaching was positive (*it's good. It makes us write in good way.*) Her self-evaluation reflected that she had a problem with vocabulary, spelling, and how she could express herself (*I cant write exactly what I want. I have a problem with expressing myself, and problems with vocabulary and spelling*) the subject suffers similar difficulties in Arabic as well (*I have problems in vocabulary and spelling in both languages*).

The 'background and attitudes' questionnaire related questions were consistent with the interviews and protocols. The subject said she had experienced Arabic composition '*once a week*' but never had any experience in English '*I didn't write any English composition before college at all*'. She rated writing as a '*very important*' skill to succeed in college. Writing in English was real '*difficult*' whereas '*very easy*' in Arabic. The subject confirmed her attitude toward writing in both languages by saying she did '*really like writing in English*' but was not sure of her Arabic because she did '*neither like nor dislike*' to write in Arabic. She also confirmed that Arabic and English are '*very different*' in style, grammar, and vocabulary. She considered all

the given items in question 11 as very important for good writing. The subject said she '*commonly*' writes her letters in Arabic not in English whereas she '*most common*' takes notes in both languages. Stories, diaries, and homework are '*most common*' written in English. Her concern about English writing was obvious in responding to the related question what areas she wanted to improve writing. She rated punctuation and organization '*not improvement*' grammar as '*need some improvement*' while spelling and vocabulary '*need much improvement*'.

The 'Writing Process Questionnaire' related questions were consistent with the previous questionnaire. She felt that writing in Arabic is '*easy*' while in English is '*difficult*' because she could not see any '*effect*' of L1 on L2 writing conventions. The subject was very concerned about everything while writing in both languages so she '*paid most attention*' to them all. She confirmed discrepancy between both languages in every aspect except grammatical structures as '*a little similar*' and organization as a '*totally similar*'. She said that she adopted similar writing strategies when '*topics are culturally bound*'. She was more concerned with her English writing than Arabic i.e. she always '*revised, rehearsed, read, check form and content as well as organization*' whereas she '*rarely*' and '*never*' did that in Arabic.

Responding to the 'Post-Writing Questionnaire' she felt that writing through process approach was '*totally different*' from traditional methods. On the contrary of other subjects, she needs '*improvement*' in Arabic content not in English. She paid particular attention to all aspects in question 4 and considered them '*very important*' except punctuation and vocabulary as '*not too important*'. This inconsistency might be attributed to misunderstanding the questions. Evaluating her compositions, she rated her Arabic writing as '*good*' whereas English as '*very good*'. When asked what she had done while writing in both languages, she replied '*in Arabic composition I start writing after reading the topic and then I come up with ideas during writing, and when I finish writing, I revised what has writing*'. "*In English composition, I always plane befor writing, and liste my ideas, and during writing I read the topic for many tims, and try to rivise all what I've written, and correct any mistake during writing*'. Her attitude about writing this topic revealed that was '*satisfied*' with both compositions.

Subject 5, although was panic and particularly anxious about the difficulty in writing, spent 43 minutes to get her English first topic written (*I don't know what to write.*) She uttered 1394 words mixed with 386, 28% Arabic chunks. She wrote down only 293, 29% out of 1008 pure English words with error proportion 22%. The subject paused for 3.5 minutes mainly looking for vocabulary items in both L1 and L2. Although she paused for a relatively short time, this subject was talking a lot in L1 and could not construct any English sentence unless she tried it first in Arabic and then translated it. Even during her revision process she relied on the L1 to make sense of what she had written. It was clear that the subject could not address this topic without using L1 heavily.

The English second topic took her 25 minutes to finish. She uttered 904 words mixed with 108, 12% Arabic chunks. The actual written English words represent 45%, 362 out of the total English spoken words 796 with error proportion 11%. She paused for 2.2 minutes to check for vocabulary. She relied on L1 as she did in the previous topic. The subject adopted similar strategies in writing the English topics in which reliance on L1 was obvious.

The Arabic first topic was differently approached in terms of time, fluency and less pausing. Only 18 minutes were taken up to produce 634 utterances with only 1 English word included. She wrote 202, 32% words out of 633 with error proportion



18%. She paused for 1.7 minutes trying to find the appropriate words and how to connect sentences together.

The Arabic second topic was written in less little time, 15 minutes to produce 347 words including no English. The actual written amount represented 74%, 258 words with rather high error proportion 24%. She paused for 1 minute to start a new paragraph with new main and supporting ideas. What amazing here is that errors in this topic were twice higher than the English second topic and higher than the errors in the Arabic first topic. Comparing the writing strategies of both versions we can see that the subject relied on L1 on constructing her L2 essays. Also, she translated what she wrote in English into her Arabic essays almost literally.

The interview related questions revealed the subject was concerned with writing but she could not write much in English because she lacks vocabulary. She said (*I love it so much.*) but on the contrary to subject 4, (*I love writing in Arabic more than English*). She agreed with most subjects that she took English classes only (*twice a week*) with (no writing at all) before college. The subject had a very negative attitude about teaching English in general during her secondary school. She angrily said (*Imagine the one who taught in English in secondary school was specializing in French*) She did not see any relationship between both languages (*no relationship, I feel that English differs in many aspects, even in thought organization*) On the contrary of other subjects, this one assured me that she followed (*similar strategies*) when writing in both either language because as confirmed (*I don't care about the teacher, I just write*) She also said that (*I always think in Arabic either when write in English or in Arabic*) Evaluating herself as a good writer she said (*yes I know how to write in Arabic but not in English*) She admitted that she had problems in (*punctuation and paragraph building*) in English but no problems in Arabic. This in fact does not go along with writing protocols revealed in Arabic writing.

The 'Background and attitudes Questionnaire' showed that the subject had experienced Arabic composition '*once a week*' but she had not experienced English composing during her pre-college schooling. The subject was not enthusiastic about writing as a skill and rated it as '*important*' only. Writing in English was seen as '*rather difficult*' whereas Arabic writing as '*very easy*'. She asserted that she '*really like*' Arabic but only '*like*' English writing. She confirmed the interview related question concerning similarity and discrepancy between Arabic and English writing by saying that it is '*different*' in '*sentence organization and word order*' She rated spelling, vocabulary and grammar as '*very important*' punctuation as '*not important*' organization as '*somewhat important*', and content as '*not too important*'. In order to improve her writing she needed '*much improvement*' in punctuation, '*no improvement*' in spelling and vocabulary, '*little improvement*' in grammar and organization, and '*somewhat improvement*' in content concerning Arabic writing. The improvement she needed in English was somehow different. She needed '*a little improvement*' in punctuation, '*some improvement*' in spelling and grammar, and '*much improvement*' in vocabulary, organization and content. She said that '*most common*' wrote letters and homework, '*rather common*' notes, essays and diaries in Arabic. She said that her letters and diaries writing '*not at all common*' in English whereas notes and essays were '*fairly common*' written in English and '*most common*' wrote homework in English as well.

'Writing-Process Strategies questionnaire' related questions revealed that the subject had '*never*' experienced writing process approach before. She rated writing in Arabic is '*very easy*' while '*neither difficult nor easy*' in English. She admitted that L1 has '*a large effect*' in most aspects. Vocabulary, spelling, ideas and organization were paid



'no attention' in Arabic where as vocabulary and punctuation were paid 'fair attention' and ideas and organization were paid 'most attention in English. She said that followed similar strategies 'when topics are similar'. The subject said she 'often' revised, rehearsed, and read English while writing but she 'rarely' or 'never' did that in Arabic. She emphasized that she 'always' checked form and content, and concerned with organization in English but not in Arabic.

The 'Post-Writing questionnaire' responses indicated that the subject had 'never' tried this approach. She needed to improve 'content skills' of Arabic and 'communicative skills' of English. While she thought that 'grammar' and 'spelling' were 'very important' in English but 'not important' in Arabic. Vocabulary was rated 'not too important' in English and 'not important' in Arabic. She had a problem in sentence connection and rated it as 'not too important' while 'somewhat important' in English. When asked to describe what she had done during writing in both languages her comments on Arabic writing were 'I didn't plan Before writing I come up with ideas as I writes'. 'I plan Befor writing I had difficulty in vocabulary and with sentence connection' in English writing. This showed inconsistency with what had been said earlier. Her comments on the affectivity of writing process approach reflected her concern of foreign language teaching in general (*this writing process is good, but it is difficult to apply in practise Because facilities needed for this kind of writing are not available*).

Subject 6's time span seemed relatively short if compared with the previous subjects. She spent 18 minutes to produce 539 utterances including 113 Arabic chunks i.e. the pure English first topic words were 426. She wrote only, 27%, 105 words with error proportion 28%. Half of the writing process time was spent on pausing 9.7 minutes. The subject stopped writing for several occasions to look for words, structures and translating from L1. Some of the sporadic pauses were caused by the tension and unease state she experienced while writing ( *حاليا متوتر* 'I am currently in tension') She paused for spelling problems when she knew the word she could figure out how it is spelled.

In the English second topic, the subject spent the least time span, in all, 08 minutes. She verbalized only 250 utterances including 108 Arabic words i. e. the pure English uttered words were 142 of which 78 words were written with error proportion 29%. She paused for 1.2 minutes mostly to look words into dictionary and translating from L1. She adopted similar strategies to address both topics. In other words, she constructed each sentence in L1 then translated it into L2. She was panic and reluctant while composing both topics and kept complaining all the time to express anxious and hardships encountering her ( *تو الكلام منين بنجيبه؟* 'Where can I get the words from?')

The Arabic first topic was verbalized and written in 12 minutes. She produced 381 utterances including 14 English words i.e. the pure Arabic words were 367 of which 156 words were actually written with 29% error proportion. The used English words were a part of the topic she read to make sure of consistency of what she had written. She paused for 2.2 mostly when she converted into the topic to relate what was required to what she wrote.

The Arabic second essay was given only 5 minutes to be completed. The verbalized words did not exceed 105 utterances including only 1 English word. The actual written quantity were 82 with error proportion 39%. The proportion of the written words was 78%. She paused for 1.1 minutes to find out what to write next.

It was clear that the error proportion in both Arabic essays had been rather high as well as it was in the English essays but higher in Arabic. The fact that reflects the subject's linguistic poor competency in both languages.

The interview related questions pointed that the subject was enthusiastic to write in English but she was not well armed to address her mission. She restricted her concern to *'improve my handwriting'* as if she were able to write everything. She also explained herself saying *'I write to express myself'*. She confined with other subjects in that she had taken only *'two English classes per week'* but nothing was devoted to writing. She confirmed the discrepancy between the two languages and she felt that *'they are different, each one has its own characteristics'*. That discrepancy might have made this subject use *'different strategies'* when composing in each language. In other words, she *'never plan before writing in Arabic but get my ideas before I address English writing'*. On the contrary of other subjects, this one said she *'prepared and wrote down whatever she wanted to write in English and then translated it in Arabic'* although such a strategy was not observed while she was writing her both essays in English or in Arabic. Responding to how she writes in either language, she said that she *'I do the same but when I face a difficult word, in spelling for example, I write it in Arabic'*. She evaluated herself as a *'poor writer'* particularly in English. She identified her salient English problems in *'spelling, grammar and vocabulary'* as well as in *'Arabic grammar'*. These problems were clearly spotted in her protocols and written products in both languages.

Responses to the 'Background and Attitudes questionnaire' the subject expressed that she *'really like'* to write in Arabic but only *'like'* to write in English. This attitude about writing is positive and encouraging to lead her to how to write in both languages. Like many others, this one had English for 6 years, twice a week, 45 minutes each class, before college. She confirmed that she had Arabic composition *'once a week'* but *'did not learn composition in my previous schooling'* in English. She rated writing as the *'most important'* of the English major skills though she found that English writing as *'rather difficult'* whereas Arabic writing as *'very easy'*. She also pointed out that writing in both languages was *'different'* in *'meaning, style, vocabulary, and transcripts'*. To produce a good piece of writing, she rated punctuation, spelling and grammar as *'very important'*, vocabulary as *'not too important'*, organization as *'somewhat important'* and content as *'not important'*. The subject usually writes her letters and homework in Arabic but takes notes in English. Evaluating her writing level, the subject indicated that she needed *'much improvement'* in English spelling, vocabulary, and grammar but *'no improvement'* in Arabic organization.

The 'Writing Process Strategies Questionnaire' related questions revealed that the subject had felt writing in Arabic as *'easy'* but *'rather difficult'* in English. She also felt that L1 conventions had *'a large effect'* 'in most aspects' of language. The subject was aware of her linguistic competence of both languages; therefore, she said she *'paid most attention'* to vocabulary and ideas in Arabic. She *'paid most attention'* to grammar, vocabulary, spelling, ideas and organization, but *'no attention'* to punctuation in English. Specifying the different aspects between both languages, the subject revealed that English grammatical structures, spelling, vocabulary, and paragraph building were *'totally different'* from their counterparts in Arabic although sentence connection and organization were *'a little different'*. She also said that she *'often'* follows similar strategies when *'topics are culturally bound'*. The subject said that she had *'always'* revised, rehearsed, read, checked form, content and organized her essays in English whereas she *'sometimes'* and *'rarely'* had done that in Arabic.

Her responses to the 'Post-Writing Questionnaire' gave a detailed conclusion about what she had done while experiencing this approach. She admitted that such an approach was *'different'* from other methods she was familiar with. She identified the



real areas at which she wanted improvement i.e. '*form and content skills*' in English but '*content skills*' in Arabic. The subject appointed the areas at which she should pay much attention as of their vital importance. Consequently, she rated grammatical structures, in English as '*very important*' but as '*not important*' in Arabic. Punctuation was rated as '*not important*' in both languages. Spelling, vocabulary, sentence connection were rated as '*very important*' in both languages. She rated organization and paragraph building as '*very important*' in English but as '*little important*' in Arabic. Generally the subject evaluated her composing within this approach as '*good*' in both languages. When asked how she wrote her essays in both languages she said '*in Arabic I wrote fluently without being bothered by ideas generating.*' But on the contrary '*I organized the ideas and put them in order*' in English. The subject finally commented that she had been '*satisfied*' with her essays written according to this new, to her, approach.

Subject 7 took up 45 minutes to verbalize and write down the English first topic. It was the longest time span. She produced 1060 utterances including 311 Arabic chunks. The pure English words were 749 of which only 142, 19% were actually written with error proportion 27%. The subject paused for 4.8 minutes mainly to find words and construct sentences in L1 then translate them into L2. The subject heavily relied on L1 to generate ideas, organize them, and write what she wanted down. This strategy was not different from some other subjects who adopted the translating procedure to produce their English essays. The subject was not sure of what she was writing so she seemed reluctant and anxious (والله مانا عارفه حاجة) '*I swear to god I don't know anything*' (نرستى فى الفصل الثالث، كيف نكتبها؟) ('*She taught in the third grade, how can I write it?*').

The English second topic was written almost in a similar way despite the quantity and time span were much shorter. She spent only 16 minutes to produce 414 utterances including 51 Arabic words, phrases and sentences. The pure verbalized English words were 363 out of which 101, 28%, words were written with a rather higher error proportion 36%. The subject paused for 3 minutes mainly to translate some sentences from L1 into L2. Panic, reluctant and lack self-confidence the subject addressed this essay to result in an incredible error proportion and scattered sentences, which caused lose in meaning and coherence. She was aware of her level and complaining of the weaknesses she was suffering.

The Arabic essays were not better the English ones in terms of form, content, and error proportion. To complete the Arabic first essay, the subject spent 16 minutes to produce 419 Arabic utterances without any English chunks. The actual written amount was 183, 44%, words with error proportion 21%, which was so high for L1. She paused for 2.5 minutes thinking of what to write and what suitable and proper words she could use. She also paused to reread what had been written earlier.

The Arabic second essay was less in quantity but larger in error proportion. She spent 10 minutes to get it done. She produced 336 words without English interference. The actual written words were reduced to the third 110, 33%, with rather higher error proportion 28% which indicated that this subject had faced sever problems in dictation, style and vocabulary in Arabic.

Comparing the Arabic and English versions of both essays, it was clear that the subject's linguistic repertoire was suffering serious flaws in both languages, mainly in English. That is, she could not proceed without using Arabic to write her ideas in English. Her Arabic essays showed that she did not communicate well with her audience because most of her sentences were written in a colloquial form with many



grammatical and syntactical errors. Arabic rhetoric had no any type of effect on what she wrote.

The interview related questions were consistent with the protocols and observation notes. The subject was open, frank and true to express her willingness and ability about writing (*I have the desire to write but I lack the will. I always try to write but I lack style and vocabulary, I always try to write in Arabic only.*) With these words, in Arabic, she put it clear that she had never attempted to write anything in English as a result of the fact she had not been taught how to write in English because she used to take only *'one or two classes per week'* before college. Although she was given enough time, in college, to learn English writing her poor background caused many problems to prevent her from learning it easily. She did not say any relationship between writing in English and in Arabic because they are *'different'* in many aspects such as *'spelling, grammar and punctuation although this one is not so different'*. She asserted that *'I think in Arabic first then convey it into English'* and she used *'bilingual dictionaries'* because English monolingual ones seemed not helpful. When asked how to write in either language, her answer was *'In Arabic I write on the spot, sometimes I think before I write specially when my ideas are not organized I change them. In English, I don't write much but when I do, I prepare my thoughts in mind, organize them, and then I start writing. I don't outline my ideas'*. She had a negative attitude about her writing because she felt that could never a good writer *'neither in English nor in Arabic'*. She explained what problems she had in either language by saying that *'in English I have a problem in spelling, vocabulary and punctuation whereas in Arabic I lack the style and how to construct sentences'*.

The *'Background and Attitude Questionnaire'* responses revealed that this subject too had experienced Arabic writing *'once a week'* but had not learned *'any English composition in my previous schooling'*. Writing was rated as a *'very important'* skill although it was *'very difficult'* in English and *'easy'* in Arabic. Her attitude about writing was the same in both languages i.e. she *'liked'* writing in general and in both languages. She confirmed that writing in both language is *'very different'* especially the transcription in which they are written *'left to right vs. right to left'*. She rated spelling and vocabulary as *'very important'*, grammar as *'not too important'*, organization and content as *'somewhat important'*, and punctuation as *'not important'*. It was amazing that the subject's responses concerning improvement needed for certain aspects were higher in Arabic than they were in English. In other words, she needed *'much improvement'* in Arabic vocabulary, grammar, organization, and content but *'no improvement'* in their English counterparts. However, she needed *'some improvement'* in punctuation and *'no improvement'* in spelling in both languages. The subject said she practiced writing in form of homework as *'most common'*.

Responses to *'Writing Process Strategies Questionnaire'* showed that the subject's attitude about writing in both languages was *'neither difficult nor easy'*. She also considered L1 convention had *'a very large effect'* in all aspect of L2 writing. She paid grammar and vocabulary the *'most attention'* in both languages. Spelling, ideas, and organization were given *'rather attention'* in both languages as well. Punctuation was given *'no attention'* in Arabic but *'fair attention'* in English. Grammar, spelling and vocabulary were rated *'totally different'* whereas punctuation, sentences connection, organization and paragraph building were rated *'a little different'* across the two languages. She *'often'* assumed to follow similar strategies *'when I receive enough feedback before and while writing'*. The subject confirmed that she had *'always'* revised, rehearsed, read, checked form and content, and organized while

writing in English. On the contrary she had 'sometimes rehearsed and organized, and 'rarely' revised, read or checked content in Arabic writings. She 'never' checked form in Arabic.

The Post-writing Questionnaire responses shed light on how this subject had behaved when engaged using the writing process approach. She said it was 'different' from other approaches. She wanted to improve form, content and communicative skills in both languages. She said that she had paid particular attention to grammatical structures, spelling, vocabulary, sentence connection and paragraph building because they were 'very important' in both languages. Evaluating her composition within writing process approach she rated her Arabic composition as 'good' but the English as 'weak'. When asked about what she did in each composition, her answer was 'In Arabic, I firstly thought what I would write about'. Then I organised my ideas and started writing. In Arabic 'I don't have a problem in vocabulary so I felt I had written a good topic'. In English 'I firstly thought about what to write but in Arabic then I translated it into English. I don't have enough vocabulary in English so I felt that I had written a bad topic'.

Subject 8 was one of the two subjects who spent the shortest time span to produce the English first essay. She spent 11 minutes only to verbalize and write down her essay. The spoken utterances were 276 words without any Arabic chunks. The subject wrote 224, 81% words out of the total verbalized utterance. Error proportion was somewhat high 16%. The subject paused for 3.1 minutes for rereading and finding the next sentence otherwise she fluently wrote her essay. The subject was enthusiastic to write in English. She did not use any Arabic words even when got blocked because she was thinking in English all the time. She, as observed, made short sporadic stops when got confused by some pronouns and to be sure which ones could be the correct.

In her English second essay the subject took up almost twice longer time. She spent 20 minutes to complete her essay. She uttered 449 English words including no Arabic whatsoever. The actual written amount was 310, 69% words with error proportion 22%. She paused for 3.7 minutes to think of what to write next and what vocabulary items fit in the sentence. No Arabic was used because the subject was so fluent and willing to write in English. She had her ideas well organized in mind and was ready to put down on paper except when she felt confused of some words or structures.

We can notice that the subject wrote a few more words on the second essay although she adopted similar procedures in writing. She spent longer time but the percentage between time difference and written word quantity in both essays seemed unbalanced. That is, she should have written as many words as twice she did in the first essay. The second topic was easier and required no hard efforts at all.

The Arabic first essay was short and took up 9 minutes to be completed. The subject uttered 294 words totally in Arabic. She wrote 136, 46%, words out of the total with a rather higher error proportion 47%. The error proportion indicates that the subject has never been interested in Arabic writing or at least she has not experienced it well. She paused for 2.5 minutes to find out the words she wanted to write. She paused for many intervals searching for the appropriate words in the context. The subject had a problem with punctuation in Arabic i.e. she had not used any punctuation mark except 2 full-stops at the end of very short paragraphs. She had also problem in paragraphing but she considered some single sentences as a complete paragraph.

In her Arabic second topic, the subject spent 11 minutes to produce a longer essay but similar error proportion. She uttered 233 words including 1 English word. The written amount was 192, 82%, words with a very high error proportion 46%. She paused for 2.7 minutes to rephrase some sentences and find accurate vocabulary items.



The given written products confirmed that the subject had never been keen to write in Arabic. Her spelling numerous errors are the best evidence for her inability to write in Arabic. Also the Arabic rhetoric had no trace or effect as well as the style, organization and content were not taken care of either because the subject did not like to write in Arabic or she was not really able to.

The interview questions confirmed what had observed and revealed through the protocols. The subject's educational background seemed somehow different from the other subjects. That is, she had been to kindergarten when she was 4 years old while others did not have such a chance. She should be well prepared and had had enough time to learn Arabic when started her Arabic school. Her attitude about writing was positive and negative at the same time. She said *'yes I like writing but umm, I have many thoughts, but when I try to write I cannot'*, because *'I cannot explain what in my mind exactly'*. The subject put it clearly that *'I don't like in Arabic'*. She, like others, confirmed that she had only two English classes per week during preparatory and secondary schools with no writing devotion. She did not see any relationship between writing in Arabic and in English because they are *'different'*. Consequently, she writes in a different way when approaching each language in Arabic *'I just take a pen and start writing'* but *'in English I think before I write'*. When asked whether she used to outline her ideas or get organized in mind, she said *'I sometimes outline them'*. Responding to how she evaluating herself, she mentioned that she said *'no'* but she considered herself *'not bad'* in English writing but *'not in Arabic'*. When asked what problems she was facing she pointed out that she had *'no problems'* except in punctuation whereas she suffered more problems in English such as *'spelling, punctuation, and grammar'*. The last question answer was not consistent to what had been observed and elicited from the protocols and written products particularly in Arabic.

The 'Background and attitudes questionnaire' responses revealed that the subject had Arabic writing' once a week' but never had any English composition before college. She was quite keen to learn all English major skills including writing and considered them as *'most important'*. She rated English writing as *'rather difficult'* whereas Arabic as *'very easy'*. Her impression about writing English was *'really like'* but was uncertain about Arabic because she *'neither like nor dislike'*. She confirmed her interview related question about similarity between both languages in terms of writing and considered them *'different'* because *'English is different from Arabic in mostly all the levels such as grammar, vocabulary, and also the expressions are not the same. Arabic also effected by gender so much not as English'*. She seemed to be the only subject who rated all the skills as *'very important'* and vital for good writing. Responding to the question at which areas she needs improvement, she did not mention any area for improving her Arabic writing although she needs a lot improvement in many areas. However, she selected punctuation, spelling and grammar as the areas at which she *'need much improvement'*, content and organization *'need little improvement'* and vocabulary *'need some improvement'* in English. The related question revealed that this subject not only interested in poetry writing in English as *'most common'* but she also was keen to write letters, notes and diaries. She rated letters as *'not at all common'*, notes as *'fairly common'* and diaries as *'rather common'*.

