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**An Investigation of EFL Student Writing:  
Aspects of Process and Product**

**by**

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**A Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy**

**Department of English Language**

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# **An Investigation of EFL Student Writing: Aspects of Process and Product**

## **ABSTRACT**

The present study is an exercise in applied linguistics and discourse analysis. It consists of two parts. While the first part is concerned with aspects of process in EFL academic writing settings, the second part is concerned with aspects of product. In investigating the aspects of process, a survey involving questionnaires and interviews was undertaken, the aim of which was to elicit EFL student and tutor perceptions of the process and acquisition of writing. 210 students studying English at two Jordanian universities: the University of Jordan and Yarmouk University, completed a questionnaire with 'closed' and 'open-ended' questions. In addition, 26 professors from the same universities completed another version of the same questionnaire.

In investigating the aspects of product in the writing of EFL students, two mini-corpora of 'successful' and 'unsuccessful' texts, written by a volunteering sample of the students who responded to the questionnaire, were analysed. The aim of the analysis was to explore how EFL students choose formal aspects - syntactical and lexical - to make meanings in their texts. Halliday's systemic-functional grammar formed the basis for the different analytical frameworks (Lexical Density, Theme and Contextual Configuration and Text Structure) used in the analysis of the sample texts.

The major findings of the present study are summarised as follows: with respect to the first part of the study, the results appear to be equivocal. Both student and tutor participants in the study confirmed that students in EFL academic writing settings are in need of both low-level and global tuition in English to enable them to write better. There was evidence from both parts of the study that both bottom-up: linguistic aspects such as words and grammar, and top-down: rhetorical aspects, such as the organisation and structure of text, content, and purpose are inseparable factors in the writing process.

With respect to the second part of the study, the text analysis, it was found that although EFL students' written texts were acceptably developed as arguments, they revealed low-level problems relating to grammar and vocabulary. While the analysis of the contextual configuration and text structure revealed the ability of the students to develop their arguments properly, following a text

structure of *initiation, declaration of position, supporting position, and evaluation*, the analysis of lexical density showed the students' limited knowledge of lexical items. Theme analysis was the primary method of text analysis used in the present study. In addition to its potential to reveal the characteristic linguistic features of EFL written texts, and how EFL students make meanings in their texts, the Theme system did prove to be a discriminator of 'successful' and 'unsuccessful' texts. For example, the examination of the Contextual Frame Themes (CFTs) showed how 'good' writers choose 'high-rank' sentence-initial elements such as projecting clauses, in which the writer's visibility (Davies, 1988) is least, to introduce their messages. Further, the analysis of the Topical Themes (TTs) also revealed how the student writers choose topic-related Themes to maintain continuity and progression in their texts.

To conclude, this study strongly emphasises the importance of integration and interdependency. This means that in respect of research methodology in the field of writing, both process and product should be combined. In the process of writing, linguistic, sociolinguistic, contextual and cognitive aspects are interdependent, and so should be considered by researchers. The idea of integration is also needed in product analysis. Different analyses, at the word level such as the lexical density, at the clause level such as the Theme, and at the text level such as the CC and text structure, are needed because they appear to contribute to an integrative perspective of text. In order to develop an integrative, developmental model of writing both in L1 and L2, all the aspects of process and product should receive attention.



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# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.0 Introduction

What distinguishes a human from a nonhuman is the ability of the former to reason and communicate. And what distinguishes a literate person from an illiterate one is the capability of the former to read and write. It would appear to be easy for a person to learn how to read. Yet, the case of writing is different. Research suggests that learning to write is not an easy task, for it requires control over cognitive skills such as planning, outlining, thinking, generating and developing ideas, and drafting and redrafting, as well as a command of the linguistic, rhetorical and sociocultural conventions of a particular language. Writing also requires a number of "transitions" such as the transition from oral to graphic expression, which is regarded as a major developmental step by Vygotsky (1978), and the transition from personal communication to "communication with a remote audience" (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1982:1).

Writing is believed to have a major role in the conveying of knowledge from generation to generation. That is why philosophers, scholars, knowledge-providers and educationalists, ages past and ages yet to come, have always paid enormous attention to writing. Candlin (1996) summarises the "plural roles of writing; as a means of measuring cognitive abilities, as a central skill area in the design of educational curricula and in the patterns of their delivery in teaching and assessment, as a way of understanding some of the occupational and social demands of daily communication in living and working, in revealing its key gatekeeping role in enabling or disabling the sheer accessibility of life chances for all in contemporary industrial and post industrial societies, and in its ethnographic significance in exploring and explaining cultural variation and relativity" (p. xiii).

In academic settings in particular, writing is viewed as the primary channel for the communication of knowledge. And students learn to write because writing enables them to take part in the academic community (Bazerman, 1982). According to Williamson (1988), the influence of written language is pertinent to both academics' discipline and "their lives in a specific institution" (p. 91). However, concerns about the standards of writing continue to be expressed and addressed. Schools, colleges and parents argue that students fail to learn and practise writing reasonable texts. They believe that such failure may result in both declining literacy levels and a weak generation that cannot "think critically about intellectual ideas and academic materials" Hamp-Lyons (1990: 69). Cooper et. al. (1984), for example, have addressed this issue of writing weaknesses and irregularities among students both at secondary and tertiary levels. Cooper et. al. agree with school teachers, university professors and "guardians of the language in the media" (p.19) that there is a "writing crisis" and a "literacy crisis" (p. 19), which it appears has been the cry of every culture and every generation. Consequently, increasing attention has been paid to this vital question and there is a rapidly growing body of research in various areas of the field of writing.

### **1.1 Background of the study**

At schools, colleges and universities all over the world, English Language is being taught as a compulsory requirement. The reason behind this is the dominance of English as the language of the modern world with respect to science, commerce, journalism, politics and literature. Additionally, and more importantly, English has become the dominant language of the world academic publication. Hence, new fields of English have recently come on the scene: English as a Second/Foreign Language (ESL/EFL), English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Over the last two



decades, we have seen researchers writing in the fields of ESP and EAP, such as Swales (1990) on genre analysis and Gosden (1993 and 1994) on writing scientific research articles by NNS researchers.

As noted above, writing is a basic requirement for students to be able to survive in the academic arena. However, one of the most problematic issues that language teachers encounter, whether at school or college level, is how to help their learners write in a well-organised, coherent manner. Hence, writing instruction has always been a central concern of curriculum developers and designers. In English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses and composition classrooms in native-speaking settings, the teaching of writing is based on the assumption that what is taught and learned in such settings will help students function well in their writing tasks across the curriculum (Leki and Carson, 1994). Such is the case in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) writing courses presented to students in non-native speaking settings. For example, in the descriptions of writing courses in the departments of English at Jordanian universities, the explicit aim is that the courses will enable students to write logically and coherently in their subject areas.

However, there is no clear evidence that the writing instruction provided meets students' writing demands and needs and it appears that all students encounter difficulties in writing, especially when it comes to a second or foreign language. In a survey conducted to determine the writing tasks which college instructors assign to their students, and the concerns that they have about English as a Second Language (ESL) student writing, Johns (1985) states that respondents (instructors) commented that students' academic writing was often 'incoherent'. She adds that this feature of 'incoherence' appeared to cover a large number of perceived weaknesses.

The problems and weaknesses in EFL student writing may be categorised as revealing two basic overlapping types of difficulty. The first type is linguistically-oriented. It reflects problems with language skills at sentence level and hence with syntax and lexis. The second type of difficulty is cognitively- and contextually-oriented. It is related to rhetorical, discoursal and textual features, including the context of writing, the structure of the text, and the processes and strategies of writing. Such features include points of growth, areas of development and the linking of clauses, sentences and paragraphs together to form a unified, coherent text. Hinkel (1994) states that writing in a second language (L2) is a complex process in which writers encounter "difficulties associated with written frameworks and rhetorical conventions" (p. 353), as well as linguistic concerns and challenges. Such difficulties could be ascribed to the different stylistics, cultures and religions that "comprise written discourse notions and frameworks" (p.353). This may point to the importance of context and social settings in making meanings and expressing oneself in writing (Hasan, 1985/89).

Increasingly recent research in the field of EFL writing indicates that not only do non-native-speaking (NNS) students of English at school face such problems, but that NNS university English majors who will become teachers of English at primary and secondary schools also do (Shakir, 1991; Doushaq, 1986; Hamdan, 1988; Kharma, 1985; Kaplan, 1966 and 1972). Similarly, researchers and teachers of native-speaking (NS) students, both at school and university levels, often complain about their learners' written output. They observe that students are not always able to express themselves in a precise and acceptable manner when they are assigned a topic to write about and that they encounter most, or



some of, the aforementioned problems. In Great Britain, for example, educators like Wiseman (1949), Wiseman and Wrigley (1958) and Britton et. al. (1975) were amongst the first to raise awareness of the seriousness of this problem. In their research, they also aimed to develop ways of raising the level of students' written products. Britton et. al.'s work contributed to the provision of models for developments in direct writing assessment in North America (Hamp-Lyons, 1990). However, the question which may be raised here is: Is it not inevitable that students have problems and difficulties in writing? It is expected that students will have difficulties both at local, linguistic and global, rhetorical levels. In the present study, the findings indicate that most EFL students and their tutors (72.8% and 88.4%, respectively) view writing as the most difficult of the four language skills. They both perceive writing as a laborious, painful and problem-solving process. However, the real issue, in this context, is how to help students overcome difficulty in writing and improve their writing skills. In other words, students themselves realise that they face problems when they write, but what they need is their teachers' assistance to conquer these problems.

Research studies in the field of first and second language (L1 & L2) writing have addressed various aspects of writing, the product of writing, the writing process and student and tutor perceptions of writing instruction. Although students' texts, and the strategies students use in producing those texts, are still a central concern in writing research, recent research into the teaching of writing has increasingly been directed towards the investigation of what learners of languages and their instructors think about language learning processes and strategies, and what problems and barriers impede or affect the learning processes. In the planning and designing of courses, it is widely recognised that since language students and their teachers are at the centre or core of this process, their perceptions, beliefs and feelings about language skills, needs,

requirements and problems should be taken into account. These currently evolving approaches have found 'listening ears' and have been warmly welcomed by language providers, whether at the level of classroom or at the level of syllabus design and development (Bach and Harnish 1979; Leki and Carson, 1994; Horwitz, 1987; Kroll, 1979; Rose, 1985; Yorio, 1983; Zamel, 1987).

## **1.2 Present research study**

The investigation of student and tutor perceptions forms the foundation of the present study and provides the background against which the rhetorical and linguistic analysis of student writing is undertaken. Hence, the study is twofold. At one end of the scale, the first part of the study seeks to investigate the ways in which EFL students and their tutors perceive writing in a second language with respect to the problems encountered, the process of writing, the nature of writing and the acquisition of writing. A questionnaire survey with open-ended and closed questions was used for this purpose. At the other end of the scale, the second part of the study is concerned with an analysis of texts written by the same sample of EFL students who answered the questionnaire. In the analysis of texts, a systemic-functional analytic framework, specifically Theme analysis, is carried out.

For the first part of the study, 210 survey questionnaires were completed by Arab (Jordanian) EFL undergraduate students reading English at the University of Jordan and Yarmouk University. At the same time, 26 professors of English from the above-mentioned universities also responded to another version of the same questionnaire. In addition to the questionnaire, informal interviews with 8 tutors and 10 students were carried out. These informal interviews took the form of face-to-face conversations. The motivation for this part of study was to



investigate EFL students' awareness of certain processes and aspects of writing acquisition when they are required to write an essay in English.

For the second strand of the study, a corpus of texts written by the same sample of EFL students who responded to the survey questionnaire was first evaluated holistically by three raters. The texts were classified into three groups: successful, middle and unsuccessful. Since one of the main aims of the analysis was to identify the linguistic features of, and the differences and similarities between, EFL more successful texts and less successful texts, the middle group was excluded from analysis. The groups categorised as successful and unsuccessful were analysed by means of an analytic framework based on systemic-functional linguistics, Theme analysis. The motivation for this analysis of texts was to investigate theme choices and thematic progression used by EFL students to make meanings in their texts and to discover how such Theme choices and progression contribute to the development of students' written discourse. Further, a comparative theme analysis of the two groups of texts (successful and unsuccessful) was performed, in an attempt to distinguish what each group of texts was doing at the Theme level that makes it different from the other. Other analytical frameworks such as the lexical density and the contextual configuration and text structure were also used in analysing the two sets of texts.

### **1.3 Aims of the study**

The general purpose of the present study is to investigate writing in an EFL academic setting both at the process and product levels. More specifically, the following aims underpin the study:

1. to investigate EFL students' perceptions of writing in terms of the writing process and strategies, the acquisition of writing, and EFL student writers' concerns, needs and problems encountered both at the linguistic and rhetorical levels.

2. to investigate EFL tutors' perceptions of their students' writing in terms of the writing process and strategies, the acquisition of writing, and their EFL students' concerns, needs and problems encountered both at the linguistic and rhetorical levels.

3. to compare and contrast the EFL student writers' perceptions of the acquisition of writing and the nature of writing with those of their tutors.

4. to identify perceived writing problems of EFL students both at the process and product levels.

5. to try to identify sources and causes of EFL students' constraints and problems of writing.

6. to investigate the linguistic characteristics of EFL written texts in general, and to identify what distinguishes more successful texts from less successful texts.

7. to investigate how EFL students use formal (grammatical) aspects of language to make meanings in their texts.

8. to investigate what distinguishes EFL good student writers from poor ones in terms of using form to make meanings in text.



## 1.4 Questions of the study

### 1.4.0 Introduction

It has always been very difficult to formulate one or two questions which might be able to cover a whole thesis. However, as the title of the thesis indicates, the more general question that is addressed here is:

*What are the problems, at both process and product levels, which EFL students encounter when they are asked to write a text on a particular topic in English?*

Here the word 'problem' is used in its broadest sense and intended to refer to any linguistic, discoursal, rhetorical, cognitive, contextual or cultural problem encountered by EFL student writers at process and product levels. There is another important question that should also be considered in this respect, that is:

*How best can we research the above question?*

In answer to this latter question, two things are done. Firstly, based on the former question (*What are the problems that EFL students encounter when they are asked to write a text on a particular topic in English?*), more specific questions are needed to be addressed in this thesis (Section 1.3.1 below). Secondly, an appropriate type of research methodology is needed. Chapter Three is devoted to the research methodology of Part One: EFL students' and tutors' perceptions of writing, and Chapter Six is devoted to the research methodology of Part Two: analysis of EFL students' written texts. However, in what follows, more specific questions comprising the current research study are presented.

#### **1.4.1 Questions of the study**

1. What are the processes and strategies practised and involved in writing within EFL academic settings as perceived by EFL students?
2. What are the processes and strategies practised and involved in writing within EFL academic settings as perceived by EFL tutors?
3. How do EFL students and their tutors perceive the acquisition of writing and learning how to write in a second or foreign language?
4. Are there any statistically significant differences between the students' perceptions of L2 writing acquisition and those of their tutors?
5. As perceived and reported by students, what are the skills and aspects of writing that should be provided and taught to EFL students in their writing courses to help them write better in their subject areas?
6. As perceived and reported by tutors, what are the skills and aspects of writing that should be provided and taught to EFL students in their writing courses to help them write better in their subject areas?
7. What are the writing problems that EFL students report encountering in a survey questionnaire developed and designed for this purpose?



8. What are the writing problems encountered by EFL students as perceived and reported by their tutors in a survey questionnaire developed and designed for this purpose?
9. As perceived by EFL students and tutors, what are the factors that cause difficulty in EFL student writing?
10. Are some of the EFL students' and tutors' *perceptions* of the process and problems of writing reflected in *actual* practices in EFL writing settings?
11. Through the use of a Theme analysis framework, how do EFL student writers make meanings in their texts?
12. Through the use of a Theme analysis framework, what distinguishes EFL good student writers from poor ones in terms of using grammatical aspects of language to make meanings in their texts?

### **1.5 Outline of the thesis**

Aside from this introductory chapter, this thesis consists of two major parts. Part One is devoted to an investigation of the EFL student/tutor perceptions of writing in an academic context. This part includes three chapters: Chapter Two presents a survey of the relevant literature of the first part. Chapter Three describes the research design and the methodology which was used in approaching the first part of the study, the survey analysis. Chapter Four presents and discusses the findings of the analysis of the survey questionnaire, which served as the main research tool of studying EFL student and tutor perceptions of writing.

Part Two is concerned with the second strand of the study, an analysis of two mini-corpora of texts written by the EFL student sample. This part consists of three chapters: Chapter Five comprises an introduction to Theme analytical frameworks. Thus, this chapter forms the basis for the second part of the study. Chapter Six describes the methodology and the principles of the Theme analytical framework used for the analysis of EFL students' written texts. Chapter Seven presents, interprets and discusses the findings of text analysis. Chapter Eight provides conclusions, implications and recommendations for further research.



## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

#### **2.0. Introduction**

Current research in the teaching of writing and writing acquisition has begun to focus, among other things, on the question of writing processes and learners' needs and problems. An investigation into such processes, needs and problems can be carried out, on the one hand, through the analysis of the perceptions of both learners and their tutors, since they are the focus of the whole process, and on the other hand, through the analysis of learners' written texts. As the present study attempts to deal with those variables- writers' strategies, needs and problems- through the two above-mentioned methods of investigation, the review of related literature chapter consists of three sections: The first section (Section 2.1) reports a number of studies conducted on the native-speaking (NS) and non-native-speaking (NNS) learners' and tutors' perceptions of writing instruction and writing needs and requirements. Section 2.2 introduces some of the key research studies undertaken on the writing process and writing acquisition. Section 2.3 is concerned with studies conducted on contrastive rhetoric and culture.

#### **2.1 Review of work relevant to student and tutor perceptions**

Research exploring the question of students' and tutors' perceptions of the writing process and writing needs and requirements is very recent. Horwitz (1987) holds the view that what learners believe they need to learn strongly influences their receptiveness to learning. In two studies surveying students' beliefs about language learning, she raises the question of the impact that student beliefs have on their acquisition and the use of effective language learning strategies. As a result of her study, Horwitz suggests that while some

students' beliefs are influenced by their previous experiences as language learners, others are probably shaped by students' cultural backgrounds.

Other researchers have suggested that communication takes place better when the participants share mutual beliefs and assumptions. Bach and Harnish (1979) assert that mutual contextual beliefs play a central role in the success of communication because these beliefs determine the purpose, clarity and relevance of the communicative act. Stalnaker (1991) argues that different rhetorical assumptions of NNSs and NSs have a stylistic impact on the written communication they produce. He adds that common background beliefs and pragmatic assumptions impose constraints on what is reasonable, necessary and appropriate in communication. He also indicates that the success of communication is contingent on the extent to which the common background beliefs and mutual contextual assumptions are shared.

Yorio (1983), analysing a questionnaire survey of 711 students in an intensive academic programme at the University of Toronto, and on the basis of the high number of definitive responses, concludes that students can be good sources of information about what should be included in language teaching programmes and that curriculum design should take such information into account in a more systematic way. Thus, a consideration of, or an investigation into, students' writing needs is seen to be an important procedure in curriculum planning and designing for writing instruction.

Kroll (1979), for instance, investigated past, present and anticipated writing needs at the university level. Using a three-part questionnaire, she studied 20 NS students' and 35 NNS students' responses. Results indicated that the



current or present writing needs of both foreign and native students were strikingly similar. Within this context, Kroll argues that it is not difficult to motivate students to perform writing tasks which they feel have some practical applications to their lives. Further, among the questions which Kroll's (1979) respondents had to answer was to say which caused them more difficulty: writing in their L2 writing courses or in their other content courses (their other subject areas). Respondents expressed the view that they had no difficulty in writing in the other content courses, but they felt that there was difficulty facing them in their L2 writing courses.

In a very recent survey, Leki and Carson (1994) investigated 77 ESL students' perceptions of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) writing instruction and writing needs across the disciplines, using a survey questionnaire. In this survey, students described their perceptions of their ongoing writing needs beyond the ESL writing curriculum. The results included indications of which writing skills taught in ESL writing courses students found most useful in dealing with the writing demands of other content courses. Leki and Carson propose that the question of writing requirements and needs should take into account the perceptions that writing students have about those requirements and needs. They also argue that what students learn in EAP writing classes should be determined to a great extent by what the students want to learn. This, in fact, supports Horwitz's (1987) view that what learners believe they need to learn strongly influences their receptiveness to learning.

In summary, it would appear that there is increasing interest in the potential of eliciting learners' perceptions of their needs and requirements. One way of investigating learners' needs and problems is through the analysis of the

perceptions of both learners and their tutors, since they are the focus of the whole process of teaching and learning. As noted above, such investigations can be undertaken through introspective techniques such as thinking-aloud protocols, or through surveys such as questionnaires and interviews. In what follows, I shall present some of the key literature on the writing process and the research techniques used in probing the processes and strategies involved in writing.

## **2.2 Review of studies relevant to writing process and acquisition of writing**

### **2.2.1 Preview**

A review of the literature available in the field of first and second language writing acquisition points to major changes both in theory and practice. Before the 1970s, research into writing instruction was oriented towards the product of writing, where learning to write was viewed as an exercise focusing on form and practised inside the classroom, represented as the writing context. The discourse and rhetorical aspects of the written text such as purpose and audience are almost neglected in such contexts (Silva, 1990). Moreover, 'product writing' represents the writing process as a linear model with three clear-cut stages (prewriting, writing and rewriting) each of which contributes to "the growth of the written product" (Flower and Hayes, 1981: 367). However, the last three decades have witnessed a major "paradigm shift" (Hairston, 1982) in writing research. There has been a move from conventional product-based writing to the process-oriented writing which has emphasised the strategies and practices involved in the three basic processes of writing: prewriting, which comprises planning or outlining, and other sub-processes such as generating and organising ideas; writing and formulating or



"translating" as identified by Flower and Hayes (1981); and rewriting or reviewing, which comprises evaluating and revising strategies.

This 'process writing' approach "arose... as a reaction against product-oriented pedagogies" (Susser, 1994: 34). It is intended to raise students' awareness of the fact that writing is a process which involves different strategies and activities. Process writing has also given more emphasis to the "recursive" characteristic of writing which requires that the different processes and sub-processes are represented in mental acts that are expected to "occur at any time in the composing process" (Flower and Hayes, 1981: 367). In addition, unlike the product-based approach to writing, the three elements of written discourse: audience, purpose and context are considered in the process model. Scholars and researchers in the field of writing argue that writing cannot occur in a vacuum or in isolation from social context. For example, Reither (1985) stresses the importance of a social rhetorical situation within which writing is to occur. He says:

writing and what writers do during writing cannot be artificially separated from the social rhetorical situation in which writing gets done, from the conditions that enable writers to do what they do, and from the motives writers have for doing what they do (Reither, 1985: 621).