The 'Writing Process Strategies Questionnaire' revealed that this subject had *'never'* experienced this type of writing before although she felt it was *'easy'* to do it in Arabic but *'rather difficult'* to write in English. This subject was different from all previous subjects when responded to the effect of the Arabic conventions on L2



writing. That is, she said it had '*no effect*' on any aspect. Responding to what areas she paid more attention, she paid '*most attention*' to spelling and organization, '*rather attention*' to grammar, vocabulary, and ideas in Arabic. English is different and needs more attention i.e. she paid '*most attention*' to grammar, vocabulary, spelling, ideas, and organization, while she paid '*rather attention*' to punctuation. The subject confirmed discrepancy between both languages in most aspects such as punctuation, spelling, vocabulary, sentence connection and paragraph building as '*totally different*' but grammatical structures as '*a little similar*' as well as organization as '*totally similar*'. I think the subject was confused here and not concentrate well. I don't see any similarity between grammatical structures between both languages and no big difference in punctuation so to speak. The subject was also different from other subjects in that she '*never*' followed similar strategies when writing in either language no matter topics were similar or culturally bound or received feedback but she used to address each language in a certain procedure. The subject was consistent in her composing that is she always revised, rehearsed, read checked form and content, organized in English but she '*rarely*' did that in Arabic.

The 'Post-Writing questionnaire' indicated that the subject considered this writing approach as '*totally different*' from the traditional ones. She wanted to improve her '*form skills*' in both languages but only '*content skills*' in English. As pointed out earlier, the subject was really concerned to pay '*most attention*' to every aspect of both languages '*I paid attention to nearly all of them*'. Evaluating her composing through this approach seemed to be unreliable to reflect the actual observed behaviours. She evaluated her Arabic composition as '*good*', which was not true at all, and her English composing as '*weak*', which was as bad as she perceived it. Explaining what she really did while composing she said, in Arabic '*I try to revise what I wrote in English just to take ideas then to form it in Arabic*'. She wanted to say that when she wrote in Arabic she looked back at what she had written in English to elicit the main ideas and translated them into Arabic. '*In English, planning is a first step. Then revise each sentence to see if it is well completed with the previous sentences or not and sure I concentrate on spelling and grammatical structures*'.

Subject 9 spent 15 minutes to complete the English first essay with total 260 utterances including 3, 01%, Arabic words. The actual written words were 121, 47%, with a high error proportion 23%. The subject sopped 2.7 minutes mainly at the end of his essay to look back at what he had written and to properly conclude it. The subject was observed redundant, panic and anxious not as a result of being unfamiliar with the method but because he was sensitive to write about his teachers. He paused for spelling and how he could construct any sentence in English after getting it meaningful in Arabic first.

The English second essay took up longer time 20 minutes, during which more utterances were produced and written. 301 words including 4 Arabic ones were the outcome. The actual written words were 175, 57%, with error proportion 23%, which seems high and discovers the subject's lack in certain aspects such as spelling and vocabulary. The subject seemed fluent to some extent though he used a few Arabic words to get the meaning in English.

The time spent to produce the Arabic first essay was almost the same as the total time spent on both English essays. 31 minutes were spent to complete this essay at which 694 utterance were produced including 33 English words. The subject actually wrote 248, 38%, words with error proportion 25%. The subject paused for 4.1 minutes mainly searching for the most appropriate words that fit in the text to produce a strong

piece of essay. The subject was polite and sensitive to select the most polite language about his teachers.

The subject spent 30 minutes on the Arabic second essay to verbalize and write 504 utterances without any English word. 326 words, 56%, were neatly written out of the total with error proportion 21%. The subject paused for 2.4 minutes. He paused less but wrote more on this essay. This was expected from all subjects to write more and be fluent on the Arabic second essay. The pauses mainly took place at the last two paragraphs when the subject was trying to say something about the people in charge and stopped to find out the appropriate word.

What can be noticed here is that this subject spent more time on writing his Arabic essays than that on the English ones. He rarely switched from one language to another. He used good and clear vocabulary items but he lacked some grammatical structures.

The interview responses were not entirely consistent with what was observed or heard on protocols. His attitude about writing was positive. He said *'I want to write about myself'* also *'I write about everything like the journey, the story about myself etc.,'* *'I write it in Arabic but sometimes if I want to develop my language I write in English'*. He also confirmed that he had taken only *'three classes per week'* before college. When asked about similarities and differences between both languages, he said *'I think they are different. They look related but still there is a difference in literature'*. Therefore, he could not follow identically similar strategies *'you can say I use similar strategies, similar to a great extent, but still there is a little difference in style'*. When asked how he wrote his essays, he answered *'in Arabic, I sat down, looked at the questions, read them, organised my thoughts, and then started writing'* *'In English, almost the same except I lacked arrangement [organization] then I started writing'*. The subject used a bilingual dictionary because the monolingual one was *'difficult'*. The subject admitted that his writing in English was not *'well organized'* because he *'he prepared what he wanted to write in his mind and then wrote'*. He evaluated himself as a *'good writer'* in Arabic but not in English. He admitted that he had problems in *'punctuation, and how to introduce my point well'* in both languages but worse in English.

The 'Background and Attitudes questionnaire' responses detected that this subject had spent 6 years learning English two classes a week before college. On the contrary of the previous subjects, he had experienced Arabic and English writing *'once a week'*. He was not concerned about writing in English as the most important as other skills but he rated it as *'important'* only because it was *'difficult'* as well as it was in Arabic. Explicitly enough he expressed his attitude about writing in both languages as *'like'* in Arabic but *'neither like nor dislike'* in English. In contrast with his interview responses, he did not see any similarity between both languages but he strongly thought they were *'different'* *'because the two languages has its special way'*. He rated spelling, grammar and content as *'very important'* whereas punctuation, vocabulary and organization as *'not too important'* for good writing. He needed improvement in all of the aspects in both languages. He *'needed some improvement'* in spelling in both languages but *'little improvement'* in Arabic spelling, vocabulary and organization. He wanted *'much improvement'* in Arabic grammar and content. In English he was keen to have *'much improvement'* in spelling, vocabulary, grammar, and content whereas he needed *'little improvement'* in organization. The subject pointed out that he wanted to *'rather commonly'* write letters and homework in Arabic as well as notes and homework in English. His personal stories and diaries were *'fair common'* written in English.



The 'Writing process Strategies Questionnaire' responses were somewhat consistent with the observation and protocols as well as the previous questionnaire. He felt that writing in English was '*rather difficult*' but '*neither easy nor difficult*' in Arabic. His attitude about the effect of L1 conventions was clear in his writing because he felt that L1 had '*a large effect*' in most aspects. In order to produce a good piece of writing, this subject was concerned to pay '*most attention*' to grammar in both languages whereas '*rather attention*' be paid to vocabulary, spelling, ideas and organization. Punctuation has gained '*fair attention*' in both languages. Classifying similarity and discrepancy between aspects, he considered grammatical structures, spelling and vocabulary '*totally different*' while paragraphing '*totally similar*'. Punctuation and organization were '*a little similar*' while sentence connection seemed to be '*a little different*'. He adopted similar writing strategies only '*when topics are culturally bound*'. He was '*always*' concerned with revising, rehearsing, reading, checking form and content, organizing in English but he was '*rarely*' concerned with in Arabic.

The 'Post-Writing Questionnaire' revealed that this subject had found this type of writing '*different*' from the usual writing methods. Misunderstanding the question, the subject wanted to improve his '*communicative skills*' in Arabic not in English. He needed to improve the '*content skills*' in English. Consistently enough with previous questionnaire, the subject confirmed to pay particular attention to all aspects of English for they are '*very important*' while their counterparts in Arabic are '*not important*'. To my astonishment, the subject evaluated his English composition as '*very good*' and Arabic composition as '*fair*'. When asked about how he had written his essays, he answered '*in Arabic I already begin without thinking because when i write the idea comes after the beginning, May be because its first language acquisition*'. In English '*I think before i write in English and put a plan because there is abig differences between the two languages for me as a concios learner*'. The subject's overall rating of his writing within the writing process approach was '*fairly satisfied*' with Arabic and '*very satisfied*' with English writing.

Subject 10 took up 30 minutes to complete the English first essay. During this period, he verbalized 732 utterances without any Arabic chunks. The actual written word quantity was 264, 37% words with error proportion 17%. He spent the longest time ever 14 minutes pausing or writing silently. Most of his pauses were directed to sentence construction and searching for appropriate vocabulary. He was remarkably slow, as if dictating to someone else, in approaching his essays in general, which reflected that he was thinking while writing.

Time devoted to the English second essay was sharply reduced to almost the half. He spent 17 minutes to produce 502 non-Arabic mixed words. The actual written words were 190, 38%, with error proportion 19%. Significantly the pausing duration was dramatically cut down to 2.1 minutes mainly stopping when to start a new sentence. Similarly slow but more fluent he was when addressing this essay. Although this topic was easier, he wrote less on it with higher error proportion if compared with the first essay.

His Arabic first essay seemed to be literally translated from the English version. Therefore, he spent a shorter time on it 13 minutes. He verbalized 251 pure Arabic words of which he textualized 196, 78% with higher error proportion 20%. Sporadic pausing intervals took up 3.8 minutes to figure how sentences should be constructed and inserted into the text properly.

The Arabic second essay seemed much easier or less stimulating for this subject, so he spent only 9 minutes to get it done. Even the verbalized utterances were clearly fewer, 388 words. Less than the half of the uttered words 159 was written with less error



proportion 8%. He also did not pause much, 2.2 minutes, while writing this essay to come up with the most suitable vocabulary items.

As for these Arabic essays the subject did not spend part of his pausing time on revising because of the slow verbalization. He wrote automatically and somehow fluently on the second essay. He did not use any spoken versions to be repeated in a standard form as most of the other subjects did. His slow speed in all essays English and Arabic might be the best factor to the non-revising strategy. He had difficulty, serious in some occasions, in grammar and vocabulary in English. He also had a problem in sentence connection mostly using the coordination connectors, which are common in Arabic.

The interview revealed that he is consistent in all questionnaires and observation as well as protocols. His attitude about writing was encouraging '*especially in Arabic*' in which he writes '*standard poetry*'. Like most other subjects, he had only '*two English classes per week*' in school before college neither of them devoted to writing. He explained the strategies he adopted to write in both languages by saying '*well, when I write in English I think first of all in Arabic then I translate into English*'. Unlike most subjects, he said he '*just used English dictionaries*' when blocked for any vocabulary. When asked how he had written his essays, he answered '*in Arabic, first I think what I am going to write and I, I arrange ideas in my mind, then I write*'. '*I do the same thing in English but I think in Arabic*'. When asked whether he was a good writer, he said '*I don't think so*' although '*I do try in Arabic but I don't think I am a good writer*' '*I wrote some poetry and articles*' which were published in some famous local newspapers. Responding to what problems he is encountered, he assured that had problem in Arabic such as '*vocabulary, and grammar, I think Arabic grammar is more difficult than English*' while '*I don't have much vocabulary in English*'.

The 'Background and Attitude Questionnaire' reflected the subject's actual educational history. The subject had the minimum English instruction in preparatory and secondary schools, one year preparatory and two years secondary. During these three years he had English '*twice a week*' only without any mention to writing as a skill should be taught and as he said '*I did not write at all*'. He rated writing in English as the '*most important*' skill for success in college although he considered writing in general was '*difficult*'. He mentioned that he '*like*' writing and wanted to write in either language because as he saw it they were '*fairly similar*' commenting as '*because there are similarities and differences in writing in both Ls*'. He rated all aspects as '*very important*' for good writing. However, he needed '*much improvement*' grammar, '*little improvement*' in vocabulary and organization, '*some improvement*' in punctuation, but '*no improvement*' in spelling in Arabic. His needs to improve his English were rated as '*little improvement*' in spelling, vocabulary and grammar; '*some improvement*' in punctuation and organization in English. The subject emphasized his interests in Arabic writing by saying he '*most common*' writes letters in Arabic but '*not at all common*' he does that in English. Only homework gained '*rather common*' interests in English. Even in his other possibilities he '*rather common*' '*writes diaries and poetry*' in Arabic.

The 'Writing Process Strategies' Questionnaire indicated that this subject felt that writing in both languages '*neither difficult nor easy*'. His impression about the effect of L1 conventions seemed obvious in most aspects. He said it has '*a very large effect*' in most aspects. He also mentioned that he wanted to pay '*most attention*' to grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, and organization in both languages whereas ideas are paid '*rather attention*' in both languages as well. Aspects similarities and differences were clear between both languages. He rated that

grammatical structures and organization were 'a little similar'; punctuation and sentence connection '*a little different*', and spelling and vocabulary were '*totally different*'. He '*sometimes*' adopts similar strategies '*when topic are culturally bound*'. He mentioned that he had '*always*' revised, rehearsed; read, checked form and content in English but '*sometimes*' had done so in Arabic.

'Post-writing' questionnaire revealed that the process approach was '*different*' and the subject needed to improve in all English writing skills but none in Arabic. The subject was a little inconsistent with previous responses in regard of the attention he paid to certain aspects. He considered grammar and spelling in English as '*very important*'. He illustrated that punctuation, vocabulary, sentence connection, organization and paragraph building as '*not too important*' in both languages. Evaluating his composing within this writing approach was '*fair*' for both languages. When asked what he had done during the process of writing he said '*In Arabic I always plane what I am going to write*' but '*when I write in English I always think in Arabic, plan in Arabic in my mind, then I write on the paper in English*'. His overall rating of this type of writing was '*fairly satisfied*'.

Subject 11 was one of the four subjects who spent a considerable long time span during which he verbalized and transcribed his English first essay. He spent 39 minutes to utter and write one of the biggest amounts in total. He uttered 1067 words including 185, 17%, Arabic chunks. The actual written words were 135, 15%, of the total spoken words with error proportion 15%. He paused for 7.1 minutes mainly for rereading the previous sentences to make sure what and how to write next. The apparent use of Arabic indicated that the subjects planning and writing were mainly dependent on his L1. Also the use of Arabic had a large effect on every aspect punctuation, sentence structure and construction, vocabulary and spelling. He paused to revise for several times in order to see what he had written and what he needed to write next.

The English second essay was not differently addressed. He spent 30 minutes to produce a total verbalization of 1002 utterances including less Arabic words 17, almost 2%. The actual written words were only 165 with less error proportion 13%. He paused for 5.6 minutes mainly seeking for appropriate words. All corrections and editing were made during the writing process. L1 transfer and interference were not as much as they had been in the previous essay. He seemed more fluent and less dependent on his LTM, which requires intensive thinking, recalling and ideas generating.

The Arabic first essay was written in a sharply reduced time span. He spent 10 minutes to produce 233 Arabic utterances without any English chunks. The actual amount written was 121, 52%, with higher error proportion 18%. He paused for 5.4 minutes rethinking back and forth to construct sentences in an Arabic rhetoric form and coherence but he did not successfully achieve that. He almost literally translated the English essay. That is, his Arabic rhetoric seemed seriously affected.

A little longer time was spent to produce longer essay about the Arabic second topic. He spent 13 minutes to verbalize 452 Arabic words with no English. The transcribed words were 158, 35% with less error proportion 13%. He paused sharply less than he did in the Arabic first essay, 0.7 minutes. The subject was more fluent to produce this essay with no explicit difficulty. He was trying to explain the situation of the classroom precisely but his vocabulary repertoire did not enable him.

If the first two essays were compared we found that the subject had made less mistakes in English than those in Arabic while the error proportion resulted in the second essays was the same 13%.



The interview related questions pointed out that this subject and the next one are older in age, more experienced and probably more stimulated and enthusiastic than the other subjects. He had studied English for 9 year before college. The instruction he received was different from its counterpart for others. He had presumably enough time, room, and material during preparatory school and teachers' institute. His impression about writing was negative *'writing is not my hobby'*. He had more than enough classes before college *'I had 9 classes per week'* in the teaching institute. As an expert teacher of English he was asked whether or not he could see any relationship between writing in Arabic and in English. Responding to that he promptly commented *'there isn't any relation'*. Although he assured that both languages were not related, his next answer did not reflect what he meant i.e. he said *'for me I think, the same strategy'* responding to if he used different strategies while writing in either language. He said that he most likely used *'monolingual dictionaries'*. When asked how he had written his essays in either language, his response was clear and illustrating what had been observed *'in Arabic I try to find the idea I need for the subject, the outlines, I write them down in Arabic'*. *'In English, I find the ideas and try to carry on with the writing and I write it down'*. He evaluated himself not as a good writer in both languages *'I don't think so'* because *'I mean they are different in Arabic and in English. In Arabic when I concentrate and in a different subject I can do at least accept it, but in English I think I am not a good writer in English because there some difficulties face me in vocabulary, may how can I choose my tenses, grammatical structures, punctuation, yes may be yes'*. When asked about encountering problem s, he said *'no problems in Arabic'* but *'I have problems in vocabulary, grammar and punctuation'* in English. His overall evaluation of the writing process approach was *'this is a good approach. It is much better than traditional approaches'*.

The "Background and Attitudes" questionnaire confirmed that the subject had 9 years of English instruction before college. He had Arabic as well as English writing *'once a week'*. He rated writing as a *'very important'* English major skill although it is *'difficult'* to address. Arabic writing was rated as *'easy'* task. The subject *'likes'* Arabic writing but was sure how he feels about English writing *'neither like nor dislike'*. He confirmed his previous views concerning discrepancy between the two languages as *'different'* because of *'the style of English language and the vocabulary'*. He rated vocabulary as *'very important'*, spelling, grammar and organization as *'not too important'* and content as *'not important'* for good writing. Accordingly, he *'needed much improvement'* in English vocabulary, grammar, and content, but only to Arabic grammar. He needed *'no improvement'*, *'some improvement'* and *'rather improvement'* in Arabic punctuation, spelling, and content relatively. He needed *'rather improvement'*, *'some improvement'* and *'no improvement'* in English punctuation, spelling and organization respectively. His experience with writing was *'common'* in Arabic reports and *'rather common'* in English homework.

Responses to the 'Writing Process Strategies' questionnaire explicitly reflected this subject's opinion about different events. Unlike others he said he had *'rarely'* experienced the think-aloud protocols. When asked what did he do when composing in Arabic and in English, his answers were that he had *'never'* listed down ideas in either language, which was inconsistent of what he had said earlier. He had *'never'* looked into dictionary when writing in Arabic whereas *'sometimes'* done in English. He had *'always'* thought before writing and planned what to write in Arabic and in English. He had *'usually'* read questions aloud in both languages and *'rarely'* read them silently or asked peers or teacher when writing English or Arabic compositions.



Explaining his feeling about thinking-aloud protocols as '*neither difficult nor easy*'. He also agreed that L1 conventions had '*some effect*' on most aspects of L2. He wanted to pay '*most attention*' to Arabic and English vocabulary, '*rather attention*' to English grammar and Arabic ideas, and '*fair attention*' to English ideas. Confirming his earlier views, he considered all components '*totally different*' between both languages. He '*never*' followed similar strategies when addressing essays in either language. He confirmed that he had '*always*' revised, rehearsed, read, checked form and content, organised in English but '*sometimes*' done that in Arabic.

The 'Post-Writing' questionnaire answers showed that this type of writing is '*different*' from others. Therefore, the subject needed improvement in all mentioned English skills but none in Arabic. He also said that he had paid particular attention to some aspects and rated them accordingly. That is, grammatical structures '*very important*' in English but '*somewhat important*' in Arabic. He considered English spelling and vocabulary as '*very important*' while sentence connection as '*not too important*' in English but '*little important*' in Arabic. Evaluating of his writing via this approach turned to be '*good*' in Arabic and '*fair*' in English. Overall impression about this approach writing, he was '*satisfied*' with both outcomes he had made.

Subject 12 was one of the best subjects who produced a relatively meaningful and readable piece of writing although he spent one of the two shortest time spans on the English first essay. Only 11 minutes were taken up to complete this essay during which the subject verbalized 244 pure English utterances. The actual written words were 130, 51%, with the minimum ever error proportion 5%. The subject paused for 1.0 minutes mainly to construct one sentence and look into dictionary for missed words. He was so fluent, self-confident, and stimulated to write his essay. His thinking-aloud protocols were consistent with what he wrote and believed about writing as a skill.

The English second essay was less in quantity and a little shorter in time but more in errors. He spent 10 minutes to produce 267 utterances in pure English verbalization. He wrote down 113, 42%, words with error proportion 9%. He spent a similar time span for pausing 1.0 minutes to formulate some grammatical structures and switched the tape-recorder off for a little while. He was a little bit slower when addressing this essay.

The Arabic first essay was written in the shortest time duration 8 minutes. He produced 153 utterances including 8 English chunks. The actual written product was 87, 60%, words with rather high error proportion 23% for L1. The subject seemed affected by what he had written in English, so recalling his thoughts made him use some English words while thinking-aloud in Arabic. He paused for 1.2 minutes because he sometimes got blocked and confused whether he was writing in Arabic or in English. The higher error proportion mainly lied in punctuation and some grammatical cases. The Arabic conventions and rhetoric characteristics were absent from this essay because, as I have mentioned, he was still under the impact of the English version that he had written first.

The Arabic second topic was given 6 minutes, the second shortest time span, to be completed. 165 words were uttered out of which 76, 41%, words were written with high error proportion 21%. He paused 0.8 minutes in order to find some appropriate words. As mentioned before, the subject seemed to be under the impact of the English version. He did not pay attention to the spelling while writing in Arabic.

Comparing these English and Arabic versions reflected the subject's interest about English writing caused a lot of errors on the part of the Arabic essays. He might have

done better if he revised his Arabic essays and noticed those primary grammatical cases in Arabic.

The interview responses revealed that this subject had been studying English for 9 years, like his previous mate. He had chance to live abroad for two years i.e. in Malta learning English. His attitude about writing in both languages was encouraging to ask him more and more. He said *'I enjoy writing. Arabic is more but I like writing in English as well'*. This response melted the ice and pushed for more questions. Answering what he writes about, he said *'at the beginning I used to write short stories. When I was in the teachers' institute I used to write my own stories and showed them to my teachers'*. When asked about the relationship between writing in Arabic and in English, he said *'my opinion is 'writing is writing' in English or in Arabic'*. This was clearly reflected in his writing in both languages and the strategies he had followed. Concerning whether he follows similar or different strategies when writing, he was elaborate saying *'Yes, you try to think about the ideas. You put the idea clear in my mind, then I start expressing this idea in, with aaa, in English what we call it topic sentence; in Arabic, you start putting ideas in paragraph'*. Asked about what dictionaries he used to use, he said *'I use both, bilingual and monolingual'*. His attitude about Arabic writing teaching was apparently negative because he felt that *'they [teachers] leave the student totally dependent on himself and his background. All they do is just to write the title on the blackboard and we write about it'*. Contrary to that, he saw English writing teaching *'completely different. They help you how to write'*. Responding to whether he is a good writer, his answer was modest *'I don't think that I am a good writer in Arabic but I am trying to be a good writer'*. In English *'I feel the same or less than Arabic. I think reading is the best way to learn writing in English'*. He specified the problems facing him in writing by saying that *'In Arabic, I don't think I have a problem in grammar'*. Only the way in general sometimes when you want to write the subject sometimes you find yourself lack of information, so you cannot put all the ideas in the subject. In English, I have problems sometimes with *'tenses, past tense, past perfect etc., some times you get stuck'*. When asked about the writing process approach, he said *'I think it's effective. It helps you discover your errors and how you write. It helps how to improve yourself and to study the subject more, more clearly'*.

The 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire responses confirmed what had been observed and written. This subject had 9 years of English instruction before college. Unlike others, he had been to public and private schools. He experiences writing in both languages *'once a week'*. He rated writing as a *'very important'* skill to communicate in English although it is *'difficult'* in English but *'easy'* in Arabic. He did *'like'* Arabic writing but was not sure of his feeling about the English writing because he *'neither like nor dislikes'* it. He thinks that writing in English and Arabic is *'different'* in *'grammar, vocabulary and style'*. He rated vocabulary and content as *'very important'*, spelling, grammar and organization as *'not too important'* and punctuation as *'somewhat important'* for good writing. He was aware of what he wanted to improve to make his writing explicit and communicative. So, he *'needs no improvement'* in Arabic punctuation, spelling, vocabulary and grammar whereas he *'needs some improvement'* in organization and content in the same language. On the contrary, he *'needs much improvement'* in English vocabulary and content, *'little improvement'* in punctuation, grammar, and organization, but *'some improvement'* in spelling of English. His writing interests in English seem apparently more than those in Arabic. He *'most common'* writes letters in Arabic but *'not all common'* writes essays or homework in Arabic. He *'most common'* writes homework and *'rather*



*common* writes stories in English. He *'fairly common'* takes notes but *'not at all common'* to write letters or essays in English.

Responses to the 'Writing process Strategies' questionnaire revealed that this subject had *'never'* experienced this type of writing. He confirmed that he had *'never'* listed down ideas before writing in both languages. He *'never'* looked into dictionaries while writing in Arabic but he *'sometimes'* did during writing in English. He *'sometimes'* thought before writing but he *'rarely'* planned what to write in either language. He *'usually'* read question aloud and silently as well as asked peers and teacher while writing in both languages. Expressing his feeling while writing via this approach, he said that he felt it was *'neither difficult nor easy'* in Arabic whereas it was *'rather easy'* in English. His evaluation of L1 conventions impact on L2 revealed that it had *'some effect'* on most aspects. He specified the areas to which he wanted to pay attention. He wanted to pay *'most attention'* to grammar and vocabulary, *'rather attention'* to spelling and punctuation in English. He believes that Arabic and English are *'totally different'* in areas of grammatical structures, spelling, vocabulary and paragraphing. They are *'little different'* in organization but *'little similar'* in punctuation. He said that he *'often'* follows similar strategies when topics are similar. He *'always'* revised, rehearsed, read, checked form and content, and organised in English, but *'rarely'* did that in Arabic.

The 'Post-Writing' questionnaire asserted that this type of writing is *'totally different'* from those he used to and in order to produce a good piece of writing he needed to improve all the English writing skills such as form, content, and communicative skill. Consistent with previous responses, he assured that he considered grammatical structure, spelling, vocabulary, sentence connection, organization and paragraph building in English as *'very important'* whereas *'not important'* in Arabic. Evaluating his composing via this approach indicated that he produced a *'good'* writing in English but a *'fair'* one in Arabic. His writing in English differs from that in Arabic *'I try to think of the idea then I write'* but *'in English, I think more before I start writing. I get my ideas and think of the topic sentence to start with'*. His overall rating of this type of writing pointed out that he was *'satisfied'* with both compositions.

## APPENDIX 13

### Revising

Subject 1 did revise a lot and spend most of the time rereading and rehearsing, for example, she kept repeating the first part of the first sentence for 4 times *'the relationship between, the relationship between, the relationship between the students and teachers...'* to be sure of the words and how they could be structured together. When she was blocked she switched to L1 to make the construction clear in mind and then write it down. She also reread the second sentence for 3 times to see how it fit with the previous sentence (see appendix). Even in her Arabic first essay version she kept revising the first sentence for several times to find out the appropriate word. After struggling hard between various synonyms she made her mind up to write the word *'relationship'*. The subject revised for almost every mechanical aspect and organization as well as content (when I made mistakes *تره مرة ثانية؟* *'Let me see again'* what I have done).

She revised everything in her English second essay mainly the mechanics. The organization and content were not paid even a shy attempt because the subject was completely thinking in Arabic and she thought what she had written in English was not coherent. She revised for words (*what?* *شني؟*), looking for the word *'doctor'*. She also revised for how to start a new sentence (*حكينا على الروشن، توه نحكوا على الباب*) *'we*



have talked about the window, now we talk about the door). She revised for grammar (لني نشعر الزمن مضارع 'I feel it's present simple'). She stopped for rereading as well. She might have meant by that should read again the written sentences in case there was needed correction or rephrasing to confine with the previous text.

The Arabic first essay has not made much revising. Although the subject tried to revise but most of what she did was mainly focused on word choice but neglected or missed the other aspects such as punctuation, grammatical structure, organization and content. She kept repeating the first chunk of the topic sentence for several time in order to find out the suitable words ( لا صلة التواصل؟ لا . 'the relationship? No. The connection? No.') these two chunks were repeated for many times and finally she made her mind up to write 'the relationship'. Organization and content were not included in the revision because her paragraphing was randomly made up of scattered sentences. She spent a considerable time silent as if she were revising what had been written earlier. Similar strategies were adopted in revising the Arabic second essay at which many aspects were left unrefined.

The interview related questions show that this subject had the intention to revise but she did not approach it well. Responding to the question 'do you stop, read and revise what you write?', she said 'I stop and read in English more than I do in Arabic'. When asked 'do you revise your writing when you finish?' her answer was 'Yes, I do revise it' in English. Her responses concerning the Arabic essays were not consistent with what she had done in English. When asked whether she 'stop, read and revise your essays in Arabic while writing?', her answer was 'Not always, but only when I finish'. Such an answer was in accordance with the protocols and the written products. The question 'Do you revise your Arabic essays when you finish?' reflected what she exactly had done 'I read the whole essay and correct it'. Concerning how many drafts she used to write, her answer conformed with her observed writing revising behaviors 'In English, I write more than one copy, could be two, three, even four but I write just one copy in Arabic'.

Responses to the 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire related questions 11 and 12 reveal that the subject 'yes' had revised her essays in both languages and she had written 'three drafts' in Arabic and 'more' in English. However, the number of Arabic revised drafts does not correspond with her interview related question.

The 'Writing-Process Strategies' questionnaire related questions indicates that the subject 'always' revises Arabic and English essays. She 'sometimes' rehearse and reads when she finishes. She 'always' checks form and content which has not been consistent with what she actually did. She is not keen about organization because she only 'sometimes' revises it.

The 'Post-Writing' questionnaire related questions 8 and 9 explicitly clarify what she has done. She wrote '1 draft' in Arabic and '3 drafts' in English. 'What did you do when you finished your writing process?' was the last question in which she apparently explained that she had 'revised all the essay', 'checked form', and 'checked content' in Arabic and English.

Raters' overall evaluation of the English first essay production was similar to a large extent. The first rater thinks that it is 'quite a short piece and its meaning is not clear immediately'. She also thinks that the essay looks 'more like spoken rather than written English' because in addition to other reasons 'subject occasionally missed out pronouns'. Although the second rater has not given his overall comments, his views about this essay are not different from the first rater i.e. he thinks the subject had a problem with 'mid-sentence capitals' and produced 'poor tenses'. This means that the

subject's revision process was not successful enough to produce a neat and correct final piece of writing.

Evaluation of the English second essay was not better but even worse. As for the first rater she says '*I have a lot of sympathy! Quite weak in grammar and vocabulary*' which means the internal and final revisions were properly applied to figure out the errors in these two and other aspects. The second rater emphasized his earlier comments and added that the subject has used '*too many ands*' as a result, I think, of L1 interference, which predominates the Arabic non-standard rhetoric and style.

Subject 2, unlike subject 1, did not revise much while writing the English first essay but put off her mechanic corrections to the end. This does not mean that all these mechanics were corrected during the final revision. Table (8.3.1) shows that only 1 internal revision was made during this essay i.e. she reread the last sentence but one to see how she could use the final concluding sentence. This subject adopted the 'free writing' strategy in which she wrote down all her ideas and what might have come to mind while writing and postponed corrections to the final drafting process stage. Therefore, she spent a considerable time on final revision 7.2 minutes. During this time she revised for deletion, for instance, (*in first year, in first year when I was study in this university*) was changed into (*when I was study in first year*) after the final revision. Although the time of revision, the error proportion was 25% mostly spotted on mechanics, organization, and content, almost every aspect.

A quite different strategy was followed to revise the English second essay. In that, the subject revised almost every sentence and words before or while writing. She used a lot of Arabic to be sure of her sentence structures. She stopped and revised for vocabulary (*because there is many people, many students, موش people, 'not people', because there is many students....*) She revised for spelling (*I feel, I feel comftrble* 'متعها spelling *والله ما نعرف لـ* 'I swear to God I don't know its spelling' referring to 'comfortable.) She did the same things for several times with different aspects of mechanics. The final revision was not as focused as what she did through the first essay, but just read for a little correction. Many grammar mistakes and errors were left uncorrected (*my classroom seem clean*) or wrongly corrected (*It isn't have, has, modern communication.*) The error proportion was less than that in the first essay, 17%, i.e. the internal revision was more effective than the final one in the first essay.

The Arabic first essay gained some internal revisions but not a final one. Repetition was everywhere in the essay, mainly in vocabulary but no corrections were made in this area. Even when she wanted to change or correct anything she used that verbally not in text i.e. when she repeated a word or a sentence, she verbalized it several times but wrote it only once. Although there were many mechanical errors, she did not, or could not, correct them (*لم اقل انه لا يوجد مدرسين كفاء ولكنه الافضل* 'I did not say there were no qualified teachers like him, but he was the best of all') In this sentence, for instance, there are two grammatical errors (*qualified* as an adjective was used in its singular form to describe the plural noun 'teachers' and the plural subject 'teachers' was treated and written as an object) The final revision was not recorded if any despite the error proportion 16% was really rather high for L1.

The second Arabic essay gained more internal revision than the previous essay. The subject stopped for 6.2 minutes to reread what had been written and resume her writing with more confidence. She paused to make the appropriate sentence connectors but she most likely failed in that. She also stopped to think of what to write next (*لا استطيع استيعاب اي شئ، لتلك الاسباب.....، باهي مني ثني؟.....،* 'I cannot comprehend anything for the same reasons. Ok, what else? 'that I can write') Like the



first essay, the final revision was not effective enough to remedy many errors in all aspects.

The two Arabic essays were written almost with similar strategies. However, they were approached differently from the English essays. Concentration in English essays was directed to mechanics and what to write; whereas in Arabic was meant to how to write coherently and organizationally not matter whether she succeeded in that or not. The interview related questions translated the subjects' beliefs and attitudes about revising in general and English writing in particular. Answering the question '*Do you stop and read/revise your writing?*' she said '*Yes*'. Her answer to the question '*Do you revise your writing when you finish?*' was '*I revise once, or twice based on how simple the topic is*'. Her attitudes about writing in Arabic were the same. When asked if she 'stop, read or revise her essays' she said '*Yes I do*'. Her final revision in Arabic essays was almost similar to English '*I revise, I revise words, sometimes sentences that need to be changed*'. When asked about how many drafts she usually writes in both languages, she answered '*In English I write two drafts, sometimes three, in Arabic not more than two drafts*'. The last answer was not actually consistent with the number of drafts she wrote. Even worse, she did not revise the English first essay till she was asked to.

The 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire questions revealed that she had said 'Yes' for final revising in both languages. Inconsistent was she with her interview answers when answered the following question 'How many drafts did you write in English and in Arabic?' her answer was '*two drafts*' for each language. Responses to the 'Writing Process Strategies' questionnaire related question pointed out that the subject had '*always*' revised, rehearsed, and read for both languages. She '*often*' checked for form and content in both languages, but she '*sometimes*' focused on organization in either language.

Raters' overall evaluation of the subjects' English first written productions was '*a longer piece; however it is more narrative than an essay*' (Rater 1). '*I don't know what the point of the story was*' (Rater 2). The first rater was surprised by the spelling errors '*although mostly simple words are used*'.

The English second essay was not any better i.e. as the first rater says '*full stops ok, but needs capitals*'. This rater also comments on organization and content by '*quite simple, meaning comes across*'. That is, the organization of the essay was not clear; consequently, a careful reader may acquire the meaning if thinks more on the topic. The second rater's point of view was focused mainly on mechanics, like most traditional teachers of writing, but neglected the content and organization. He pointed out the subject had a problem with '*capitals*'.

Subject 3, as shown in table (4.3.1) has made 9 internal revisions and 1 final revision during the writing of the English first essay. Most of the internal revisions were focused on vocabulary (*they can made that part our life either heaven, heaven, or....., ....., looking for the word 'hell'*) word choice (*in my experience, or, on my experience*), sentence construction (كان المفروض هي قرتنا لكن هي ما قرتناش اصلا 'she was supposed to teach us, but she, basically, did not'), and grammar (*she cannot, she don't, did not تجي في الماضي* 'it must be used in the past tense' *she did not explain lessons*'). These revisions, as examples, reflect the revising strategies adopted by this subject to continue writing and correct her essay. Although the internal revision time 7.8 minutes was relatively long, the subject left many errors uncorrected.

The English second essay was written almost exactly as the first one but less in internal revisions 4, and the same final revision 1. She stopped for similar grammar corrections and word choice; however, this essay was given attention for punctuation



marks (*Our classes in the, our classes 'comma' in, on the first hand, on the first hand ....., .....*) The subject was concerned with the organization as well. When she was about to finish the final paragraph she said to herself (*conclusion لنسيرا الى 'let's write the conclusion'*.) The previous subjects have not mentioned this type of revision. The subject spent 7.9 minutes on internal revision but many more errors still exist. The significant alternations made during the revising process of the second essay can be detected from the revisions of punctuation marks and organization with error proportion 7% which was not considered rather high.

The first half of the Arabic first essay was written smoothly with no amendable corrections; whereas, the second half maintained 5 internal revisions and 1 final revision. She paused to look for word choice but not for anything else although the overall error proportion 19% was so high for an L1 essay like this.

The Arabic second essay was revised similarly. The first part was written fluently except the first sentence, which seemed giving her a hard time to be restructured in an appropriate way, although in a little bit slow motion. The subject made clear that she always had difficulty to prepare and write down the first sentence (*the problem is always in the beginning, how to say the first word.*) Repetition did not mean revising while writing even when she repeated the words or phrase for several times but she was thinking of what to write next or what appropriate words she might use. 3 internal revisions and 1 final revision were made throughout this essay.

A comparison between the English and Arabic essays uncovers the fact the subject had real difficulty in textualizing the English essays and needs longer time to write. She had also difficulty in figuring out the proper grammatical structures, vocabulary choice and punctuation, which are less problematic in Arabic. Organization and content seemed more difficult in English more than they are in Arabic.

The 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire responses revealed that the subject had 'Yes' revised her essays, in both languages, after finishing them. Answering the question 'how many drafts did you write in English and in Arabic?', she said that wrote 'one draft' on the Arabic essays but 'more than three drafts' on the English ones.

The 'Writing Process Strategies' questionnaire related question indicated that she had 'always' revised in both languages but 'often' rehearsed. She 'rarely' read what she written in both languages, which was consistent with her protocols. She 'never' checked form in Arabic but 'always' did in English. Content was important to her and she 'always' checked it in both languages. She 'often' paid attention to organization in Arabic and 'always' did in English. She is distinguished from other subjects because she was the only subject who paid attention to other possibilities and explained what she sometimes would do 'Sometimes I changes the whole writing'.

Responses to the 'Post-Writing' questionnaire showed inconsistency with the other responses i.e. while she said she could write up to 'more than three drafts' in English, her answer to the same question here revealed that she wrote only 'one draft' for each essay in both language.

The raters' overall evaluation of the English first essay written products was inconsistent in terms of grades i.e. while the first rater's grading proportion were as follows, 47% on grammatical constructions, 53% on organization, and 50% on cohesion and cohesive devices, the second rater's were much better, 65% On grammatical constructions, 67% on organization, and 60% on cohesion and cohesive devices. The first rater's overall comment has been 'the writer makes a strong point, with some interesting details'.

The English second essay ratings were inconsistent as follows 57% on the grammatical constructions, 67% on the organization and 80% on cohesion and cohesive devices. The second rater's grades were 74% on grammatical constructions, 60% on the organization and 50% on cohesion and cohesive devices. The first rater's overall comments on topic two are *'This student uses some learned phrases well, on the first hand. On the other hand moreover, but these are in contrast with the student's own level of grammar and vocabulary'*.

Subject 4 made 4 internal and 1 final revisions before submitting her English first essay as shown in (table 4.3.1). She paused for 7.3 minutes to read, rehearse and restructure various sentences. She spent almost 1 minute restructuring the opening sentence of this essay (*In my academic life I haven't ever meet, meet a teacher who could make us, make us, make students, a teacher who could make students, students hate him as in this year, as in this year, in this university, 'no' in this? In this ahhh, in this course....*) She stopped to read previous sentences to make sure that the following one looks consistent and conveys the meaning when the vocabulary available (*because the material يطبق 'apply' because it's not ....., ....., ....., and the method uhhhh, the method that he uses, uses or material in teaching, the material ما تجيش 'cannot be said this way' the materials 'No' ....., are not consistent....*) Although the subject made many internal revisions, her final draft revision was not successful because there were many mechanical errors left uncorrected 10%. The problem of punctuation was not given special focus despite its importance in paragraph cohesion. Some words choice was not appropriate because of the apparent L1 interference (*I classified to talk about him*).

The internal revisions, in the English second topic, were much, two thirds 12, higher than those in the first topic although one final revision was made her too. It is interesting that many more internal revisions made during the easier essay. Most revisions were made here to reconstruct sentences which came to the subjects mind and she wanted to refurbish and reformulate them (*there are, there are many difference and a few similarities ahhh, more, in Libya, in our classrooms, in, in, in Libya, in Libyan, Libyan university, in our Libyan university.*) she used to write the sentence into chunks and then revise each one to make sense of these chunks together. She also stopped to remember and collect what she wanted to write about. When she revised the previous sentences she remembered too many things unwritten (why I am talking about that, the advantages and disadvantages, ummmmm, نسينا عليه حاجات هنا 'we have forgotten many things here') She revised for grammatical structures as well (*unhealthy atmosphere which students, students forced to 'can it be like that?' I hope so....*). The subject spent 9 minutes revising this essay. It was apparent that these revisions had resulted in less error proportion 7% than the first essay. It was clear that the subject had used more Arabic in her internal revisions than she did in the first essay.

The first Arabic essay was subject to 3 internal and 1 final revisions. 1.3 minutes were spent on revision out of the total time 13 minutes. Most of the revisions intervals were focused on the word choice. Although punctuation marks were mostly wrong, they were neglected and not revised. Too many grammar and spelling errors were not corrected. The error proportion was so high for L1 16%. The subject might be aware of her vocabulary problem but not of the other language aspects. Although of the fact that she had problems in various aspects, the subject was fluent and stimulated to write this essay.

The Arabic second essay was internally for 7 times and final 1 revisions as (table 8.3.1) shows. This essay was given a double longer time 26 minutes of which 2.4



minutes were specified for internal revision (table 8.3.3). Error proportion 12% was almost twice higher than that of the first essay. The most revising focus was attended to sentence connection to produce coherent paragraphs. Grammar, subject-verb agreement, punctuation marks, prepositions, and redundancy were left uncorrected. It is apparent the internal revisions were more in the English essays than the Arabic ones. However, the focus was almost similar i.e. the subject was concerned with sentence structure and connection but did was not successful. She tried to use suitable words in both essays.

The interview related questions were consistent with the protocols and the actual written products. Answering the question *'Do you stop and read/revise your writing?'*, she said *'Of course, to connect sentences'*. When asked whether she revises her essays in English when finishing, she confidently said *'Of course. I revise them about three or, about two or three times'*. Her answers concerning Arabic essays revision were not similar to the about English. Responding to the question *'Do you stop read/revise your essays in Arabic while writing?'* her answer was *'sometimes, not much'*. Also her answer to the final revision in Arabic was different from English *'Of course, but only once. I always correct spelling mistakes when I revise'*. Drafts in each language are also different in terms of number. When asked how many drafts she usually writes in each language, her answer was *'three in English and one in Arabic'*. Responses to the 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire related questions are consistent with the protocols, observation and interview questions. When asked *'did you revise after finishing your writing in English and Arabic?'* she ticked the 'yes' boxes for both languages. Alike responses have been gained concerning the drafts number i.e. the subject ticked the *'one draft'* box for Arabic and *'three drafts'* box for English.

The 'Writing Process Strategies' questionnaire related question responses reflected that the subject *'always'* revised, rehearsed, read, checked form and content, and organized after she had finished writing her essays in both languages.

The related questions in the 'Post-Writing' questionnaire were answered similarly but not identically to the previous related questions in the other questionnaires. When asked *'how many drafts did you write in Arabic and in English'* she ticked *'one draft'* box for Arabic and *'two drafts'* box for English. More explanation has been given to what she did when she had finished writing. She ticked the 'stopped writing' and 'revised all the essay' boxes for Arabic; whereas, she 'stopped writing', 'revised all the essay', checked for form' and 'checked for content' in English. Unfortunately what she said was not actually reflected on her final written productions i.e. it was not clearly effective because the error proportion on each topic seemed high particularly in Arabic.

What I have indicated above has been asserted by the raters' views about the written productions. The overall grading of the first essay, according to the first rater, was 57% for grammatical constructions, 53% for organization, and 60% for cohesion and devices. The first rater's overall comments were *'Interesting, this subject uses complex vocabulary and his/her message comes across powerfully, despite some weaknesses in the grammar'*.

The second rater's grades were more positive and motivating. He gave 71% for grammar constructions, 60% for organization, and 70% for cohesion and cohesive devices. The overall comments were also different from the first rater *'need more sentences'* he might be referring to the sentence connection or sentence structure.

The English second essay has obtained less grades but similar overall comments from the first rater. The grammatical constructions were given 51%, the organization was



rated for 60%; while the cohesion and cohesive devices were given 50%. The overall comment was *'Again, a strong message. It would be improved by more careful use of punctuation and paragraphing'*.

The second rater has graded the essay as follows, 74% for grammatical constructions, 60% for organization, and 70% for cohesion and cohesive devices. The overall comments were *'sentences too long'*.

Subject 5 adopted the writing strategy that made her revise everything before getting it on paper. That is, she used to repeat every word, phrase, or sentence for several times before writing it down. She made 10 internal revisions and 1 final revision (table 8.3.1). She spent 3.5 minutes on rereading and pausing to revise what she had written (table 8.3.2). Although this subject made internal revising for almost everything as well as the final revision, her error proportion seemed rather higher. She revised for word choice (*كيف خلال الشرح متعبها؟* 'How can I say during her explanation') for grammar (*Although this subject was, this subject is, was* 'كيف.... كانت' 'How can I write was?' *was or not?*) Looking for what comes next (*كانت تعطينا الدرس.... شن انقول؟ كل*) 'she was teaching us the lesson, what may I say? We all students were not.....). The final revision underwent similar strategies. In other words, she heavily relied on L1 to revise her final draft. Most of the revision was focused on punctuations marks (my teacher in high school, *لندير فاصلة هنا* 'I use a comma here') Word choice and tenses were not taken care of because she might not know the alternatives even in Arabic (*and talk with us and make jokes in first part of share.....*) she wanted to say 'and she was talking to us and making jokes during the first half of the lesson'. The students focused her final revision for punctuation mark at which she inserted 9 of them but not necessarily appropriate What amazing here is that the subject used her teacher's words between inverted commas (*she were say "I want your feel I am a student like you. I don't want you feel I am a teacher"*) The concern about the advance stage of writing is not consistent with the mess she has made with the basics.

The English second essay was subject to 5 internal revisions and 1 final revision. Less time in general and less revision time were observed, 25 minutes for writing and 2.2 minutes for revising. Error proportion was less to the half 11% if compared with the first essay. During the internal revising, the subject had paid more attention, as usual, to word choice by switching to L1. She did not pay much attention to capitalization, punctuation, tenses, subject-verb agreement and prepositions. (*I think our classrooms are bad, Because.....*), (*because history subject depended on understand it more than read it*), (*The size of classrooms are not wide*), and (*the classrooms must be provided by different equipment*) respectively. Focus was attended to punctuation through the final revision i.e. 10 corrections were made but were not totally accurate.

The Arabic first essay was internally revised 3 times and 1 final revision. She spent 18 minutes on writing this essay out of which 1.7 minutes were specified for internal revisions. During the internal revision, the subject was concerned with punctuation, and word choice. The final revision was characterised by concentration on punctuation marks more than anything else. She had reinserted 8 punctuation marks in her final revision; however, some of them were not accurately used. Her Arabic grammar was good enough but she had problems in spelling. Carelessness on the part of spelling raised her proportion to 18% to make it so high for L1.

Internal revisions in the Arabic second essay were raised to 7 but no final revision was heard because the tape was ended and the subject did use the spare tape for revision. Although the total writing time was less than the first essay the written words were more, which resulted in a higher error proportion 24%. Fewer revisions were made

but concentration was not mainly focused on punctuation similar to that in the first essay. The subject did not revise this essay well the fact that resulted in more grammatical and punctuation errors. Also sentence construction was a problematic area for this subject (وكنالك يجب على الفصول الدراسية ان تكون واسعة) *'also the classrooms must wide their own'*) Such a construction was expected to occur in English essays but not in L1 essays.

If we compare the internal revisions in both languages, we find out that the English essays have gained more revising time than the Arabic essays; however the error proportion in the Arabic second topic was much higher than the others. Concentration was mainly directed to punctuation in the English two essays and Arabic first essay but in the second one. Other language aspects were unrefined for one reason or another.

The interview responses were consistent in terms of the general revising process but not specifically oriented. When asked 'do you stop read and revise your English writing?' she said *'Yes I do'*. Responding to 'do you revise your writing when you finish?' her answer was *'I always revise my essays'*. Concerning Arabic essays revisions, her answer to the question 'do you stop, read, and revise your essays in Arabic while writing?' she said *'yes, in order to make coherent essays'*. She also said *'yes I always do revise'* when answered 'do you revise your essays in Arabic when you finish?', but she explained in detail what she always revises *'in Arabic I always revise my essays because I sometimes forget some words such as the prepositions and this is the same problem I have in English as well'*. She admitted that she does not revise for paragraphing, organization or content *'No, no, no'* confirming that she is not used to revise them. When asked how many drafts she usually writes, she said *'I write one copy, draft in Arabic but, frankly, I have a problem in English. I firstly, write the rough paper then I rewrite it'*.

The related questions in the 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire confirmed that the subject had revised after finishing her Arabic and English essays. She ticked the 'Yes' boxes for both languages. Contrary to the observation, protocols, and the first questionnaire responses, the subject ticked the 'None' box for Arabic drafts; whereas, she ticked the 'One draft' box for English drafting.

The related question of the 'Writing Process Strategies' questionnaire revealed that the subject had 'often' revised and checked form, 'always' read, 'sometimes' rehearsed and organized, but 'rarely' checked content in Arabic. She had 'always' revised, rehearsed, read and organized; 'often' checked form and content after completing her essays in English.