This indicates that "writing is a social activity, dependent on social structures" (Cooper, 1986: 366). That writing occurs within a social context has led to the rise of the notion of discourse communities (Swales, 1990), where all the components of writing: writer, reader, writing task and social context interact naturally for producing purposeful writing. As suggested by

Bizzell (1982), students at the university level should be helped to master language and culture of the discourse community (the university in this context), and it is the role of the writing teacher at this level to initiate students into such a community. Bizzell also argues that L2 students' problems of writing may be ascribed to social and cultural deficiencies. These problems become serious when we find that these L2 students encounter linguistic deficiencies as well as social and cultural failures. This in turn suggests that writing in academic contexts, and at tertiary levels in particular, "is not a skill that can be taught in isolation, but [it] is the entire faculty's instructional responsibilities" (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996: 107). To conclude, it is not only the writing instructor's responsibility to teach student writers how to write properly in a particular discourse community, but it is also the responsibility of the whole discourse community to collaborate in this respect. This collaboration is achieved through discussion, debate and conferences where feedback is provided to members of the discourse community.

Further, what also characterises process writing is that, unlike the product-oriented paradigm which focuses on "form-focused" exercises "in habit formation" (Gosden, 1993: 18), process writing looks at writing from a cognitivist point of view. The process-centred approach views writing as a cognitive process that involves mental activities such as problem-solving and revising activities (Flower and Hayes, 1977, 1980, 1981, 1983). The next section sheds light on key research studies undertaken within the writing process approach.



### **2.2.2 Research studies within the process of writing**

As the writing process is one of the main concerns in the present study, an introduction to key studies in this area is necessary. Research and investigation into the writing process started in the 1970s and gained increasing recognition in the 1980s. Emig (1971) used the "compose-aloud" technique in studying the outcomes of writing. Her sample included six "good" and two "not particularly able" high school student writers. In her research, Emig observed the student writers' behaviours while composing aloud and also compared the nature, duration and sequence of the writing activities which student writers carried out. She found that students carried out recursive strategies and activities while writing. These recursive strategies included revising writing mainly at the word and sentence level, as well as at the text level. In a similar study, Perl (1979) investigated the composing processes employed by four L1 college students. Like Emig (1971), Perl used a think-aloud technique. She found that her subjects concentrated on features of surface form in their revisions and editing changes.

In two studies conducted to investigate the writing process and strategies used by college writers, Flower and Hayes (1980 and 1981) also employed the compose-aloud and the protocol-analysis technique. They described proficient writers as those who made particular kinds of plans, paused to re-read and carried out recursive planning and revising as they worked. Flower and Hayes' findings match Emig's (1971) of recursive features and reformulations during writing. As a result of such studies, skilled writers were found to carry out recursive strategies such as planning and revising during the process of writing.

In a case-study approach, using both introspection and survey techniques, Zamel (1983) wanted to discover what skilled and unskilled ESL writers actually did during the writing process. Six advanced ESL students participated in this study. Observing her subjects while they were writing, she found out that they followed a non-linear way of writing. She also found that skilled writers were concerned about ideas and communication, unlike the unskilled writers who were concerned about language and spelling. This implies that in addition to the linguistic aspects, our students have to be encouraged to pay more attention to the discourse features while they are writing. In this context, Zamel suggests that issues of content and meaning must be addressed first and that language is of concern only when the ideas to be communicated have been delineated. However, pinpointing errors in first drafts, she adds, is sensible.

Raimes (1985) employed thinking-aloud techniques and a questionnaire survey to examine the composing processes used by a sample consisting of eight unskilled ESL college writers. As part of her study, she investigated the effects of purpose and audience on the composing behaviours of those ESL student writers, and the question of whether a think-aloud protocol analysis was an effective tool for analysing the ESL students' composing behaviours. In the same study, she tried to analyse the students' written products. Three trained raters evaluated the texts holistically using a six-point scale. Raimes found that her students tended to focus on textual matters. They were more concerned about generating ideas for themselves than communicating them with the reader. This finding contrasts with Zamel's (1983) ESL advanced writers who were aware of the importance of their readers' expectations.



In a later study, Raimes (1987) examined the writing of eight ESL students, four of them in remedial ESL writing courses and four in college-level writing courses. In this study, she focused on describing student writers' writing strategies, the quality of their written products and whether the specification of purpose and audience has an effect on the composing strategies of ESL student writers. Raimes employed a think-aloud technique, coding and analysing protocols, and she examined data in relation to course placement and scores achieved on a language proficiency test. She also evaluated the students' written texts holistically, concentrating on the following features: linguistic accuracy; content; organisation; and general fluency of the essay. Further, she used structured interviews to elicit students' attitudes towards writing in L1 and L2, and also to probe the students' self-evaluation of their writing skills in both their first and second languages.

The results of Raimes' (1987) study indicated that L1 basic writers and L2 writers have many strategies in common. However, L2 writers did not appear to be inhibited by attempts to correct their work. There was also only a small correlation between language proficiency, writing ability and the students' composing strategies.

In a similar study, Cumming (1989), investigated the writing expertise and second-language proficiency of 23 young adults (a bigger sample than Raimes's). The writing expertise factor proved to relate to: qualities of discourse organisation and content in compositions produced, attention to complex aspects of writing during decision-making, problem-solving behaviours involving heuristic searches, and well-differentiated control strategies. According to Cumming, second-language proficiency proved to be

an additive factor that enhanced the overall quality of writing produced and also interacted with the attention that participants devoted to aspects of writing. Further, in this study, Cumming argues that language proficiency does not visibly affect the processes of composing, and this supports Raimes's (1987) findings that there is little correspondence demonstrated among language proficiency, writing ability and the students' composing strategies.

To summarise, research into the writing process and acquisition of writing seems to emphasise the following: (i) the importance of cognitive, recursive processes such as planning and revising strategies (Emig, 1971; Perl, 1979; Flower and Hayes, 1981), (ii) the consideration of rhetorical aspects such as purpose, audience and context (Silva, 1990), (iii) the importance of social context (Cooper, 1986; Reither, 1985), and (iv) the importance of language proficiency in enhancing the quality of students' writing (Cumming, 1989).

As regards methodology, what has been noted from the previous research on the writing process is the relatively small numbers of subjects used, especially the research which was conducted in the form of case studies (Emig, 1971; Zamel, 1983; Raimes, 1987; etc.). This may naturally influence the generalisability of the findings of those studies. Further, the researchers of process writing, who used case studies in their research, have approached their data qualitatively; and this, in turn, may have its effects on generalising the findings. A final point to mention in this context is that the process model, like the one which Flower and Hayes developed, has been criticised with respect to methodology. It is argued that the protocol analysis methodology "can reveal certain important things about what writers do, but



it cannot be the primary source of evidence for a theory of the writing process" (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996: 92-93).

It would appear that there is an increasing need to conduct quantitative research, that uses larger samples of subjects and quantitative research methods. In addition, there is a need to look at both process and product of writing, as both process and product are interrelated and complement one another. The findings of the latter kinds of research are expected to support those of the qualitatively researched case studies, on which writing theories and writing models were based.

To conclude, it would appear that writing researchers come from different perspectives, and so we see the many contradictory findings and views about how writing is produced and to what we should give priority during writing: is it to content and meaning? is it to organisation and structure of text? is it to language proficiency? is it to audience and purpose? or is it to processes and strategies? It would appear that most writing research has come from a *deficit* model, and research findings to date suggest that we are still short of a comprehensive model of writing. However, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) appear to work towards a more comprehensive model and a new theory of writing. In the following section, I shall summarise their work and their attempt at a new model of writing.

### 2.2.3 Grabe and Kaplan

Although Grabe and Kaplan (1996) do not present a developmental model of writing of their own, they try to collect data about writing from research in various perspectives of writing, especially applied linguistics and systemic functional linguistics as well as process writing and cognitive psychology. Then, they provide us with a taxonomy of academic writing skills, knowledge, bases, and processes, which appears to help form a basis for a developmental model of writing, which may be more coherent than those models available in the field of writing, such as Flower and Hayes' (1981), and Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987). They come to look at writing from a more comprehensive perspective. This perspective seems to rely on sociolinguistic and ethnographic views about language skills. Thus, the following sociolinguistic, ethnographic question functions as a basis of their taxonomy:

*Who writes what to whom, for what purpose, why, when, where, and how?*

It is noted that the above question forms a basis for an ethnography of writing, to which Grabe and Kaplan (1996) look forward. This question takes into consideration most components of ethnography of writing: the writer (who), the act of writing (writes), the content or message (what), the audience or readers (to whom), the purpose of writing (for what purpose), the reason for writing (why), the setting (when and where), and finally the process of writing (how). In what follows, and based on Grabe and Kaplan (1996), I shall explain what is meant by each component.



As regards the first component, *who*, one should take into consideration a number of factors which may affect the nature of writing task: (i) the writer's ability, whether the writer is experienced or inexperienced, skilled or unskilled; and (ii) the type of writer, whether the writer is a student writing an essay to be evaluated by a teacher, or researcher writing a research article to be published in a journal.

The second component of the ethnography of writing suggested by Grabe and Kaplan (1996) relates to the *writes* or text, and the linguistic nature of this text or writing. In this respect, a number of questions may be asked: *what are the linguistic parts of the text and how do the parts work together?, to what extent do linguistic features reflect some functional purposes in the writing?, how do sentences link together to form a larger text? how are we to understand the notion of coherence? and what part of this notion resides in the text?* (p. 204). According to Grabe and Kaplan (1996), we can explore all these questions through the analysis of texts. They say:

The text itself is an important independent component of the overall writing situation. Only through analysis of the text can researchers examine the uses of particular linguistic structures, transition devices, and lexical choices, as well as the functional roles these uses might play in the context of the entire text. Study of the text reveals the (in)appropriate use of formal conventions such as opening statements, external reference, ..., and the rhetorical arrangement of information .... Study of the text also reveals patterns of information structuring in terms of "given-new" information ordering, "topic-commitments" arrangement, and "theme-rheme" structuring. A theory of text construction contributes independently to the writing situation in that it provides a framework for the various linguistic tools available to

the writer as well as combinatorial choices which create the flow of information and the notion of coherence. The linguistic elements in text construction also aid interpretation of other factors in the writing situation such as audience considerations, the writer's purpose, the writing context, and the genre required by the task (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996: 204-205).

As noted from the quotation above, through the analysis and study of text, we can explore how a writer chooses linguistic aspects to construct his/her text. The study of textual, linguistic elements also helps us to explore other rhetorical aspects such as audience, purpose and context.

The *what*, which forms the third component of the basic question asked above, refers to the content of writing as well as genre and register. While the content of writing reflects the background knowledge the writer uses in text, genre refers to the types of writing such as progress reports, memos, and essays and the ways in which writers organise such discourse types to achieve the purposes specified. Register (Hasan, 1989) is also reflected in content and genre. It is defined by the three elements: field which is represented in the topic of writing, tenor which is represented by the participants and interaction in the writing task, and mode which represents the medium or channel of discourse, i.e. whether the discourse is spoken or written. (See Hasan's contextual configuration analysis in Chapter Seven below for further discussion of the three components of field, tenor and mode.)

The *to whom* part of the above question refers to the importance of audience in creating and making meaning in text. It is concerned with the social status



of the reader of the text as well as the background knowledge shared between the writer and reader. Grabe and Kaplan discuss two parameters which influence text and its structure: the first parameter is related to whether the text is intended for oneself, a single reader or a small or large group of readers; the second parameter is related to the question of whether the reader is known or unknown. Both parameters influence text interaction. Biber (1988) argues that the extent of interaction and involvement in written texts may be determined by the degree of closeness between the writer and his/her audience. Further, he believes that more hedging expressions and elaborate responses are required when the audience is unfamiliar to the writer.

With respect to *for what purpose*, and *why*, the fifth and sixth components of the basic question raised above, Grabe and Kaplan (1996: 209) ask other questions: *to what extent is it possible to define the purpose in a writing task?, are there multiple purposes in every writing task?, and how does purpose interact with genre and audience?* Although the general purpose for writing is to communicate with the reader, there are other purposes intended in the text. For instance, the writer may want to inform, describe, or persuade in his/her text. Other things may be implicated in the writer's purpose. For example, s/he may want to convey status, power, intent and attitude.

The seventh parameter raised in the question of ethnography of writing is concerned with *when and where*. Although Grabe and Kaplan indicate that it is not clear to what extent *when* and *where* are critical to the taxonomy of writing ethnography, I see that they are necessary. It is important to know the time and place in which the writing task takes place. This would provide the

reader with the context of the writing task, which may help him/her to understand the conditions or circumstances under which the text is produced.

The final parameter of the question of the ethnography of writing is concerned with understanding *how* the writing is produced. In other words, it is related to the writing process and the strategies and activities involved in it.

To summarise, the above-stated question can be seen to combine and synthesise cognitive, social and textual (linguistic) contexts (Witte, 1992), which are considered by Grabe and Kaplan (1996) as the three main factors or components that contribute to a comprehensive theory of writing. Within these sociolinguistic, ethnographic contexts, they have developed their taxonomy, "a taxonomy of academic writing skills, knowledge bases, and processes" (p. 217). This taxonomy, which forms the basis for working towards a writing theory, appears to take into consideration the writing situations available for student writers: writing settings, writing tasks, texts and topics. In what follows, I shall summarise the components of Grabe and Kaplan's taxonomy:

(i) Educational settings for writing: This component illustrates where the academic writing may take place. Academic writing may take place in a classroom, an office, library, a computer lab, etc.

(ii) Educational writing tasks: Academic writing tasks include a wide range of writing types and genres such as notes and memoranda, all kinds of letters (personal, complaint, business letters etc.), journals and diaries, narrative and



argumentative writing, essays, news reports and editorials, research articles and abstracts, and dissertations and theses.

(iii) Educational texts: These texts are produced and used in educational settings. such texts include textbooks, workbooks, research journals, novels and plays.

(iv) Topics for academic writing. These include topics written in academic settings on social, cultural, economic and political issues, as well as topics written by academics and students in the various academic fields such as hard sciences, social sciences and humanities.

(v) Writer's intentions, goals and attitudes: These include the writer's awareness of, and attitude towards the task or the topic. They also consider the writer's willingness and motivation to learn certain writing types he may need in his/her future career.

(vi) Linguistic knowledge: This component comprises knowledge of the written code such as spelling and punctuation; knowledge of vocabulary and correct choice of words; knowledge of syntactical or grammatical patterns and aspects of the language; and finally awareness of differences across languages, if a writer is an L2 writer.

(vii) Discourse knowledge: This comprises knowledge of cohesive devices, knowledge of development of information in text such as theme/rheme and given/new, knowledge of genre structure, etc.

(viii) Sociolinguistic knowledge: This comprises knowledge of (a) functional uses of written language such as apologies, denials, invitations and complaints and (b) register and situational parameters such audience

considerations (whether the audience is perceived or invoked, known or unknown, peer or employer etc.)

(ix) Knowledge of the world: This is concerned with personal experiences, events and processes.

(x) Writing process skills and strategies: These include on the one hand on-line processing skills such as lexical and structural activation to generate content, and on the other hand *metacognitive* strategies such as those relating to planning, inventing and revising, and those concerned with sociolinguistic, rhetorical and ethnographic issues like audience and purpose considerations.

Grabe and Kaplan's ethnography of writing and taxonomy of academic writing seem to be comprehensive, but sometimes repetitive, especially when they refer to audience considerations under three categories of the taxonomy. However, the authors have tried to provide researchers with a wide range of variables and considerations in the field of writing. Such variables and considerations, which are of social, cultural, cognitive, linguistic and rhetorical nature, comprise the core of both a theory and a developmental model needed in writing pedagogy. They may also be considered and used in developing writing courses and materials, as well as in designing educational curricula in language teaching. It remains to say that Grabe and Kaplan's ethnography and taxonomy of writing are based on the research undertaken within almost all perspectives in the field of writing, rhetoric and text analysis. They try to integrate findings of the available research in the different perspectives in order to work towards a relatively comprehensive model of writing "which primarily views writing as a communicative activity, and attempts to account for the skills, knowledge bases, and processes as they are used in the course of writing" (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996: 223).



The primary purpose for writing is to communicate with oneself, a single reader or a group of readers. For instance, when a writer writes for himself/herself, writing is meant to be communicative, because the writer himself/herself "serves as a reader, and then the writing remains as a communicative act" (ibid.: 224). The new Grabe and Kaplan model is based, as noted above, on theories of *communicative* language use developed by various perspectives: Flower's (1994) *socio-cognitive* perspective which incorporates *social* aspects into *cognitive* processes of writing, Hasan's (1985/89) and Martin's (1992) *Hallidayan functional* perspective which accounts for *textual*, *contextual* and *social* aspects, Witte's (1992) *social semiotic* perspective which integrates *social*, *cognitive*, and *textual* aspects of a language, and finally Canale's (1983) *applied linguistics* perspective on *communicative* language use for academic purposes. This latter perspective looks at language as a combination of *grammatical*, *sociolinguistic*, *discoursal* and *strategic* components of communication.

Thus, Grabe and Kaplan's model appears to synthesise the various views and perspectives on writing, and provide "a way to integrate the three major concerns for a theory of writing: a writer's cognitive processing, the linguistic and textual resources that instantiate the writing task, and the contextual factors which strongly shape the nature of the writing" (Grabe and Kaplan (1996: 229). This model of writing is distinguished from the Flower and Hayes' and Bereiter and Scardamalia's less comprehensive models in that it incorporates the external or explicit contextual components (participants, setting, task, text, topic and textual, linguistic output), and internal, implicit components or resources reflected in the verbal working memory which

controls the other internal components such as internal goal setting, internal processing output, and verbal processing or metacognitive processing which comprises language competence (linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse), knowledge of the world and on-line processing assembly.

To conclude, Grabe and Kaplan's proposed model appears to be more comprehensive and more integrative than the other existing models in the field of writing. It attempts to synthesise linguistic, social, textual, contextual and cognitive aspects of written discourse. It would appear that such a model reflects what the EFL sample of the present study expects from a writing course. For example, as will be noted in Chapter Four below, EFL students look at writing as an integrative process which requires bottom-up elements such as grammar and vocabulary, and top-down elements such as content, organisation and structure of text as well as purpose and audience consideration. It remains to say that this integrative model developed by Grabe and Kaplan works within an ethnography and taxonomy of writing which are based on research findings elicited from various perspectives of writing: process writing, product writing, text analysis and contrastive rhetoric.

### **2.3 Review of studies relevant to contrastive rhetoric**

A number of researchers who investigated Arab EFL student writing have expressed their dissatisfaction with the students' written products. They have argued that the students' written texts suffer from problems both at the level of sentence structure (grammar and vocabulary) and at the level of discourse structure and rhetoric. Shakir (1991), for instance, argues that although most weaknesses of EFL student writing are related to sentence level such as poor command of English grammar, other weaknesses affecting coherence are



related to discourse and rhetoric. He describes the second type of weaknesses as breaking down text coherence due to "three major flaws: 1. aurality of the mode of presentation; 2. inability to stay with initial ideas and general statements, and lack of depth and substantiation; [and] 3. deviation from the intended rhetorical function of the writing task" (Shakir, 1991: 399).

Other researchers such as Doushaq (1986), and Hamdan (1988), examining stylistic errors in texts written in English by Jordanian students, note that in addition to problems at the sentence level, EFL texts suffer from problems related to topic development and organisation of content. Holes (1984), who studied texts written in English by Advanced Arab students, notes that academic writing teachers who are familiar with writing problems of such learners can realise that such written work, though it appears to be "relatively free of gross grammatical error (but which) has a persistently non-English feel to it" (p. 228).

The question which may arise in this context is: *Should we refer to comparative and contrastive rhetoric and culture to investigate whether differences or similarities between the rhetoric and culture of L1 and L2 have an impact on what L2 learners produce?* A number of researchers have recently drawn attention to the need for an understanding of the influence of different rhetorical traditions or conventions of languages on learners' outcomes. Shouby (1951) was among the first who studied the Arabic language and its influence on the psychology of Arabs. Shouby claims that features such as overemphasis, overassertion and exaggeration characterise Arabic. He adds that the use of the devices by Arab writers of English results "in general vagueness of thought" (Shouby, 1951: 291), which may cause a native reader of English to face difficulty in understanding a text written by

an Arab learner of English. Shouby's claims were supported by other researchers such as Allen (1970) who argued that the Arab writer's style is circular, not cumulative. In his view, the Arab writer comes "to the same point two or three times from different angles, so that a native English reader has the curious feeling that nothing is happening" (Allen, 1970: 94). Allen, who taught Arab students in Cairo, recognises that the Arab writer's rhetoric is an established pattern, and what an Arab writer does is normal and acceptable for Arab readers.

However, the most influential research into contrastive rhetoric and discourse is probably that of Kaplan (1966), who in his famous article, "Cultural thought patterns in intercultural education," advanced contrastive rhetoric as a new field of inquiry. Kaplan studied about 600 L2 student essays in ESL writing classrooms. As a result of his analyses, Kaplan produced diagrams of different rhetorical patterns used by student writers. These diagrams, which have been widely published, showed Kaplan's personal interpretations of the thinking processes of writers from different cultures when producing a text. With respect to Arabic, Kaplan (1966) claims that written texts in Arabic language are characterised by the use of parallel constructions. He defines synonymous parallelism as "the balancing of the thought and phrasing of the first part of a statement or idea by the second part" (p. 7). He ascribes this parallelism to the frequent use of co-ordinations. He gives examples of parallelism taken from essays written by Arab ESL students. According to Kaplan, the sentence *I lived among those contemporary Bedouins for a short period of time, and I have learned lots of things about them* has parallelism represented by the two clauses which connected by a co-ordinating conjunction *and*.

In the same study, Kaplan argues that Arab students' written texts in English suffer from deficiencies and weaknesses pertinent to overuse of co-ordination and lack of sub-ordination which is an indication of maturity of style in English. Although the study was valuable in establishing contrastive rhetoric as a new field of inquiry, it was, to a degree, exploratory and more intuitive than scientific (Leki, 1991). Further, Kaplan's contrastive rhetoric was, in fact, based on the product of writing, not the process. For this reason, adherents of process approaches to the teaching of writing have ignored the diagrams of contrastive rhetoric and their implications with regard to patterns of written discourse (Silva, 1990).

Analysing a corpus of texts written by Arab students studying at Kuwait University, Kharma's (1985) study echoes and supports Kaplan's findings, especially in the view that Arab students who write in English have problems with paragraphing, organisation and content. He adds that EFL student written texts are characterised by abundant use of repetition, parallelism, redundancy and co-ordination. Kharma points out that the problems in the Arab students' writing are due to the differences in the style of discourse of both Arabic and English. He attributes those problems either totally or partially to the interference and transfer of rhetorical stylistics and patterns of Arabic to English. He also ascribes the use of repetition, incoherence and disorganised discourse to the complete absence of the paragraph in Classical Arabic and the misunderstanding of that concept in a great deal of modern Arabic writing.