The related question in the 'Post-Writing' questionnaire conformed to questionnaire 1 but not to other data collection instruments i.e. the subject ticked the 'None' drafts for Arabic and '1 draft' for English. When asked 'what did you do when you finished your writing process?' she ticked *'revised all the essay'* box in Arabic but *'checked form'* box in English.

Raters' overall grading was not consistent. That is, while the first rater's grades were 45% for grammatical constructions, 40% for organization, and 60% for cohesion and cohesive devices, the second rater gave her 54%, 60% and 30% respectively. The overall comment of the first rater was that this subject had adopted a *'narrative description'* as well as her *'handwriting Ts distorted the writing'* and unfortunately *'it looks worse than it is'*. The second rater's overall comment was concerned with mechanical and connectives problems such as *'use of and, and capitals'*.

The English second essay rating was as follows 42% for grammatical constructions, 40% for organization, and 50% for cohesion and cohesive devices, by the first rater.



The second rater's grades were inconsistent here as well 62%, 60% and 30% respectively. The first rater's overall comments were clear and reflecting the actual state of production *'Very long sentences, more like spoken than written English. Capitals in middle of words distorted writing again. Missing articles makes the writing weak'*. The second rater's overall comments conform the first one in terms of *'sentences too long'* and *'capitals'*.

Subject 6 made 5 internal revisions while writing and 1 final revision when finished her English first essay as table (4.3.1) shows. Most of the verbalizing and writing time was devoted to repetition and revising. She spent 15 minutes on writing out of which 9.7 minutes were spent on internal revising. Although she produced a very short essay with all this time of revision, her error proportion was so high 28%. Most internal revisions were specified for word choice and sentence construction. However, the subject was really poor and had problems in all aspects of language. Her revising process was not effective i.e. there was no clear evidence that the subject had applied the internal or final revision successfully. There were some pure Arabic structures inserted in the English essay such as *'teacher grammar'* instead of *'grammar teacher'* or *'teacher of grammar'*. Even the included written Arabic words in the essay were wrongly used and were not edited (تدريس طرق *'methods teaching'* instead of *'teaching methods'*). Spelling and punctuation marks were not corrected either.

Although the English second essay was full of errors, it gained only 3 internal revisions but no final revision was made. The shortest total time 5 minutes including 1.2 minutes for revision were spent to write it down it down which resulted in very high error proportion 28%. In fact, the subject total reliance on L1 made her English essay so difficult to understand or what she was going to say. Moreover, the used Arabic chunks used were wrongly translated in the written products (الدول الخارجية *'the foreign countries'* was translated into *'Dohle out twardness'*), which does not make sense even for an Arab reader. Spelling mistakes were not edited neither were grammatical structures. Word choice was poor (*this all from sabbatarian*) to say *'those in charge'*.

Both English essays were badly written without any revising attention. The subject was so poor in both producing her essays and editing them.

The Arabic first essay was not better than its counterpart in English but might be even worse. She made only 2 internal revisions but no final one. The time spent on writing this topic was 12 minutes out of which 2.2 minutes were specified for internal revisions. No matter how the revisions were processed, the final error proportion was dramatically high, even higher than the English essay. Errors were everywhere of language aspects, grammar, spelling, punctuation, word choice. It was so poor. The basics of Arabic spelling and transcription were very poor.

The Arabic second essay was even worse. 1 internal revision but no final revision was made. Writing time was minimized to 5 minutes in total including 1.1 minutes for revision, which was useless and totally ineffective by any means. It did not take the form of written Arabic but not more scattered words of scattered spoken utterances.

The only comparison between both languages essays can be seen in that the subject writing competence and academic level are so poor.

The responses to interview related questions are totally inconsistent with what has been produced. When asked *'do you stop, read and revise your writing?'* she said *'Yes, I, for example, write the first sentence and read it. Then I (bring) write the next sentence'*. When asked *'do you revise writing when you finish?'* she unlikely, emphasized that she *'Yes, I read and revise it'*. When she was asked *'what do you exactly revise?'* she was aware of what she was saying and seemed committed to it,



she said *'I firstly start reading the paragraph and spotting what is wrong. I say the spelling is wrong, and sometimes I say that the sentence is not well organized and does not make sense with the other sentences'*. If she really did revise, errors ought to be reduced. She was observed applying some revision because she was ordered to revise but was not spotted she pretending to do that. When asked about what she usually does when writing in Arabic 'do you stop, read and revise your essays in Arabic while writing? She said *'Yes, I reread them and continue writing'*. Responding to the question 'do you revise your Arabic essays when you finish?' she confirmed 'Yes' which totally contradict with her protocols and written products in which no final revisions were made on the Arabic essays. Answering 'how many drafts do you usually writing in each language?' she said *'I usually write the main ideas on the rough copy then I write the final draft, I mean two drafts. In Arabic I write only one draft'*.

The 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire answers showed not only inconsistency but also conflict between what has been said and written. When asked 'did you revise after finishing your writing in English and in Arabic?' she ticked the 'Yes' boxes for both languages, which in fact was not true. Also her answer to the question 'How many drafts did you write in English and in Arabic?' she randomly ticked the 'one draft' boxes for both languages, which in fact, does not exist in Arabic at least.

The 'Writing process strategies' questionnaire indicated that the subject *'often'* revised after she had finished the Arabic essays while She *'always'* revised the English essays. She also said that she *'always'* rehearsed, read, checked form and content and organized her English essays; whereas, she *'always'* rehearsed, read, and checked form; *'often'* checked content, and *'rarely'* organized Arabic essays.

The 'Post-Writing' questionnaire emphasizes contradictions between the suppositions and actual facts of this subject's behaviours. When asked 'how many drafts did you write in Arabic and in English?' she ticked the *'one draft'* boxes for both languages. Responding to the question 'what did you do when you finished your writing process?' she ticked the *'revised all the essay'* of both languages.

Raters' overall grading was almost negatively similar. The first rater's grade was 31% for the grammatical constructions, 33% for organization, and 30% for cohesion and cohesive devices. The second rater was not much different i.e. 28%, 26% and 10% respectively. The first rater's overall comments were negative in terms of communication and understand as well as a negative attitude about Arabic used words *'very difficult to understand. I wish I could read Arabic'*. The second rater was much more disappointed *'impossible to read'*.

The English second essay rating was not different from the first one but even worse. The first rater's grading was 28% for grammar constructions, 13% for organization, and 20% for cohesion and cohesive devices. The second rater gave her 34%, 20% and 10% respectively. The first rater admitted that the use of Arabic affected her assessment *'hard to assess because of number of Arabic words'* and *'this is even harder to understand than essay 1'*. The second rater's overall comment was clear and short cut *'impossible to read'* meaning communication is impossible at all.

Subject 7 was not any better than the previous subject mostly in everything. She was the only subject who revised her English first essay for 9 internal and 2 final revisions. She spent the longest time ever on writing 45 minutes but her revising time was comparatively short 4.8 minutes, which resulted in rather higher proportion of errors, 27%. The subject's internal revisions took the form of repetition and searching for word choice (*مرحلة* 'stage, class' كيف 'how can I write that?'). Editing took place for sentence construction (*I have teacher, I have teacher, teacher and teacher,*

*teacher?* (كيف نكتبها؟) 'I like this teacher. How can I write this?'. She edited for grammar (she has simple subject, subjects, subject, I write subject ما فيش فرق مفرد لو جمع 'there is no difference singular or plural). Her final revision was concerned with various things such as sentence construction (*I want to write about good teacher in three* الصف الثالث 'third class' *I, I teachered* درستني 'she taught me' aaa, ....., *I teachered* هذا غلط 'this is wrong' she meant the sentence structure is wrong) and many more examples of editing on different aspects. However, most of the editing was ineffective.

The English second essay was given sharply less internal revisions 3 and 1 final revision. The total time spent on this essay writing was very short 16 minutes out of which 3 minutes were allocated for revision. The error proportion was tremendously high 39%, which refers to the ineffective and useless revision and editing. The subject similar strategies in writing and revising i.e. she relied on L1 to construct sentences and similarly she did while revising. She revised for sentence structure (*I, I, I feel, I feel it is not, is not ahhhh* احس انه غير مناسب للدراسة 'I feel it is not suitable for studying, learning' *I feel is not....*) (*They are* لا، لا غلط، غلط نشطب عليها 'No, no, wrong, wrong, I cross it out') these are not the only revisions made but there are too many more.

The Arabic first topic was written in a different way i.e. more likely outlines than being an essay, in terms of form let alone the content. Although it was given 4 internal revisions, the final revision was forgotten. It took up 16 minutes to be completed but only 2.5 minutes for internal revising. The error proportion was 21%, which is considered too high for L1. Although the essay was full of mechanical errors, none of them was corrected. The use of spoken Arabic was not eradicated or edited. Even the English words, which were transcribed into an Arabic form was not corrected although it's hard to write or read, specially, for those who don't know English.

The Arabic second essay was shorter in content but larger in errors. The subject spent only 10 minutes including 0.2 minutes for revising, which mean she did not revise at all except for one thing, which was apparently clear in the written production of this essay. She made only one internal revision but no final. The error proportion was so high 28% and unbearable for L1. the essay, if might be called, was written in some broken chunks of Arabic words more likely meaningless or difficult to comprehend. No sentence connection was clear as well as unclear spelling and punctuation marks have hindered the reader from what was meant.

A brief comparison between the English and Arabic essays support the fact that this subject was unable to produce writing in either language not only in organization and content but also in form and mechanical problems.

The interview related questions reflect that there is discrepancy between what this subject alleged and assume and what she actually wrote. When asked 'do you stop, read and revise your writing?' she said 'I do' if she really did, what did she do? Responding the question 'do you revise your writing when you finish?' she confidently said 'I do revise'. More explicitly she was asked 'what do you revise?' she confirmed that 'I, firstly, revise the style and I might have made a mistake somewhere, but more likely I revise the spelling, the content and sentence connection' Isn't that too much for the essays at hand? Concerning her Arabic essays she repeated what she had said about English although she had not made any final revisions. 'Do you stop, read and revise your essays in Arabic while writing?' she untruthfully said 'Yes I stop and revise'. When asked 'do you revise your Arabic essays when you finish?' her answer was untrue too 'Yes I revise'. When asked about 'how many drafts do you usually write in each language?' she said 'In English most likely two drafts,



*and sometimes three. In Arabic always two drafts*'. Although her English revisions support her claim, the Arabic was not actually revised.

The 'background and Attitudes' questionnaire pointed out that this subject had ticked the 'Yes' boxes for both languages concerning final revision which did not match what she had really done. She was consistent in the number of drafts by ticking the '*one draft*' box in Arabic and '*two drafts*' box in English.

The Writing Process Strategies' questionnaire related question 'do you do any of the following after finishing your compositions in Arabic and in English?' pointed out that she 'sometimes' revised and read for Arabic but she 'always' revised for English. She also 'sometimes' read for English. She '*often*' rehearsed, checked form and content, and organized for both languages.

The 'Post-Writing' questionnaire 'how many drafts did you write in Arabic and in English?' was answered '*one draft*' each. When asked 'what did you do when you finished your writing process?' she ticked the '*revised all the essay*' and '*checked form*' boxes for both languages.

Raters' overall grading was somewhat consistent i.e. rater 1 gave her 34% for grammatical constructions, 26% for organization, and 40% cohesion and cohesive devices; whereas, rater 2 was worse, 28%, 26% and 10% respectively.

The first rater's overall comments were so moderate '*the writing makes some sense even without knowing all Arabic words. Presumably, vocabulary is an area for this student to focus on*'. The second rater was less sympathetic '*problems in full stops and capitals; impossible to read*'.

The second topic of English was almost the same in terms of grading. The first rater graded it as 34% for grammatical constructions, 33% for organization and 30% for cohesion and cohesive devices. The second rater was not much different i.e. 37%, 26%, and 30% respectively.

The first rater's overall comments were more positive than the first essay '*The first half of the essay is much easier to understand than the second part, as these key words are written in Arabic*'. The second rater seemed unsatisfied with the essay '*full stops*' and '*none*' concerning the articles.

Subject 8 was characterized by not making much revision either internal or final. She made 2 internal and 1 final revisions because the total time was not long enough 11 minutes out of which 3.1 minutes were spent on revising. The error proportion was high as for the subject did pay much attention to what she had been writing. The final draft shows no feasible correction in many aspects. The majority of the formal errors were left uncorrected either because she did not how to correct or might not be concerned with them. Although she made some attempts to correct some spelling mistakes, some corrections were wrongly implemented '*litretur*' into '*letreture*'. The subject had apparent grammatical problematic weaknesses, particularly with tenses the fact that she kept swinging between simple past, past perfect, or simple present as well as 'if' conditions, beginning with 'and', 'pronouns' and 'articles' '*may be because he left a good impression in me. He always, always tries to explain everything...*' '*And if we make any mistake, he would correct it for you*'. Despite the subject was thinking in English, most of her structures sound Arabic rhetorically oriented '*And even if you weren't concentrating on what he was saying, when you back home. You find yourself memorizing what he had been explaining*', for example, it is very common to begin an Arabic sentence with 'and' but not English sentences.

Longer total time 22 minutes and a little more revising time 3.7 were specified for the completion of the English second essay. Longer essay was produced with more error proportion 22% as a result of unfocused editing and revising. The first sight at the



error proportion frustrates the editor. It is clear that very few words have been corrected or alternated while the majority were left with no change. This indicates that the subject does not know how and what to revise. She did not stop to reread or rehearse what she wrote which made her essay somewhat badly connected either because of the lack of punctuation marks or the improper use of them.

Like the first essay, many errors were left uncorrected. That is, errors in third pronoun and simple word spelling '*it contain many disks*', modal verbs and articles '*it must has enough desks and table...*', noun-pronoun agreement '*the advantages of this kind of class room it helps student....*', and capitalization and miss-use of verbs '*our normal classroom it is nearly lack all of these elements....*'. These are a few example samples of what had been verbalized and written let alone the organization and content.

The Arabic first essay, shamefully, suffered from distorted planning, writing and revising. Only 1 internal and final revisions were made which resulted in an unreadable essay. 20 minutes were spent to have this essay completed out of which 2.4 minutes were presumably allocated for revising. Errors are unbearable and error proportion is unimaginable 48%. There are errors everywhere and in every aspect beginning with basic elements and simple words to the advanced ones. The subject not only has problems in words, phrases and sentences but also how he wrote the letters. She writes the way she way she talks. The first essay has never been inlaid with any punctuation marks except a couple of full stops one of them is the final mark that automatically inserted at the end of the text. Spelling errors are countless so to speak. Some misspelled words are confusing and have forced me to check more than one source to be sure that I am wrong judging what I read. Sentential transition and paragraph building seem totally absent. Syntactic errors point out that this subject's Arabic background is almost nil.

The Arabic second essay gained 2 internal revisions and 1 final revision. Total writing time was reduced almost to the half 11minutes whereas the revising times 2.7 minutes seemed a little bit longer than the first essay. Although error proportion 46% was a little bit less the first essay, it was dramatically high for L1. The revising attempts were directed to word choice neglecting the too many other errors uncorrected such as spelling, punctuation, grammar, organization and content. All these aspects were not looked at for the sake of correction even through the final revision process.

Comparing both-language essays reveals that the subject needs not only more tutoring in English but she desperately needs some intensive courses in Arabic before that.

Concerning the interview related questions the subject is so eloquent and convincing when answered and defended her point of view. Responding to the question 'do you stop, read and revise your writing?' she said '*Not always, when I finish I revise*' but when the question was explained, she said '*oh yes, I do*' which seemed untraceable in her written products. Answering the question 'do you revise your writing when you finish?' she said '*Yes*' '*If I feel that something lack I have to revise it more than once*'. She also continued '*Yes, yes, but sometimes I feel I am not very satisfied but when someone read it he find it very good. But, smilingly, I don't like composition very much*'. '*I don't know why, may because I like poetry, as I told you*'. Responding to the following question 'do you stop, read and revise your essays in Arabic while writing?' she said '*Yes*'. Also she was sure when asked 'do you revise your Arabic essays when you finish?' to say '*Yes*'. I do not know what would have happened if her answers were '*no*'. Her answer to the 'how many drafts do you usually write in each language?' she said '*It depends on what I am writing. In Arabic I always write just one draft*'.

The 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire related question responses point out that subject has ticked the 'Yes' boxes for both languages for the question 'did you revise after finishing your writing in English and in Arabic?' 'How many drafts did you write in English and in Arabic?' was answered as '*one draft*' for Arabic and '*two drafts*' for English.

The 'Writing Process strategies' questionnaire shows that subject '*always*' revised in Arabic and English. She '*rarely*' rehearsed in Arabic but '*always*' in English. She '*always*' read in both languages. She '*often*' checked form and content in Arabic while she '*always*' did so in English. She '*never*' looked after organization in Arabic; however, she '*sometimes*' did in English.

The 'Post-Writing' questionnaire responses did not conform to the previous responses, interview, or written products. To answer the question 'how many drafts did you write in Arabic and in English?' she ticked the '*one draft*' box for both languages. When asked 'what did you do when you finished your writing process?' she ticked the '*stopped writing*' and '*revised all the essay*' boxes for both languages.

Raters' grading rates were almost similar for the English first essay by the two raters. The first rater's grading was 74% for grammatical constructions, 80% for organization, and 80% for cohesion and cohesive devices. The second rater's grades were 71%, 80% and 80% respectively. The first rater's overall comments were '*The first sentence is weak, but the quality of writing after that is much better*'. This comment was meant to be '*after 1<sup>st</sup> sentence*'. The second rate did not say much but although of the over '*use of 'and''*' he though the subject was '*excellent*'.

The second essay was graded as 60% for grammatical constructions, 46% for organization, and 60% for cohesion and cohesive devices. The second rater thought it was even better, 68%, 80% and 70% respectively. The first rater's overall comments were 'student often joins 'a' onto next word' but in all 'better punctuation would really improve this'. The rater asked if the subject had enough time to write her conclusion '*did the student have enough time to write a conclusion? Compare organization of the 2 essays*'.

Subject 9 made 2 internal revisions but no final. He spent 15 minutes at a total time but only 2.7 minutes for unsuccessful internal revisions, which resulted in error proportion 23%. The internal revisions were specified to how he could start a new sentence. His protocols assured that he was concerned with punctuation marks more than other aspects from the beginning (*I met several, several, several teachers, teachers and doctors, doctors full stop ....*) (*Some of them was very good comma.*) He did not pay any attention to the grammar errors (*some of them was..*) Capitalization gained some attention (*and capital letters, capital letter*). Although he seemed concerned with capitalization, much of this was wrongly approaches (*and the good Background*). He began a new sentence with a small letter (*another example is that..*) He used Arabic structures (*In my life academic....*) Even worse he used structures which seem neither Arabic nor English (*And in my thoughts....*) Spelling and possessive 's' (*I met sveral teachers and Doctor's*) The sentence contain three formal errors. The Arabic 'And' connector clearly affected the writing of this essay. All these samples reflect the lack of revision or the poor revising strategies.

The English second essay was similarly revised i.e. 2 internal revisions but no final revision, so it was not any better. It took him 20 minutes out of which 1.0 minute was devoted for internal revising. Error proportion was exactly the same 23%. The subject was totally obsessed by punctuation marks i.e. he used them everywhere in a wrong way (*my class room has about fifty chairs. and one black board. and three windows. and one door. and lights*). Even 'and' is never used this way in Arabic. The subject



was totally confused while writing this essay. He wrote the first speaker pronoun 'I' in the small character (*And if i wont to compare it with the modal class rooms i have seen....*). Spelling mistakes were a lot (*differences bitween...*) subject-verb agreement was so poor in many places (*the class rooms which I have seen is very good and sutible..*). However, focus was directed, as usual, to punctuation (*my classroom has about fifty chairs, and one blackboard full stop and three windows full stop, and one door full stop*) (*for example comma...*) as the protocols revealed. He revised for only one word when he stopped and said (*I want to use the dictionary*) to look for 'laboratory'.

The subject has adopted similar revising strategies in the English essay. He was concerned with the minimal mechanical aspects.

The subject was more concerned about internally revising his Arabic essays. He spent much longer time on Arabic than he did on English essays. He made 6 internal revisions but no final one. He spent 31 minutes writing and verbalizing this essay out of which 4.1 minutes were specified for internal revising; however, error proportion was higher than its counterpart in English. The subject adopted similar revising strategies to those he had adopted for the English essays. That is, punctuation gained some focus whereas the main concern was devoted to word choice to characterize the Arabic essays. This is expected because the vocabulary repertoire is richer in Arabic than in English, which helps the subject to use as many synonyms as possible.

The Arabic second essay gained 4 internal revisions but no final. Similar time length was spent to complete the essay with less revising time, 2.4 minutes. Error proportion 21% was a little less than the other essays. This essay was distinguished from the first one by that focus was mainly directed to punctuation. Unlike the earlier essays, his protocols and written products indicated that he had been aware of the differences between full stops and commas

(*.... حوالي اربعين مقعدا، فاصلة، وسبورة، فاصلة ثانية، ونوافذ، فاصلة، واضاءة، فاصلة، comma. And a blackboard, another comma, and windows, comma, and light, comma*.) This sample reveals that the subject was so concerned with punctuation in Arabic as well. He also tried to revise for organization by reading back and forth while writing. Obviously, the subject has applied some type of revision to correct some grammatical errors and refurbish some vocabulary items more than he did in the English second essay.

The interview related questions responses were not consistent with observation, protocols, and written products in English because he did not do any of the final revision. When asked 'do you stop, read and revise your writing?' he promptly said 'I always do'. Answering the question 'do you revise your writing when you finish?' he said 'I revise it only once'. Likely his responses concerning Arabic writing revisions did not conform to the actual behaviours while and after writing. When asked 'do you stop, read and revise your essays in Arabic while writing?' he said 'No, I don't do that in Arabic. I sometimes write two or three pages without looking back or revising what I have written'. Observation and protocols showed that he had made a lot of revisions, repeating, editing and rereading while writing not only in Arabic but also in English. Responding to 'do you revise your Arabic essays when you finish?' he said 'It depends on the time left. If I have enough time, I sometimes revise, otherwise I hand in without revision because I am sure of what I have done'. When asked 'what do you revise, specifically?' he said 'the content, not the form errors' which does not conform to the actual behaviour of the revising process. When asked if he had a problem in Arabic spelling, he said 'Not at all. I studied the Holy Quran when I was young and I grasped all the writing system in Arabic'. However, the error proportion in his final



Arabic drafts does not conform what he alleged. When asked 'how many drafts do you usually write in both languages?' he said '*In Arabic 'I write' one draft. In English, two*'.

The 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire responses are in consistent with the final written products in terms of Arabic. When asked 'did you revise after finishing your writing in English and in Arabic?' he ticked the 'Yes' boxes for both languages. The responses to the 'how many drafts did you write in English and in Arabic?' he ticked the '*none*' for Arabic and '*one draft*' for English.

Response to the 'Writing Process Strategies' reveals that the subject '*never*' revised or rehearsed for Arabic but '*always*' and '*sometimes*' did for English. He '*rarely*' read' for Arabic while '*often*' did in English. He '*sometimes*' checked form in Arabic but '*often*' in English. He '*rarely*' checked content and organization in Arabic while he '*sometimes*' did in English.

The 'Post-Writing' questionnaire related questions responses confirm what had said earlier. The subject ticked the '*none*' box for Arabic and '*one draft*' box for English in terms of drafting. When asked 'what did you do when you finished your writing process?' he ticked the '*stopped writing*' box for Arabic and '*checked form*' box for English.

Rater's English first essay grading was so similar. While the first rater rates the written production as 57% for grammatical construction, 53% for organization, and 50% for cohesion and cohesive devices; the second rater gives the following 45%, 46%, and 50% respectively. The first rater's overall comments were clear-cut and precise. She was astonished by the use of some inappropriate words '*fortunately/selected things used inappropriately*'. She also wrote '*Although the individual aspects of this writing are good, I didn't find the overall meaning very coherent*'. The second rater has reserved his overall comments on this essay.

The English second essay was rated 51% for grammatical constructions, 40% for organization, and 50% for cohesion and cohesive devices by the first rater. The second rater was similar in grammatical constructions 51%, a little higher in organization 46%, and very much lower in cohesion and cohesive devices 30%. The first rater comments on the concluding sentence as '*very unclear, was it meant to say doesn't...?*' but in general she thinks that the second essay is '*quite a clear piece of writing*'. The second rater's overall comment was highlighting the '*use of 'and*'.

Subject 10 implemented 5 internal revisions but none final revision for the English first essay. There was no big correlation between the actual and revising time spans. That is the subject spent 30 minutes to complete his essay but specified only 1.4 minutes for internal revision though the error proportion 14% was not so high if compared with many others. That might be attributed to the writing strategy he adopted while approaching his writing. The protocols revealed that he had been so slow and as if he had been dictating someone else. So he did not write any sentence or word unless he was quite sure which resulted in incompatible revising time. Although he spent some time thinking of how to construct and write down his opening sentence, his attempt was successfully implemented i.e. he ended his sentence illogically (*in my academic life I met a lot of good and bad teachers who left good impression in me*) if he had made focused revising process he would thought of 'how bad teachers leave good impression'. The subject devoted his internal revisions to sentence structure and connection to bring up a readable meaningful paragraph. He did not revise for grammar errors such as (*and the good must sure of...*) (*the good must knows*), spelling errors (*who taught me...*) (*in my acadmic...*). He did not revise for punctuation although he tried hard to use his lexical repertoire which reflected a lot of

confusion of word choice (*I have met many good profishion*) to say (professors) Organization seems ok in general despite of the long and confusing introduction. Paragraph building was not revised to make sure of how to relate sentences and make them meaningful in the overall text.

The English second essay gained 3 internal revisions and 1 final revision. It was shorter in both word number and writing time span 17 minutes as total as well as longer revising time 2.4 minutes but more error proportion 19% which is real high for an easy essay like this. Similar strategies were followed in writing and revising. That is, the subject revised for sentence structure and connection. He also looked for appropriate words. In his final revision, he was concerned with some form errors (*or made according to the, correct to, the goal..*) but not all of them such as (*there is not visual aids*) the two samples are only examples of what he has and has not revised.

Although the Arabic first essay was not coherent enough, the revising strategies seemed excluded this criteria as if coherence in Arabic is unnecessary. He spent 13 minutes on writing this essay out of which 3.8 minutes were devoted to 1 internal revision and rereading. No final revision was made here. Error proportion was high fro an Arabic essay 14%. Lack of final revision resulted in this higher error proportion. The subject was not familiar with organization that he kept swinging back and forth repeating himself in an unorganised way. For instance, when he introduced the topic sentence and the supporting sentences he returned back to restart a new topic sentence with same meaning and different words

(*في حياتي العلمية قابلت العديد من المدرسين الجيدين وغير الجيدين و الذين تركوا انطباعا في نفسي*) 'in my academic life, I met several good and bad teachers who left an impression in me') He continued explaining the characteristics of the good teacher fro a while then he again wrote ( قابلت العديد من الاساتذة الجيدين.....) 'I met several good teachers'). Spelling mistakes were so many as well as the punctuation marks.

The Arabic second essay was internally twice revised and one final revision was available too. Shorter total, 9 minutes, and revising, 2.2 minutes, time spans were exerted here. Error proportion 20% was higher than the first essay and extremely high for L1. The revising processes were devoted to generating new sentences after reading the previous ones. Only three corrections were made on spelling and structure during the final revision.

It was apparent that this subject was writing in slow motion, which might be taken as a writing strategy which leads to no point of internal revision although the final revision is needed by any means. In English he did not resort to L1 because he was thinking slowly too and generated his ideas in English during that space of time. In Arabic he was forced to use any spoken form of Arabic but he tried to use the standard language.

The interview related questions conform to the protocols and observation behaviours. When asked 'do you stop, read and revise your writing?' he said 'Yes, of course'. Also he said 'After I finish? Yes, of course' to answer 'do you revise your writing in English and Arabic when you finish your essay?' When asked 'do you stop, read and revise while writing in Arabic?' he said 'Yes, exactly'. Responding to 'do you revise your essays after you finish?' he confidently said 'definitely'. His answer relating to the number of drafts he writes was 'not more than two drafts in both languages'.

The 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire related responses revealed that the subject ticked the 'Yes' boxes for final revising when he finishes. He also ticked the 'two drafts' boxes for both languages.

The 'Writing Process Strategies' questionnaire points out that the subject 'always' revised and read after finishing Arabic and English essays. He 'often' checked form in



both languages. He *'sometimes'* checked content in Arabic but *'often'* did in English. He *'sometimes'* organized in Arabic and English.

The 'Post-Writing' questionnaire 'how many drafts did you write in Arabic and in English?' was answered by ticking the '2 drafts' boxes for both languages; whereas, the question 'what did you do when you finished your writing process?' was answered by ticking the *'revising all the essay'* boxes for both languages as well.

Raters' grading was similar to a large extent. While the first rater grades were 45% for grammatical constructions, 53% for organization, and 50% for cohesion and cohesive devices; the second rater's were 54%, 55% and 50 respectively. The first rater's overall comments were *'The message is quite clear even though the student does not score so highly on the individual language aspects'*. Rater two reserved his comments.

The English second essay grading was similar as shown by the two raters to a large extent as well. The first rater thinks that it deserves 45% on grammatical constructions, 60% on organization, and 70% on cohesion and cohesive devices. The second rater believes that he deserves 60%, 60% and 30% respectively. The first rater's comments were confined to *'commas used in stead of full stops sometimes'* and the over all comment was *'clear writing'*. The second rater was not keen to make any comments.

Subject 11 is the one who spent the most internal revisions 17 and 1 final revision for the English first essay. He spent 37 minutes on total writing out of which 7.1 minutes were apparently initialised for internal revisions. Error proportion was high 16% despite the revising time, which might be caused by imperfect revising strategies. The subject revised and edited for different mechanic and structure alternatives. He generated ideas and structured sentences in L1. His revision took the verbalization form before he wrote anything down and then revised it again. He recalled information from his LTM in an Arabic structure then he tried to elicit what he wanted concerning the topic and then reformulated it in English then revised it verbally before writing it down. For example, he wanted to state something related to his teacher (لماذا كنا معجبين به؟ *'Why were we admiring him?'*), revised for information (توه ما بيناش انه هو يقري في التاريخ *'We have not stated that he was teaching history'*), and for grammatical accuracy (He...., he, ....., in taught, teaches, taught? المادة اللي كان يدرسها *'the subject he was teaching' the subject he was teaching? the subject he was teaching? present simple? That he teaches?*) (at that time we cannot know, we did not, we did not know) These samples are only for clarification and documented evidence. However, many more errors were left uncorrected (but now I can discover why we admired and liked the subject he teaches), (he is qualified in the subject of history), and (this made us understood lessons very easily.)

The second English essay was given 6 internal revisions and 1 final revision. He spent 30 minutes as a total time of which 5.6 minutes were specified for revising. The error proportion, 13%, was less than that of the first essay. Like the first essay, he revised for different aspects such as eliciting information from the classroom environment (windows, doors, desks, a big number of students and , and the light), then he reread the prompts to elicit more information. Unlike the previous essay, it is clear that the subject has used less Arabic while writing and revising this essay. He revised for punctuation (for learning a foreign language full stop) and (finally finally comma) Although the subject has done his best to revise the essay, he left many more uncorrected, in grammar (because there are a large number of students), (there is not any teaching aids) in punctuation (I have hear ' 'It is simply) in articles (for learning foreign language) etc.



The Arabic first essay received 3 internal revisions and 1 final revision. Total time allotted for this essay was too short 10 minutes, if compared to its English counterpart. More than the half of the total time, 5.4 minutes, was specified for internal revising though a big error proportion 18% was scored on this essay. Repetition and revising were focused on sentence structure and words choice. The prevailing problem of punctuation was not paid enough attention, which resulted in various dropped or misused punctuation marks. This problem has affected the coherence and organization as well as the rhetoric and style.

The second Arabic essay received fewer internal revisions, 2, and 1 final revision. Total time, 13 minutes, was longer than the Arabic first essay but shorter than the English second essay though the revising time, 0.7 minute, was a lot shorter than the Arabic essay. The error proportion, 14%, was fewer than the Arabic first essay but more than its English counterpart. Although the final revision was dedicated to check different error types, the subject, unlike on the English essays, did not add or delete anything of what he had written. That is, he did edit for 'duality' in Arabic

(يقع احدهم 'two doors, one of them 'as a plural pronoun not dual pronoun' is allocated .....). Also, there were many grammar errors while he was verbalizing his writing products.

The interview related questions were consistent with the observation and protocols. Responding to the question 'do you stop, read and revise your writing?' He answered '*I understand what you mean, no I revise each sentence to see what I have written and to see what I am going to write*'. When asked 'do you revise your essays when you finish?' he said '*Yes, of course, I do*'. When asked 'do you revise your Arabic essays?' he said '*yes*'. His response to 'how many drafts do you usually write in each language?' was '*may be two in both languages*'.

The 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire related responses were not consistent with observation, protocols and the previous questionnaire. When asked 'did you revise after finishing your writing in English and in Arabic?' he ticked 'Yes' boxes for both languages. Also response to the question 'how many drafts did you write in English and in Arabic?' did not conform the earlier responses. He ticked the '*one draft*' box for Arabic and '*two drafts*' box for English.

The 'Writing Process Strategies' questionnaire showed that the subject had '*always*' revised and read for both languages. He '*often*' checked form and '*sometimes*' checked content in both languages. He was '*rarely*' concerned with organization in both languages but '*never*' rehearsed in either language.

The 'Post-Writing' questionnaire revealed that the subject had ticked the '*two drafts*' boxes for each language when asked 'how many drafts did you write in Arabic and in English?'. Answering the question 'what did you do when you finished your writing process?' he ticked the '*revised all the essay*' boxes for both languages.

Raters' overall ratings were not very compatible. While the first rater scored 51% for grammatical constructions, 60% for organization and 70% for cohesion and cohesive devices, the second rater scored 77%, 80% and 80% respectively. The overall comments made by the first rater were '*clear message, although some grammatical errors. Spelling (is) perfect*'. The second rater reduced his comments to '*commas*'.

The English second essay received a little different rating by each rater. The first rater scored 60% for grammatical construction, 80% for organization and 70% for cohesion and cohesive devices. The second rater scored 68%, 66% and 70% respectively. The first rater thought that subject-verb agreement was '*quite weak*' but the general comments were '*sentence order much better than in first essay, very well organised*'. The second rater reserved his comments.

**Subject 12** had made 2 internal revisions but no final revision within the total time 11 minutes of which 1.0 minute was specified for internal revising. The least error proportion was recorded in this essay 5%. The subject did not revise much while writing the English first essay despite to some pauses for structure editing (*he used to listen to us and, .... he used to listened to us, he used to listen to us patiently*) The apparent editing was not directed to grammar, possessive -s (*teacher's institute*), instead of teachers', spelling (*pricisely*) and punctuation (*in fact that teacher had...*). The subject was observed only once using the dictionary looking for a word. This was confirmed in his protocols when he said (*spelling of patiently*) and started opening the dictionary. He edited for meaning as well (*this teacher, oh say that teacher*).

The English second essay was less in quantity of written words, a little bit shorter in total time 10 minutes, similar in internal and final revising time 1.0 minute but more in error proportion 9%. He was slower in writing this essay, which caused less internal revising. His revising strategies took the form of thinking deep before writing down any sentences. He restructured sentences in mind then he wrote them down. This strategy made him sometimes forget what had been written earlier and lose the accurate connector if any. Although his editing has led to some corrections such as insertion of correct articles (*it contains many desks, traditional blackboard*) and the use of articles at which they do not exist (*it does not have a modern furniture*). He left an Arabic structure without correction (*students of a university*).

In general, the two essays seem well shaped, organized and produced more than many other subjects.

The Arabic first essay received only 1 internal revision but no final one. Only 8 minutes were spent a total of 1.2 minutes of which were specified for revision. Unfortunately, the error proportion was too high for L1, 23%. The subject revised for word choice to use the correct 'relative pronoun' in Arabic. He also revised for which word ought to be more correct when started repeating (*in fact, actually, in actual fact*) to choose '*in fact*' eventually. He was confused which one he ought to use i.e. the plural or the singular one. The subject did not revise for punctuation, style and rhetoric, which resulted in a disorganized essay. It seemed that the subject tried to 'modernize' his Arabic writing style, which has not been common among writers and readers yet. The Arabic short sentences are still considered as a disadvantage in Arabic rhetoric, which used to be longer and redundant.

The second Arabic second essay gained 2 internal revisions and 1 final. The total time was 6 minutes of which 0.8 minute was specified for revision. Error proportion was also so high in this essay and mainly for L1. Revising strategies were different from the first essay. Revisions were devoted to word choice but not structures or spelling. However, he has shown himself as the best of all, his composing and revising seem similar to a great extent. His English essays were more coherent than those of Arabic because, unlike other subjects, they are influenced by L2 not vice versa. He relied on translation from English to Arabic so his Arabic style seemed literary and coherently affected by English rhetoric, which I, earlier, called it 'modernization' of Arabic style. For instance, Arabic running style seemed fossilized by the use of punctuation marks improperly. Also improper Arabic sentence connection led to a lack of coherence. Arabic essays were full of spelling, dictation, and precise grammatical errors. These errors are so common among Arabic writers specially those who adopt the modern writing style. The English essay might have been written much better if more concentrated revising were attended to them.

The interview responses are in full accordance with the observation and protocols. When asked 'do you stop, read and revise while writing?' his answer was 'Yes,



*according to the subject*'. He confirmed that he revised when finished 'do you revise your essays when you finish?' he said 'Yes'; however, he did not do this in his first essays. His responses concerning revising in Arabic were 'Yes' for both questions, which were not true with the first essays in English and Arabic. When asked 'how many drafts do you usually write in each language?' he answer was 'if the subject is normal I write it straight away by putting notes. But if the subject is difficult or scientific or historic, something like that, you have to do more than one draft. In English I do the same, from one to two drafts in both languages'.

The 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire responses did not reflect the actual behavior of the revising process by this subject. That is, he ticked the 'Yes' boxes for final revising in both languages, which was not actually done after finishing the first essays in either language. Similarly, the response to the question 'how many drafts did you write in English and in Arabic?' he ticked the 'one draft' box for Arabic and 'two drafts' box for English, which was not concrete with the number of drafts submitted for the first essays.

The 'Writing Process Strategies' questionnaire related question 'do you do any of the following after finishing your composition in Arabic and in English?' reflected the subject's strategies in revising. He 'sometimes' revised and checked for form in both languages. He 'rarely' rehearsed in both languages and checked form in Arabic. He 'always' checked content in English but 'sometimes' did in Arabic. He was 'often' concerned with organization in English but 'sometimes' was in Arabic. The subject was distinguished from other subject by that he 'sometimes' checked the tidiness of the general shape of the essay.

The responses to the 'Post-Writing' questionnaire were inconsistent with what had been observed and produced. Answering 'how many drafts did you write in Arabic and in English?' he ticked the 'two drafts' boxes fro both languages. Answering the question 'what did you do when you finished your writing process?' he also ticked the 'revised all the essay' boxes for both languages, which did not conform to his actual revising behavior.

## APPENDIX 14

### 4. Linguistic Knowledge

*Subject 1* used 'and' excessively in one of her produced sentences in the first essay 'But there was another teacher taught me sience. and she deals kindly so I love her and so I like to study her subject and I got high marks on it'. In her second essay she used 'and' 11 times. When asked to rate the importance of sentence organization she said it is 'very important' but needed 'no improvement' for her writing although she ticked the organization box for paying 'most attention'. Tenses were the most salient problem for this subject as the given example showed. Subject-verb agreement was another problem 'our classroom are quite different...'. Spelling mistakes were numerous 'I feel sorrow for that'.

*Subject 2's* sentence order made the reader feel that she had been uttering not writing an English essay. No sentence order was clearly adopted. She only wrote down scrambled sentences most likely connected by 'and' if any. Her problem as she put it was only in 'vocabulary' more than 'grammar'. In other words, she was assuming that if she had acquired enough vocabulary repertoire she would have written much better essays in English. Her 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire related questions confirm her assumptions. She considered vocabulary as 'very important'



and *'need much improvement'* whereas organization was *'somewhat important'* and only *'need some improvement'*. Her 'Writing-Process Strategies' questionnaire confirmed what she had assumed about vocabulary importance that required *'most attention'*; however, organization required *'rather attention'*. She had salient problems in subject-verb agreement *'and he don't like talking....'*, tenses *'I was very afraid that I will not pass'*, word choice and vocabulary *'he not very big or old..'*, prepositions *'I was afraid from this...'*, spelling *'the doctor saw hem'* and punctuation *'but in the end he give me. the realy degree'*.

Although subject 3 was fluent, her writing was not accurate which made the reader find some difficulty following what she wanted to say. Her 'background and attitudes' questionnaire reflected linguistic knowledge problems. Responding to 'Please rate the following in terms of how important they were for good writing' she rated spelling as the *'very important'* item but she needed *'little improvement'* in it. She needed *'much improvement'* in vocabulary and grammar. Her responses to the 'Writing-Process Strategies' questionnaire revealed that again she wanted to pay *'rather attention'* to spelling and *'most attention'* to grammar. The subject's profound problems could be found mainly in tenses *'when she want to explain the lesson she said...'*, word choice *'so she filled the space'*, spelling *'by shutting'*, prepositions *'concentrate in'*, and subject-verb agreement *'they must be supplied be required techniques which helps...'*. However subject 4 was rated producing a powerfully lexical essay, her grammar was weak and caused lack of accuracy within the whole first essay. Similarly was the evaluation of the second essay i.e. misuse of punctuation caused unwell coherent paragraphing as the first rater pointed out. The second rater referred to the lack of sentence structure and order in the first essay while she used long sentences in the second essay. He also pointed out that such a subject had a problem in modal verbs. The subject admitted that she had problems in *'vocabulary and spelling'* but she did not mention anything about grammar, organization or content. Her responses to the 'background and Attitudes' questionnaire revealed that all linguistic aspects were *'very important'* but she needed *'much improvement'* in spelling and vocabulary. She might be more idealistic when she admitted that she wanted to pay *'most attention'* to all aspects of language when writing her English compositions. A quick look at the subject's written essays showed that she had faced problems in tenses *'I haven't ever meet a teacher....'*, auxiliaries *'he teaching the course....'*, non-definite article *'he uses a difficult questions'*, modal verbs *'and may be he will change in someday'* instead of *'he will be changed'*, spelling *'and well equiped'* punctuation *'....and may be more than that, this big number of student in classroom, without ventilation...'*.

Subject 5 was rated as a poor writer for many reasons mainly her linguistic knowledge as well as other writing conventions starting with her handwriting and ending in organization and content. Her written first essay seemed more likely a narrative description than textually processed. The second essay was characterized by long narrative sentences lack coherence and accurate punctuation. The excessive use of 'and' distorted the coherence and transition of sentences into paragraphs. The confusing use of capitals made the essays unreadable easily. The subject had used all 'Ts' and 'Ms' in capital forms wherever they were. She had problems in punctuation *'I will Talk about My Teacher in high school, her name is ...'* auxiliaries *'and I was undersTand everyThing'*, verb-noun distinction *'through her explain'*, subject-verb agreement *'To Me This Teacher were....'*, subject-pronoun agreement *'our classrooms are bad, Because iTs noT for suitable for ...'* modal verbs *'our classrooms should to be Modal classrooms...'* passive voice *'we were Told her abouT'*

*all our problems in home or wiTh oTher Teachers*', and indefinite article *'classrooms Must have television cause.....'*.

Subject 6 produced, unfortunately, the worst essays which were even *'impossible to read'* as the second rater said in his overall evaluation. The first rater was less offensive, so to speak, on this subject but noted that it was *'very difficult to understand'*; moreover, the second essay was rated as *'even harder to understand than essay one'*. The subjects' interview responses were not fair to reflect the actual level because the subject said she had faced problem in *'spelling and vocabulary'* while she suffered *'grammar'* problems in Arabic not in English. The *'Background and Attitudes'* questionnaire responses revealed that subject had thought that punctuation, spelling, and grammar were *'very important'* and she needed *'much improvement'* in these aspects. She was inconsistent in defining her needs to improve English writing when she said she would pay *'much attention'* to grammar, vocabulary, spelling, ideas and organization. Protocols and written production of the English essays showed that the subject had serious problems in structure both form and content. She also had problems in subject-verb agreement *'there are good teacher and there are bad teacher'*, use of capitalization *'they are such as Grammar teacher'*, adverb, adjective-noun agreement *'because differents teacher of them'*, noun-adjective misuse *'differents from'* adjective-noun sequence, clear transfer from Arabic *'teacher grammar'*, word choice *'carry us'* instead *'cares for us'* and many more.

Subject 7 was rated lacking vocabulary *'to focus on'* as the first rater evaluated the first essay and the second essay was hard to follow because of the excessive use of Arabic. The second rater concluded that the first essay was *'impossible to read'* in addition to misuse of full stops and capitalization whereas the second essay lacked *'articles'* whatsoever.

The subjects' self-evaluation through the interview showed that she had not been aware of her linguistic problems except with *'spelling, punctuation and vocabulary'* assuming that these were the only linguistic aspects of English. The *'background and Attitudes'* questionnaire pointed out that the subject had categorized spelling, vocabulary and punctuation as the *'very important'* areas for good writing although she needed no improvement in anyone of these aspects. Responses to the *'Writing-Process strategies'* questionnaire explored that the subject had not been consistent with the previous responses because she paid *'most attention'* to grammar and vocabulary while *'rather attention'* was paid to spelling and punctuation.

The subject's essays cried from serious flaws in word choice *'in three year'* *'she was big woman'* instead of *'an old woman'*, adjective noun sequence *'teacher woman'*, lack of auxiliaries *'her name Manubiyah good teacher'*, *'she qualified to teach us'*, spelling *'when I staded in three class'*, *'I am thirte stude'*, tenses *'she was senk us and give sweat and ceake'*, lack and misuse of indefinite and definite articles *'I want to talk about good teacher'* *'My the classroom'*, plural -s and subject-verb agreement *'all teacher just has ....'* *'Because the students has...'*, ad noun-pronoun agreement *'it has not many desks but, it some dirty Because student write on it'*.

Subject 8 was rated as a good English essay writer by the first rater who commented that except the first sentence *'the quality of writing is much better'* in essay one. The subject needed more polishing on punctuation and enough time to write the conclusion of the second essay. The second rater was enthusiastic and quite satisfied with the first essay, except the overwhelmed use of *'and'*, to be rated as *'excellent'*. The second was graded similarly but no overall comment was given.

The subject's interview answer was *'I have problem in spelling, punctuation and grammar'* when writing in English.



The subject rated all the linguistic aspect as *'very important'* for good writing and she needed *'much improvement'* in punctuation, spelling, and grammar as responding to the 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire. She was also consistent with her previous responses when answered the related question of the 'Writing Process Strategies' questionnaire by saying that she wanted to pay *'much attention'* to grammar, vocabulary, spelling, ideas and organization.

Although the subject was rated as a good essay writer, she had some problems with different aspects such as, spelling *'or let me talke franky...'* *'apreciate'*, punctuation *'few of them were good I choose this.....'*, demonstrative pronoun-noun agreement *'I choose this teachers to talk about him'*, capitalization *'as I told you I enjoy....'* *'in order to talke about ....'* as the beginning of the sentence, the indefinite article as a part of the following word *'astudent and ahuman'*, tenses *'but he me love the English letreture because of the ways he use in teaching'*, spelling *'I will firstly discribe it'*, wrong use of modal verbs *'I will think it is suitable...'*, noun-pronoun agreement *'the advantages of this kind of classroom it helps student to set ....'* is confusing whether *'it'* refers to advantages or classroom.

As a result of the local planning, subject 9's first essay was rated incoherent and inappropriating word choice use as rater one said. On the contrary, the second essay was much better and *'quite a clear piece of writing'*. The second rater only comment on the second essay was that *'excessive use of and'*.

The subject's response to the interview questions was that he suffered problems in *'punctuation'* and *'introducing my point well'*, which emphasizes the notion of incoherence.

The 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire responses were not so consistent with what had been said i.e. punctuation was *'rather important'* for good writing while spelling and grammar were *'very important'*. He also contradicted his previous response about punctuation when assumed he needed *'some improvement'* while he was need for *'much improvement'* in linguistic aspects such as grammar, spelling, vocabulary and content. The 'Writing-Process strategies' questionnaire responses proved that the subject had been contradicting himself again i.e. he paid *'most attention'* to grammar but *'fair attention'* to punctuation.

The subjects' written products showed that he had encountered problems in structure, interference of L1 structure *'in my life study'*, spelling *'sveral'* *'explane'* *'bitween'*, possessive and plural -s *'I met sveral teachers and Doctor's'*, capitalization *'...Doctor's'* *'and the good Background'* Arabic structure *'in teaching the English'*, *'And in my thoughts'*, punctuation *'my classroom has fifty chairs. and one black board. and three window ....'*, subject-verb agreement *'the class rooms which i have seen is very good...'* wrong form of the first speaker pronoun *'And if i wont to compare it with the modal class rooms i...'*, misuse of auxiliaries *'and this is itself make me....'*, wrong use of possessive -s and contracted is *'And its very bad and it.....'* and many more.

Although subject 10 was rated as average or poor on some linguistic aspects, his message overall rating was *'quite clear'* as the first rater commented on the first essay. The second essay was much clearer but punctuation marks were mistakenly used *'commas used instead of full stops'*. The second rater was compatible with the first rater and thought that the second essay was much better.

The subject's responses to the interview questions revealed that he had faces problems in vocabulary only. The 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire related questions confirmed the earlier responses that the subject believed that all linguistic aspects were *'very important'* except the content for good writing. However, he rated



vocabulary as the skill in which he 'needs a little improvement'. Again in the 'Writing Process Strategies' questionnaire he confirmed vocabulary among other aspects as the skill he wanted to pay 'most attention'.