Other researchers in contrastive rhetoric, who have conducted studies on Arab students writing in English as a foreign/second language, were also influenced by Kaplan's (1966) claims that irregularities and weaknesses in texts written in English by Arab learners are the result of the excessive use of co-ordination and parallel structure which characterise Arabic. For example, Yorkey (1974) supports Kaplan (1966; 1972). He says:

"The chief characteristic of an Arab's written English is his infrequent use of sub-ordination and the overuse of co-ordinated constructions. Teachers at the American University of Beirut refer to the *wa wa* method of writing because of the Arabic *wa* "and", which is exceedingly used as a sentence-connector" (Yorkey, 1974: 14).

Further, studying the structure of writing produced in English by Arab students, and comparing this structure with that used by native speakers of English, Ostler (1987) found a tendency toward elaborate parallel structures represented in the frequent use of co-ordinated sentences, supporting Kaplan's (1966) hypothesis. She argues that this structure, which was used by Arab students, has a relationship to preferences taken from Koranic writing. In her study, Ostler attempts to provide a brief survey of the development of written Classical Arabic, speaking about the problem Arab speakers face as a result of the co-existence of written Classical Arabic (represented in the Koranic literature and Arabic poetry) and the new Modern Newspaper Arabic. Ostler, in this paper, offers useful insights for ESL teachers. She suggests that ESL teachers should first appreciate the differences in rhetoric in different cultures and then learn to teach these distinctions in order to help improve both the reading and writing skills of their students.

Unlike Kaplan (1966) and Shouby (1951), Dudley-Evans and Swales (1980), having studied essays written by Arab students studying in Britain for some time, remark that the Arab student has covered the essential points but the style of writing strikes the English reader as over-complicated and diffuse" (P. 98). They report that "the essay is not broken up into paragraphs, the sentences are extremely long and there are several instances of the use of redundant phrases, which will repeat the previous idea" (P. 98). This, in fact, is attributed to first language (L1) interference and to negative transfer from Arabic (L1) to English (L2).

Connor and McCagg (1987) conducted a contrastive study to examine preferred cultural patterns of exposition emerging in immediate recall paraphrase tasks written by native and non-native speakers of English. The objective of this study was to discover what cross-cultural differences would emerge in this sort of task, and to determine the implications of any differences for ESL pedagogy. The sample of the study consisted of 33 college students- 11 native-English speakers, 11 native-Japanese speakers, and 11 native-Spanish speakers. Unlike Kaplan's finding for essay writing, the finding of this research indicated that there was no transfer of culture-specific rhetorical patterns. The non-native English students appeared to be inhibited or constrained by the structure of the original passage. Another finding of this study showed that ESL students' writing lacked specific details to back up main ideas.

It appears that in most of the studies presented above, researchers ascribe L2 writing problems encountered by Arab EFL student writers to the interference and negative transfer of either rhetorical or cultural patterns of L1 (Arabic) to the target language, English in this particular context. As noted above, among the factors which researchers believe cause irregularities and problems in the writing of Arab learners of English is the overuse of repetition and parallelism, which is caused by the frequent use of co-ordinated constructions. It is true that these two characteristics prevail in Arabic, and they are used in developing written texts. However, this does not mean by any means that written texts in Arabic are always developed through repetition and parallelism. In both classical and modern Arabic, we find many examples of writing developed linearly with no repetition or parallelism. Holes (1995) refutes the claim that Arabic written texts, whether argumentative or narrative, are characterised by repetition and parallelism. He says:

On reflection, however, this claim seems an overstatement. On the one hand, there have been periods in Arabic literary history when genres of writing involving 'argumentation' have come to the fore, but in which repetition and periphrastic parallelism were hardly used at all - one thinks, for example, of early grammatical treatises, of mediaeval scientific writing, of the Muqaddima of the sociologist and polymath Ibn Khaldun. On the other hand, this style is not culture-specific: the history of rhetoric in many cultures, including English, shows some periods when a similarly repetitious and ornate style was in vogue and others when it was not. And if this claim about Arabic was valid, how would we explain the switch to a more succinct style in contemporary expository writing, unless we perversely assume that modern Arab writers are determined to be less persuasive than their forbears? The function of repetition and parallelism does not, at bottom, seem to have anything to do with 'argumentation' as such,



and it is worth considering briefly the genesis of this style, since its historical resonances and evolution have relevance to its use today (Holes, 1995: 272).

Beeston (1977) presents a text written by the famous Arab philosopher Ibn Sina (Avicenna), who lived in the 10th and 11th centuries (980-1037). Beeston argues that Ibn Sina "perhaps offers one of the best examples of unadorned, strictly scientific writing. Not merely every word, but even every syntactic form, has its own narrowly defined meaning. This piece, dealing with the theory of perception, comes from his great philosophical encyclopaedia, the *Sifa*" (Beeston, 1977: 28):

In the case of these *propria communia* [common properties of the matter], since apprehension of them is possible by means of the external senses, no other sense is required. Yet since apprehension of them without an intermediary factor is impossible, it is absurd to suppose that any one sense is exclusively concerned with them. Sight apprehends size, shape, number, position, motion and rest by the intermediary factor of colour; though it is likely that apprehension of motion and rest may involve some faculty other than external sense. Touch apprehends all this by the intermediary factor of hardness or softness for the most part, but occasionally by means of heat and cold. Taste apprehends size by virtue of the fact that it can taste a very widespread savour, and apprehends number by the fact that it can find a multiplicity of savours in individual bodies. Motion, rest, and shape it can likewise pretty apprehend, though feebly, by getting the help of touch in this respect. By smell it is hardly possible to apprehend size, shape, motion and rest in any way figurable in the smeller. On the other hand, number can be apprehended thereby, inasmuch as it is figurable in the smeller; however, the mind apprehends that by a kind of analogy or imagination, because the mind recognises that a thing whose

smell suddenly stops has itself ceased to be there, and a thing whose smell continues is there." (Beeston, 1977: 28-29).

As can be noted above, although this translated text was written in classical Arabic in the 11th century, it is coherent, well organised, linearly developed and to the point. As Beeston (1977) comments on this text, "Not merely every word, but every syntactic form, has its own narrowly defined meaning" (p. 28). There may seem to be some repetition in the text, but, as Holes (1995) argues above, "The function of repetition and parallelism does not, at bottom, seem to have anything to do with 'argumentation'" (p. 272).

To summarise, among recent research in the field of writing is that which is being directed towards contrastive and comparative analysis of non-native speakers' written texts (Kaplan, 1966; Yorkey, 1974; Allen, 1970; Holes, 1984; Ostler, 1987; Kharma, 1985; Dudley-Evans and Swales, 1980; Shakir, 1991; Doushaq, 1986 ...etc.). Most of the above researchers ascribe the problems and stylistic and rhetorical irregularities of Arab EFL written texts mainly to the following three factors: (i) differences in rhetorical conventions and cultural and thinking patterns between first language (Arabic in this case) and second language (English), (ii) the lack of linguistic proficiency in L2, and (iii) mother tongue interference and negative transfer. The general belief is that Arab learners of English transfer their Arabic rhetorical conventions to their English written texts. This transfer may make their writing feel non-English when read by a native speaker of English. However, this is the case with all NNS writers of English; problems such as irregularities of development of ideas, repetition, unclear reference, and lack of subordination generally prevail in texts written by beginners and learners or



writers who are not adequately trained or familiar with the conventions of writing in the target language, English in the present context.

## 2.4 Conclusion

We have noted above how research into the teaching of writing has focused on three main areas: student/tutor perceptions of writing; students' writing processes and strategies; and contrastive rhetoric through the analysis of students' written texts. Further, what has been noted throughout the research conducted in those areas is that most studies have been confined to a particular, single research instrument, either interviews, compose- or think-aloud protocols or product-analysis using either holistic measures or some other kind of analytic frameworks. Very few studies appear to have used a combination of two or three techniques. In addition, most studies were approached either quantitatively or qualitatively, and most were confined to either native writers or non-native ESL writers, but not EFL student writers. Therefore, research into this field seems to be lacking comprehensive studies that, on the one hand, combine EFL students' and their tutors' perceptions of the writing process, demands and problems of writing, and on the other, analyse these students' written products in the same study, and at the same time compare the perceptions and beliefs to the actual written texts, using both quantitative and qualitative methods to analyse the collected data. Comprehensive research studies are therefore needed in this domain.

Finally, it remains to mention that many findings of writing research, particularly those related to L2, appear to be contradictory. This may be ascribed, as we have noted above, to a lack of comprehensive studies, a shortage of a comprehensive theory of writing both in L1 and L2, and/or the dominance of deficit models of writing which may come from a single



perspective. What seems to be needed, in L2 writing in particular, is a developmental model which tries to synthesise and integrate the views of different perspectives. Further, this developmental model should take into consideration the findings of L2 writing research in the areas of process, product, contrastive analysis, contrastive rhetoric and discourse analysis. As noted above, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) appear to work towards a model of writing as a communicative language use, which tries to combine linguistic, social, textual and cognitive elements of writing.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **GENERAL RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY - SURVEYS**

#### **3.0 Introduction**

As indicated in Chapter One above, the motivation for the current research project arose as a result of discussion with university EFL students and tutors about the low standard and/or the variability of the writing produced by students, despite the fact that the students were offered a number of writing courses which were assumed to support them and help enhance their writing ability, competence and performance. For example, Jordanian university students majoring in English are offered three courses in writing to help them write better in their other subject areas. However, informal discussion with EFL tutors suggests that students' written products are "not very satisfactory" and are not of the "expected or required standard". Students themselves appear to share these views with their tutors. On the basis of informal discussions and open-ended questions addressed in the survey questionnaire of the study, the view of both groups, students and tutors, is that there are two major types of difficulty which are encountered by student writers: one is linguistic and the other is rhetorical or discoursal.

The present research, therefore, was designed to investigate two areas: EFL student and tutor perceptions of second language (L2) writing, through an analysis of their responses to a survey questionnaire, and the actual writing undertaken by EFL students in an academic context, through an analysis of two mini-corpora of EFL students' written texts.

#### **3.1 Research design**

As discussed above, in order to develop as rich a portrait as possible of writing practices in Jordanian EFL contexts, two related strands of research

methodology were planned. The first strand involved a survey which was administered in the departments of English Language at two Jordanian universities (the University of Jordan and Yarmouk University). The purpose of the survey, as noted above, was to gain access to students' and tutors' perceptions of writing; these were expected to throw some light on the writing practices and problems of writing in an EFL academic context. The survey was carried out by means of two data collection techniques: closed and open-ended questionnaires (two versions of the same questionnaire: one for students, the other for tutors with some modifications discussed below), and informal interviews which took the form of face-to-face conversations with tutors as well as students.

Through the questionnaire, participants' perceptions of the process and problems of writing encountered by EFL students were explored. The first section of the questionnaire dealt with strategies and activities undertaken by EFL students during the process of writing. The second section examined the EFL students' and their tutors' perceptions of the nature of writing in L2. Section Three probed a number of assumptions about the learning and acquisition of the writing competence in L2. Section Four discussed the second language (L2) writing difficulties and the factors which may cause writing difficulties as perceived by EFL students and their tutors. The final section looked at the teaching of writing and the adequacy of the writing courses which are offered by the universities as perceived and evaluated by EFL students and their tutors.

The next stage was to relate EFL students' and their tutors' perceptions of writing to what is actually being practised in EFL settings, a second strand of research methodology. This second strand was concerned with the actual writing practised by EFL students. It was designed to investigate whether student and



tutor perceptions elicited through survey questionnaires and interviews are reflected in actual texts, and to examine the linguistic characteristics of EFL writing through an analysis of two mini-corpora of "successful" and "unsuccessful" texts. For the analysis of texts, I used a Theme analytical framework based on systemic functional grammar which is concerned with both form and meaning. I also used other analyses: the lexical density and the contextual configuration. In this way, the combination of three data collection techniques: questionnaires, interviews and text analysis, was intended to guarantee the use of a triangulated research methodology.

### **3.2 Sampling and sample of the study**

In the majority of investigations of students' perceptions and beliefs about writing instruction and writing process, introspective research methods, or what are called verbal reports, such as composing- or thinking-aloud protocols, observations, interviews and self-report techniques (Emig, 1971; Kroll, 1979; Perl, 1979 and 1980; Flower and Hayes, 1980 and 1981; Zamel, 1983; Raimes, 1985; Cumming, 1989; Cohen and Cavalcanti, 1990; Cohen, 1994) have been used. (See Sections 2.1.1 and 2.1.2 above and Section 3.3.1 below.) Typically, in these studies of the composing processes through the thinking-aloud protocols (Emig, 1971; Perl, 1979; Zamel, 1983; Raimes, 1985), the number of subjects has been relatively small, as is the case with most case studies. However, in the studies which have used survey questionnaires as their main research tool (Kroll, 1979; Leki and Carson, 1994; Yorio, 1983), the number of subjects has been much larger; this is one of the characteristics of survey questionnaires.

As the present study uses a survey questionnaire technique, the sample of the study consists of a relatively large number of respondents. The respondents are both EFL university students and tutors. The universities involved in the project are the University of Jordan located in Amman, the capital city of Jordan, and Yarmouk University in Irbid, the main city in the North of Jordan. Both institutions are official (government) universities, where there are two large departments of English Language.

Two hundred and ten (210) third/fourth year students, studying for their B.A. degree in English Language and literature, participated in this research. Participating students had already completed two or three courses in writing at university level. In addition, twenty-six (26) EFL university tutors (lecturers, senior lecturers or professors) took part in the study. The tutors selected are instructors of writing or other English Language and Literature courses in language departments or in education (TEFL) departments. In addition, 8 of the tutors and 10 of the students who responded to the survey questionnaire agreed to participate in informal interviews.

For the second part of the study, seventy-one students of those who completed the questionnaires volunteered to write an argumentative essay in English on one of two topics: the first is *whether a woman's place is in the home*, and the second is *whether automobiles are useful and necessary or they cause problems that affect our health and well-being*. Forty-two texts of those written on the *women* topic were included in Theme analysis. A detailed account of the methodology used in the selection and analysis of these texts is presented in Chapter Six, Section 6.3 below.



### **3.3 Data collection techniques**

This section is concerned with describing the data collection techniques used in the investigation of students' and tutors' perceptions of writing in EFL settings, and in explaining the question of whether these perceptions are reflected in actual practices of student writing.

#### **3.3.1 Previous research**

As noted above, among the research methods or techniques through which one can elicit student and tutor perceptions of the writing process are: introspection techniques and survey questionnaires. In the following section, I shall summarise the research techniques which have been used in data collection in the previous research of the writing process.

##### **3.3.1.1 Introspection techniques**

As indicated in Section 3.2.1 above, most research conducted on students' perceptions and beliefs about writing instruction and writing process has used introspective research methods such as verbal reports, composing- or thinking-aloud protocols, observations, interviews and self-report techniques. Cohen (1994), for instance, classifies verbal reports into: "self-reports, in which learners describe what they do in generalised statements about their learning behaviours; self-observation, in which learners inspect their specific language behaviours introspectively or retrospectively; self-revelation, in which learners think aloud while they perform a learning task, providing a stream-of-conscious disclosure of the information they pay attention to; or some combination of these" (Cohen, 1994: 679).

Tarone and Yule (1989) also justify the use of verbal reports on the grounds that they help teachers, researchers and students themselves better understand the



nature of learners' views of their learning tasks. However, verbal reports are criticised with respect to sampling problems. White (1985) says that process-oriented research using think-aloud techniques has problems in "the selection decisions and process which determine who will participate in a study" (p. 202). He also draws attention to the small numbers of participants, with consequent effects on both representativeness and generalisability. Further, criticising Flower and Hayes' writing model as based on protocol analysis techniques, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) state that although "protocol analysis can reveal certain important things about what writers do, ... it cannot be the primary source of evidence for a theory of writing process" (p. 92-93).

#### **3.3.1.2 Survey questionnaires**

To avoid, or compensate for, the effects emerging from the use of introspective techniques, a number of studies conducted on learner strategies have used both self-report interviews and surveys using questionnaires (Kroll, 1979; Yorio, 1983; Horwitz, 1987; Leki and Carson, 1994). In such studies, subjects are requested to answer interview questions orally and then complete written questionnaires or vice-versa. This is done to give greater reliability to the research measures and to contribute to the generalisability of the findings.

Cohen (1994) warns that interview questions and questionnaire items are more likely to elicit learners' beliefs about what they think rather than what they actually do. He adds "... as all measures have their potential strengths and weaknesses, such uses of verbal reports are not seen as a replacement for other means of research, but rather as a complement to them" (1994: p. 680). However, Cohen and Manion (1995) consider survey tools as the most commonly used in educational research. They say:

“Surveys gather data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing conditions, or identifying standards against which existing conditions can be compared, or determining the relationships between specific events” (Cohen and Manion, 1995: p. 83).

Moreover, in comparison with other research tools, questionnaires appear to be the most popular and the most accessible. Guba and Lincoln (1981) state the merits of questionnaires:

“Questionnaires are less expensive than interviews, they are self-administering, they can be administered to many persons simultaneously, they can be mailed, they are logistically easier to manage than interviews, and they call for uniform responses (although items may often be subject to widely different interpretations). At the same time, they are impersonal and limit the respondent’s response range significantly” (Guba and Lincoln, 1981:164).

### **3.3.2 Present research study**

As noted above, this chapter aims to explore EFL students’ and tutors’ perceptions of writing. More specifically, the chapter attempts to throw light on the following aspects of writing in EFL academic contexts: the writing processes and strategies carried out by EFL students, the nature of writing, the acquisition of L2 writing, the areas of difficulty in EFL student writing, and the teaching of L2 writing. In an attempt to access the participants’ perceptions of those issues, two versions of the same questionnaire were developed and used in



this study: one was addressed to students and another to their tutors. (Questionnaires are attached as Appendices A.1 and A.2).

### 3.3.2.1 Why... a survey questionnaire ?

Like all research methods, questionnaires are believed to have their relative strengths and weaknesses (Gosden, 1994). They are considered to be accessible, cheap and easy ways of obtaining information. Nevertheless, they are never without criticism. For instance, Belson (1981) criticises the use of questionnaires which might have unfamiliar or technical words that may lead to too vague and obscure questions. This is true, especially when a questionnaire is administered or completed by respondents without the presence of the questionnaire designer. Some of the respondents may need to ask about certain items in the questionnaire which may need clarification. If there is no administrator available to clarify such items, the responses will not be accurate or correct. Further, Nesbet and Entwistle (1970) raise concerns about the reliability of the elicited information. They believe that reliability is open to question. They also caution that individuals' perceptions which are revealed through questionnaires should be taken only as "indicators" of perceptions. Gosden (1994) supports this recommendation by questioning: "How can we be sure that individuals' replies reflect what they *actually* think, or subsequently do?" (p.158) when asking them what they think about something by means of questionnaires.

In order to avoid such design faults, Courtenay (1978) and Belson (1981) suggest a number of precautions or design criteria in designing effective questionnaires: (i) establishing clear categories of questions that are relevant to testing ; (ii) carefully considering the choice of words, concepts and facts; (iii) considering carefully the flow of questions and total length; (iv) considering the data analysis through the questionnaire construction, taking into account



whether questionnaires are designed to yield quantifiable statistical or qualitative anecdotal data, and (v) using pilot surveys that reveal potential failure of some questions (Courtenay, 1978).

In the present study, I have borne in mind all the above-mentioned points when designing the survey questionnaire, the principal instrument of Part One of the research. In order to reduce the ambiguity that may be caused by terminology and wording, the questionnaire items were revised many times by the researcher as well as a number of researchers who were interested in questionnaires, or undertaking questionnaires in their research. (Section 3.3.2.3 below)

### **3.3.2.2 The present survey instrument (the questionnaire)**

As indicated above, a survey questionnaire was used in the present study to elicit EFL students' and tutors' perceptions of writing and the problems that were generally reported to be encountered by students when they were required to write an essay about a particular topic. This questionnaire comprised "closed" items and "open-ended" questions seeking information about writing practices in EFL academic arenas. A Likert scale was used throughout all the closed questions of the questionnaire, which ask for respondents' opinion about a certain issue in the writing process. Although a Likert scale may have the disadvantage of having a midpoint, which may often be difficult to interpret, it still has the advantage "that shades of opinion may be given numerical values: it may be significant if large numbers of respondents could only bring themselves to agree with a particular statement, showing weak support, but strongly agreed with others" (McDonough and McDonough, 1997: 176).

The survey questionnaire, which is used as the principal research tool in this part of the study, was developed by the researcher from different sources: articles on writing instruction and discourse analysis, books on writing and assessment, questionnaires and interviews used in previous research, and think-aloud protocols and techniques employed in previous studies on the writing process and writing strategies.

As part of the initial development of the questionnaire, the researcher regularly consulted colleagues who were also using questionnaires as principal tools of their research work. From this process, the researcher received substantial feedback with respect to the content as well as the wording, terminology and layout of the questionnaire from his supervisor, who was at the same time, with another group of researchers at Bristol, using a survey questionnaire in a research project on Effective Writing for Management funded by the University of Bristol Department of Continuing Education (Davies and Forey, 1996). As the initial version of the questionnaire was developed, the researcher with the help of his supervisor carefully examined all the questions, open and closed, and the layout. Once and again they revised and edited the wording of the items (statements) of the questionnaire to make sure that it was ready for piloting.

As it is a rule of a thumb to make sure that a questionnaire is "fully fledged", it has to be tested rigorously, then "adapted, fashioned and developed to maturity" (Oppenheim, 1994: 47). Hence, the initial version of the revised questionnaire of the present study was further piloted with ESL (N=9) and EFL (N=17) students to see if there were any questions which might still seem unclear, misleading or misunderstood by respondents. The comments on the questionnaires indicated that respondents did not face difficulty with the

terminology and layout of most items of the questionnaire. However, it appears that Question 6 may have caused them some trouble. The question asked was as follows:

*Question 6: In your own perception, how much trouble does each of the following modes cause you when writing?*

Argumentation	1	2	3	4	5
Description	1	2	3	4	5

As can be seen, the wording of this question does not indicate which number represents the most trouble, and which number the least trouble. To remove any ambiguity or misunderstanding, I changed the numbers into words, as follows:

*Question 6: In your own perception, how much trouble does each of the following modes cause you when writing? (Please tick in one of the boxes provided for each item.)*

Mode of writing	enormous trouble	much trouble	some trouble	a little trouble	no trouble
Argumentation					
Description					

At a later stage, and prior to his departure to Jordan for fieldwork and administering the questionnaire, the researcher asked a number of experienced researchers and Ph.D. students in a questionnaire workshop held in the School



of Education, University of Bristol to complete it and suggest ideas for improving it. The researcher benefited from the feedback he received from colleagues, so he revised and modified the questionnaire items which were ambiguous or found difficult to understand by the participants. Most of the suggestions and modifications were related to the wording of questions or the wording of alternatives in the closed questions.