The subject's written products discovered that he really had been encountered by some problems in various linguistic aspects. He had problems in, spelling '*who tought me*' '*in my acadmic*' '*who left good imprisons*' '*...going to describe*', capitalization '*who can do his Job...*' '*so the classroom is not Just ...*', word choice '*available to his students or kids*', modal verbs '*must sure of....*' '*the good must knows*' pronoun-noun agreement '*they really have been a good teacher*', punctuation '*....going to describe my class room, first of all...*' subject-verb agreement '*...there is no visual aids*', sentence boundary '*..and the number of students is huge, it is more than required*', indefinite article with plural '*he has a qualifications....*', words choice '*I have not gotten any of these things. because, my classroom is not available for my study*', and misspelling of the word '*class room*' as two words.

Subject 11's first essay was rated as clear but suffered flaws in grammar and spelling whereas the second essay seemed well organized and sentence order was better than the first essay as the first rater commented. The second rater had reservations on punctuation in the first essay.

The interview responses showed that the subject had problems in vocabulary, and grammar but rarely in punctuation. The 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire responses confirmed that the subject had rated vocabulary as '*very important*' grammar as '*not too important*' but punctuation as '*somewhat important*' for good writing. Therefore, he wanted '*much improvement*' in vocabulary and grammar but '*some improvement*' in punctuation. The 'Writing Process Strategies' questionnaire showed that the subject had paid 'much attention' to vocabulary only.

The subject's English essays were linguistically examined and resulted in that there were some problems with many linguistic aspects. The subject had problems in punctuation '*...to the subject that he was teaching, I liked.... Very much, because of the way of teaching it, The students...*' tenses '*..and liked the subject of history he teaches*', adjective-adverb overlapping '*he is good qualified..*' '*...understood lessons very easy*' '*not good situated*', tenses with the verb 'make' '*he made us understood*' spelling '*modal classrooms*', subject-verb agreement '*because there are a large number of students*' '*there is not any teaching aids*', noun-verb overlapping '*it is furnirured*'.

The first essay written by subject 12 was rated as clear despite some grammatical omissions mainly in tenses. However, the second essay seemed much weaker and less organized which had an impact on the general meaning of such an essay as commented by rater one. The second rater was more positive about the first essay and less offensive against essay two.

The interview responses showed that the subject had been suffering problems in tenses especially how to distinguish between past simple and present perfect. The 'Background and Attitudes' questionnaire responses were not consistent with the interview responses that is the subject thought that vocabulary and content were 'very important' while grammar was 'not important' for good writing. He confirmed this notion by seeking 'much improvement' in vocabulary and content but 'little improvement' in grammar. Vocabulary was his main concern and always wanted to pay 'much attention' to it as he responded to the 'Writing Process Strategies' questionnaire.

Although the subject did well in his first essay and a little on the second one, his written essays needed polishing in spelling '*marvellous*' '*pricisely*', tenses '*I still keep*

*the maps I drew....*', plural possessive –s '*teacher's institute*', conditional if sentences '*if he was not sure about the answer, he just said...*', L1 constructions '*the students of a university*' punctuation '*in fact it is not a modern one Because...*'.

Appendix 15  
 Figure 7  
*A Tentative Writing Model for EFL Students*

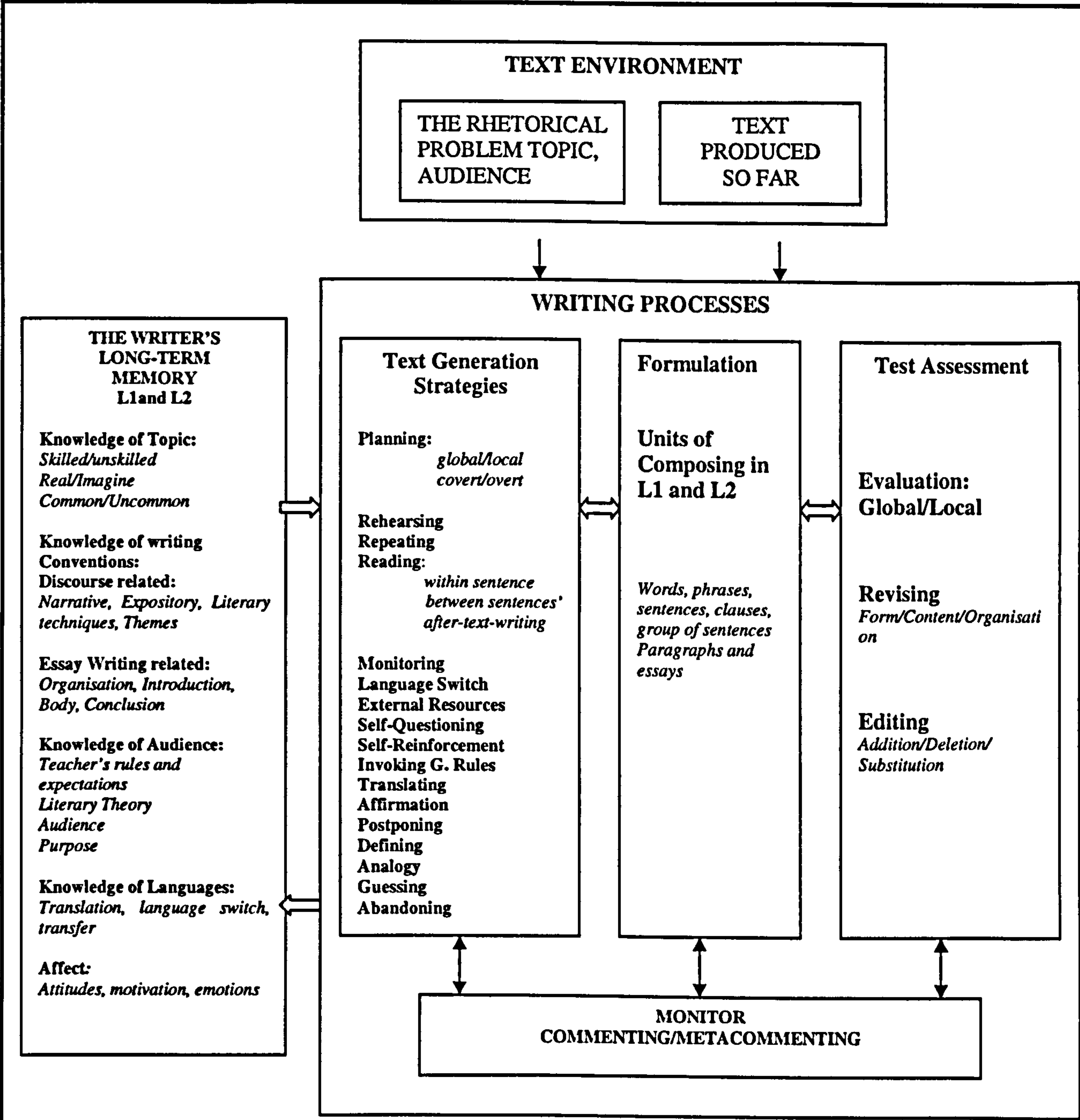


Figure 7: *A Tentative Composing Process Model of the Twelve Arab EFL Writers*



## Appendix 16

### Subjects' Written Texts

1

Topic One  
English Essay  
Original Copy

The relationship between students and teachers must be very close,  
Because when student love his teacher will study if it is very difficult.  
In primary school, There was a teacher tought in mathaticis she hit  
me hardly when I made mistake so I hate me and I don't like her subject  
Because when I wont study that subject I remmber that so I cannot  
But there (ano) was another teacher (sicnce) tought me sience and she  
deals kindly so I love her and so I like (to) study her subject and I got high  
marks (math) on it , I like stile (remmber) remmber Bcause my good teacher and I  
will remmber all of life

Written words 125491

Errors 35

Percent 22.4%

Arabic Version  
Original Copy

النص العربي  
العلاقة بين الطالب والمعلم حبذا لو تكون علاقة ود واحترام متبادل من كلا الطرفين وذلك  
حتى يدرس الطالب تلك المادة العلمية التي يعطيها له المعلم بحب وتفهم حتى لو كانت تلك  
الرياضيات المادة يوجد بها صعوبة. عندما كنت ادرس في الإعدادية كانت هناك معلمة تدرسنني في مادة  
وكان استيعابي انا إلى مادة الرياضيات بطيء حيث أن المعلمة لم تتفهم ذلك  
وأنا هنا أتكلم عن نفسي كمثال للعدد من الطلاب الذي كانوا في نفس المرحلة أو غيرها من  
مراحل الدراسة حيث كان أسلوبها الوحيد هو للضرب والعقاة لذلك أنا توجهت في  
الدراسة الثانوية إلى الدخول في التخصص الادبي وذلك لعدم دراستي تلك المادة.  
وفي تلك الفترة كمثال آخر لشريحة من المعلمات كان يوجد لدينا معلمة في مادة العلوم  
حيث كانت تبذل مجهود في الشرح ومحاولة توصيل المعلومة بشتى الطرق وكان أسلوبها  
جدا رقيق وودود لهذا أنا عندما ادرس مادة العلوم أدرسها براحة وعمق حيث انعكس  
ذلك بالتالي على علامات تلك المادة ومن هنا اقول بأن الأسلوب التعليمي الحضاري يجب  
أن يكون أسلوب متفهم ومنظم بحيث تكون العملية التعليمية للطالب والمدرس صحيحة ومنظمة  
وبالتالي تعود بنتيجة تحصيل دراسي جيد لدى الطلاب. ونفس المنوال يكون عليه في الجامعة التي  
هي الفترة التي ادرس بها الآن حيث يوجد العديد من نماذج من الدكاترة فمنهم يكون متفهم  
للطالب ويبذل مجهودا في الشرح وكذلك له القدرة في إيصال المعلومة بأسلوب مبسط وواضح  
بدون وضع أي مقدمات حول صعوبة تلك المادة وبالتالي التحصيل الدراسي للطالب الذي لديه  
الرغبة الفعلية في الدراسة وبذل المجهود جيدة  
ولكن يوجد جانب آخر من الدكاترة في الجامعة حيث يكون شرحه غير واضح ومختصر  
حيث الطالب لا يستوعب تلك المواد وكذلك تخويف بعض الدكاترة للطلبة من ناحية منهج  
تلك المادة أنا شخصا تعرضت وزميلاتي لذلك الموقف حيث اخبرنا دكتور احدى المواد بأنه  
سوف تكون اسئلة النصفية للمادة الذي يدرسها صعبة ولن يستطيع الإجابة عنها إلا الممتاز  
وبالتالي الامر يكون تعجيز لنا كطلاب وتخطيط للمعنويات وبذلك لم ندرس تلك المادة جيدا  
حيث النتيجة ستكون متوقعة

Written Words 310

Errors 65

Error Proportion 18.06%

## Topic Two

Original Copy

I am a student in Libyen university at English department. our classroom are not big enough to include us because we are too many and the classroom are small for us and we can not understand cerefully from our doctors and it is dirty. the generell healthy atmosphere is not good also the windos they are broken and the doors to that make the external view is too bad and the desks are broken and are bad about the height it's ok. The learner process is not good enough on to the studens in third year at English department and about a foreign language learner they don't teach in a perfect way and this is a big misteke. in short our room is bad andnobody can to learn in it. and if campere between our classrooms and model classrooms I find our classroom are quite different from the model classrooms I feel sorrow for that

Written Words 154

Errors 46

Error Proportion 29.8%

Arabic Version

Original Copy

النص العربي

أنا طالبة في الجامعة الليبية قسم اللغة الإنجليزية.  
الفصول ليست كبيرة لتكفي عدد الطلبة بالنسبة للجامعة الليبية. وكذلك النوافذ مكسرة والأبواب ليست سليمة كذلك مساحة الغرفة الدراسية ليست واسعة أما بالنسبة إلى ارتفاع سقف الحجرة لا بأس به. بالنسبة إلى العملية التعليمية (ليست) ليست مثالية وذلك لكثرة عدد الطلبة (حيث) بحيث لا يستطيع الطالب استيعاب المعلومة الذي ينقلها الدكتور. وأيضاً الدكتور لا يستطيع إعطاء شرح وافي وواضح وذلك لكثرة عدد الطلبة وصغر حجم الغرفة الدراسية كذلك لا يستطيع الطالب بالنسبة لتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية فهم المنهج بمهارة وذلك لعدم وجود معامل لمساعدة الطالب في فهم اللغة وانتقالها. ونعود (نقول) نقول بأن قلة وجود المقاعد الدراسية بحيث لا يستطيع الطالب الجلوس أثناء المحاضرة. وإذا قلنا الفصل الدراسي في بلدنا مع الفصل النموذجي الذي ينبغي أن يكون عليه الفصل هنا. وهو توفر المقاعد الدراسية كاملة وكبر حجم الغرفة وتوفر المعامل اللازمة حسب التخصص الدراسي. وبذلك أنا أتأسف وأشعر بالأسى اتجاه حال الفصول عندنا هنا. حيث تكون الغرفة الدراسية غير نظيفة وكثيرة العناكب في السقف. والضغط الهواء في الحجرة لكثرة الطلبة وصغر المساحة. أخيراً أتمنى أن يكون عليه الحال مستقبلاً أفضل مما عليه الفصول الآن في المبنى الدراسي للغة الإنجليزية حيث لا يوجد عامل يساعد على الدراسة الجادة من حيث المبنى وعدم توفر المعامل والأجهزة والكمبيوتر مما يشمله الانترنت وفائدته لطلبة اللغة الإنجليزية وغيرها من التخصصات والسلام ختام

Written Words 214

Errors 28

Error Proportion 13.08%

2

English Version

First Essay

Original Topic

(In first year) when I was study in (this) first year (university). I was very afreid from this new life and new friends about my good and worse teachers I liked very much teacher. he (was) teached us in grammar. I was like him very much because he give me realy (dea) degree. and he is agood man about his doings. he not very big or old but he has beautiful face and very smart. when I saw him in the first I said that he is not Arapian man. he told us don't worry and don't think about this subject. he was no smile and he don't like talking in the class. he explain the lesson very (good) well and I can understand with him. I liked his lecture very much and I was study it (in ver) hardly. in my home. I forget he is from العراق ((Iraq)).

in final exam. there is one thing happen to me. that I was very sick and I was write in my paper and there is one boy set down by me he was looking in my paper the doctor saw (ours) hem. he think that I give him the (ansew) answers but I was beasy (by) in my answer. he (make) made across in my paper I told him the true but he didn't listen to me. but in the end he give me. the realy degree (and I) when I was very afraid that I will not pass this exam. (thea) so I liked him very much.

One thing all the students told me he is not good because he is very hard and don't like make some wrong things and he don't like (late) to (go) came late. he trust (w) by himself that most of people or students don't like him. but I wonder that I don't see him (mab) maybe he traverled to his contry. (I) I want every teacher as this person as. because he is true man and true teacher. There is some teachers like him but he is the most. In (his) the class he told us don't speak but just (listin) listen to him carefully. but out of the class we can told him what we like to say with any language we can speak with it.

Some times he (make quiz de) make (to) quez and answer difficult anestions. he always answer the question without talking and don't let to any wrong or mistakes. modern English was hard subject but I intrested (with) by {[in]} it very much. and I wish to be intresting (by any) in others. there (is) are difficult subjects (but) like the grammer but I don't like it and don't want to study it. but I will try to (by) be better than (in that) in those subjects.(and) there is good teachers like this gentelman.

Words 478

Errors 123

Error Proportion 25.7%



Arabic Version  
First Essay  
Original Topic

النص العربي

عندما بدأت الدراسة في هذه الجامعة وجدت العديد من العواقب أمامي حيث أن العديد من الطلبة لخبروني بأن مادة الانجليزي هي صعبة جداً ومن الأفضل أن لا ادرسها وأن العديد من الاساتذة غير (متفاهي) متفاهمين والاخص دكتور القواعد يسمى رعد احمد.

في البداية عندما رأيته ظننت انه غير عربي لأن ملامحه كالأجانب. هو ليس كبيراً في السن وله وجه جميل وانيق جداً. وكان يحب الهدوء داخل الصف. هو حقاً انسان جدي يكره المشاغبة و المشاغبين في الصف كان يخبرنا في اعضم الاحيان بأن لا نتكلم او نصدر أي صوت. وأن لا نسأله أي اسئلة داخل الصف لما خارج الصف فنستطيع قول أي شئ نسأله أي اسئلة ونتكلم بأي لغة الفرنسية والعربية و الانجليزية اللغة التي نتكلم بها.

في امتحان النصفى كنت مريضة جداً وكان بجانبى شاب حقيقة لا اعرفه ولكنه كان يطلب منى مساعدته فجأة لفت ذلك انتباه الدكتور واخذ من كلانا ورقته أخبرته بالحقيقة لكنه لم يصدق وطلب منى ان اسكت. كنت خائفة جداً بأن لا انجح في هذه المادة. بالأخص عندما أخبروني بأنه مدرس صعب ولا يستطيع التفاهم معه. لم اعرف ما افعله ولم استطع التصرف.

لكن في النتيجة وجدت درجتى جيدة فشكرته لكنه لم يابه لذلك.

احببت هذا الانسان كثيراً وتمنيت أن يكون الأغلبية مثله. اخلاقه ومعاملته الجدية واحترام الطلبة له (مهم) فهو جدير بالثقة والاحترام والتقدير كل اما اريد قوله هو أن الطالب لا يريد إلا ان (يحس) يثمر مجهوده بالأ يظلمه احد لأنه من جد وجد وهذا ما أعجبني في هذا الدكتور.

مازلت اتذكر أغلب الدروس اغلب الاسئلة وحتى اسئلة الامتحان.

مادة القواعد صعبة جداً ولكنه بسطها لنا كثيراً وصرت افضل دراستها والتمتع بها لم اقل انه كامل لكنه حقاً "جنتلمان" كما يقول الانجليز.

واخر ما اريد قوله هو أن يكون الكل مثله لم اقل انه لا يوجد مدرسين كفاء ولكنه الافضل. أما الآن فى هذا الوقت الحالى لم اره فلربما سافر إلى مدينته أو ربما إلى مكان آخر.

Words 306

Errors 53

Error Proportion 17.3%

Essay Two  
Original Topic

My class room seem clean. It isn't (have) has modren comunication. It's very small compare with us, because there is (much) many (people) students study in this classroom. It has two doors. And there is a lot of noise I heard it from the class and out of it. about number of the students (were) in first year was large (bn) about 132 but in this year about 60 students. sometimes I feel comfortible and another time I don't feel good because I cant understand any thing from the teacher. that is why I don't like it.

It isn't have in what I said before, modren style of learning, like labs and many things we need to them to study and learn subject of English and (speaking) talking it very good.

our teachers, all of them are Arabian from different contries

they used just read or write some things on the blackboard and we complete that.

our classroom isn't have (enogh) most of disks. sometimes I need to take my chair from another class. I heard a lot noise like what you are hearing now. that is why I cant understand some things from the teacher.

I refer to the most of main thing are not good in the my class room.

The old comunication replacement the modren comunication.

Words 219

Errors 37

Error Proportion 16.89%

Arabic Version

Original Copy

النص العربي

فصلي الدراسي ظاهرياً يبدو نظيفاً. توجد به الوسائل التقليدية كالسبورة والمقاعد وأثنان من الابواب. مع ملاحظة وجود نقص في المقاعد الدراسية أحياناً لاحتاج أن آخذ مقدي من صف آخر. وايضاً ازدحام الطلاب في السنة الاولى كان العدد 132 أما هذه السنة وصل العدد حوالي 60 وهذا الكم الهائل من الطلبة يؤثر على مدى استيعاب وتفهم الطلبة. وأحياناً اسمع ضجة من وخارج الصف الدراسي. من داخل الصف من كثرة الطلبة أما من الخارج فربما من ضجة الطلبة وايضاً صوت السيارات. أحياناً اشعر بالراحة عندما يكون العدد قليل استطيع استيعاب الدرس. وأحياناً أخرى لا استطيع استيعاب أي شئ لتلك الاسباب السابقة. الصف الدراسي غير مجهز بالوسائل الحديثة كالمعامل ولجهزة التسجيل التي ربما يحتاجها الطالب لتعلم اللغة الانجليزية وتؤثر في مدى تعلمه للغة الانجليزية. المدرسين أغلبهم عرب وهذا يدل على عدم وجود مدرسين لأجنب فالمدرسين عرب من مختلف أقطار الوطن العربي. يكتبون ما يريدون قوله على السبورة ونحن نكمل الباقي. صفنا الدراسي صغير مقارنة بعدد الطلبة. هذا في السابق أما الآن عدد الطلبة نقص وتوافق مع الصف كما اشير بالقول بأن أغلب المحاضرات دسمة مملة لا تسبب إلا التعب والارهاق. وتلقى ايضاً بطريقة تقليدية لا تحتوي على أي درجة من الحيوية كمادة الصوتيات والمحادثة والانشاء والمنوعات وغيرها من المواد التي تحتاج إلى روح معنوية عالية من الطالب لكي (هجي) يستطيع فهمها والتمتع بها ربما هذا هو العيب الذي يركز عليه معظم الطلبة بمن هم في مثل سني لكن كل وله أسلوبه. فالوسائل التقليدية القديمة حلت محل الوسائل الحديثة هنا في بلادنا في كل شئ. نحن نتقدم ولكن بخطوات إلى الوراء ربما بطيئة جداً إلى حد لا يتصور. ربما بالغت (ولكن) أو خرجت عن الموضوع المحدد ولكن (لو) اتاحت لي فرصة ربما لن اجد سبيل أو وسيلة أخرى للتعبير. وشكراً

Words 276

Errors 44

Error Proportion 15.9%

3

English Version

First Essay

Original Copy

In our life we meet many kinds of people, either good or bad (and school is a part of our life, also the teachers are) School is a part of our life and teachers are important agents in school, they (can made) that part of our life either heaven or hell. Teachers can made the student love or hate studying especially those who (lea all) teach children. In (my acca acadimic) primery and secondry school I did not meet immoderate teachers but I had (one) a strange one in the (last third) third year in secondry (sh) school. She was a very good modle of bad teacher it supposed that she had tought us (sociolinyw) sociology but she did not do so because she cannot give what she did not have (so) she (can) (do not) did not explain lessons only because (she can not) do not have enough knowledge. So she filled the space by shutting and swearing (or). (by she) when she want to explain the lesson she said rubbish and concentrate in one or two points which had she memorized before and repeat them as they are written in the book. If I want to count her faults I will not (fins) finish (by) from this day up to three or four days. She is still teaching in the secondry school I (don't) do not know whom to blame who gave her the certification or who let her continue in (lear) teaching the students

Words 247

Errors 25

Error Proportion 10.12%

Arabic Version

Original Copy

النص العربي

يمر الإنسان (في) خلال مراحل حياتية المتعددة (بانماط) بانماط ونماذج مختلفة من الناس منها ما يستحق التبجيل والاحترام ومنها ما (يستدعى يترك في انفسنا) يستدعى كل (احسا) احساس النبذ والكره وكلاهما يترك اثر في انفسنا. ويمثل المدرس جزء من هؤلاء الناس الذين كثيراً ما نتعامل معه فنسعد بالتعامل مع ذلك النوع الجيد ونلعن لحظات تقابلنا مع ذلك النموذج السيئ. فالمعلم هو الذي يحبب الطالب في الدراسة او يجعله يكره كل ما يتعلق بالمدرسة. ومن خلال تجربتي التعليمية مررت بعدة انواع تركت بالطبع بصماتها على شخصيتي (و) وساهمت في بناءها واحياناً في هدم احلامي وطموحاتي. واذكر من هذا النوع الاخير إحدى مدرسات المرحلة الثانوية التي لم تضفي على حياتي العلمية أي شيء (على العكس تماماً) بل جعلتني اكره تلك المرحلة. وأعني بكلامي هذا مدرسة علم الاجتماع التي يفترض ان تكون مؤهلة تربوياً وعلمياً لانجاح العملية التعليمية. ولكن لم يحدث شيئاً من ذلك فقد كانت هذه المدرسة جوفاء من الناحية العلمية وتفقر إلى الاسلوب التربوي في التعليم حيث كانت (تنتهز الفرصة) تتحين الفرصة (للاقتضا) للخروج من موضوع الدرس والإنقضا على إحدى الطالبات وبذلك تمر الحصة المخصصة للمادة في توزيع الشئام والإهانات للطالبات أو بالشكى من ظروفها الاجتماعية السيئة. واذا حدث (هدنت) هدأت الاجواء فانها لا تستطيع الا ان تكرر الكلمات الموجودة في الكتاب مباشرة وتطلب من الطالبات القيام بالشرح. أو قد تحدث (هـ) زوبعة في فئان وتنتهز الفرصة وتخرج دون ان تشرح الدرس، وهذا كثيراً ما يتكرر مع مساندة مدير المدرسة الذي يعتبر في كل الاحوال (الـ) ان الطالب مخطئ دائماً. لا أقول هذا لشيء



إلا لأننى أمل أن (تلتف،تلتف) تلتفت الإنتظار الى مثل هؤلاء الذين لا يشعرون بالمسئولية التى أسندت اليهم. وأمل أن يتغير أسلوبها) أسلوب هذه المدرسة الى الأفضل.