For example, Question 9 was worded as follows: *If you perceive yourself that you have difficulty when you write in English, what are, in your opinion, the reasons for this difficulty? (If you believe the following to be some of the reasons, please rank them using numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, etc., giving 1 to the reason you perceive to be the most significant and 5 to the reason you perceive to be the least significant).* Instead of the above, the following wording was suggested: *To what extent do you think the following factors may cause you difficulty when you write in English?* In answer to this question, respondents had to tick one of the following alternatives: *to a very large extent, to a large extent, to some extent, not at all, or do not know.* In other questions, instead of using *very much attention*, it was suggested to use *substantial attention*.

These problems in the questions and items of the questionnaire are, as noted above, related to Courtenay's (1978) second and third criteria (consideration of the choice of words and concepts, and consideration of the flow of questions, respectively).

### **3.3.2.3 Organisation of the present survey questionnaire**

In order to elicit data about how EFL students and their tutors perceive writing and in order to answer the first eight questions addressed in Chapter One above, the survey questionnaires (both students' and tutors' versions) enclosed in this thesis as Appendices A.1 and A.2 were used. In what follows, however, I shall describe in detail the various sections of the questionnaire used in the study. As pointed out above, each version of the survey questionnaire comprises 5 main sections. Section 1 probes the writing process in general and the practices and strategies involved in the writing process. Section 2 is concerned with how EFL students and their tutors look at the nature of L2 writing. Section 3 of the questionnaire deals with the learning to write and the acquisition of competence in L2 writing. The fourth section investigates the areas of difficulty and the factors causing this difficulty in L2 student writing. The last section probes the question of how L2 writing is taught in EFL academic settings.

#### **3.3.2.3.1 The writing process**

As noted above, Section 1 of the survey questionnaire is concerned with the writing process. It consists of 4 questions. Question 1 is addressed to both students and their tutors. It asks about how often EFL students carry out certain writing strategies such as outlining ideas on paper, outlining ideas in the mind, making a draft, talking through ideas with a friend, writing directly without outlining or drafting, and revising and editing what has been written. A five-point scale (4-0, where 4 represents "always" and 0 represents "never") was used in this question.

Question 2 asks participants to assess the extent to which they concern themselves with different aspects of writing such as worrying about or considering linguistic, discoursal, rhetorical and cognitive components during the process of writing. Concerns about linguistic components were represented

in questions about grammar, vocabulary and the mechanics of writing. Discoursal and rhetorical aspects of writing were explored through questioning about the consideration given by EFL students to audience and purpose. Cognitive practices were represented by asking about planning, generating and developing ideas and re-scanning and re-reading what has been written to assess the fit between the initial plan and the final draft. A five-point scale (4-0, where 4 stands for “to a very large extent” and 0 stands for “not at all”) was used in this question.

Question 3, with two parts, (a) and (b), considers the attention EFL students pay to linguistic and rhetorical aspects of written discourse both in their initial drafts and final draft. More specifically, linguistic aspects included grammar, vocabulary and mechanics (spelling, punctuation and capitalisation). Rhetorical aspects covered structure and organisation of text, and content (facts and ideas). A five-point scale (4-0, where 4 represents “substantial attention” and 0 represents “no attention at all”) was used in this question.

Respondents are requested in Question 4 to indicate the importance given to the linguistic and rhetorical aspects in Question 3 above, when they revise and edit what they write. The same five-point scale (4-0, where 4 represents “enormous importance” and 0 represents “no importance at all”) was employed here.

#### **3.3.2.3.2 The nature of writing**

This part of the survey questionnaire comprises two questions. Question 5 investigates how EFL students and their tutors perceive the nature of writing in an academic context. Respondents are asked in this question to respond with “agree” or “disagree” to 15 statements covering, on the one hand, what linguistic, rhetorical and cultural conventions L2 writing requires, and on the other, how writing as a process is looked at, i.e., whether writing is a



mechanical, or a cognitive, recursive process. A Likert scale of five points (4-0, where 4 = “strongly agree”, 1= “strongly disagree” and 0= “not sure”) is used here to measure participants’ responses.

Question 6 of the survey questionnaire was intended to investigate the degree of perceived difficulty caused by different modes of writing (argumentation and description). A five-point scale, (4-0, 4= “substantial difficulty” and 0= “no difficulty at all”) is also used here.

### **3.3.2.3.3 Learning to write and acquisition of competence in L2 writing**

Section Three of the survey questionnaire includes one question which deals with the “learning to write and acquiring competence in L2 writing”. Question 7 asks both EFL students and their tutors to respond to eight assumptions about learning to write in a foreign language. The first two assumptions, for instance, investigate whether exposure to models of writing and to authentic, cultural materials, and whether pattern practice may help learners to write better and provide them with a meaningful context for learning how to write well or at least the motivation to write better. Other assumptions are concerned with whether the acquisition of a good knowledge of the foreign language grammar and vocabulary make it easy for learners to write in that particular language. Respondents are also requested in this question to say whether they agree that writing in a foreign language is a matter of translating from their first language, and to say whether it is true or not that some people are born with a special ability that helps them write in any particular language. The last thing our sample is asked about is whether planning, editing and revising in L2 contribute to the quality of the written text that a learner produces. For measuring responses, a Likert scale of five points ranging from 4 to 0 (4= strongly agree, 1= strongly disagree and 0= not sure) is used.

#### **3.3.2.3.4 Areas of difficulty in EFL student writing**

Section Four of the questionnaire consists of two questions. Question 8 is concerned with 3 main categories of areas of difficulty in EFL student writing: language proficiency skills (syntax, lexis and mechanics), rhetorical skills (use of logical cohesive devices, and structure and organisation of texts), and thinking skills (generating ideas and developing arguments). Participants were asked to respond, in terms of the difficulty they have when they write an essay in English, to 15 statements covering the aforementioned categories. A five-point scale, where 4= "substantial difficulty" and 0= "no difficulty at all", was used in measuring this question.

Question 9 probes the extent to which different factors, such as lack of L2 vocabulary and language command, different cultural thought and organisational patterns of L1 and L2, and different systems of L1 and L2 are perceived to cause difficulty when writing in English. A four-point scale (4-1, where 4 stands for "to a very large extent" and 1 stands for "not at all") was used in investigating this question.

#### **3.3.2.3.5 The teaching of writing in Jordanian EFL contexts**

Section Five of the survey questionnaire deals with the teaching of writing and writing courses. This section has three questions, two "closed" questions and one "open-ended" question. Question 10 focuses on the attention paid by tutors of the writing courses to writing components, namely: content, structure and organisation of text, grammar, vocabulary and mechanics (spelling, punctuation and capitalisation). In this question, a five-point scale (4-0, where 4= substantial attention, and 0= none) was employed. The other "closed" question in this section of the questionnaire is Question 11 which asks respondents to say how well the writing courses offered by the university prepares students for the



writing they do in the other courses. A five-point scale, ranging from 4= “very well” to 0= “not well at all” is used in this question.

As noted above, Question 12 of the survey questionnaire is “open-ended”. It is concerned with the writing courses provided for EFL students. It asks student participants to say what they would like the writing courses to provide them with.

The survey questionnaire ends up with Question 13 which invites any other comments respondents would like to make on anything about writing in English as a Foreign Language.

#### **3.3.2.4 Analysis of the questionnaire data**

As noted above, the questionnaire included both "closed" and "open-ended" questions. The closed questions of the survey were analysed quantitatively. Using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS), the frequencies of responses to each question were counted and percentages were calculated for the purpose of identifying trends and patterns. Frequency counts and percentages in most of the cases appear to give some indication about how EFL students and their tutors perceive writing in academic settings. With regard to the writing process and strategies involved in it, for instance, frequency counts were able to identify which of the strategies were, or were not, employed properly in EFL writing practices.

However, to compare and contrast students’ responses to those of their tutors, a comparison of means was carried out by means of the t-test statistical analysis, the statistical measure used for comparing two groups of means and finding out



whether statistically significant differences exist. In addition, to find out whether there were any statistically significant differences in the distribution of EFL students' and their tutors' perceptions of writing, the Mann-Whitney statistical test was employed. This is the statistical test which is usually used when comparing frequencies and percentages of responses of two groups. For example, in this study, students' and their tutors' perceptions of the nature of writing and how writing in a second language (L2) is acquired were examined by means of frequencies and percentages. Therefore, the Mann-Whitney test was used to reveal if there were any statistically significant differences between the responses of both groups .

The target sample responses from the qualitative part of the questionnaire (Question 12) were first collected in a list in order to find out whether there were any particular patternings for such responses. As noted above, Question 12 asked students to say what they would like the writing courses to provide them with. 77% of the students (163 out of 210) answered this question. As regards the coding frames, the following procedure was followed: (i) I randomly selected a sample of the completed questionnaires (30); (ii) I copied all the students' answers given to the question on to sheets of paper; (iii) I examined the responses carefully, considering frequency of these responses; and (iv) through the examination of responses to this open-ended question, it was found that these responses form four main categories: rhetorical skills, language proficiency skills, types and modes of writing, and writing models and practice. The same procedure was made for the rest of the questionnaires. Accordingly the responses were dealt with both quantitatively and qualitatively.

### 3.3.3 Informal interviews

Although the principal tool of this part of the study was the survey questionnaire discussed above, informal discussions and interviews with a small number of students and tutors (10 and 8 respectively) were carried out. The principal aims of the informal interviews were to (i) validate the formerly used measure, the questionnaire, and supplement its data, and (ii) clarify and illustrate the meaning of the survey questionnaire findings. In so doing, the questions asked through this research technique took the form of open-ended questions relating to the five major areas of the survey questionnaire: the writing process and the strategies involved in it, the nature of writing, the acquisition of writing and learning to write in a second language, the areas of difficulty in L2 writing, and the teaching of writing and writing courses in EFL academic settings.

As noted above, the topics discussed in the informal interviews focused on the major categories of the survey questionnaire used for the investigation of student and tutor perceptions of writing in an EFL academic writing. Although the interviews were informal and took the form of a face-to-face conversation, they were semi-structured in their format, and close to the standard questionnaire used above; the questions asked were specified in advance. The first topic discussed in the interviews was concerned with process writing, and with whether students in EFL classrooms use the strategies of outlining and planning, drafting, revising and editing while writing. The second issue discussed with interviewees focused on EFL students' and their tutors' perceptions of writing in a second/foreign language. More specifically, questions such as whether writing is a cognitive or mechanical process, and what writing acquisition in L2 involves or requires were probed. The third topic of discussion in the informal interviews centred on the essay-writing problems,

both at the linguistic and discoursal/rhetorical levels, encountered by EFL students. Further, both students and their tutors were asked about the factors which they think might cause difficulty in L2 writing. The last issue discussed with students as well as tutors was related both to the composition classes at the school or pre-college level, and to writing courses taught at the tertiary level. It focused on the question of whether current teaching of writing was adequate and fruitful and whether it helped students to do better in the writing they usually did in their other subject areas.

In designing a coding frame, I followed the same procedure illustrated in the open-ended question of the questionnaire (Question 12 above). According to the coding frame, the data collected through informal interviews were grouped into four main categories: practices during the process of writing, focus during revision, focus during initial and final drafts, and views about the nature and acquisition of L2 writing. The data were approached both quantitatively and qualitatively, to look for interpretations which may be consistent with (McDonough and McDonough, 1997: 186) the data revealed through the closed and open-ended questions of the questionnaire.



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **FINDINGS OF SURVEY ANALYSIS**

#### **4.0 Introduction**

This chapter is intended to answer Questions 1-9 which are stated in Chapter One. As noted above, these questions were investigated through the use of a survey questionnaire and informal interviews. Consequently, this chapter presents the findings of the analysis of the data collected from the two versions of the survey questionnaire which were completed by EFL students and their tutors, and from the informal interviews with a small number of students and tutors. It comprises 2 major sections (4.1 and 4.2) and a minor section (4.3). Section 4.1 presents the findings related to student and tutor perceptions of the writing process, the nature of writing, learning to write and acquiring competence, the areas of difficulty in EFL student writing and the factors which may cause difficulty, and the teaching of writing in EFL academic settings. Section 4.2 presents an interpretation and discussion of the findings of the survey analysis. The last section of this chapter (4.3) presents a conclusion of the major findings.

#### **4.1 Findings of survey analysis**

This section presents the findings of the analysis of student and tutor perceptions of writing. It includes five major areas, related to EFL student and tutor perceptions of: the writing process and the strategies involved in it; the nature of L2 writing; the acquisition of writing and learning to write in L2; the areas of difficulty in L2 writing; and the teaching of writing in EFL academic contexts.

##### **4.1.1 The writing process**

In what follows, I shall present the findings of the first four questions addressed in the survey questionnaire:

**4.1.1.1 EFL student and tutor perceptions of the strategies which are carried out in EFL writing settings during the process of writing**

Question 1 of the survey questionnaire asked both students and their tutors about the strategies which were used by EFL students when they were required to write an essay about a certain topic in English. This question consisted of 6 fixed statements. Responses to the statements were analysed to examine the pattern of the respondents’ perceptions of these strategies.

Table 4.1 below displays the statements in which students and tutors were asked to report how often EFL students carry out certain strategies during the process of writing essays in English as a foreign language. The items in the question focus on planning or outlining, drafting, revising and editing. A frequency distribution of students’ and tutors’ responses is shown in Table 4.1 below.

Looking at Statement 1 in Table 4.1 (EFL students outlining ideas on paper), we can see that about 41.1% of the students responded with “usually” and “always” while only 23% of the tutors believed that students did so. In contrast, a high percentage of the respondents from both groups believed that EFL students outline their ideas in their mind (Statement 2) as a common practice. 73.2% of the students and 56% of the tutors responded with “usually” and “always”.

The distribution of responses on Statement 6 (writing directly without outlining) appears to show a disparity between students and tutors. 55.8% of the student participants reported that they “rarely or never” wrote directly without outlining. However, almost the same percentage of tutors (53.9%) reported that their students “usually or always” wrote without outlining. This variation or difference in students’ and tutors’ perceptions of the above practice (EFL student writing without outlining) was also confirmed statistically. The Mann-Whitney U Test,

(which is designed to measure statistical differences between two groups in terms of frequencies and percentages) revealed statistically significant differences between students' responses and those of their tutors.

**Table 4.1 Distribution of Participants’ Responses to Strategies which EFL Students Carry out during the Writing Process (%)**

strategies	Q.1. How often do students do the following strategies in their writing?									
	STUDENTS (N= 210)					TUTORS (N= 26)				
	A	U	S	R	N	A	U	S	R	N
1. outline their ideas on paper	45 (21.5)	41 (19.6)	67 (32.1)	39 (18.7)	17 (8.1)	1 (3.8)	5 (19.2)	12 (46.2)	7 (26.9)	1 (3.8)
2. outline their ideas in mind	89 (42.6)	64 (30.6)	39 (18.7)	11 (5.3)	6 (2.9)	1 (4.0)	13 (52.0)	9 (36.0)	2 (8.0)	0 (0.0)
3. make a draft	60 (28.8)	53 (25.5)	52 (25.0)	31 (14.9)	12 (5.8)	4 (16.0)	5 (20.0)	14 (56.0)	2 (8.0)	0 (0.0)
4. revise and edit their writing	87 (41.6)	66 (31.6)	34 (16.3)	15 (7.2)	7 (3.3)	2 (7.7)	17 (65.4)	7 (26.9)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
5. talk through their ideas with a friend	15 (7.2)	30 (14.4)	76 (36.5)	59 (28.4)	28 (13.5)	1 (4.0)	3 (12.0)	10 (40.0)	10 (40)	1 (4.0)
6. write directly without outlining	10 (4.8)	29 (13.9)	53 (25.5)	69 (33.2)	47 (22.6)	2 (7.7)	12 (46.2)	8 (30.8)	4 (15.4)	0 (0.0)

*Note: A stands for Always, U for Usually, S for Sometimes, R for Rarely and N for Never.*

Statement 3 is concerned with students’ drafting when they are required to write an essay. The finding in Table 4.1 again reveals a difference between the perceptions of EFL students and those of their tutors. While 54.3% of the students reported that they “usually or always” make a draft, tutors seemed to view such a practice by their students differently. Only 36% of those teachers responded with “usually or always”.

The findings, however, indicate a strong consensus among both student and tutor respondents about Item 4 of the first question (revising and editing what has been written). It is apparent from Table 4.1 that 73.2% of the students reported that they carried out such a strategy most of the time. At the same time, 73.1% of the tutors reported positively that their students revised and edited what they had to write.



In response to Item 5 (EFL students' talking through their ideas with a friend), both groups of participants had an almost similar view. The data indicate that talking through ideas with a friend during writing is not very common among this sample of EFL students. Only 21.6% of the students and 16% of the tutors responded with "usually" or "always". This suggests the possibility of a lack of awareness, amongst EFL students, of what is regarded by researchers as an essential strategy in language learning and writing acquisition (Mittan, 1989; Manglesdorf, 1992).

#### **4.1.1.2 EFL students' concerns about linguistic and discoursal aspects and conventions during the process of writing**

Question 2 of the survey questionnaire asks about EFL students' concerns at both the linguistic and discoursal/rhetorical levels during the process of writing. This question consists of 9 statements, five of which seek to probe the extent to which EFL students worry about linguistic matters such as grammar, vocabulary and mechanics (spelling and punctuation) during the process of writing. The other statements were intended to explore the extent to which students are concerned about discourse and rhetorical conventions of writing. Tables 4.2 (a) and 4.2 (b) below display the participants' responses to the question.

##### **4.1.1.2.1 Linguistic concerns during the process of writing:**

As has already been noted, Question 2 of the survey comprises 9 statements representing the linguistic and rhetorical practices and conventions of writing which EFL students are concerned about. As can be seen from Table 4.2 (a) below, the majority of students and tutors (67.1% and 69.3% respectively) believed that EFL students "to a (very) large extent" worried about grammar while composing. Similarly, 67.6% of the students and 73.1% of the teachers perceived that vocabulary was "to a (very) large extent" a source of worry to

students. No statistically significant differences existed between students' and tutors' responses with respect to the above statements.

**Table 4.2 (a) Distribution of Responses of Participants' Perceptions of EFL Students' Linguistic Concerns during the Process of Writing (%)**

Linguistic Concerns	Q.2- During the process of writing, to what extent do EFL students concern themselves with the following?									
	STUDENTS (N= 210)					TUTORS (N= 26)				
	To a v.l. extent	To a l. extent	To some extent	To a small extent	Not at all	To a v. l. extent	To a l. extent	To some extent	To a small extent	Not at all
1. worry about grammar	105 (50.0)	36 (17.1)	39 (18.6)	20 (9.5)	10 (4.8)	10 (38.5)	8 (30.8)	7 (26.9)	1 (3.8)	0 (0.0)
2. worry about vocabulary	81 (38.6)	61 (29.0)	45 (21.4)	18 (8.6)	5 (2.4)	9 (34.6)	10 (38.5)	7 (26.9)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
3. worry about spelling	82 (39.0)	44 (21.0)	41 (19.5)	36 (17.1)	7 (3.3)	3 (11.5)	8 (30.8)	10 (38.5)	5 (19.2)	0 (0.0)
4. worry about punctuation	50 (24.0)	58 (27.9)	54 (26.0)	38 (18.3)	8 (3.3)	2 (7.7)	3 (11.5)	11 (42.3)	9 (34.6)	1 (3.8)
5. re-scan for gram., vocab. and spelling	62 (30.0)	90 (43.5)	39 (18.8)	15 (7.2)	1 (0.5)	0 (0.0)	9 (34.6)	10 (38.5)	7 (26.9)	0 (0.0)

*Note: "a.v.l." stands for a very large (extent), and "a.l." stands for a large (extent)*

However, it seems that students and tutors viewed worries about the mechanics of language such as spelling and punctuation *differently*. 60% and 51.9% of the students reported that they “to a (very) large extent” worried about spelling and punctuation respectively, whereas only 42.3% and 19.2% of the tutors believed that. In re-scanning their texts for grammar, vocabulary and spelling (Statement 5 in Table 4.2 (a) above), 73.5% of the students responded with “to a (very) large extent” whereas only 34% of their tutors did so. This finding seems to reflect and correspond with the other findings which revealed EFL students' attention to, and focus on, the linguistic aspects such as vocabulary and grammar during the various stages of the process of writing. For example, in both the informal interviews and in the open-ended questions of the questionnaire, students confirmed their belief in the need to be equipped with good knowledge of L2 vocabulary and grammar which may enable them to do better in their writing.



#### 4.1.1.2.2 Discoursal concerns during the process of writing:

As noted above, this section consists of 4 statements which are intended to probe the extent to which EFL students consider discoursal and rhetorical conventions of writing such as purpose, audience and generating ideas. Tables 4.2 (b) below displays the participants' responses to the statements.

As has already been noted, Items 1, 2, 3 and 4 of Question 2 in the survey questionnaire explore the extent to which EFL students are concerned with rhetorical and discoursal aspects of writing. In response to Item 1 ( students' considering the purpose of writing), a majority of the student participants (63.7%) reported "to a (very) large extent" taking the purpose of their writing into consideration. However, only 11.4% of the teachers believed that their students "to a large extent" did so (considered the purpose of their writing). On the other hand, when students were asked about the extent to which they considered their readers (Item 2), only 33.7% responded with "to a (very) large extent" and 42.9% answered with to "some extent". Most of the teachers (60%), however, believed that their students gave "little" concern to their readers ("to a small extent").

Moving to establishing or creating an audience for one's self when writing (Item 3), we found that while 28% of the students reported "to a (very) large extent" doing this. In contrast, a much larger proportion of the tutors (48%) responded with "to a small extent" and 12% of them believed that their students *did not* establish an audience for themselves *at all*. Finally, with regard to Statement 4 in the table above (concerns about ideas), 44.2% of the students reported that they "to a (very) large extent" concentrated more on ideas than on language use while writing. In contrast, 61.5% of the tutors believed that students "to a (very) large extent" gave more attention to ideas than to the grammar of the language. This



variation in students' and tutors' perceptions resulted in statistically significant differences between the responses of the two group of respondents.