Words 268

Errors 53

Error Proportion 19.77%

English Essay

Topic Two

Original Copy

Our (st) classrooms are very different from those that I had read or hear about in many aspects. oure classes (in the) on the first hand, are mere walls (constituts) constitute a room in which you can find a traditional black board, (an descks) desks designed essintially for children, broken windows, bad lighting, and crowded students. I (won't) will not talk about the techniques and equipments only because the are not available at all. Typical classes, on the other hand, are (f) remote also I do not have (eng) enough idea about them. But I think they must take in consideration the number (, an) and age of students. Moreover, they must be supplied by required techniques which helps both the teacher and the students such as: tapes and (record) tape recorders, overhead projector, and the (major) important thing which is language labs. All these things and may be others will contribute largely in the process of teaching and learning a foreign language. Oure current classes needs all those things to be able to construct (students) and graduate good students.

Written words 180

Errors 12

Percent 6.66%

Arabic Version

Essay Two

Original Copy

النص العربي

ان من اهم العوامل المساعدة على إنجاح العملية التعليمية هو (وجود جو) إيجاد جو ملائم للطالب يساعده على جودة التحصيل العلمي. (ومن) و يعتبر الفصل الدراسي اهم هذه العوامل التى غالباً ما تؤثر بشكل مباشر على مستوى الطالب وحسن استيعابه. ولكن للأسف فإن هذا العامل غالباً ما ينظر إليه (با) بعدم اهتمام بالفصول الدراسية التى يعيش فيها الطالب نصف حياته هى عبارة عن أطلال. فمن الناحية الجمالية هي أسوأ ما يمكن ان يوصف كما انه لا يوجد أي إعتبار (للص) للتقنية الحديثة فمن حيث وسائل الإيضاح التى يحتاجها الطالب (غير) فهي غير متوفرة كما ان الإضاءة ليست جيدة و لا تساعد الطالب ابدأ الى الدراسة اما المقاعد التى يجلس عليها طلبة لا يقل اعمارهم عن 18 سنة فهي مصممة اساساً لاطفال بين الثامنة والخامسة عشر. أما السبورة التى عن وسيلة الإيضاح الرئيسية والوحيدة فإنها قديمة جداً مقارنة بالتقنيات الحديثة الموجودة في العالم. كما أن سوء التهوية في درجات الحرارة العالية التى تعم أغلب أيام السنة فلها تأثير سلبى إلى نفسية الطالب و المدرس معاً.

أما في الأيام الباردة فإن النوافذ المحطمة تؤدي دورها السلبي بطريقة ممتازة. هذا إذا تحدثت عن أبسط المستلزمات التي يحتاجها الطالب و (لم) لم نذكر ما (يتطلبه) تتطلبه دراسة اللغات من معدات أخرى و (وسا) معامل لغة التي لا يوجد منها شيء ولم يتعرف الطالب عليها حتى عن بعد والتي يعد أساسية في تعليم اللغات. فإذا قارنا ذلك بما يوجد أو يفترض أن يوجد في الفصول الدراسية فإن أول شيء يجب التطرق إليه هو حجم الفصل أن من أهم العوامل المساعدة على إنجاز العملية التعليمية هو (وجود جو) إيجاد جو ملائم للطالب يساعده على جودة التحصيل العلمي. (ومن) و يعتبر الفصل الدراسي أهم هذه العوامل التي غالباً ما تؤثر بشكل مباشر على مستوى الطالب وحسن استيعابه. ولكن للأسف فإن هذا العامل غالباً ما ينظر إليه (با) بعدم اهتمام بالفصول الدراسية التي يعيش فيها الطالب نصف حياته هي عبارة عن أطلال. فمن الناحية الجمالية هي أسوأ ما يمكن أن يوصف كما أنه لا يوجد أي اعتبار (للصد) للتقنية الحديثة فمن حيث وسائل الإيضاح التي يحتاجها الطالب (غير) فهي غير متوفرة كما أن الإضاءة ليست جيدة و لا تساعد الطالب ابداً إلى الدراسة أما المقاعد التي يجلس عليها طلبة لا يقل أعمارهم عن 18 سنة فهي مصممة أساساً لأطفال بين الثامنة والخامسة عشر. أما السبورة التي عن وسيلة الإيضاح الرئيسية والوحيدة فإنها قديمة جداً مقارنة بالتقنيات الحديثة الموجودة في العالم. كما أن سوء التهوية في درجات الحرارة العالية التي تعم أغلب أيام السنة فلها تأثير سلبي إلى نفسية الطالب و المدرس معاً.

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Written Words308

Errors 54

Error Proportion 17.53%

Englisg Version  
First Essay  
Original Copy

In my acadmeic life, I haven't ever meet a teacher who could make students hate him as in this course. I classified to talk about him specially, because he left a very bad (attitudes) empression towards him.

He is a qualified teacher, he teaching the course in a very good way, but what makes me hate (him) or dislike him his behaveors in the class, he used to make student feel disappointed, and criticize whatever we do, and he keeps saying that we are careless, and we are afraid from him, that's why we can't pass this course easily, but that is not true.

The methods that he used in teaching or the materials are not consistent with the educational level of the class, they are elementary to him they will not necessarily seem so to us, but when we proteste about the materials, he doesn't realy care about that, and he uses a difficult questions in the examinations, can not be understood directly, by the student even if this student has studied the subject very hard and memorized every thing about the subject.

What made us realy dis like this teacher that he is not helpful, while he should be the best judge of the individual abilities of students, and he should help us to appreciate the practical value of the subject by relating to actual study condition that we face.

He used to treat us as we are proficient speakers, and we can get any of these subjects easily, because we are in the third year at university, but that is not the right way to evaluate what each individual has in his competence.

I realy hate him not only dislike, because he made me to hate (hate) the subject also, but I'll never give up, and I'll study hard to pass his course, and may be he will change in someday.

Words 314

Errors 31

Error Proportion 9.72%

Arabic Version  
First Essay  
Original Copy

النص العربي

منذ أن بدأت أدرس ولم أتوقع أبداً بأنني أستطيع أن أكره معلم كما هو الآن في هذه السنة من دراستي الجامعية، أبداً ليس بسبب صعوبة المادة أو بسبب الدراسة، فالمشكلة تكمن في الأستاذ أو المعلم نفسه، وأنا اخترت أن أتحدث عن هذا المعلم بشكل خاص لأنه قد ترك إنطباع سيئ جداً لدى الطلبة ليس في هذه السنة فقط بل حتى في السنوات التي سبقتها. فهو دائم الاستهزاء بالطلبة وكذلك محطم للمعنويات فهو دائم القول "لن يستطيع أحد منكم أن ينجح في هذه المادة، ومن استطاع ذلك فيجب أن يكون فخوراً". ربما لأنه يعتبر بأن ليس هناك أناس مجدين دائمي الدراسة يحاولون أن يكونوا الأفضل. هو دائم الاعتماد على استخدام أسئلة تعجيزية في الامتحانات باعتباراً منه أنه يستطيع أن يقيم من الطالب المهمل.



ولكن في نظري ليست بالطريقة الناجحة. لأنه هنالك العديد من الطلبة الجيدين الذين يتعسر عليهم أحياناً فهم  
سيفئة سؤال ما، ولكنه عندما يُسئل فلا يابه لكي يوضح السؤال أو حتى يغير سيفئته بشكل اسهل  
فهو يعامل الطلبة على أنهم متمكنين من اللغة التي يدرسونها ويفرض عليهم منهج من الدراسة لا يتناسب مع  
المستوى أو مستوانا التعليمي، ربما المواد التي تكون بسيطة جداً للاستاد ليست أو تكون العكس بالنسبة  
للطالب فلدلك على المدرس أو المعلم بأن يحاول أن يقيم مستولى الطلبة بشكل عام أولاً ومن ثم يحاول أن  
يضع المادة المناسبة التي يكون بمقدور الطالب استيعابها وفهمها والاجابة كذلك على أسئلتها بكل سهولة  
ويسر.

Written Words 225

Errors 035

Error Proportion 15.55%

English Version

Essay Tow

Original Copy

There are many differences, and or a few similarities between our class rooms in libyan university, and the modal class rooms. The modal classrooms are well-equipped, or well-appointed, with carpets, curtains, and comfortable desks, while in ours we don't have any of that except the desks which are sometimes unavailable, and our classes haven't air conditioning as the modal ones, with abad ventilation and all of those conditions which should be available in any class room even in schools or university to make the place comfortable for students in modal classes, from twenty to twenty-five students should be about the maximum class size the smaller the better, but in our classes the number of students sometimes about sixty to sixty-five and may be more than that, this big number of student in classroom, with bat ventilation will have a bad effect on their ultimate success, because, some students when they couldn't got a desk or a chair they had to stant along the lecture, so they got tierd, and couldn't under stand any thing that the doctor had said about the subject, and they might not have the opportunity to ask question, or participate. The only similarity or (similar thing) between our classes and the modal classrooms that they use for teaching. So, the disadvantages of our classrooms are more than the advantages, because this unhealthy atmosphere which is students forced to, has abad effect on their learning process, because the lack of the unavailability of good healthy, and suitable class rooms, and generally good education is the foundation of so many social, and economic problems. Finally, our class rooms are very different from the great, or the modal classrooms which are realy needed.

Words 286

Errors 19

Error Proportion 6.6%.

Arabic Version (HERE)

Original Copy

النص العربي  
إذا أردنا المقارنة ما بين الفصول الدراسية التي ندرس فيها حالياً في الجامعات الليبية والفصول الدراسية  
الشكلى التي يجب توفرها حقاً، سوف نجد الاختلافات متعددة بينما (لن) لن يكون هنالك تشابه سوى في

أنها أماكن أعدت للتدريس والاختلافات تكمن في أن فصولنا تتقصصها العديد من التجهيزات الواجب توفرها، كالمكيفات الهوائية والأبواب الجيدة التي يمكن إغلاقها لتقاضي الضوضاء في ممراتنا الدائمة الازدحام، وكذلك النوافذ التي يجب أن تكون جيدة التهوية وبالإضافة إلى عدم توفر المقاعد الدراسية بالأعداد الكافية للطلبة مما يدفعهم أحياناً إلى الوقوف طوال وقت المحاضرة ويدعمهم ذلك التعب السريع فيصبحون غير قادرين استيعاب ما قد قيل في تلك المحاضرة. بينما الفصول المتطورة التي يجب توفرها فهي تحتوي على مكيفات هوائية، وكذلك مقاعد بشكل يكفي كل الطلبة وكذلك تحتوي على سجاد وستائر للنوافذ وهي جيدة الإضاءة لهذا هي جيدة، وأفضل لأنها توفر كل الوسائل التي تجعل الطالب مرتاحاً في جلوسه ومن ثم في استيعابه لمحاضراته وفي حالة عدم توفر هذه الوسائل الحيدة للطلبة في فصله الدراسي بالتاكيد تؤثر على تحصيله في مواد الدراسة ويكون لها أثراً سلبياً على دراسته بشكل عام لأنه عندما يكون الفصل يحتوي على أكثر من 60-70 طالب فهذا لا يعطي الفرصة لكل الطلبة لكي يشاركوا في نقاش حول درس معين أو لطرح أي سؤال يخص مادة ما بينما في الفصول التي يجب توفرها (تكون) تسع 20-25 من الطلبة بحيث يستطيع كل طالب أن يشارك في أي نقاش يطرح خلال أو أثناء الدرس. وبالطبع لكل ذلك تأثير إلى نتيجة الطالب في تحصيله العلمي أو الدراسي لهذا تجد أن الفصول المناسبة هي مختلفة بشكل كبير عن التي في جامعاتنا والتي فرضت علينا لأنه ليس هنالك بديل عنها وهذا يرجع إلى المجتمع أو البيئة التي نعيش فيها، ولعدم توفر إدارة جيدة لتقويم لتوفير هذه المستلزمات التي يحتاجها الطالب لكي يدرس في فصل مريح وجيد لان ذلك بالتاكيد ينعكس إلى نتيجة الطالب في تحصيله العلمي.

Words 296

Errors 37

Error Proportion 12.5%

5

English version

English Essay

Original Copy

I will Talk about my Teacher in high school, her name is Halima  
I like her very Much She was Teach Me in Arabic subject. and she  
treated us carefully and all my friends in class were love her and she  
was explained The lessons very good and I was undersTand every  
Thing Through her explain and she made me like This subject  
Though This subject (was) was very difficulT and all sTudent were  
afraid from This subject.  
She was laughing and talk with us and Jokes in first part of Share  
and in The second part of share was (gave) giving us The lesson.  
(Teacher) My Teacher Halima was sit on The first desk, cause she don't  
like sit in her privaT chair She were say "I want your feel I am a  
sTudent like you, I don't wan't you feel I am a Teacher consider Me  
your sisTer or your friend, and dont mak حاجز [barrier] bet ween us"  
we were Told her about all our problems in home or wiTh oTher Teachers  
(,) and she (arn) was undersTand us and Try To solve ThaT problems.  
and she was leT every sTudent work in share and she was say "Try even  
The answer is wrong" so, she was Mak us very active in share, although  
This subject were very difficulT

accordingly, To Me This Teacher were [an] ideal Teacher and ideal human in her behavior with sTudenT and was (helped) help us in degrees . and I Think all sTudenT sTill love her and I am sure No one haTe her cause she is a human befor she isTeacher.

Words 271

Errors 65

Error Proportion 23.9%

Arabic Version

Original Copy

النص العربي

سوف اتكلم عن مدرستي في المدرسة الثانوية وكانت تدرسنني في مادة اللغة العربية وقد كنت أحبها على الرغم من أن مادتها كانت صعبة جداً. وقد كانت مدرستي حليلة تعاملنا بعناية كبيرة وكانت تحرص على أن تكون قد فهمنا الدرس من خلال شرحها. وقد كان كل الضلاب في الفصل يفهمون منها ما نقوله وما تشرحه وقد كانت لها طريقة خاصة في الشرح. فقد كانت تجمع بين المرح والجد في الحصة. فافي الجزء الاول من الحصة كانت تضحك وتتحدث معنا وكانت تمزح معنا وفي الجزء الثاني من الحصة كانت جدية وتشرح الدرس بكل أمثلة وهذا ما جعلني أحترمها وقد كانت أيلة حليلة تجلس على المقعد الاول ولا تحب أن تجلس على كرسيها الخاص كي تجعلنا قريبين منها وكانت تقول لنا "أريد أن أشعر بأنني طالبة مثلكم، ولريدكم أن تشعروا بأنني طالبة مثلكم أو أخت لكم" وقد كانت الإيلة حليلة تشاركنا حتى في حياتنا الخاصة فقد كانت تبدي اهتماماً كبيراً لمشاكلنا في المنزل وتحاول أن تحلها وقد كنا نشكروا لها حتى عن المدرسين الآخرين وكانت تحاول أن تحلها أيضاً. وقد كانت تجعل كل طالب يشارك في الحصة فكانت تحسننا بالنشاط ونقول "يجب أن تحاولوا حتى ولو الاجابة خاطئة" بالنسبة لي اعتبر حليلة المعلمة المثالية و الانسانة المثالية لتعاملها مع الطلبة كأبنائها أو أخوتها وليس كاضلاب

Written Words 202

Errors 36

Error Proportion 17.82%

Topic Two

Original Copy

Class rooms in our university and schools

I think our class rooms are bad, Because iTs noT suiTable for sTudent, for example some class rooms have broken windows and door, and The size of class rooms are not wide. and The desks are different in shape in The same class. and ThaT Make the sighT of class room is bad, and The chalk ThaT used by Teachers is not healThy, and its known ThaT The unhealThy chalk causes some disease. but here in our schools and colleges iTs un usuall To find like These healThy chalk, in addition The Black board Mostly has a deep color like a deep Green, and some Times The lighT of sun is reflect on The black board, so The sTudenTs can noT see whaT The Teacher wrote, and There is anoTher problem ThaT some class rooms havn't lighT, also some class rooms has alarge Number of sTudenTs,



and The siZe of class rooms is small and That Make sTress and Make The sTudenT (don't) do not undersTand lessons from The Teacher.

These are some problems in our schools and (college) university. but I Think ThaT our class rooms should To be Modal class rooms like some class rooms (wo) ThaT we heard about. I Think ThaT The Modal class rooms should To be healThy for learning sTudenT and class rooms should have modern or new equipmenT, for example, class rooms Must have Television cause The Television is imporTanT for some subject like hisTory because hisTory subject depended on undersTand it More Than read iT (and The cl)

The class rooms have To be wide and The number of sTudenTs is liTTle, in order To help Them in learning process also The place is imporTanT for sTudenT and The place MusT To be quiet place and faraway from traffic places cause The noise is influence on sTudenT, and The place must To be clean and comforTable, in addiTion The class rooms Must To be provided by different equipmenT ThaT relaTed (by To) foreign language learning like vidio and suiTable books and labs (T) and I wish ThaT our universiTy (and co) and schools becom like These Modal classrooms

Written Words 362

Errors 40

Error Proportion 11.04%

Arabic Version

Topic Two

Original Copy

النص العربي  
الفصول الدراسية في مؤسساتنا التعليمية

أعتقد بأن فصولنا الدراسية في حالة سيئة لأنها غير مناسبة للطلاب. فمثلاً بعض الفصول الدراسية نوافدها وأبوابها مكسورة. وغالباً ما يكون حجم الفصول ليس (متاً) واسعاً وبالإضافة إلى أن المقاعد الدراسية عادة ما تكون مختلفة الأشكال في نفس الفصل وهذا يجعل من منظر الفصل سيئاً. وكذلك الطباشير الذي يستعمل (مت) من قبل (الاساتذة) ليس صحيحاً ومن المعروف بأن الطباشير الغير صحيحة تحدث بعض الأمراض ولكن هنا في مدارسنا وجامعاتنا من النادر أن تجد مثل هذه الطباشير الصحية. وأيضاً الصبورة غالباً ما يكون لونها غامق مثل الأخضر الداكن وفي بعض الأحيان تعكس ضوء السمش على الصبورة مما يجعل بعض الطلبة لا يستطيعون رؤية ما كتبه الأستاذ. وهناك أيضاً مشكلة أخرى حيث أن بعض الفصول الدراسية لا يوجد بها إضاءة. ومن المشاكل الكبرى التي تعاني منها (هـ) وهي وجود عدد كبير من الطلاب في فصل دراسي ضيق وهذا يخلق نوع من الضغط ويجعل الطلاب لا (فهم) لا يفهمون الدروس. أعتقد بأن الفصول المثالية بحسب أن نكون صحية لتعليم الطلاب.

ويحب أن نكون الفصول الدراسية معدة أو مجهزة بأجهزه حديثه. فمثلاً (بأن تـ) الفصول الدراسية معدة بأجهزة تلفزيونيه لان التلفزيون مهم لبعض المواد فمثلاً التاريخ يعتمد على فهم المادة. وليس على حفظها والتلفزيون يساعد على فهم هذه المادة وكذلك يجب على الفصول الدراسية أن تكون واسعة وعدد الطلبة يكون صغير لكي يساعدهم في عملية التعليم. وأيضاً المكان مهم للطلبة، فالمكان يحب أن يكون هادئاً وبعيداً عن الأماكن المزدحمة لان الضجيج يؤثر على مستوى الضلاب (و) (ولد) وكذلك المكان يحب ان يكون نظيف ومريح وعلى الفصول الدراسية أن تكون مزودة لمعدات مختلفة تتعلق بتعلم لغة أجنبية مثل (الفيديو) الفيديو والكتب المناسبة والمعامل وأتمنى أن تصح مدارسنا وجامعاتنا مثل الفصول الدراسية المثالية.

Written Words270  
Errors 63  
Error Proportion 23.3%

6  
English Version  
First Essay  
Original Copy

there are good teacher and there are bad teacher in the universtey. /they are/ such as Grammar teach/er/ is good teacher. and Dr, lingustic is very nice and good teach , there are dislike teacher in secondry /school/ school such as in subject /gergraph/ جغرافيا (trans. Geography) Becouse dislike تصرفات (trans. Behaviors), there are differents teacher of them varities are very bad I don't like, /and/ Becouse طرق التدريس (trans. Teaching methods) differents from teacher grammar. Dr. فاطمة (trans. Fatma) is very nice in the طرق التدريس (trans. Teaching methods) Becouse always solation exercius always مهتمة بنا (trans: taking care of us) carry us

Words 105  
Arabic Words Used 009  
Errors 30  
Error Proportion 28.48%

Arabic Version  
Original Copy

النص العربي  
النسخة الأصلية

يوجد أساتذة مختلفين في مدرسة منهم الجيد ومنهم مش كويس "ردئ". الابالات في مدرسة الابتدائية تختلف عن الابالات في مدرسة الثانوية ومنهم الجامعة، أبله علم التفسير مدرسة جيدة لانها دائما تراجع في الدروس التي أعطيتاهمنا. اما في الثانوي احسن أبله الانجليزي لانها طرق التدريس جيده جدا. أما في الجامعة هناك دكاترة ممتازين ومنهم الردئ في طرق التدريس ويجب كل دكتور يعطي حق الطالب في الدراسة لان منهم لا يعطي حق الطالب في الدراسة. أما دكتورة قواعد في سنة ثالثة كويسة كويسة لانها دائما تراجعنا في دروس التي تعطي فيهم. كذلك في الابتدائي هو الاساس في تعلم طالب خاصة في المرحلة الاولى سنة أولى ابتدائي لو كانت الابله جيدة فان طالب يظهر أو يطلع ممتاز والعكس. كذلك أنا لما كنت في صف الاول درستني أبله جيدة في طرق التدريس . فانا طلعت أو ظهرت ممتازة ولكن في جامعة "تصنص هذا يعني إلى الدكاترة التي يدرسوا فيا منهم الجيد ومنهم .

Words 156  
Errors 46  
Error Proportion 30.6%

Essay Two  
Original Topic

“In the name of God”

There are many classroom in the country “libyan” from them منهم ((among them)) is very clear and very dirty. and this is يؤثر ((affecting)) on the children in {[healty]} healthy صحتهم ((their health)) them. This كل هذا ((all this)) his all from sabbatarian المسؤولون ((people in charge))() or أما الدول الخارجية ((but the foreign countries)) Dhole out twardness or out ليبيا خارج ((outside Libya)) libyan and other country is, are very concerned مهتمين ((concerned)) with classrooms() and Bathroom is very clealy especilly in the British and other country. is very nice.

#

<u>Total Text Words 96</u>	<u>Pure Written English Words 67</u>
<u>Arabic Used Words 12</u>	<u>Errors 19</u>
<u>Translating Words 17</u>	<u>Error Proportion 28.35%</u>

Arabic Version  
Original Copy

النص العربي

"بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم"

توجد عدة فصول في المدارس. خاصة التي توجد في حي سكاني كبير () منها مدارس مهتمين بفصولهم () ومنها مدارس غير مهتمة بفصولها. نجد ان في فصول نظيفة. وكذلك هذا يؤثر على الصحة () وخاصة صحة الاطفال. لما في الدول الخارجية وخاصة بريطانيا (.) مهتمين جداً بأطفالهم (.) ودراسة أبنائهم وميتعابتهم في كل الاحوال. {[أ]} هذا يؤدي الى نجاحهم وابتكارتهم في اشياء أخرى. أما الفصول في ليبيا غير {[مهتمة]} ابدأ بالفصول ومتابعة اولادهم () القليل النادر المهتم بالاولادهم في المدارس (.) والمتابعة.

#

شكراً

<u>Written Words 82</u>
<u>Errors 32</u>
<u>Error Proportion 39.02%</u>



7

English Version  
Essay Two  
Original Topic

“In the name of God”

There are many classroom in the country “libyan” from them منهم ((among them)) is very clear and very dirty. and this is يؤثر ((affecting)) on the children in { [healty] } healthy صحتهم ((their health)) them. This كل هذا ((all this)) his all from sabbatarian المسؤولون ((people in charge))() or أما الدول الخارجية ((but the foreign countries)) Dhole out twardness or out ليبيا خارج ((outside Libya)) libyan and other country is, are very concerned مهتمين ((concerned)) with classrooms() and Bathroom is very clealy especilly in the British and other country. is very nice.