**Table 4.2 (b) Distribution of Responses of Participants’ Perceptions of EFL Students’ Discoursal Concerns during the Process of Writing (%)**

Discoursal Concerns	Q.2 During the process of writing, to what extent do EFL students concern themselves with the following aspects of discourse?									
	STUDENTS					TUTORS				
	To a v. l. extent	To a l. extent	To some extent	To a small extent	Not at all	To a v. l. extent	To a l. extent	To some extent	To a small extent	Not at all
1. consider the purpose of writing	42 (20.6)	88 (43.1)	59 (28.9)	12 (5.9)	3 (1.5)	0 (0.0)	3 (11.5)	14 (53.8)	9 (34.6)	0 (0.0)
2. consider their reader	16 (7.8)	53 (25.9)	88 (42.9)	38 (18.5)	10 (4.9)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (36.0)	15 (60.0)	1 (4.0)
3. establish an audience for themselves	16 (7.7)	42 (20.3)	80 (38.6)	48 (23.2)	21 (10.1)	0 (0.0)	1 (4.8)	9 (36.0)	12 (48.0)	3 (12.0)
4. concentrate more on ideas than on grammar and vocabulary	32 (15.4)	60 (28.8)	53 (25.5)	39 (18.8)	24 (11.5)	5 (19.2)	11 (42.3)	9 (34.6)	1 (3.8)	0 (0.0)

*Note: "a.v.l." stands for a very large (extent), and "a.l." stands for a large (extent)*

Such results, especially those based on tutors' perceptions, indicate that EFL students do neglect essential aspects of discourse: the audience and purpose. The question which arises is: *does the analysis of an EFL text sample show this defect, the neglect of audience and purpose?* It is beyond the scope of this section to answer this question. However, in the discussion section below, this question is fully probed by comparing the student/tutor respondents' perceptions to the results of text analysis.

#### 4.1.1.3 EFL students’ attention in initial and final drafts

Questions 3.1 and 3.2 of the student survey questionnaire were: “*How much attention do you usually give each of the linguistic and rhetorical aspects of writing in initial (Q. 3.1) and final (Q. 3.2) drafts?*”, and the same questions of the tutor survey were: “*How much attention do you expect your students to give each of the linguistic and rhetorical aspects of writing in initial (Q. 3.1) and final (Q. 3.2 ) drafts?*” Both versions of the question in the survey were intended

to probe the attention which students reported paying to linguistic components and to discourse or rhetorical conventions associated with written texts, and to compare student reporting to what tutors expect of their students. The participants' responses to these questions are shown in Tables 4.3 (a), 4.3 (b), 4.3 (c) and 4.3 (d) below.

Table 4.3 (a) shows the rank order of students' and tutors' perceptions of the concerns and attention paid by EFL student writers to linguistic and rhetorical components of written language, using a five-point scale (*substantial attention* = 4, *much attention* = 3, *some attention* = 2, *a little attention* = 1, and *no attention at all* = 0).

According to the student sample, it appears that most of attention in the initial drafts of writing is given to content. The same applies to tutors. Tutors believe that their EFL students pay most attention to content in initial drafts. As shown in Table 4.3 (a) below, students ranked vocabulary and then grammar second and third respectively, followed by organisation and structure of text fourth. Tutors, at the same time, appeared to almost have similar ranking. They ranked grammar and vocabulary third (both grammar and vocabulary were ranked third). Attention given to mechanics (spelling, punctuation and capitalisation) was ranked last by both students and tutors.

**Table 4.3 (a) Rank Order of Skills Attended to by EFL Students in Initial Drafts (Means)**

Question 3.1: Attention given by EFL students to writing skills in initial drafts				
	STUDENTS		TUTORS	
SKILL	MEAN	RANK	MEAN	RANK
Content	3.14	1	3.42	1
Grammar	2.86	3	2.84	3
Mechanics	2.41	5	2.44	5
Organisation and structure of text	2.69	4	3.00	2
Vocabulary	2.92	2	2.84	3

Although students and their tutors appear to rank the writing components in initial drafts in the same order, they perceive attention given to the organisation and structure of the text differently. This component was ranked fourth and second by students and tutors, respectively. However, if we have a closer look at Table 4.3 (b) below which displays student concern with linguistic components altogether and rhetorical components altogether, a clearer picture emerges. Both students and tutors seem to agree that rhetorical components should be given more attention in initial drafts of writing, followed by linguistic components. This finding is consistent with other research findings (Friedlander, 1989; Zamel, 1982, 1983).

**Table 4.3 (b) Rank Order of Linguistic and Rhetorical Components Attended to by EFL Students in Initial Drafts (Means)**

Question 3.1: attention given by EFL students and tutors to linguistic and rhetorical components in initial drafts of writing				
	STUDENTS		TUTORS	
COMPONENT	MEAN	RANK	MEAN	RANK
Rhetoric	2.91	1	3.21	1
Language use	2.73	2	2.71	2



On the other hand, Table 4.3 (c) below shows the attention given by EFL students to the rhetorical and linguistic components of writing in their final draft of writing. Although both tutors and students ranked grammar first, content third and mechanics last in the final draft of student writing, it seems that they differed in ranking vocabulary, and organisation and structure of text. Students ranked organisation and structure of text second and vocabulary fourth, whereas their tutors ranked them fourth and second, opposite to what their students reported. However, despite this discrepancy, no significant differences existed when using the statistical analysis t-test. This is explained by the close means scored by both groups of respondents. Take "Content", for instance. The students' scored mean is 3.32, which is very close to the means scored by tutors, 3.50. According to the scale used in this particular context, both means scored lie in the range of *much attention*. The same applies to the other aspects of this question. Additionally, the findings in Table 4.3 (d) below may also interpret and support the student and tutor agreement on this question.

**Table 4.3 (c) Rank Order of Skills Attended to by EFL Students in Final Drafts (Means)**

Question 3.2: Attention given by EFL students to writing skills in final draft				
	STUDENTS		TUTORS	
SKILL	MEAN	RANK	MEAN	RANK
Content	3.32	3	3.50	3
Grammar	3.48	1	3.69	1
Mechanics	3.20	5	3.30	5
Organisation and structure of text	3.33	2	3.44	4
Vocabulary	3.31	4	3.61	2

As said above, Table 4.3 (d) below reveals that both tutors and students produce the same ranking when those components are compressed in two main categories: rhetorical and linguistic. In the final draft, we can note that linguistic

components are given the priority. A comparative analysis between responses of both groups, tutors and students, also shows no statistically significant differences between the two groups identified. These findings seem to be consistent with those of researchers such as Friedlander (1989) and Zamel (1982, 1983).

**Table 4.3 (d) Rank Order of Linguistic and Rhetorical Components Attended to by EFL Students in final Drafts (Means)**

Question 4.2: attention given by EFL students to linguistic and rhetoric components in final draft of writing				
	STUDENTS		TUTORS	
COMPONENT	MEAN	RANK	MEAN	RANK
Rhetoric	3.32	2	3.47	2
Language use	3.33	1	3.53	1

#### 4.1.1.4 Revision and editing

Question 5 was intended to investigate the attention which students in EFL academic settings pay to linguistic and rhetorical skills when they revise and edit what they have written. As is clear from Table 4.4 below, it appears that there is a strong consensus among all respondents on the importance which EFL student writers should give to the linguistic and rhetorical aspects of written discourse in the process of revision and editing. A five-point scale (where 4 represents *substantial attention* and 0 represents *no attention*) was used in this context. The linguistic skills such as grammar and vocabulary, as perceived by both students and tutors, seem to receive more attention than rhetorical skills such as content and structure and organisation of text. On the other hand, punctuation and capitalisation are reported, by both groups of respondents, to receive the least attention of all aspects of written text. Further, the use of the statistical t-test revealed no statistically significant differences existing between the responses of the two groups of respondents.



**Table 4.4 Attention EFL student writers give to linguistic and rhetorical aspects of writing in revision and editing**

Q. 5. Importance given by students to the following in revising and editing what they have written	Means, Standard Deviation and Standard Error of Means						P Value
	STUDENTS			TUTORS			
	Mean	SD	SE	Mean	SD	SE	
5.1. grammar	3.3883	.841	.059	3.6400	.569	.114	.065
5.2. vocabulary	3.2670	.809	.056	3.5600	.583	.117	.078
5.3. punctuation	3.0000	.983	.068	3.3600	.907	.181	.934
5.4. capitalisation	3.1512	.996	.070	3.3600	.907	.181	.434
5.5. spelling	3.3627	.874	.061	3.4400	.651	.130	.179
5.6. structure and organisation of text	3.2439	.810	.057	3.4800	.770	.154	.743
5.7. content	3.2039	.813	.057	3.5417	.721	.147	.307

**4.1.2 The nature of writing**

This section investigates the way in which EFL students and their tutors perceive the nature of writing in an academic context. In Section 4.1.2.1 below, participants responded to 15 statements which were designed to cover a wide range of views about writing and about the linguistic and rhetorical aspects or skills which are required for writing properly in a target language. Section 4.1.2.2 probes whether a particular type or mode of writing such as the "argumentative" causes more difficulty in writing than other modes such as "descriptive" or "narrative".

**4.1.2.1 EFL student and tutor perceptions of the nature of writing**

Of special interest are the findings of Question 5 of the survey questionnaire. This question was addressed to both groups of participants to investigate how EFL students and their tutors perceived the nature of writing in academic settings. The findings are displayed in Table 4.5 below.

In general, with minor differences, it appears that students and tutors share similar perceptions about the nature of writing. Regarding Statement 1, which indicates that writing is a mental process, the majority of both groups responded positively. 91.4% of the students and 100% of the tutors perceived that writing was a mental process that required thinking. At the same time, 66.5% of the



students and 73% of the tutors viewed writing as a mechanical process in which a person can learn how to write through the exposure to exercises and rules of writing. And when talking about “writing as a recursive process”, most students and tutors (77.3% and 96.1%) agreed that during the process of writing, a writer should use various activities and skills such as generating ideas, linking them, writing , rewriting, revising and editing simultaneously.

Statements 4 and 13 ask participants to decide whether writing is a “negotiation with a known reader” or a “negotiation with different readers”. The findings of the analysis of responses indicate that subjects viewed these items somewhat differently. Only 43.5% of the students agreed with Statement 4 that writing is a “negotiation with a known reader”. In contrast, 73% of the tutors perceived that writing is addressed to a known reader. Similarly, in response to Statement 13, the findings showed that there were statistically significant differences between the two groups. While 80.8% of the tutors believed that “writing is a negotiation with different readers”, only 62.6% of the students did so. My own observation is that EFL students do not consider a reader in their writing. They usually write to a general audience. Therefore, tutors are invited to raise an awareness of such an important question in EFL writing settings.

Statements 5 and 14 of Question 5 ask respondents to say whether they agree or disagree with the statement that “writing is a strictly personal activity” and “writing as one’s own self-expression”. Concerning the first proposition, it is apparent from the analysis in Tables 4.4 (a) that 50.4% of students agreed, while only 38.4% of tutors believed so. However, it seems that both groups look at Statement 14 positively. 81.2% and 84% of students and tutors respectively perceived writing as one’s own self-expression.

Statement 6 compares the writing skill, in terms of difficulty, to the other language skills. Most EFL students and tutors (72.8% and 88.4%) viewed writing as the most difficult of the four language skills. Moreover, most respondents in both groups perceived writing as a laborious, painful process (Statement 10) and viewed it, to some extent, as problem-solving. Further, most of the respondents believed that writing in second language (L2) became more complicated (Statement 13) than writing in L1.

**Table 4.5 Distribution of Responses of Participants' Perceptions of the Nature of Writing (%)**

Q.6. Student/tutor perceptions of the nature of writing in an academic context	Question 6: How do you perceive the nature of writing in an academic context?									
	STUDENTS					TUTORS				
	SA	A	D	SD	NS	SA	A	D	SD	NS
1. writing is a mental process	48.3	43.4	4.9	1.0	2.4	69.2	30.8	0.0	0.0	0.0
2. writing is a mechanical process	23.3	43.2	25.7	0.5	7.3	11.5	61.5	26.9	0.0	0.0
3. writing is a recursive process	22.2	55.1	15.9	1.9	4.8	26.9	69.2	3.8	0.0	0.0
4. it is a negotiation with a known reader	7.9	35.6	36.1	5.4	14.9	11.5	61.5	26.9	0.0	0.0
5. it is a strictly personal activity	18.4	32.0	33.5	10.7	5.3	3.8	34.6	46.2	11.5	3.8
6. it is the most difficult of the 4 skills	43.2	29.6	18.4	6.8	1.9	34.6	53.8	11.5	0.0	0.0
7. it requires a comprehensive knowledge of vocabulary	48.1	45.1	5.3	0.5	1.0	23.1	28.5	34.6	3.8	0.0
8. it's a linguistically-demanding process	22.3	53.9	15.0	1.0	7.8	19.2	80.8	0.0	0.0	0.0
9. it requires a comprehensive knowledge of the language rhetorical conventions	19.9	58.3	10.7	0.0	11.2	28.0	68.0	4.0	0.0	0.0
10. it is a laborious, painful process	29.3	43.4	22.4	2.9	2.0	24.0	64.0	12.0	0.0	0.0
11. it is, to some extent, problem solving	10.1	54.8	15.4	2.9	16.8	16.0	60.0	24.0	0.0	0.0
12. it becomes more complicated in L2	30.8	46.6	18.3	1.4	2.9	23.1	69.2	7.7	0.0	0.0
13. it is a negotiation with different readers	16.0	46.6	22.8	1.5	13.1	15.4	65.4	19.2	0.0	0.0
14. it is one's own self-expression	29.5	51.7	15.9	0.5	2.4	20.0	64.0	12.0	0.0	4.0
15. it requires a good knowledge of culture	30.9	56.0	7.2	1.4	4.3	40.0	60.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

*Note: SA stands for strongly agree, A for agree, SD for strongly disagree, D for disagree, and NS for not sure.*



Statements 7, 8, 9 and 15 probe what students and tutors believe writing requires. Most of the students (93.2%) believed that writing required a comprehensive knowledge of vocabulary, whereas only 51.6% of the tutors thought so. And in response to the question of whether writing is a linguistically-demanding process, all tutors and the majority of students (76.2) believed so. Also at the rhetorical level, most tutors (96%) and the majority of students (79%) agreed that writing required a comprehensive knowledge of rhetorical conventions of the language (Statement 9). Finally, Statement 15 asks respondents whether writing requires a good knowledge of the target culture and it seems that the majority of participants believed that a good knowledge of the culture in which the person wrote was necessary. 100% of the tutors and 86% of students agreed with this statement.

Finally, as a result of the Mann Whitney Test of comparing two groups of frequencies and percentages, there were some statistically significant differences which existed between the participants' responses to a number of statements, namely Statements 4 (writing as a negotiation with a known reader) and 7 (writing as requiring a comprehensive knowledge of vocabulary). These statistical differences are expected since the disparity between students and tutors exists with respect to both statements.

#### **4.1.2.2 Modes of writing**

Question 6 in the survey was intended to investigate the degree of difficulty caused by different modes of writing: argumentation and description in particular. Examination of Table 4.6 reveals a consensus on what both groups of respondents believe. It was agreed that greater difficulty was caused by argumentative writing than by descriptive writing. However, while 88.5% of the tutors believed that argumentative writing caused “substantial” and “much” difficulty, only 62% of the students believed so. This difference in percentages



appears to be statistically significant, and reflects the tutors' view that EFL students encounter difficulty in developing an argument. But this does not apply to the participants' responses to the descriptive type of writing, i.e., no statistically significant differences seem to exist. This might be attributable to the agreement arrived at by both groups. Only 32.4% of students and 30.8% of tutors reported that this mode of writing caused “substantial” or “much” difficulty.

**Table 4.6 Distribution of Participants’ Responses to the Trouble Caused by Modes of Writing (%)**

Writing Mode	Q.7. Trouble caused by modes of writing									
	STUDENTS					TUTORS				
	Sub	M	S	L	N	S	M	S	L	N
1. argumentation	25.9	36.1	26.3	10.7	1.0	73.1	15.4	11.5	0.0	0.0
2. description	10.8	21.6	37.7	22.1	7.8	0.0	30.8	57.7	11.5	0.0

*Note: Sub stands for Substantial, M for Much, S for Some, L for Little, and N for None*

### 4.1.3 Learning to write and the acquisition of L2 writing

Question 7 investigates the assumptions held by EFL students and their tutors about learning to write in a foreign language. The findings are displayed in Table 4.7 which shows the distribution of the participants’ responses in percentages. (A five-point scale 4-0, where 4 = *Strongly Agree*, 3 = *Agree*, 2 = *Disagree*, 1 = *Strongly Disagree* and 0 = *Not Sure* is used.)

In Statement 1, students and tutors were requested to respond to the question of whether exposure to models of writing might help learners to write better. 94.8% and 96.2% of students and tutors respectively agreed that such exposure would help learners in their writing. With regard to Statement 2, we had an almost similar finding. The majority of the survey respondents (91.8% of students and 88.5% of tutors) perceived that pattern practice provided a meaningful context for learning how to write well. Similarly, most participants in both groups responded with ‘agree or strongly agree’ to Statement 6. 78.3% and 92.3% of

students and tutors respectively held the view that “exposure to authentic materials in L2” motivates learners to write better.”

**Table 4.7 Distribution of Participants' Responses to L2 Writing Acquisition (%)**

Assumptions	Q.7. assumptions about learning to write in L2									
	Students					Tutors				
	SA	A	D	SD	NS	SA	A	D	SD	NS
1. exposure to models of writing may help learners to write better	34.0	60.8	1.0	1.4	2.9	38.5	57.7	3.8	0.0	0.0
2. pattern practice provides a meaningful context to learn how to write well	29.8	62.0	6.3	0.5	1.5	23.1	65.4	3.8	7.7	0.0
3. some people are born with a special ability that helps them write easily in any language	23.3	36.4	22.3	9.7	8.3	3.8	50.0	34.6	7.7	3.8
4. acquiring a good knowledge of gram. & vocab. in a certain language , a learner can easily write in it	15.0	36.9	37.4	8.7	1.9	0.0	11.5	61.5	19.2	7.7
5. writing well in L1 facilitates learning to write in L2	13.9	41.8	32.7	5.8	5.8	15.4	38.5	34.6	0.0	11.5
6. exposure to authentic materials in L2 motivates learners to learn to write better	26.8	51.7	8.1	2.4	11.0	23.1	69.2	3.8	0.0	3.8
7. writing in L2 is a matter of translating from L1	4.9	18.0	39.8	35.0	2.4	0.0	0.0	30.8	69.2	0.0
8. planning, revising and editing writing in L2 contribute to the quality of the L2 text	15.0	58.3	8.3	1.5	17.0	36.0	64.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

*Note: SA stands for strongly agree, A for agree, SD for strongly disagree, D for disagree, and NS for not sure.*

When requested to respond to the statement: ‘whether some people are born with a special ability that helps them write easily in any particular language’, 59.7% of the student group and 53.8% of the tutor group agreed on this assumption. A similar result was obtained when the subjects of the study were asked whether writing well in L1 facilitated learning to write in L2. 55.7% and 53.9% of students and tutors respectively answered this question with agreement. Finally, the whole group of tutors (100%) emphasised the potential of planning, revising and editing in producing better written texts. The majority of the student



respondents (73.3%) agreed with their tutors and perceived that practices such as planning and revising writing in L2 would contribute to the quality of L2 text. Table 4.7 above displays the results of Question 7 in the survey questionnaire.

However, the findings regarding Statements 4 and 7 appear to point to statistically significant differences between the two groups. While 51.9% of the students agreed that the acquisition of a good knowledge of grammar and vocabulary could help learners write easily in a particular language, only 11.5% of their tutors believed so. As regards Statement 7, it seems that the two groups responded somewhat differently. While 16.7% of the students agreed that writing in L2 was a matter of translating from L1, we can note that none of the tutors agreed on such an assumption.

In sum, it appears that our respondents feel that as EFL students they need to be exposed to authentic materials of the target language. They also feel that student writers need more exposure to pattern practice and models written by professionals. They believe that such practices could provide a meaningful context for them and help them learn to write better through practising and imitating such models (Witte, 1985; Hamp-Lyons and Heasley, 1987). This finding is supported by the data collected in the open-ended questions of the survey questionnaire and by the information revealed in the informal interviews. Both student and tutor interviewees reported that exposure to models and authentic materials were necessary in the teaching and learning of L2 writing.

#### **4.1.4 Areas of difficulty and factors causing difficulty**

##### **4.1.4.1 Areas of difficulty**

Tables 4.8 (a) and 4.8 (b) below summarise the findings on how the survey participants perceived the degree of difficulty of certain writing skills such as knowledge of rhetoric, thinking, language proficiency and mechanics. A five-



point scale (4-0 where 4 represents substantial difficulty, 3 much difficulty, 2 some difficulty, 1 a little difficulty and 0 no difficulty at all) is used here. The analysis of responses of the two groups indicated statistically significant differences.

**Table 4.8 (a) Areas of Difficulty in EFL Student Writing (Means)**

Q.8. Areas of difficulty in students' writing	Means, Standard Deviations and Standard Errors of Means					
	STUDENTS			TUTORS		
	Mean	SD	SE	Mean	SD	SE
1. writing grammatically correct sentences	1.8606	1.038	.072	2.9615	.871	.171
2. choosing the right words to use	2.3173	.898	.062	2.8846	.864	.169
3. expressing ideas effectively	2.3349	.889	.062	3.1200	.927	.185
4. using correct punctuation	1.8357	.946	.066	2.7308	1.116	.219
5. using correct capitalisation	1.2087	1.152	.080	2.8000	.702	.140
6. using correct spelling	1.7799	1.042	.072	2.7692	.815	.160
7. developing ideas properly	2.2452	.891	.062	3.2692	.778	.152
8. generating ideas for the writing topic	2.2222	.858	.060	3.1538	.834	.164
9. developing arguments	2.3077	.907	.063	3.4615	.761	.149
10. putting ideas together so that writing becomes coherent	2.0817	.900	.062	3.1154	.711	.140
11. putting ideas together so that writing makes sense to readers	1.9183	.957	.066	3.0769	.744	.146
12. using logical cohesive devices	1.7488	1.138	.079	2.8077	.895	.176
13. using transition devices	1.3529	1.070	.075	2.2308	.951	.187
14. organising ideas logically and properly	2.1111	.931	.065	3.0385	.774	.152
15. organising the different sections of paragraphs and essays	1.8365	1.082	.075	2.8846	.864	.169

Following Leki and Carson (1994), I condensed the above-mentioned skills into three main categories: rhetorical skills (writing coherently, considering readers, use of logical cohesive devices and organisation of ideas and essay sections), thinking skills (expressing and generating of ideas, and developing ideas and arguments), and language skills (grammar, vocabulary, punctuation and spelling). Table 4.8 (b) below shows the means and rankings of the three categories according to the degree of difficulty respondents report is caused by each. Such categories appeared to be ranked in the same order by both groups. The thinking skills and the rhetorical skills were ranked first and second

respectively and the language skills were ranked third. As perceived by respondents in both groups of the study sample, the thinking skills category that includes generating, expressing and developing ideas and arguments caused the most difficulty, followed by rhetorical skills, followed by language skills which include both language proficiency (grammar and vocabulary) and mechanics (spelling, punctuation and capitalisation).

**Table 4.8 (b) Rank Order of Difficulty Caused by Three Categories of Skills (Means)**

Category of skills	Difficulty caused by skills of written language			
	Students		Tutors	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
Rhetorical skills	1.94	2	2.99	2
Thinking Skills	2.28	1	3.25	1
Language Skills	1.73	3	2.73	3

However, although the ranking by the two groups looks similar, a comparison of the means appears to indicate statistically significant differences. Regarding the thinking skills, for instance, the student group felt that they had *some* difficulty (mean = 2.28, which lies in the range of “*some* difficulty” according to the five-point scale used in this respect), whereas the tutor group felt that their students had “*much* difficulty” (mean = 3.25, which lies in the range of “*much* difficulty” according to our scale).

The same can be said about the other categories. The big differences between the means scored by both groups are clearly revealed in Table 4.8 (b) above. Where tutors perceived that the above skills or aspects of written language caused students *much* difficulty in writing, students felt that these aspects caused them only *some* difficulty.

#### 4.1.4 2 Factors causing difficulty in second language writing

Question 9 of the survey questionnaire attempts an investigation into the factors that cause EFL students difficulty when they are required to write in English. Against a scale of 4 points (4-0, where 4 = *to a very large extent*, 3 = *to a large extent*, 2 = *some extent*, 1 = *to a small extent* and 0 = *do not know*), respondents were asked to tick the extent to which they thought a particular factor could cause difficulty to EFL students in writing. Table 4.9 below shows the means of such responses.

As can be seen in the Table 4.9 below, this sample of EFL students and their tutors appear to treat the factors which they think cause difficulty in student writing very differently. Most tutors felt that lack of vocabulary (Item 1), lack of language command (Item 2), different cultural thought patterns of L1 and L2 (Item 3), different organisational patterns of both L1 and L2 (Item 4) and different systems of L1 and L2 (Item 5) were seen "*to a (very) large extent*" factors causing difficulty in student writing (The means scored were 3.23, 3.42, 3.38, 3.31, and 3.28 respectively). However, most students' responses lie in the "*to some extent*" category .(The means scored were 2.75, 2.44, 2.23, 2.05, and 1.90 respectively.) The use of t-test analysis showed statistically significant differences among the participants' responses. This lack of agreement is expected as it was reflected in other questions, particularly when we discussed the areas of difficulty in EFL student writing. For example, students usually believed that language proficiency such as lack of vocabulary was the first which may cause difficulty in their L2 writing, whereas teachers believed that rhetorical skills such as developing an argument was among the first factors which may cause their students' L2 writing difficulty.



**Table 4.9: Participants’ Perceptions of the Factors Causing Difficulty in L2 Writing**

Factors	Q.9. What are the factors that cause difficulty when EFL students write in L2?					
	STUDENTS			TUTORS		
	Mean	SD	Rank	Mean	SD	Rank
1. lack of vocabulary	2.75	.944	1	3.23	.710	5
2. lack of language command	2.43	1.052	2	3.42	.643	1
3. different cultural thought patterns of L1 and L2	2.22	1.007	3	3.38	.637	2
4. different organisational patterns of both L1 and L2	2.04	.954	4	3.30	.788	3
5. different systems of L1 and L2	1.90	1.003	5	3.28	.980	4

Table 4.9 above also shows the rank order of the factors that students and tutors perceived created difficulty in writing, according to the means scored by each of both groups of respondents. According to the student group, lack of vocabulary was ordered first, lack of language command second, different cultural thought patterns third, different organisational patterns of L1 and L2 fourth and different systems of L1 and L2 last. Tutors, on the other hand, ranked the factors as follows: lack of language command first, different cultural thought patterns second, different organisational patterns of L1 and L2 third, different systems of L1 and L2 fourth and last was lack of vocabulary. However, it remains to say that although tutors appear to rank vocabulary the last in the list, there is only a very small difference in means between vocabulary, the factor ranked last, and the firstly-ranked factor (lack of language command). If we consider the real value of the two means (3.42 and 3.23), we can note that both factors may pose the same difficulty, irrespective of the order in the list, especially when we know that both mean scores lie in the range of *to a large extent causing difficulty*.

**4.1.5 The teaching of writing and the writing courses in EFL settings**

**4.1.5.1 Concerns of writing instructors in EFL written texts**

Question 10 of the survey questionnaire investigates the attention which instructors of writing in EFL settings give to linguistic and rhetorical aspects of

their students' written discourse. Table 4.10 (a) below displays both EFL student and tutor participants' responses to the above question. The findings displayed in the table are in the form of Means. A five-point scale (4-0, where 4 stands for *substantial attention*, 3 for *much attention*, 2 *some attention*, 1 for *little attention* and 0 for *no attention*) is used.

**Table 4.10 (a) EFL students' and tutors' perceptions of the attention instructors of writing give to linguistic and rhetorical aspects of text in EFL settings**

Q.10. Attention tutors of writing give to the following components	Means, Standard Deviations and Standard Errors of Means						P Value
	STUDENTS			TUTORS			
	Mean	SD	SE	Mean	SD	SE	
1. content	3.1100	.810	.056	3.3077	1.050	.206	.083
2. text structure and organisation	3.5433	.680	.047	3.3846	.983	.193	.08 2
3. grammar	3.7129	.608	.042	3.6538	.629	.123	.526
4. vocabulary	3.3702	.750	.052	3.4615	.647	.127	.483
5. punctuation	3.2919	.902	.062	3.3846	.804	.158	.472
6. capitalisation	3.4087	.863	.060	3.3462	.846	.166	.854
7. spelling	3.6293	.678	.047	3.5417	.658	.134	.667

As seen in the table above, both groups of respondents appear to hold the view that tutors of writing in EFL classrooms pay much attention to all aspects of written text. However, the view is that most of their attention seems to be given to grammar (which is considered as the main linguistic aspect of written text), and the least attention is believed to be given to content (which is considered as a rhetorical aspect of text). This is also revealed when seven elements in the table are condensed into two main categories: linguistic and rhetorical, as in Table 4.10 (b) below.

Classifying the above aspects of written discourse into two main categories, we can note that a strong consensus appears to exist among both groups of respondents. Linguistic skills are ranked first, receiving more attention than rhetorical skills by EFL instructors of writing. No statistically significant differences seem to exist among the responses of student and tutor respondents.

**Table 4.10 (b) EFL students' and tutors' perception of the attention instructors of writing give to linguistic and rhetorical aspects of text in EFL settings**

Q.10. attention tutors of writing give to rhetoric and language	Ranks according to Means Scored by Respondents			
	Students		Tutors	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
Rhetoric (Discourse)	3.32	2	3.33	2
Language Proficiency	3.41	1	3.47	1

**4.1.5.2 Adequacy of writing courses offered in EFL settings**

In Question 11, participants in the survey were asked about the quality of preparation of the writing courses which EFL students took during their university study. Table 4.11 (a) below shows the distribution of both students' and tutors' responses to the potential of the writing courses offered at the university in preparing students to write properly in the other subject areas. Using a scale of 5 points (where 4 stands for *very well*, 3 for *well*, 2 for *adequate*, 1 for *not very well* and 0 for *not well at all*), we note that the most frequently reported students' and tutors responses (35.6% and 48% respectively) were distributed in the category of "*not very well*". This indicates that both EFL students and their tutors are dissatisfied with what the writing courses offer to learners.

**Table 4.11 (a) Participants' perceptions of the preparation quality reported for the writing courses (%)**

Q.11 How well do the writing courses prepare students to write in the other courses?	Distribution of Responses of Participants' perceptions of the Preparation Quality Reported for the Writing Courses									
	STUDENTS					TUTORS				
	VW	W	A	NVW	NWAA	VW	W	A	NVW	NWAA
	7 (3.4)	64 (31.2)	45 (22.0)	73 (35.6)	16 (7.8)	1 (4.0)	3 (12.0)	7 (28.0)	12 (48.0)	2 (8.0)

*Note: VW stands for very well, W for well, A for adequate, NVW for not very well, and NWAA for not well at all.*



On the other hand, as shown in Table 3.11 (b) below, both groups of respondents were similar in their feeling about the quality of preparation the writing courses offered to support student writers in the other subject areas. On the five-point scale (4-0) illustrated above, the means scored by students and tutors were 1.86 and 1.56 respectively. Using both Mann-Whitney U-test and t-test to compare both groups' responses, we note no statistically significant differences among the participants' responses. Overall, unlike what is emphasised in the descriptions of the writing courses - *that by the end of such courses students are expected to produce well-organised, coherent texts in their other subject areas*, this finding of course confirms both student and tutor respondents' dissatisfaction and unhappiness with the quality of preparation of these courses. This is also reflected in the informal interviews. Both student and tutor interviewees expressed their dissatisfaction with the way writing is taught at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels.

**Table 4.11 (b) Participants' perceptions of the preparation quality reported for the writing courses (Means)**

Q.11. How well do the writing courses prepare students to write the other courses?	Means, Standard Deviations and Standard Errors of Means						P
	STUDENTS			TUTORS			Value
	Mean	SD	SE	Mean	SD	SE	
	1.8683	1.051	.073	1.5600	.961	.192	.269

*Note: SD stands for standard deviation, and SE for standard error.*

#### 4.1.5.3 Issues EFL students wish to learn in the writing courses

In this section, I shall present the findings of Question 12. This is an open-ended question concerned with the writing courses which departments of English at the University of Jordan and Yarmouk University offer to their students. It is addressed to students and is worded as follows: *What would you like the writing courses offered in the department of English to provide you with?* 77.6% of the

student sample (163 out of 210 students) responded *in writing* to this question. Answers were examined and found to form certain patternings. Accordingly, the following categories were devised: rhetorical skills (skills at text levels), L2 proficiency skills (skills at word and sentence level), types and modes of writing, models and practice, as well as a miscellaneous category (others). (See Section 3.3.2.4 above which illustrates how these categories were arrived at.)

As can be seen in Table 12 below, a relatively high percentage of student respondents (45.4%) would like the writing courses to provide them with text-level skills, related to the organisation and structure of text, and the development of ideas as well as to cohesion and coherence of text. On the other hand, about 40% of the students expect from the writing courses offered at their university to help them improve their language proficiency. The students' written responses appeared to include most linguistic aspects of written text such as vocabulary, grammar, spelling and punctuation.

**Table 4.12 Issues EFL students would like the writing courses to provide them with (N= 163)**

Issues covered in responses	Rhetorical Skills	L2 Proficiency	Types/Modes of Writing	Models and Practice	Others
No. of Respondents	74	65	39	35	37
Percentage	45.4%	39.9%	23.9%	21.5	22.7

In addition to text-level and word- and sentence-level skills, two major issues were raised in our EFL students' answers to Question 12: One is related to writing models and practice and the other to types and modes of writing. With respect to the first issue, 23.9% of the students who responded to the question complained that the writing courses currently offered in their departments do not cover the types of writing they are expected to do when they finish their university degree and go into their future careers. In addition to the essay writing

they need for their university education, many students wish the writing courses to focus on the other various types of writing which are needed for the workplace: business letters, memos, reports and editorials. These students may be described as developing 'genre awareness'.

As for the second issue, 21.5% of the students expressed their need for more writing practice and more exposure to authentic materials and models written by professionals in L2. Students feel that the more they practise writing in the target language the better they learn to write. This finding is consistent with the finding revealed in the closed questions asked in Sections 4.1.3 and 4.2.3 above. As indicated in Table 4.7 above, the majority of both EFL students and tutors in the present study perceive that practice and exposure to authentic materials and to models written in a second language may be of a great benefit to student writers.

Other issues, represented in the final category *Others* in Table 4.12 above, sprinkled in the students' written answers to Question 12. 22.7% of student respondents raised issues mainly concerned with the process of writing, the techniques and styles of teaching writing, and finally with skills of using resources, dictionaries and ways of documentation and referencing. As regards the writing process, for instance, a number of students would like their writing instructors, on the one hand, to train them in the use of planning/outlining and drafting for their writing, and on the other, to encourage students to work collaboratively, and discuss ideas and topics together. Peer conferences with colleagues and with teachers were also mentioned in students' responses. It is true that the question of the writing process appears to occupy only a small proportion of the responses; however, this, at least, indicates that this issue is in the mind of students, not overlooked.



**4.1.6 Informal interviews**

As noted in Chapter Three above, a number of informal interviews, which took the form of face-to-face conversations with 8 tutors and 10 students, were carried out. In these conversations, open-ended questions relating to the main categories of the survey questionnaire were raised. The data collected through the conversations were categorised as follows: interviewees' perceptions of the practices carried out during the writing process; interviewees' perceptions of the nature and acquisition of L2 writing; interviewees' perceptions of the areas and causes of difficulty in L2 writing.

As can be seen in Table 13 below, both student and tutor interviewees appear to agree on what is going on in EFL writing settings. A small percentage of students and tutors (30% and 25%) perceive that practices such as outlining/planning, drafting, discussing and conferencing occur in EFL writing classrooms. However, with respect to revision, all students and most tutors (100% and 87.5% respectively) report that EFL writers usually revise their texts while writing. Such perceptions appear to support the findings of the survey questionnaire (Section 4.1.1 above).

**Table 13 Student and tutor interviewees' responses to the question of practices carried out during the process of writing in EFL contexts**

	Students (N= 10)	Tutors (N= 8)
Outlining and Planning	3 (30%)	2 (25%)
Drafting	3 (30%)	2 (25%)
Collaboration and Conferencing	1 (10%)	1 (12.5%)
Revising	10 (100%)	7 (87.5%)

One of the open-ended questions raised in the conversations was intended to explore how much attention EFL student writers give to language proficiency

and content both in revising and editing their texts and in initial and final drafts of their texts. With respect to revision, as is seen in Table 14 below, it was found that the majority of both student and tutor interviewees believed that EFL writers give more attention to language proficiency than to content when revising. This finding is also consistent with the findings of the questionnaire analysis in Section 4.1.1.4 above.

**Table 14 Student and tutor interviewees' responses to the focus given by EFL writers to content and language proficiency when revising their texts**

	Students (N= 10)	Tutors (N= 8)
More focus on proficiency	7 (70%)	5 (62.5%)
More focus on content	3 (30)	3 (37.5%)

As regards initial and final drafts, as can be seen in Tables 15 (a) and 15 (b) below, 70% of students and 62.5% of tutors believed that EFL writers focus more on content than on language proficiency in their initial drafts. In contrast, 80% of students and 100% of tutors perceive that EFL students give more focus on language proficiency than on content. These findings appear to support and correspond with the findings elicited through the analysis of the survey questionnaire.

**Table 15 (a) Student and tutor interviewees' responses to the focus given by EFL writers to content and language proficiency in initial drafts**

	Students (N= 10)	Tutors (N= 8)
More focus on content	7 (70%)	5 (62.5%)
More focus on proficiency	3 (30%)	3 (37.5%)

**Table 15 (b) Student and tutor interviewees' responses to the focus given by EFL writers to content and language proficiency in final draft**

	Students (N= 10)	Tutors (N= 8)
More focus on content	2 (20%)	0 (0%)
More focus on proficiency	8 (80%)	8 (100%)

In a further investigation of how EFL students and their tutors look at the nature and acquisition of L2 writing, it was found that most student and tutor interviewees believe that a knowledge of both linguistic and rhetorical aspects of second language writing is necessary for one to learn how to write well in this particular language. On the other hand, as can be seen in Table 16 below, the majority of students and all tutors view the writing process as both cognitive and recursive. They believe that writing requires mental skills such as generating ideas and planning and developing these ideas into a well-organised text. They also believe that "navigating" through the texts while writing is necessary for the development and organisation of the text. These perceptions of the writing process as cognitive and recursive as well as the perceptions of the required knowledge of both linguistic and rhetorical features of L2 writing were also emphasised in the findings of the survey questionnaire above.

**Table 16 Student and tutor interviewees' perceptions of the nature and acquisition of writing in L2 academic contexts**

	Students (N= 10)	Tutors (N= 8)
Knowledge of linguistic skills	10 (100%)	7 (87.5%)
Knowledge of rhetorical skills	7 (70%)	7 (87.5%)
writing as a cognitive process	7 (70%)	8 (100%)
writing as a recursive process	6 (60%)	8 (100%)
Importance of writing practice and exposure to writing models in L2	8 (80%)	5 (62.5%)
Importance of other types of writing for future careers	7 (70%)	4 (50%)



*How did the interviewees look at writing practice and models as well as the various types of writing?* As is apparent from Table 16 above, most students and the majority of tutors viewed practice and "use of authentic materials as models" as contributing to writing well in a second language. "Instructors of writing and other courses should encourage students to write as many essays as possible. Practice teaches students how to write well." In sum, "the best way to learn to write is to write." As for the types of writing, 70% and 50% of the student and tutor participants in the informal interviews considered "exposure to a variety of text types" as vital for future careers. This is consistent with the findings of Question 12 of the survey questionnaire. As noted above, students expressed their need for learning to write other forms and types of texts. They reported that they needed to know how to write letters, reports, memoranda and editorials. Such kinds of writing should be taught in EFL writing classes, especially when we know that a large number of these students will go into careers in business and journalism when they finish their university studies.

The last issue raised in the face-to-face conversations with EFL students and tutors is concerned with the causes of problems and difficulty in student L2 writing. As seen in Table 17 below, 80% and 75% of student and tutor interviewees respectively believe that lack of language proficiency (vocabulary, grammar, punctuation and spelling) in L2 causes problems in student writing. Further, 60% of students and 100% of tutors view lack of rhetorical and thinking skills contribute to the difficulty encountered in student L2 writing. The two findings relating to linguistic and rhetorical skills are reflected in the findings of both students' and tutors' responses to the closed and open-ended questions of the survey questionnaires above.

**Table 17 Student and tutor interviewees' perceptions of the causes of difficulty in EFL writing**

	Students (N= 10)	Tutors (N= 8)
Problems in linguistic skills in L2	8 (80%)	6 (75%)
Problems in rhetorical and thinking skills in L2	6 (60%)	8 (100%)
No real writing in both L1 and L2 at pre-university level	6 (60%)	4 (50%)
Teachers of L2 writing at university level do not do their job well.	6 (60%)	3 (37.5%)

Additionally, there are a number of interviewees who reported that improper teaching of writing both at school and university levels may be one of the factors which are believed to cause problems in second language learners' writing. 60% and 50% of student and tutor participants respectively reported that there is no real writing in both L1 and L2 at pre-university level. Some students, for instance, reported that teachers, at both primary and secondary schools, used to look at the composition class, which was usually located at the end of the day, as a break or a time for rest and relaxation from the long laborious working day. One of the tutors commented by saying: "More serious writing at the school level, that is, at the primary and secondary schools, is needed." Another writing professor said: " I hope that high schools either teach writing properly or stop teaching it altogether. It takes me time to make students of *writing I* [this is the first of three writing courses provided by the university] unlearn the bad habits they have learned at school."

*How about writing at the tertiary level?* As is seen in Table 17 above, 60% and 37.5% of students and tutors participating in the interviews believed that tutors of writing at the university do not do their job properly. "Writing in EFL classes is not given sufficient attention by practitioners as much as researchers write about it." "It seems that instructors [of writing] concentrate on the language skills more than on the writing skills. As a result students pay more attention to



grammar, vocabulary and mechanics. They do not concentrate on the content and structure of their essays." One of the tutor interviewees reported that many "instructors of writing are not trained in teaching writing."

## **4.2 Discussion of the findings of survey analysis**

### **4.2.0 Introduction**

In this section, I shall briefly summarise the findings of the survey questionnaire in the previous sections and then attempt an interpretation and discussion of these findings. Section 4.2.1 is concerned with the discussion and interpretation of the findings related to the writing process and other strategies and activities involved in the process of writing. Section 4.2.2 discusses the findings as regards the nature of writing in second language (L2). Section 4.2.3 deals with the results related to the learning and acquisition of L2 writing. Section 4.2.4 is concerned with discussing the factors which are believed to create difficulty and problems to EFL student writers. The last section (4.2.5) looks into the findings related to the teaching of writing in EFL arenas.

### **4.2.1 The Writing Process**

#### **4.2.1.1 Strategies**

As noted above, it is apparent that in many cases students' perceptions corresponded with those of their tutors. For instance, a close look at Table 4.1 above indicates that both student and tutor participants' perceptions of the strategies carried out by EFL students during the process of writing were relatively similar. What seems to characterise EFL students' strategies while writing is that they outline their ideas in the mind more frequently or more commonly than they do that on paper. This suggests the EFL students' failure to utilise an important strategy which could contribute to better written products. However, this failure of utilising planning and outlining on paper may be interpreted with reference to time constraints. Most of EFL student writing in L2



usually takes place in classroom within a period of 50 minutes. An EFL student may prefer to use this limited time in developing his/her ideas and then in revising and editing his/her text for linguistic aspects. Friedlander (1989) found that time and language constraints influence both the writing process and product of his/her students.

Another striking finding is the lack, if not the absence, of collaboration among students in discussing their writing. Both student and tutor respondents reported that EFL students *did not* usually talk through their ideas with one another. So, peer conferences are rare or do not seem to exist or take place in EFL writing contexts despite researchers' emphasis on such an activity. Teacher and peer conferences are believed to help stimulate revising skills among learners and also help them identify problems in their writing (Mangelsdorf, 1992; Mittan, 1989; Daiute, 1985; Graves, 1983; Freedman, 1981). Further, collaborative activities in the form of peer conferences with a teacher or a student may help develop a writer's awareness of an audience and social context.

One of the main strategies during the process of writing is revising and editing what has been written. Both tutors and students feel that this is an important activity and agree that EFL students do practise such strategies. This appears to indicate our EFL students' awareness of the potential of revision and editing in enhancing their written texts. This finding corresponds with that of Murray (1978) and Witte (1985) who consider revising a text as "the most exciting, satisfying and significant part of the writing process" (Murray, 1978:86) and who also believe that good writers are those who make more revising activities. Stimulating learners to revise and edit what they write is therefore stressed. But, *what is it that is and/or should be revised in written texts?*

As noted in Section 4.1.1.4 above, Question 5 of the survey questionnaire was intended to investigate how much attention student writers at EFL academic settings pay to linguistic (micro-level) and rhetorical (macro-level) skills when they revise and edit what they have written. The findings reveal that both EFL students and tutors agree that revising and editing what has been written is an important strategy in the process of writing. Although it appears that both student and tutor respondents to the questionnaire believe that *to a large extent* student writers ought to attend to both linguistic and discoursal aspects of writing, they also appear to agree that, in revising and editing what has been written, linguistic aspects such as grammar and vocabulary should be given more attention than other aspects such as content, organisation and structure of text. However, this finding does not seem to fully correspond with the findings of other researchers on revision who report that “poor,” “inexperienced” and “novice” writers primarily revise their texts at the word and sentence level, while skilled writers revise at “text-base” level (Emig, 1971; Perl, 1979; Bridwell, 1980; Sommers, 1980; Faigley and Witte, 1981; Witte, 1985). For instance, based on conclusions from retrospective interviews with writers, Sommers (1980) reports that while unskilled, inexperienced writers regard revising as rewording and hunting for local errors, skilled and experienced writers look at revising as a sophisticated process which requires recursiveness and looking at text globally.