#

Written Words 95

Arabic Used Words and translation 029

Pure Written English 66

Errors 38

Error Proportion 57.5%

Arabic Version  
Original Copy

النص العربي  
النسخة الأصلية

أتكلم على الدرس الجديد.  
في الصف الثالث ابتدائي درستني أيلة الفاضلة (منوبية) [،] جزها الله كل خير نعيم المدرسة لقد أحببتها  
كثير لأنها كانت (تعاملنا) تعامل كل الطالب مثل أبنها لأنها كنت عندها ابن واحد فقط لقد حبتني في المدرسة  
في تلك السنة لأنها تعطي للطالب حقة في كل شي مثلا التكلم في الفصل بحرية تامة [.] وليس طلية الحصة  
دراسة (شوية جد وشوية لعب).  
أيلة منوبية لان انسها طيلة حياتي والى الابد.  
(عندما كنت) في تلك السنة أجمل أيام الدراسة (كانت لعب) كانت تجلب لنا الحلوة (والكاكة) الكاك  
يجب على كل مدارس ان يحافظ على الامانة التي بيده [و] هي ان يخرج جيل يكون يحمل المساولية.  
ومن صفات المدرس الجيد ان يتحلى بصبر لان الطلبة لهم نفسيات مختلفة خاصة أيام الاولى من السنة  
وكانت مأملة للتدريس جمع المواد (التي) في تلك السنة  
ولها طرق تدريس ممتازة لا تحبيب الطالب في الدراسة و الذهاب الى المدرسة [.]  
(وكانت لها معاملت مع الطلبة)  
و تعرف كيف تتصرف مع كل طالب وطالبة كل وحد حسب طبيعته انفسية.  
ويجب على كل مدارس و مدارس ان يطواو طرق التدريس (لكي لا يكون الطالب له نفسية سيئة)

Words 183

Errors 59

Error Proportion 21.2%

English Essay  
Topic Two  
Original Copy

I am thirte stude, I stude in big class room, it has two doors, windows but some the windows are brokn . and it has not many desks but, it some dirty Because student write on it

My (the) classroom is midem height and classroom is difference (between) with other modal classrooms I seen in tv

I feel it is not مهيئى للدراسة (*prepared for learning*) classroom, (ant) has not الامكانيات (*the facilities*) which help us for stude and they are not موافرين (*providing/securing*) books for us we cannot find books for easy.

Written Words 101

Errors 36

Error Proportion 36%.

Arabic Version  
Original Copy

أنا طالبة في السنة الثالثة وأدرس في فصل كبير (الحـ) وبة بابان ونوافذ (ولكنهم) ولكن بعض منهم مكسور بسبب  
الاهمال طبعاً من الطلبة. والفصل متوسط الارتفاع.  
وللأسف لايس متوفر مقاعد الدراسة وبعض بعض منهم غير نظيف لان الطلبة (سامحهم الله) يكتبون علي  
(فصلي) فصل الدراسة مختلف تماماً عن غيره من فصول الدراسة في الجماعات الاخرى التي اشاهدها في التلفاز.  
وهية ليست معدة اعداد كامل لكي يدرسون بها طالبة في جامعة  
ولا يوجد الامكانيات التي تساعدنا للدراسة منها الكتب الخارجة مثلاً.  
ولا تستطيع الحصول على كتب المنهج بسهولة.  
ولعاني من ازدائد الطلبة في هذ القسم  
وبالنسبة للامكانيات التي ليست متوفرة منها الامعامل الخاصة بالصوتيات التي تساعد الطالب في الدراسة

Words 110

Errors 29

Error Proportion 27.52%

8

English Essay

Topic One

Original Copy

I met so many teachers in my life some of them or let me talke franky few of them were good I choose this teachers to talke about him may be because he left agood impression in me he always tries to explain everything in details and when you ask him to clarify any word he would say yes, with pleasure. and if you make any mistake he will correct it for you. as I told you I enjoy writing poetry he helps me so much, especially when I gave him my note book and I was excited to know his opinion. he told me that my poety was very good and I must continue writing, (I also see)

He tread me (both) as astudent and as ahuman. I used to hate Arabic litreture because it is very difficult but he made me love the English letretur because of the ways he use in teaching. and even if you were not concentrating on what he is saying when back home you find your self memorizing what he had been explaining. That is why I admire and apreciate his effort with us and I really love this subject very much finally() I want to say that if you love the teacher you'll love the subject even if it is too difficult.

Written Words 220

Errors 36

Error Proportion 16.3%

Arabic Version

Original Essay

النص العربي

لقد قابلت العديد من المدرسين طوال حياتي البعض منهم او كى اتحدث اكون صرحا اكثر القليل منهم من يترك انطبعا جيدا فى نفسك وقد اخترت هذا الاستاذ لاتحدث عنه لانه يساعدنى كثيرا وعندما تطلب منه ان يوضح لك اى كلمة بشرحها لك بصبرا رحب وكما قلت لك بانى لذى بعض المحاولات الشعرية (وهـ) وهو (لقد) ساعدنى هذه المحاولات كثيرا وعندما اعطيته مفكرتى لقد كنت شغوفة لأستمع إلى رايه قال لى بان محاولاتي جيدة جدا ويجب ان استمر. وانا اقدر هذا الاستاذ او المعلم جيدا لانه يعاملنا كطلبة يعاملنى كطالبه وكأنسانه لذلك فانا اقدر(ت) مجهوداته الجبارة وفى النهاية لايسعنى (الا ان اشكره) ان اقول بأنك اذا احببت المدرس عاجلا ام اجلا سوف نحب المادة حتى لو كانت صعبه (فم) فبمحاولاتك سوف تستطيع ان تجتاز هذه (الصعبات) الصعوبات.

Written Words 125

Errors 64

Error Proportion 51.2%

Topic Two

Original Copy

in order to talke about our classroom I will, firstly discribe it it is not too big and it contain many disks.it has ablackbord and other elements which need to teach (people) students. but to compare this classroom with the model class room I



think there's no similarity between the two or put in another word, there is a vast difference between the two.

I'll think it is suitable for both the teacher and the students firstly, it must have enough desks and table with the exact number of student, secondly it must be clean, and tidy and also to include a wide blackboard white board and a magic pen. the use of chalk becomes old fashioned and it also unhealthy moreover a strong light to help (people) students in when they read or write. to my opinion these are the most important elements that must be found in a model classroom.

The advantages of this kind of class room it helps student to set comfortably listening to the lesson. also it is good for a teacher to find place where he can set and the light to help them to see properly, the cleanliness is good for their health. our normal classroom it is nearly lack all of these elements there's only one similarity between the two is that both of them is a place for studying we unfortunately must study in such classes because we have no other choice. but, we must try to improve the way that our classroom looks like any- how just to help (people) students to study in a good atmosphere.

we still suffer from problems such as, the student can't he/she spend all the lecture standing I think it is not a suitable way to listening to the teacher while you are standing you will find yourself thinking when the lecture will end and not concentrating on what a lecturer is saying.

Written Words 312

Errors 68

Error Proportion 21.7%

Arabic Version

Original Copy

النص العربي  
(لكني أتحدث عن الفصل الدراسي العادي)  
لكني أتحدث عن الفصل الدراسي العادي ولاصفه كما هو فهو ليس كبير ولا يحتوي على العديد من المقاعد الدراسية وعلى سبوره. ولكن للمقارنه بين الفصلين الدراسيين اعتقد ان هناك (احتلا) تشابه (بصيت) بين الفصلين او ان هناك فرق شاسع بينهما فالفصل الدراسي المثالي او النموذجي يجب ان يحتوي على عدد كافى من المقاعد الدراسية والتي يجب ان تتساوى مع عدد (افراد) الطلبة. ويجب كذلك ان يكون نظيف ومنظم ويحتوى على عارضه رئيسيه بدلاً من الطاباسير الذي يعتبر غير صحي. وفي نظري هذه هي العوامل الاساسيه التي يجب ان تتوفر في الفصل الدراسي النموذجي لمساعدة سير المسيره التعليميه بشكل جيد لما (فصلنا) الفصل الدراسي العادي يشكو من نقص تقريباً كل هذه العناصر هناك وجه شبه واحد بين الفصلين وذلك بأنهما مكاناً للدراسه وللأسف (يجب) لا يوجد لدينا بديل لذلك يجب علينا الدراسه في مثل هذه الفصول على الرغم من انها تشكو من نقص اكثر العناصر اهميه الا وهى المقاعد والاضاءه الكافيه هناك بعض الطلبة اللذين لا يجدون مكاناً للجلوس فيه فيمضون المحاضره بكاملها وهم واقفون واعتقد بان هذا الطالب لا يركز تركيزاً كافياً في المحاضره (بل ينتظرها حتى تنتهى).

Written Words 185

Errors 89

Error Proportion 48.1%

## English Version

## First Essay

## Original Copy

In my life study I met sveral teachers and Doctor's. Some of them was very good, However the other one are not fortunatly. And I wont to explane the (last kind which is) first one which is very good. There are many Doctors in the university which are very good. There are several reasons which made them very good, for example the experience in the field of teaching and the good Background in teaching the English. another example is that good way which they selcted to explane the things or the subjects. And In my thoughts The good Doctors can always be rememberd from the student's,

Thank you.

Written Wrods107

Errors28

Error Proportion 26.1%

## Arabic Version

## Essay One

## Original Copy

النص العربي  
بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم: لقد قابلت أو درست من قبل عدة دكاترة واساتذه () ولقد كان (معظمهم جيداً) بعضهم جيداً في حين ان البعض الآخر لم يكن موفقاً ربما لعدم مقدرته على إيصال المعلومة الى الطلاب، وأنا أريد ان اتحدث عن الاساتذة الذين كانوا (محظوظين، معدين) مؤهلين لطريقة التعليم ، وهناك عدة (نماذج) امثلة للاساتذة الممتازين (في جميع النواحي) من جميع النواحي، ولديهم الخبرة الكافية ولديهم ايضاً (الماضي) الخلفية الثقافية والتعليمية مما يؤهلهم لخوض التجربة التعليمية وهم ليسوا عبارة عن اداة أو سيف مسلط على الطلبة وهذه احد الميزات التي تجعل منهم في مستوى التجربة ، في حين أن هناك بعض الساتذة في المراحل التي درست فيها أي المرحلة من الابتدائية ثم الاعدادية ومن ثم الثانوية الى المرحلة الجامعية لم يكونوا في مستوى هذه التجربة الخطيرة و المهمة في نفس الوقت. إن الاساتذة الذين كما وضحت عنهم سابقاً أي الممتازين يعتبرون عدة بصراحة في الجامعة ربما لان الخبرة في التعليم اكتسبوها من خلال طول الفترة الدراسية التي قضوها في شتى المراحل التعليمية. وأنا (عندي) أملاك دليلا على الدكاترة الممتازين فمثلا في السنة الاولى الجامعية درسنا الدكتور: رعد حسين. في مادة القواعد و لقد كان و بصراحة من احسن الاساتذة الذين درسوني وله عدة مؤهلات تجعله جيد جداً فهو يجيد القواعد والاستيعاب والنطق و طريقة التدريس والاحترام للمادة وللقاعة وللطالب الذي يجلس امامه، على عكس بعض الدكاترة الذين لا يملكون الخبرة الكافية رغم طول مدة خدمتهم. وشكراً.

Written Words 225

Errors 61

Error Proportion 27.1%

## Topic Two

## Original Copy

English language department.

Describing aclassroom:-

My class room has about fifty chairs. and one black board. and three windows . and one door. and lights. And if i wont to compare it with the modal class rooms i

have seen or read about, there are many differences bitween the two classes, for example, the class rooms which i have seen is very good and sutible to teach the students, where as our class room is very bad because it doesn't have alanguage leboratory, where as we can find leboratory in the another classroom which i have see. I think this is very big problem in our university. and this is itself make me stop taking about the advantages and disadvantages. And I suits the learning process as I think and students numbers too. I think the general healty atmosphere is not very good that glasses is not avaluable in our windows. And its very bad and its suits a forign language learning.

thank you very much: 2001/May/fifteen.

Written Words 168

Errors 41

Error Proportion 24.4%

Arabic Version

Essay Tow

النص العربي

"بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم" :-

القاعة التي ادرس بها يوجد فيها حوالى اربعين مقعداً، وصبورة، ونوافذ، وإضاءة، وباب، وبعض النوافذ مكسورة. ويوجد بالقاعة التي ادرس بها حوالى خمسين طالباً وطالبة (.) ومعظم الطلبة من الفتيات. وإذا اردنا مقارنة القاعة ببقية القاعات التي رأيتها أو سمعت عنها فبصراحة أنا رأيت قاعات في برامج تعليمية في التلفاز مثلاً من أوروبا وهي غاية في التنظيم والنظافة والتجهيزات الكاملة بحيث توفر للطالب سبل الراحة لكي يدرس أو يستوعب ولا يجد أية مبررات لعدم توقفة في الدراسة، وأنا اعتقد أن هذا له تأثير كبير على العملية التعليمية فمثلاً (لا توجد) لا يوجد معمل لغة انجليزية في كليتنا وهذا من وجهة نظري كطالب مشكلة كبيرة يجب ايجاد حل لها فهي تؤثر تأثيراً كبيراً على الطلبة الراغبين في تعلم لغة اجنبية غير لغتهم وعندما انظر إلى القاعات أو أقارن (ها) بالأخرى فتجد أن هناك فرقاً كبيراً بين القاعتين فقسم يدرس اللغة الانجليزية أو اية لغة أخرى ولا يوجد به معمل فهذه تدعى الى أو تدعى المستمع الى الاستغراب فكيف يستطيع الطالب دراسة لغة اجنبية دون الاستماع الى الناطقين الاصليين بها. ففي القاعة التي ادرس بها لا توجد اية فوائد على الاطلاق سوى الصبورة وتوجد بها اضرار كنقص الزجاج في النوافذ وعدم توفر المعامل من حيث السعة فتسع للكثير من الطلبة. والجو الصحي العام بالقاعة ليس جيد بما فيه الكفاية مقارنة بالقاعات العصرية التي رأيتها أو سمعت عنها نظراً لعدم توفر الزجاج كما ذكرت مسبقاً وتشويش الطلبة خارج القاعة وهي بصراحة لا تصلح للدراسة بها كقاعة لتدريس لغة اجنبية، وبقية القاعات في الخارج مناسبة جداً لدراسة لغة اجنبية وذلك لحرص الكلية المسنولة على تدريس اللغات الاجنبية بينما يوجد تقصير واضح من قبل المسؤولين في الكلية (فعند مقاً) لعدم وجود معمل في قسم كاللغة الانجليزية مقارنة كبيرة وهي وحدها كافية للتعبير عن النواقص الموجودة في القاعة. ويجب الاهتمام بأقسام حساسة كاللغة الانجليزية باعتبارها اللغة الاولى والمتداولة عالمياً. وايجاد الحلول من الان لتجهيز قاعة ترقى الى تعليم لغة اجنبية. وسكراً.

Words 309

Errors 69

Error Proportion 22.3%



I want to talk about good teachers Who taught me the few years ago.  
in my acadmic life I met alot of good and bad teachers who left good imprisons in me.  
 I think that a good teacher is the person who can do his Job according to the methods that  
 are avaliabe to his/her students or kids, and he/she must know how treat his/her students  
according to their way of learning.  
 I think also the good teacher must be well-prepared from the beginning, because as we  
 know that the teacher was a student, was learning and she/he passed different levels and  
 the good must sure of him/herself.  
 So, I want bout my (to) good teacher or profistions in my studying in the university.  
 I have met many good profishion I say good teachers (are) they (e) really have been a  
good teacher. and one of them is "Oral teacher" Who is one of the few good teachers I've  
 met in my acadimic (o) life, he is a good teacher and has a qualifications that must be had  
 in any good teacher Such as "patient, kindness, trethfulness" and the good must knows  
 how to deal with his/her students according to their knowledge, understanding, amt to be  
optimstic inorder to make his/her students optimstic. and my iprofshion of Oral in the  
third year having the qualifications and he also knows how to choose the sutiabe  
methods and subjects in class and how to treat us according to our ages. So, I think or in  
my opinion the good teacher must have these qualifications and.

Written Words 264

Errors 44

Error Proportion 16.66%

Arabic Version  
Original Copy

النص العربي  
 أريد أن أتحدث عن المدرسين الجيدين الذين درسوني في السنوات الماضية.  
 في حياتي العلمية قابلت العديد من المدرسين الجيدين والغير جيدين. والذين  
 تركوا إنطباعاتاً في نفسي.  
 اعتقد بأن المدرس الجيد، هو الشخص الذي يستطيع أن يعلم، أو يدرس وفق المناهج  
 الملائمة لطلبته ويجب عليه أن يعرف كيف يعامل طلبته وفقاً لطريقة تعلم كل منهم.  
 اعتقد أيضاً أن الأستاذ الجيد يجب أن يكون مُعداً بشكل جيد من البداية لأن كما نعلم  
 أن الأستاذ كان في الحقيقة طالباً كان يتعلم و مر بمراحل مختلفة.  
 قابلت العديد من الأساتذة الجيدين. أقول جيدين لأنهم في الحقيقة كانوا كذلك وواحد  
 من هؤلاء أستاذ الشفهي "الذي كان واحد من القلائد الذين قابلتهم في حياتي العلمية.  
 قد كان أستاذاً جيداً وعنده الصفات التي يجب أن تتوفر في الأستاذ الجيد، مثل "الصبر، الرحمة،  
 العطف، (و) المصادقية" والأستاذ الجيد يعرف كيف يتعامل مع طلبته وفقاً لمعرفتهم وفهمهم وأن  
 يكون متفانلاً مثله لكي يجعل طلبته متفانلين. و استاذي هذا الذي يدرسني في السنة الثالثة يمتلك  
 هذه الصفات ويعرف أيضاً كيف يختار المناهج أو المواضيع المناسبة في المحاضرة ويعرف كيف  
 يتعامل معنا أو يعاملنا وفقاً لأعمارنا

ولهذا اعتقد أو من وجهة نظري، أن الأستاذ الجيد يجب أن تتوفر فيه هذه الصفات

Written words 190

Errors 39

Percentage 20.5%

**Topic Two**

**English Essay**

**Original Copy**

I am going to descripe my class room, first of all I think that the class room must be prepared or made according to the goal or the target that made for.

So, the class room is not Just aplace where we recieve information or where we learn, It is the place where you must find what you need in your learning process. I as a foreign language learner, need a particular class room, particular atmosher that are sutiable for my study, but I have not gotten any of these things. because, my (room) class room is not available for my study, because (of) there is no visual aids, wall charts, records, books of language and the number of students is huge, it is more than required. So I think that such. class room is not sutiable for my study, We need a special class rooms, special atmospheres, special number of students that must be as least twenty, We also need visual aids, wall charts, labs and other things that are related to our study, I think that this is the modal class room that we need,

Words 187

Errors 36

Error proportion 19.2%

**Arabic Version**

**Essay Tow**

**Original Copy**

النص العربي  
الفصل الدراسي هو المكان الذي، الذي يجب أن يكون أكثر ملائمة لمجال الدراسة للطالب.  
فمثلاً، أنا كطالب أدرس لغة أجنبية، فالفصل الدراسي يجب أن يكون معداً وفقاً لمجال دراستي. ولكن الفصل الدراسي الذي أدرس فيه لا يختلف عن (الفصل الدراسي)، الفصل الدراسي التقليدي. (المجالات الأخرى)، لأي مجال من المجالات الأخرى، فالفصل الدراسي لدراسي، الدارسي اللغة الأجنبية يجب أن يُعد خصيصاً لهذا المجال. وذلك لكي يعيش الطالب في بيئة، لها علاقة ولو بشكل معنوي، باللغة التي يدرسها، من استعمال على سبيل المثال، الجرائد الحائطية، وإيضاً مسجلات الصوت، ومعامل الصوت، والكتب الخاصة باللغة الأجنبية. وكذلك، والذي يعتبر الأكثر أهمية هو عدد الطلبة الدارسين في ذات الفصل الدراسي. فالعدد يجب أن يكون ما بين خمسة عشر وعشرين طالباً على الأكثر. لهذا لا يوجد، لا توجد، يوجد أي وجه مقارنة بين الفصل الدراسي الذي أدرس فيه الآن وبين الفصل الدراسي المثالي الذي يجب أن أدرس فيه، باعتباري دارس ومهتم، ومجال تخصصي لغة أجنبية تحتاج إلى أسلوب معين، وجو معين وبنية فصلية معينة وخاصة. وهذا ما تفتقر، تفتقر إليه البيئة التي أدرس فيها الآن.

Written Words 170

Errors

11

English Version

First Essay

Original Copy

In my academic life, I met a teacher who made me very close to the subject that he was teaching, (The subject is history) I liked history very much because of his way of teaching it. The students used to tell him about any problem they (faced) might face (in) at school. At that time we (cannot) did not know why we were (very) very close to him, But now I can discover why we admired him and liked the subject of history he teaches. Firstly, he was so friendly, and polite, secondly he is good qualified in the subject of history he explained the lessons like stories, This way made us understood lessons very easy, he simplified the lessons by using different teaching aids.

Finally his kindness was such that I will never forget him.

Written Words 135

Errors 21

Error Proportion 15.55%

Arabic Version

Original Copy

النص العربي

في حياتي التعليمية الماضية كان هناك أحد المعلمين الذي جعلني أحبه وأقرب منه أنا وباقي زملائي جعلنا أيضاً نحب مادة التاريخ التي كان يدرسها لأنه دائماً يتحدث معنا حتى خارج الحصص ويساعدنا في حل مشاكلنا الشخصية. في ذلك الوقت لم نكن نعرف لماذا نحن نحب بهذا الشكل ولكن الآن استطعنا أن نعرف السبب والذي لا يزيد عن كونه مهتم بنا وبدراستنا لأنه كان أستاذاً فاضلاً ومحترماً وموهباً بشكل ممتاز كان يشرح دروس التاريخ على شكل قصص شديدة انتباهنا وتجعلنا نستوعب المواضيع التاريخية ودائماً يختار وسائل الإيضاح المناسبة ويستعمل الأمثلة القريبة كان يتعامل معنا وكأننا أصدقاء له. إن أستاذاً فاضلاً مثل هذا لا يمكن أن ينسى وسيبقى دائماً جديراً بالاحترام.

English Version

Essay Two

Original Copy

My classroom is completely different from the modal Classroom I have heard It is simply a big room has some windows and two doors, one is in the front and the other is in the back. It is full of desks and chairs, because there are a large number of students. It is not well light, and that makes the black board not seen clear. In comparing it with the modal classroom you can see many differences. Firstly, it is not furnished there are not curtains at the windows, the light is not enough and it is not good situated. Secondly, there is not any teaching aids, which help the students for learning foreign language. Thirdly, the number of students is not limited, and that makes it very difficult for the teacher to work with each student separately. Finally, the place where the classroom is very noisy. Generally my classroom is not suits the learning process of foreign language.

Written Words 159

Errors 021



## Error Proportion 13.2%

Arabic Version  
Original Copy

النص العربي  
لكي أصف الفصل الدراسي الذي أتلقى فيه دروس أستطيع أن أقول. إنه عبارة على حجرة كبيرة بها عدد من النوافذ وبابان. يقع أحدهم في الجهة الأمامية والآخر في الجهة الخلفية والحجرة ملئة بالمقاعد والكراسي الفردية. ذلك بسبب العدد الكثير للطلاب الدراسية في هذا الفصل، والإضاءة غير كافية مما يتسبب في عدم رؤية السبورة بوضوح وعند مقارنته بالفصل النموذجي، أستطيع القول بأن الفارق كبير، حيث إن هذا الفصل غير مؤثث ولا توجد به ستائر للنوافذ. والإضاءة غير كافية، وليست في مواقعها المناسبة، ولا توجد به وسائل الإيضاح اللازمة لتعلم اللغة الأجنبية وبالنظر إلى عدد الطلاب فاعنه كبير جداً وهذا يتسبب في عدم قدرة المعلمون على التحدث مع الطلاب بشكل فردي للتأكد من إستيعابهم للدروس. وأخيراً وجود الفصل بالقرب من التجمعات الطلابية وأصوات السيارات و الموسيقى الصاخبة التي تسمع من مسجلات السيارات.  
كل هذه الاشياء لا تجعل من هذا الفصل فصل مناسب لتعلم اللغة الأجنبية.

12

English Version  
Essay One  
Original Copy

(He is one of)

I still remember one of the best teachers who taught me Geography in the teacher's institute. He was a respectable person. He was very kind. He treated us as we were his friends. His way of teaching was marvellous. Using different kinds of teaching aids he enabled (to) us to understand the lessons in details. (He listened to us and an) He used to listen (d to us and answered our quest) to us patiently, and answered our questions clearly. If he was not sure about the answer, he just sayd I would check and give you the answer in the following lesson. He used to encourage us to study to write researches to draw maps pricisely. I still keep the maps that I drew under his supervision. In fact that teacher had left a good impression in my life.

Written words 130

Errors 6

Error portion 4.61%

Arabic Version

Essay one  
Original Copy

النص العربي

لازلت اذكر أحد أفضل اساتذتي (الذين درسوني) الذي درسنى مادة الجغرافيا بمعهد المعلمين.  
كان (رجلاً) شخصاً محترماً وعطوفاً. كان يعاملنا وكأننا اصدقاءه. طريقة تدريسه للمادة كتت  
مستخدماً وسائل تعليمية مختلفة (تمكن) مكننا من فهم المادة بشكل  
مفصل. كان

يستمع الينا بصبر ويجيب على اسئلتنا بوضوح. وإذا لم يكن متأكداً من الاجابة  
فإنه وبكل بساطة يقول سوف أتأكد أولاً وأعطيكم الاجابة فى الدرس التالى.  
كان يشجعنا على الدراسة وكتابة البحوث ورسم الخرائط بدقة. لازلت احتفظ  
بالخرائط التى رسمتها تحت اشرافه.  
فى الحقيقة أن هذا الاستاذ قد ترك انطباعاً جيداً فى حياتى.

Written words 87  
Errors 20  
Error proportion 22.98%