This finding appears to be counter-intuitive. One cannot imagine a writer, skilled or unskilled, revising a text without attending to word and sentence level. Even when a writer wants to revise his/her text for meaning, s/he does this through language: s/he “plays” with words and sentences, deleting, adding and changing them in order to arrive at a good, communicative text. If a writer wishes to produce his/her text in a clear, elegant and coherent way, these qualities of clarity, elegance and coherence require a suitable choice of words and



grammatical structures. It would appear that both linguistic and discoursal aspects of written texts are clearly related, interdependent, and need to be integrated when writing, revising and editing. Grabe and Kaplan's (1996) proposed model looks at writing as needing both linguistic and rhetorical components, as well as social and contextual components. It would appear that both types of writers, experienced and inexperienced, revise at the word and sentence level. However, the degree of concern differs according to the time of doing the revision, whether it is done during the process of writing as a recursive strategy or is done at the end of the process, as a final strategy. If revising and editing a text is used as a recursive strategy, then perhaps content and organisation of text receive greater attention than grammar and vocabulary. But, if the revision comes at the end, then it is linguistic matters such as grammatical and spelling mistakes that must be attended to. Friedlander (1989) indicates that "stronger writers, meanwhile, focus on global issues early in drafts and on syntax only in final drafts" (p.46). This also corresponds with Zamel's (1982, 1983) findings that good ESL writers used strategies which enabled them to delay linguistic concerns and focus on global concerns such as development of ideas. Other researchers in the revision process have found that beginning and inexperienced writers, during revising, attend to both local and global problems in their texts. Matsushashi and Gordon (1985) state that "even inexperienced writers can, during revising, choose to focus their attention on either low-level mechanical changes or high-level meaning changes" (p. 230). Matsushashio and Gordon's beginning writers "moved beyond a concern with surface structure to increase the mean percentage of text-base revisions" (p. 235).

The question on the practice of making a draft when writing elicited differences between students and tutors. While the majority of EFL students (54.3%) reported that they *usually* or *always* make a draft when they write in English, only 36% of the tutors believed that their students *usually* or *always* do so. In the



examination of the sample of texts which were written by EFL students, it was found that only a small proportion (24%) of EFL students employed such a strategy; this confirms the tutors' perception. But, why do students report making a draft when they actually do not? Again time constraints may prevent students from drafting. In this particular context, students were given 45 minutes to finish the writing task assigned to them. However, this finding indicates that another important strategy in the composing process is ignored and overlooked in EFL writing contexts. In process approaches to writing, drafting is considered as a major stage in the writing process (Graves, 1983; Murray, 1984). EFL teachers of writing are recommended to give more attention to this vital strategy, and they are also recommended to ask their students to make a draft, or more than one draft, for their writing. (Further discussion of initial and final drafts and attention given in each type of draft is presented in Section 4.2.1.3 below.)

In sum, the findings relating to strategies indicate that the EFL students in the sample do exploit a number of strategies with potential for improving their writing. Revising and editing are examples of the strategies exploited in this context. The findings also indicate that the potential of other strategies, such as outlining, drafting and collaborating, has yet to be widely evaluated and utilised. What is not known is whether tutors are introduced to, and invited to evaluate, the full range of strategies.

#### **4.2.1.2 EFL students' concerns during the process of writing:**

As shown in Section 4.1.1.2 above, both groups of our respondents typically reported that EFL students do not, *to a very large extent*, pay attention to aspects of discourse such as purpose and audience, which are said to be at the heart of the writer's craft (Peyton, Jones, Vincent and Greenblatt, 1994; Pett, 1987). However, it appears that our EFL students are more preoccupied with language skills than with rhetorical conventions when they are required to write an essay

in English. This may be attributable to the tolerance of EFL teachers for discursal infelicities, and their concentration on language accuracy in the writing classrooms, especially at the pre-university level.

However, a close look at the findings in Table 4.2 (b) reveals a significant difference between students' and tutors' perceptions as regards discourse, especially purpose. Students appear to perceive themselves *to a large or some extent* paying attention to the purpose of their writing. If students, as they perceive themselves, do take such an aspect of written discourse into consideration, then it is expected that this concern will be reflected in their writing task, the topic which they were assigned to write about. As is seen in Chapter Six, Section 6.2 which is concerned with *topics assigned to students*, the mode of writing was argumentative and the purpose of the writing task was to persuade readers. According to the raters' comments on the texts written by our sample of EFL students, it appears that these texts were evaluated as successfully argumentative. This finding supports and corresponds with EFL students' perceptions that they take the purpose of their writing into consideration. Chapter Seven below, which is concerned with the findings of text analysis, throws light on the question of argumentation in our EFL student written texts.

Further, with respect to taking the reader into consideration and establishing an audience when writing, student respondents appear to disagree with their tutors' perceptions. While most tutors believe their EFL students *to a small extent* concern themselves with their readers, most students perceive that they *to a large or some extent* do that. Again the question of whether our student sample takes such discursal features of writing into account is dealt with in the discussion of findings of text analysis in Chapter Seven below.



However, what remains unknown in EFL academic writing settings is whether teachers actually emphasise and evaluate the consideration of rhetorical components such as audience and purpose in their students' written discourses. From the findings relating to the strategies involved in the process of writing, it appears that audience receives less attention than it might. We can infer this from the lack of collaborative activities in such EFL contexts. Most students and tutors reported that peer conferences, where another student may read and comment on his/her peer's text, do not exist in EFL writing classrooms. If such an activity takes place, a student writer may consider writing for an audience, who is expected to read his/her text. In this context, it should be emphasised that when students write, they "do not write in a vacuum" (Winkler and McCuen, 1981: 10). They are required to have an audience and a purpose to which their writing should be adapted. They should know whether, in their writing, they are going to inform, describe or persuade. Further, students should also take the different audiences, other than their teacher, into consideration. This may be achieved through training students to carry out different types of writing such as business letters, memos and progress reports, which may be needed in the workplace.

Research in the field of L1 writing stresses the importance that students, at primary, secondary and tertiary levels, write for a purpose and a sense of audience. For example, Britton et. al. (1975) believe that an audience and a purpose are essential in the development of students' writing competence and performance. The Bullock Report (1975) has also stressed the importance of an audience in students' writing. The Bullock Report discussion is worth quoting in this respect:

There is no further feature of written communication which is no less important in the development of children's competence: the nature of the "audience" to which the writing is addressed. The writer's sense of audience is one of the ways in which the quality of the



communication can be assessed. It has long be realised, and research has confirmed the fact, that by far the largest amount of writing in schools is explicitly or implicitly directed at the teacher. The remaining small proportions divided between writing for self and for other pupils. Clearly the teacher has the responsibility of providing continuity in his capacity of principal receiver of what the children write. Nevertheless, we believe that writing for other audiences should be encouraged. If a child knows that what he is writing is going to interest and entertain others, he will be more careful with its presentation. Unfortunately, large numbers of children are still denied this assurance, and their work does not emerge from the covers of the exercise book. (The Bullock Report, 1975: 166).

#### **4.2.1.3 Attention in initial and final drafts**

With respect to the attention paid by EFL students to initial and final drafts, the findings were of special interest. On the one hand, EFL students reported that they focused more on the discoursal and rhetorical skills such as content, organisation and the structure of the text in initial drafts. On the other hand, the majority of our participants appear to agree that in final drafts more attention should be given to the linguistic aspects of written discourse such as language proficiency (grammar and vocabulary) and mechanics (spelling, punctuation and capitalisation). According to the informal interviews with both students and their tutors, this is what tutors prefer their students to do, i.e. tutors expect student writers to give priority to content and organisation of text in initial drafts, and delay language correctness until a final draft. If this is really the case, then our EFL students, I think, appear to be aware of the recommended procedure which should be followed in the process of writing. Research on process writing indicates that good ESL writers focus on high-level issues relating to meaning and development of ideas in their early drafts, while they delay low-level issues relating to linguistic concerns to be focused on in final drafts (Friedlander, 1989; Zamel, 1982, 1983). However, these findings seem to be at variance with Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994) who state that their foreign language (FL) writers were more concerned with content than with language in final drafts, while in initial drafts their concerns were more grammatically oriented.

Hedgcock and Lefkowitz, however, argue that this finding may be counter-intuitive, and they interpret it as “a predictable outcome, given the heavy emphasis in FL curriculum design and classroom methods on formal accuracy in speech and written production, as well as on grammatical form over content” (p. 150-151).

## **4.2.2 The nature of writing**

### **4.2.2.1 How do EFL students and tutors perceive the nature of writing in EFL settings?**

As noted in Section 4.1.2 above, the majority of both EFL student and tutor respondents seem to agree that “writing is a mental process” that requires thinking skills and pre-writing activities such as planning and outlining which precede the actual stage of writing, followed by rewriting activities which are essential in identifying and solving problems and irregularities in the written product. Further, most participants view writing as a “recursive process” during which a writer should perform several activities such as generating and developing ideas and revising and editing what is being written. These findings correspond with the Flower and Hayes (1981) and Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) process writing approach which requires writers to use their thinking and mental capacities effectively, and looks at the writing process as requiring mental activities such as planning, problem solving and evaluation.

On the other hand, it also appears that both EFL students and tutors hold the view that writing can be learned and acquired through exercises, rules and exposure to patterns and models of writing; that is, they look at writing as a mechanical process which can be acquired through exposure to authentic materials and practice in the target language, English in this context. This finding is supported by students' responses to the open-ended question in the survey questionnaire, Question 12: *what would you like the writing courses to provide*



*you with?* Students stressed their need for writing models, patterns and practice. In most of their answers, students connect together both "models of good writing [and] more practice." Further, our interviewee respondents, both tutors and students, feel that EFL students need exposure to authentic materials of the target language. They feel student writers need more exposure to writing patterns and models written by professionals, because this may help students imitate such models and practise more writing. Research in the field of second language writing confirms this need (Murray, 1984; Witte, 1985; Hamp-Lyons and Heasley, 1987). In a recent study conducted on L2 university students' perceptions of effective writing instruction, Chen (1997) found that her subjects perceived that writing models and practising writing are vital for effective writing acquisition in a second language.

This finding may confirm the role of reading in writing. Reading is necessary in the acquisition of both linguistic aspects such as vocabulary and grammar, and rhetorical aspects such as organisation and structure of text. Reading and writing are inseparable skills. Davies (1988a) emphasises the role of integrating reading and writing in syllabuses. She views the crucial "need for reading as a basis for subsequent writing and for analysis..., since the student not only has to learn from the texts but also make comparisons between the different texts being read, and between these and the type of text being produced" (p. 133). In answer to the open-ended question in the questionnaire, a student writes that s/he "learned to write well through [extensive] reading". This may also lead us to the importance of integrating reading and writing models. In developing both reading and writing models, researchers take into consideration linguistic and rhetorical aspects. In order to be able to read or write a message, one should develop a communicative competence which is realised through (i) linguistic skills in the form of phonological/orthographical, lexical, syntactical and semantic knowledge, (ii) sociolinguistic knowledge, (iii) knowledge of the way discourse



is sequenced and structured, and (iv) knowledge of process and strategies (Rumelhart, 1977; Canale, 1983; Grabe and Kaplan, 1996). In the process of both language skills, bottom-up linguistic elements such as grammar and lexis and top-down discourse/rhetorical elements such as structure and content are needed. Thus, reading and writing are interrelated, interdependent and mapping onto each other; and practising more reading may enhance one's writing skills. Further discussion of the importance of models and practice in second language writing acquisition is seen in Section 4.2.3 below.

Linguistic skills seem to receive less attention in other subject areas than do the rhetorical skills. This finding was confirmed in the informal interviews with both EFL students and tutors. Although they stressed the importance of form and proficiency in producing better quality texts, respondents reported that instructors of courses other than writing attend more to the content than to the form of their students' texts. This is probable since professors of other disciplines, subject areas, are interested in content and knowledge. Language proficiency, albeit important, is not regarded by these teachers as important as the content and the organisation of text. In their view, "language is a means through which ideas are presented and conveyed."

In conclusion, we can say that EFL students and their tutors appear to have an integrative view of the writing process. This view is reflected in their belief that writing is a mixture of mental, mechanical and recursive activities. Further, they also appear to emphasise the importance of both language proficiency skills and rhetorical skills in writing. This is, in my view, true, particularly in EFL writing arenas, where an EFL student writer needs to have two competencies: linguistic and rhetorical. A linguistic competence is needed to serve the rhetorical competence. In other words, in order for a writer to express and make meaning in his/her text, s/he needs formal aspects of a language.

#### 4.2.2.2 Modes of writing

Stainton (1992) emphasises the role of genre awareness in EAP settings. She argues that genre is very useful in providing us with a suitable, economical way of talking about texts, facilitating the development of metalanguage. She adds that genre awareness is also useful in providing a framework for designing tasks, as well as a means for evaluating these tasks. In sum, when a writer is aware of a particular genre, it may become easier for him/her to master its textual and contextual features, which in turn would help him/her write better.

Analysing the participants' perceptions of the difficulty caused by modes of writing, we found that both groups agreed that the argumentative types of writing caused greater difficulty than descriptive types. This finding was also supported by the "open-ended" questions of the survey which were addressed to tutors. A large number of the tutors participating in the study wanted the writing courses to provide students with argumentative skills. This finding indicates that EFL professors of writing might consider the potential of concentrating more on argumentative topics than on descriptive and narrative topics, and encourage their students to develop argumentative skills, which they may need in writing in their other subject areas. But, *why is there this extensive concentration by tertiary-level teachers on this particular mode or genre of writing?* An explanation for this may lie in a common understanding that an argumentative type of writing is "a standard genre that students are expected to master" (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996: 364) throughout their university studies. That is why, in the present study, we see an interviewee professor suggesting teaching university students courses on logic and rhetoric, which, he believes, enables students to develop argumentative and persuasive skills.



However, if such a writing genre causes trouble to EFL students, *what may be the reason for this trouble?* The apparent weakness in EFL students' handling of argumentative techniques may be ascribed to a failure to adopt such a mode of writing at the pre-college level. Most topics discussed in composition classes at the school level are either of descriptive or narrative nature. In informal interviews with a number of students in the present study, students reported that very few teachers at school used to assign them topics of an argumentative type. Most of the interviewees complained that their teachers at school concentrate on narrative or descriptive type of topics such as "*describe the character you like, tell the story of ....., or describe a car accident... etc.*" According to the student interviewees, such types of writing tasks were assigned by both teachers of first language and second language (L1 and L2). Furthermore, in both the open questions of the questionnaire and the informal interviews, some tutors appeared to share the students' views about the above practices at the pre-university level, and they appeal to the school teachers to assign their students some argumentative topics.

Finally, there remains a question which, I think, should be raised in this particular context: *why do other written modes or genres appear to be overlooked in EFL academic writing settings?* In the past, most English-majoring graduates had only one field open to them: teaching at basic and secondary schools. However, the case has changed lately. There are other opportunities open for EFL students, particularly when we know that students graduating from departments of English are expected and needed to go into business and journalistic careers such as administrative, secretarial or editorial jobs in organisations like banks, companies and journalism. Therefore, other modes and genres of written discourse are also important for our students, to enable them to survive in these communities or venues. In such settings, other types of writing such as business letters, memos, editorials and reports are in



need to be nicely written and well presented. This, of course, suggests that writing instructors in the departments of English be advised to be aware of the "market" needs and try to concentrate on such genres as well as on argumentative, narrative and descriptive modes of writing. This finding indicates the importance of genre-based approach in EAP classroom, and emphasises genre awareness (Stainton, 1992).

#### **4.2.3 The acquisition of writing**

Question 7 in the survey questionnaire was concerned with a number of assumptions held by respondents of the study sample about second language acquisition and writing. As noted in Section 4.1.3 above, it appears that there is, *to a large extent*, a consensus on most of the assumptions among the respondents in the two groups (EFL students and tutors). The respondents in both groups seem to evaluate exposure to models written by professional writers; pattern practice; and exposure to authentic materials in L2 (Statements 1, 2 and 6 respectively in Question 7 above). They believe that such exposure to writing models and authentic materials may motivate learners and help them to write better, and that pattern practice may also provide a meaningful context to learn how to write well. These findings support Witte (1985) who says: "Much writing instruction at the college level also assumes that the proper way to teach students to write is to supply them with models to imitate" (p.253). However, Witte appears to be cautious of relying heavily on models written by professionals because this may become "counterproductive in the teaching of writing" (p.253). Further, this finding is consistent with Davies's (1988a) argument of the integration of reading and writing. Davies suggests that "integrating reading within a writing syllabus" is "the only way of providing students with the massive exposure to target genres which is required, either in the absence of clear-cut descriptions of target genre, or, where these are available, of testing the adequacy of such descriptions" (pp. 133-134). She also draws our attention to

what Witte (1985) has cautioned above; she confirms that the aim of the utilisation of target models and genres is not to encourage students to simply copy models, but to develop student writers' awareness to style of such models and genres.

In addition, more than half of both students and their tutors who form the sample of the present study seem to share other assumptions related to the role of first language in helping writers do better in their second language. They both believe that "some people are born with a special ability which helps them write easily *in any language*" (Statement 3). Similarly, students and tutors assume that writing well in L1 may facilitate learning to write in L2. Although the former assumption, I think, is hard to believe or difficult to prove, the latter assumption may be plausible if the L1 skilled writer is "empowered" with a large storehouse of L2 linguistic and rhetorical skills as well as a wide range of experiences and knowledge to rely on in writing. That is, when a writer has acquired a good knowledge of linguistic and rhetorical aspects of L2 writing, and s/he is already skilful in his/her mother tongue writing, s/he may transfer some strategies s/he uses in L2 to his/her L1 writing. In the transfer theory in ESL pedagogy, it is suggested that "language learners will tend to transfer aspects of their first language to their second language" (Friedlander, 1989: 23). Research conducted on the strategies indicates that since strategies are believed to be developmental, a good writer may use, in his/her second language, strategies which have worked in his/her mother tongue writing (Mohan and Lo, 1985; Jones and Tetroe, 1987; Friedlander, 1989). Further, for the second assumption to be plausible, one should be trained well through writing models and practices in the second language. The more exposure to authentic materials and models and the more practice and training in the L2 writing, the easier for the good L1 writer to learn how to write better in the L2 (Murray, 1984).



The last assumption which seems to be almost universally agreed by most student and all tutor participants is concerned with whether "planning, revising and editing contribute to the quality of the L2 text." These writing strategies have been stressed in other parts of the present study. For instance, in the findings of Question 1 in the survey questionnaire, most students and tutors appear to recognise the potential of such practices; and it is obvious from the examination of the texts written by the student sample for the purpose of analysis in Part Two that some students do carry out some of these strategies, especially the revising and editing of their written products. Much research has been conducted to reveal the potential of revision strategies in producing better quality texts (Bridwell, 1980; Faigley and Witte, 1981; Witte, 1985; Piper, 1996).

On the other hand, there are two assumptions on which EFL students seem to disagree with their tutors, although they both feel unenthusiastic towards both assumptions. The first assumption is related to whether writing in L2 is a matter of translating from L1. Although more than one fifth of the students agree that this assumption could be true, none of the tutors believe so.

The second assumption which students seem to disagree with their tutors on is concerned with the role of acquiring a good knowledge of vocabulary and grammar in facilitating writing in a particular language. Unlike tutors, the majority of student respondents perceive that a good knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary in the target language may help them write more easily than if they have only a limited knowledge. This student belief of the importance and potential of vocabulary and grammar in writing acquisition is also reflected in other parts of the questionnaire and in the informal interviews. For example, when students were asked about the factors that they believed to cause difficulty in L2 writing, they ranked lack of vocabulary and lack of language command as the first and second factors respectively. In the informal interviews, while tutors



emphasised that the weakness of their students' writing resided in their lack of argumentative skills, students believed that it was the linguistic skills such as grammar and vocabulary which caused their weakness in writing. As noted above, the examination of the texts written by a number of the EFL students, who responded to the questionnaire, indicated that the texts were well organised. According to the raters' comments, the students' argumentative skills were praised; however, raters commented on, and pointed to, lack of language command in some texts. The effective use of grammar and vocabulary as well as spelling and punctuation contributes to the effectiveness of a written text, and this in turn has a positive impact on the reader of the text (Winkler and McCuen, 1981). At the same time, lack of language proficiency does constrain the effectiveness of a text and has a negative impact on its reader. It also constrains the effectiveness of the writer's ability during the writing process (Jones and Tetroe, 1987).

#### **4.2.4 Areas of difficulty and factors causing difficulty**

##### **4.2.4.1 Areas of difficulty**

As noted in Section 4.4.1 above, the areas of difficulty in student writing were categorised with respect to three main types of skills: linguistic skills, thinking skills and rhetorical skills (Leki and Carson, 1994). According to the findings in Table 4.8 (b), EFL student writers' main difficulty appears to be more closely related to thinking and rhetorical skills than to linguistic skills. However, a closer look at Table 4.8 (a) above indicates that student respondents seem to perceive "choosing the right words (vocabulary) to use" (Item 2), "expressing ideas effectively" (Item 3), and "developing arguments" (Item 9) as causing the most difficulty in their writing. The mean scored for these three sub-skills was almost the same (2.3). Let us now relate this finding of the survey questionnaire to the finding of the informal interviews with students. Most student interviewees (7 out of 10) reported that they had difficulty expressing ideas and developing

arguments because they had difficulty in finding the correct lexical items to use. According to the students, it took them a lot of time to find suitable and satisfactory vocabulary to use in expressing their ideas. Research indicates that good quality texts are produced by student writers who have a good command of the target language. As noted above, Jones and Tetroe (1987), for instance, found a strong relation between effectiveness of writing and language proficiency. They believe that it becomes easier for a writer to plan for his/her writing, and consequently s/he produces better texts, since the constraints which may be caused by lack of proficiency are expected to decrease. Again the findings in this section suggest the importance of integrating both linguistic and rhetorical aspects of a language in making meanings and constructing texts.

However, EFL tutors' responses to the question of areas of difficulty in student writing were different, despite the fact that both students and tutors appeared to give the same ranks to the difficulty caused by linguistic, thinking and rhetorical skills. As noted in Table 4.8 (b) above, both groups ranked thinking skills, such as generating ideas and developing arguments, the first to cause student writing difficulty. Both students and tutors also ranked rhetorical skills, such as writing coherently, considering an audience and organisation and structure of text as the second cause of writing difficulty among EFL students. The linguistic skills, such as using correct grammar, choosing the right vocabulary and using correct spelling, were placed in the last rank. Nonetheless, the difference here refers to the different mean scores. For example, while the mean scored by tutors as regards difficulty caused by thinking skills is 2.99 out of 4, the students' mean score is 1.94 out of 4. The same applies to the mean scores of thinking and linguistic skills.

As noted above, the students' perceptions of areas of difficulty were reflected in both the questionnaire and the informal interviews. This was also true of tutor



perceptions. The tutors' perceptions elicited from the closed questions of the survey questionnaire are actually reflected both in the open-ended questions of the questionnaire and in the informal interviews. The tutors appeared to constantly emphasise the EFL students' weaknesses in thinking and rhetorical skills, as well as in language proficiency. One of the tutor interviewees reports that although "students' knowledge of vocabulary and grammar may be sometimes quite satisfactory, they still find difficulty in developing an argument." In the interviews, there seemed to be a consensus among most tutors on the causes of students' inadequate command of argumentative competence. They ascribed this incompetence to two factors: the linguistic and rhetorical conventions of students' mother tongue, Arabic, which are different from those conventions of second language, English, and the traditional method used in the writing practices at all levels of education in Jordan, primary, secondary and tertiary. With regard to the first factor, it is argued that different languages have different methods and approaches to the development of an argument (Kaplan, 1966), which may result from different syntactical and lexical choices. So, when An Arab student writes in a second/foreign language, s/he is expected, if s/he is not linguistically competent in this particular language, to produce a poorly-organised text. This "poor organisation may in fact result from confusion arising from odd syntactic and lexical choices reinforced by under-pointing of the argument" (Dudley-Evans and Swales, 1980: 97).

#### **4.2.4.2 Factors causing difficulty in EFL student writing**

As revealed in Section 4.1.4.2 above, it appears that EFL students disagree with their tutors on what causes the most difficulty in student writing. Once and again, students confirm that their problem mainly resides in linguistic skills. As noted in Section 4.2.3 above, most students stressed the importance of second language proficiency in helping them produce better texts. They believe that the acquisition of syntactic and lexical skills enables them to "write more naturally."

Our student respondents rank lack of vocabulary and lack of language command as first and second factors, respectively, as causing difficulty in their L2 writing. On the other hand, although teachers rank lack of second language command as the first cause of difficulty in student writing, they rank lack of L2 vocabulary last. They believe that substantial difficulty in student writing is ascribed to different cultural thought patterns of L1 and L2 (ranked as the second factor), different organisational patterns of both L1 and L2 (ranked as the third factor), and different systems of L1 and L2 (ranked as the fourth factor). Unlike tutors, students believe that differences in cultural thought patterns, organisational patterns and systems only cause them some difficulty, ranking them as third, fourth and fifth factors respectively as causes of difficulty in their L2 writing. To conclude, the findings here support the findings in other sections such as Section 4.2.4.1 above, where students and tutors disagree on the areas of difficulty in student writing.

#### **4.2.5 Teaching of writing in EFL settings**

This section deals with two questions: the concerns of instructors of L2 writing about their student written products, and the adequacy of the L2 writing courses offered to students at the university level. As seen in Tables 4.10 (a) and 4.10 (b) above, it appears that there is almost complete agreement between both students' and tutors' responses. Both groups believe that teachers of writing at the university level attend more to linguistic features such as grammar and spelling, than to rhetorical features such as content, organisation and structure of text. This finding corresponds with what both student and tutor interviewees reported when asked about what causes EFL students' incompetence of argumentative skills. They believe that teachers of writing focus mainly on the correction of grammatical, lexical and spelling errors in student written discourse. This focus on language proficiency by tutors while marking student writing causes students to attend more to the local features than to the global features of their texts.



The second question, with which this section is concerned, is whether the writing courses offered to EFL students are adequate to prepare them to produce good writing in the other subject areas. At the two Jordanian universities, from which the data of the present study were collected, there are three writing courses provided throughout the student university studies in the departments of English. According to the descriptions of these courses offered at these universities, the writing courses are supposed to prepare students to write better in the other subject areas. The findings in Tables 4.11 (a) and 4.11 (b) above reveal that both tutors and students are less than satisfied with what the writing courses offer. The quality of preparation reported for the writing courses here appears not to meet expectations. As noted in Section 4.5.2 above, the majority of students' and tutors' responses are clustered in the range of *not very well*. This dissatisfaction with the writing courses the university offers to EFL undergraduate students is also reflected in face-to-face conversations and informal interviews with both students and tutors. This suggests that the Jordanian universities should reconsider and review such courses and the way L2 writing is taught in these academic settings.

As noted above, the survey questionnaire ends up with two open-ended questions. Both questions are related to the teaching of writing in EFL academic settings. The first question asks students about what they would like the EFL writing courses to provide them with, and the second invites the students to write whatever comments they wish to make about writing in English as a foreign language. A number of issues emerged from the students' answers. These issues appear to correspond with the findings in the closed questions of the survey questionnaire. Table 4.12 above displays the data collected through Question 12 in 4 distinct categories, and a miscellaneous category (*others*). In the first two categories, students' answers appear to reflect their responses in the closed

questions and in the informal interviews. They would like the writing courses offered in their undergraduate studies to equip them with global and local skills. That is, they want to learn, more than they do now, on the one hand, about the L2 rhetorical skills such as organisation, structure, cohesion and coherence of written texts, and on the other, about the L2 proficiency skills such as grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation. Respondents would like, in the writing courses, to learn "how to choose the correct words and put them in the correct form, ... how to punctuate the sentences," and "how to develop and organise ideas." This finding again raises the question of integration. EFL students need both low-level, bottom-up elements such as words and grammar, as well as top-down elements such as development of ideas and organisation of text. This may raise the need for a developmental model of writing which considers both local and global features of texts.

Two other major issues were raised in the students' responses to the open-ended questions. One issue is concerned with the types of writing, and the other with writing models and practice. With regard to the first issue, students stressed the importance of learning how to write other types of writing as well as the argumentative and critical essays which they are required to do at the university level. The following quotation is taken from one of the students' written responses to Question 12: "Also there must be more concentration on the official forms of letters required in our careers in the future." Such responses reflect our EFL students' awareness of the potential of learning various types of writing needed for the workplace in their future careers. In addition to the academic and essay writing needed for their education, students need to know how to write business letters, memos, reports etc., especially when we know that most university graduates are expected to work for big organisations such as banks, international companies, where they will certainly be asked to write various kinds of letters and reports. This finding supports the research which emphasises



the role of genre awareness among writers (Stainton, 1992), and stresses the need for teaching the various genres and types of writing at schools. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) states that "students in school contexts are expected to make use of genres for learning information to the extent that they see how such genres serve functional purposes, and to the extent that genre-structures are made apparent to students" (pp. 136-137). It remains to say that the problem of the lack of training in the various types of writing at school and university levels does not seem to be confined only to the teaching of writing in EFL writing settings, but it also exists both in the academic settings and in the workplace in countries where English is the native language.

The last major issue EFL students raised in their written responses to Question 12 relates to writing practice and models written by professional writers in L2. As noted in Section 4.1.5.3 above, more than one-fifth (21.5%) of the respondents would like their writing instructors to give them the chance to do more writing practice in the classroom. They also feel that more exposure to authentic materials and writing models may motivate them to learn to write better in the target language. As noted above, this finding echoes both the students' and tutors' responses to the closed questions in Section 4.1.3. Further, these findings appear to be consistent with recent research conducted in the fields of the teaching of writing and the acquisition of first and second language writing (Murray, 1984; Witte, 1985; Matsushashi and Gordon, 1985; Chen, 1997). Further discussion of the potential of writing practice and models in training students to write in L2 is found in Section 4.2.3 above.

### **4.3 Conclusion**

As noted above, the findings reported and discussed in this chapter were based on the analysis of student and tutor responses to the questionnaire and informal interviews which were designed for the purpose of the first part of the present

study: EFL student and tutor perceptions of the process of writing in EFL academic contexts. What characterises the findings of this part of the study is their equivocality. For instance, both student and tutor participants look at writing as an integrative process which involves cognitive strategies (planning, drafting, writing and revising), and mechanical activities (model and pattern practice). The findings also suggest that during the process of writing, student writers need to acquire competence in three areas: linguistic, sociolinguistic, and discoursal/rhetorical. In order to be able to construct their texts, student writers need to know (i) linguistic skills related to vocabulary, grammar, punctuation and spelling, (ii) rhetorical skills related to organisation and structure of text, and (iii) social and contextual skills related to purpose, audience, and setting of the writing task.

As noted above, the general pattern of findings suggests that EFL students and tutors have similar views of the nature and acquisition of writing in a second language. For example, they both perceive writing as a problem-solving, linguistically-demanding process, which requires a good knowledge of the vocabulary and rhetorical conventions of the target language, and at the same time involves cognitive, recursive strategies. They also view writing as laborious and painful, and as the most difficult of the four language skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking.

However, the students' and tutors' views about the nature of students, i.e. the students' practices, concerns and worries during the process of writing, appear to be somewhat different. As we have noted in Sections 4.1.1 and 4.2.1 above, there is a variation in student and tutor perceptions of outlining and drafting practised in EFL academic classrooms. For example, while 41.1% of the students report that they usually outline for their writing, only 23% of the tutors believe that students usually do so. Further, the findings on EFL students' discoursal



concerns while writing appear to show a difference between students and tutors. With respect to considering purpose, for instance, while a high percentage of students (63.7%) report taking purpose into consideration when writing, only 11.5 % of the tutors believe that their students do so. Finally, the findings on areas of difficulty in EFL student writing show a disparity between students and their tutors. While students view linguistic aspects such as syntax and lexis as the major cause to impede their writing skills, their tutors see that rhetorical skills such as developing an argument, organisation and text structure are the sources of EFL students' problems in writing.

It remains to say that the findings of this part of the study suggest the need for a developmental model of L2 writing. This kind of model is expected to take into consideration the various aspects of writing: linguistic, social, contextual and cognitive. There exist some models in the field of L1 writing (Flower and Hayes, 1981; Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987), which may be thought to apply to L2 writing. However, these models appear to be less comprehensive since they appear to emerge from a single perspective. A more coherent and more comprehensive model of writing is suggested by Grabe and Kaplan (1996). However, this model is adapted from a model of communicative language use, which may be difficult to apply by teachers of writing, L2 writing in particular. In sum, the field of L2 writing is still short of a coherent comprehensive model.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **APPROACHES TO THEME ANALYSIS**

#### **5.0 Introduction**

As indicated in Chapter One, this part of the present study which consists of three chapters is concerned with the second strand of the study, an analysis of a sample of two mini-corpora of texts written by the EFL students who responded to the survey questionnaire in Part One. The present chapter comprises an introduction to Theme analytical frameworks within Halliday's systemic functional grammar. Thus, this chapter forms the basis for the second part of the study.

Section 5.1 presents a brief outline of the Theme system within Halliday's functional grammar. It focuses on the concept of Theme and the different positions taken by systemic-functional linguists. Section 5.2 is concerned with the definition of Theme. Section 5.3 deals with the three kinds of meaning which are realised in Theme. Section 5.4 is concerned with the representation of multiple Theme in the clause. Section 5.5 is concerned with questions raised about Halliday's Theme analysis: function, definition and identification of Theme. Section 5.6 presents new developments in Theme analysis, i.e. alternative Theme analytical frameworks emerging from Halliday's approach to Theme analysis. While Section 5.7 deals with the potential of Theme choice in the development of texts, Section 5.8 is concerned with the role of thematic choices in the progression and cohesion of text. Section 5.9 explores the consequences of including the auxiliary and lexical verb as part of Theme. Finally, Chapter Five closes with a summary (Section 5.10), leading to the principles of the Theme analytical framework, which is used in the analysis of



the sample texts of the present study. This analytical framework is outlined in Chapter 6, Section 6.5.

### 5.1 The Theme system within Halliday's functional grammar

As noted above, the first part of the present study investigated EFL student and tutor perceptions of L2 writing in academic settings, and provided the basis of this second part (EFL text analysis). According to EFL student and tutor perceptions, the writing problems reported are related to both form and meaning, and include linguistic problems and discoursal/rhetorical problems. Student participants in the present study expressed their need for grammar and vocabulary to help them make meanings in their writing. Such problems in the production of texts can best be identified and described through reference to an analytical framework which makes reference to both *system* and *structure*, i.e. to meaning choices as well as linguistic and functional aspects. The systemic functional approach would appear to provide an analysis which can meet this requirement. In the systemic functional approach, "language is interpreted as a system of meanings, accompanied by forms through which the meanings can be realised. This puts the forms of a language in a different perspective: as means to an end, rather than as an end in themselves" (Halliday, 1985/1994: xiv). If this is the case, then the Theme *system*, among other systems included in functional grammar, is one which should reveal how form is used to serve meaning.

According to Halliday (1985), language simultaneously conveys three kinds of meanings: ideational or experiential, interpersonal and textual. The following quotation illustrates the relationship among these meanings or metafunctions:

“... the fundamental components of **meaning** in language are functional components. All languages are organised around two main kinds of meaning, the “ideational” or reflective, and the “interpersonal” or active. These components, called “manifestations in the terminology of the present theory, are the manifestations in the linguistic system of the two very general purposes which underlie all uses of language: (i) to understand the environment (ideational), and (ii) to act on the others in it (interpersonal). Combined with these is a third metafunctional component, the “textual”, which breathes relevance into the other two” (Halliday, 1985: xiii).

In systemic functional linguistics, a language is described as a social semiotic phenomenon for making meanings. It is a means of social interaction. To make meanings, a language user needs a *paradigmatic* set of choices or options (*system*), realised by *syntagmatic* units (*structure*) (Ventola, 1988). In the English Language, for instance, a clause may be *major*, when it has a *finite* element such as "does" or *minor*, when it does not have a *finite* element; as language users we choose between a *major* or *minor* clause. Further, within *major* clauses, we can have a choice between *indicative* and *imperative*, and within *indicative* clauses, we can choose between *declarative* and *interrogative* clauses. All these *paradigmatic* sets of choices are open to users of the English Language.

The question which arises here is: *How are such paradigmatic choices realised in the English Language?* As noted above, a language *system* is realised by *structure*. For example, while the *declarative* clause *Women should leave their homes* is realised by the *structural* or *syntagmatic* elements: Subject-Finite-Predicator-Complement, the *interrogative* clause *Should women leave their homes?* is realised structurally by Finite-Subject-Predicator-Complement.



In sum, *syntagmatic* structures are functional elements which realise meaning choices. Thus, formal aspects of the language are used to serve and help make meanings. Since the purpose of this part of the present study is to investigate how EFL students make meanings in their written texts, I need an analytical framework which proceeds from meaning to form, a functional framework which looks at form as a way of realising meaning choices. The aim of functional grammar, for Halliday (1985/94), is “to construct a grammar for purposes of text analysis: one that would make it possible to say sensible and useful things about any text, spoken or written, in modern English” (p. xv). Further, functional grammar helps text analysts “understand the quality of texts: why a text means what it does, and why it is valued as it is” (p. xxx). As noted above, one functional analysis which may serve my purpose in this particular context is the Theme *system*. In what follows, I shall discuss the Hallidayan approach to Theme, as well as other thematic analytical frameworks which have been developed within the Hallidayan approach.

## 5.2 Definition of Theme

In systemic functional linguistics, the clause is regarded as the basic element of a text; when it is analysed as a message, a clause is divided into one or more Themes and a Rheme (Halliday, 1985/1994). A Theme is functionally defined by Halliday as “the element which serves as the point of departure of the message” which is “indicated by position in the clause” (p. 37). This definition of Theme appears to differ from what Halliday at other times describes as “what the clause is going to be about”, or sometimes as “that with which the clause is concerned” (Halliday, 1985/1994: 37). It is important to note that Halliday distinguishes between the meaning, or function, of Theme, and its identification. With respect to the identification of Theme, Halliday (1985/1994) says that “the Theme can be identified as that element which comes in first position in the

clause" (p. 38). This means that a Theme can be realised by one of the following grammatical constituents: a subject, verb, complement or adjunct.

5.3 Three kinds of meaning of Theme

According to Halliday, the three basic meanings or metafunctions are realised through functional structures, and form "the basis of the semantic organisation of all natural languages" (Halliday, 1985: 53). Ideational meaning is represented through the use of language to express "our experience of the world that lies about us, and also inside us, the world of our imagination. It is meaning in the sense of 'content'" . This kind of meaning is used in language "to describe events and states and the entities involved in them" (Thompson, 1996: 28). At the clause level, the ideational meaning or metafunction is represented by **processes, participants and circumstances**. For example in the clause *Women should work outside their homes*, the ideational meaning is represented by the three components forming the clause as illustrated in the following figure from Thompson (1996):

Figure 5.1 Elements of the *ideational meaning* at the clause level

Women	should work	outside their homes.
<b>Participant: Actor</b>	<b>Process: Material</b>	<b>Circumstance</b>

Interpersonal meaning, on the other hand, is related to what the speaker/writer does to the listener/reader by means of discourse. "The interpersonal function of the **clause** is that of exchanging role in rhetorical interaction: statements, questions, offers, and commands, together with accompanying modalities" (Halliday, 1985: 53). The above clause can be analysed according to the



interpersonal perspective, but with different labels, as given by Thompson (1996) below:

Figure 5.2 Elements of the interpersonal meaning at the clause level

Women	should	work	outside their homes.
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Adjunct

Finally, the textual meaning is concerned with the organisation of the message. It is related to "the context, both the preceding (and following) text, and the context of situation" (Halliday, 1985: 53). At the clause level, this kind of meaning is represented by two functional structures: Theme and Rheme. The above example can be analysed textually as follows:

Figure 5.3 Elements of the textual meaning at the clause level

Women	should work outside their homes.
Theme	Rheme

5.4 Multiple Themes in the clause

Halliday (1985) divides the clause as message into one or more Themes and one Rheme. These Themes in turn are further divided into textual, interpersonal and ideational Themes related to the meanings discussed above. They are also identified in the clause by their position as initial-elements, provided that they have the following order: textual ^ interpersonal ^ ideational or experiential. However, "a conjunctive and modal adjunct may appear together in Theme", in such a case, "the modal adjunct normally precedes the conjunctive one"

(Thompson, 1996: 137), and the order of Theme becomes: interpersonal ^ textual ^ ideational or experiential.

According to Halliday (1985: 53), one of the functional principles on which the structure of a multiple Theme is based is that "a clause is the product of three simultaneous semantic processes. It is at one and the same time a representation of experience, an interactive exchange, and a message." In one clause, one may find one or more kinds of Theme manifest. In what follows, I shall present a brief account of the three types of Theme:

#### **5.4.1 Ideational Themes**

As noted above, according to Halliday, every clause in a language has a Theme which represents the ideational meaning of a clause. This meaning of Theme is realised functionally by the structures of *transitivity*, or **process and its constituents**, which are related to each other: the process itself, which is identified by the verb as a structural part, the participant which is identified by either the subject or object as structural parts, and the circumstance which is identified structurally by the adverbial. Any one of the elements of the clause may function thematically, provided that it is used as the "point of departure of the message" (Halliday, 1985: 38). In Hallidayan Theme analysis, what follows the ideational Theme is part of Rheme.

Further, Halliday (1985) draws a distinction between marked and unmarked Theme. "The Subject is the element that is chosen as Theme unless there is a good reason for choosing something else" (p. 43). While the choice of the Grammatical Subject is unmarked, the choice of constituents other than Subject,

such as complement or circumstance, is marked. In English the grammatical subject normally appears at the beginning of a clause in declaratives, which is the commonest and most natural. Look at the following example, which shows the Subject as an unmarked ideational Theme:

Figure 5.4 Grammatical Subject as an Ideational (Topical in Halliday’s terms) Theme

Women	should stay at home for two main reasons.
Ideational (Topical) Theme: Participant	Rheme

However, the other elements (marked Themes) may be "strongly foregrounded" (Halliday, 1985/1994: 45) for emphasis, or for calling “attention to bits of information or to invest them with a highly charged quality” (Vande Kopple, 1991: 321). The following example indicates a circumstantial adjunct as a marked ideational Theme:

Figure 5.5 Circumstantial Adjunct as an Ideational Theme

During the last century	women's role in most societies have undergone many changes.
Ideational Theme: Circumstantial Adjunct	Rheme

With respect to process as Theme, this is realised by Theme in *imperative* clauses, as illustrated by Figure 5.6 below:



Figure 5.6 Process as an Ideational (Topical in Halliday’s terms) Theme

Come	to school early.
Don't come	to school late.
<b>Ideational (Topical) Theme: Process.</b>	<b>Rheme</b>

As mentioned above, every clause must have an ideational type of Theme, marked or unmarked. However, a clause can have one or two other types of Themes (interpersonal and/or textual) as well as the ideational Theme. Such categorisation allows for multiple Themes.

5.4.2 Interpersonal Themes

Halliday (1985: 53) defines interpersonal meaning as “a form of action: the speaker or writer doing something to the listener or reader by means of language”. With respect to Theme, interpersonal meaning or metafunction in the clause is realised through modal adjuncts such as ‘perhaps’, ‘probably’, ‘evidently’, ‘interestingly’ and ‘amazingly’, and in vocatives such as the addressees, ‘You men’, and ‘Alice’.... For Halliday, if such an interpersonal meaning precedes the ideational meaning, then it functions thematically, becoming an interpersonal Theme followed by ideational Theme. Here is an example:

Figure 5.7 Multiple Theme as represented in one clause

<i>Fortunately,</i>	the conditions under which women used to work	have changed over the last few decades.
<b>Interpersonal Theme</b>	<b>Ideational Theme</b>	<b>Rheme</b>

If otherwise, i.e. if this interpersonal meaning is preceded by the ideational element, then it does not work thematically, it becomes part of Rheme. Only one ideational Theme is identified. Here is an example:

Figure 5.8 Modal Adjunct (interpersonal meaning) as part of Rheme

The conditions under which women used to work,	<i>fortunately</i> , have changed over the last few decades.
<b>Ideational Theme</b>	<b>Rheme</b>

As noted above, in the first example (Figure 5.6) when the modal adjunct *fortunately* is used in initial position, it is classified as an interpersonal Theme according to Halliday (1985); and the grammatical subject *the conditions ...* functions as an ideational Theme. However, in the second example, when the ideational meaning is represented in the grammatical subject *The conditions...* in initial position, followed by the modal adjunct *fortunately* the ideational meaning functions thematically whereas the interpersonal meaning represented by *fortunately* does not work thematically any more and becomes part of the Rheme. The same applies to the textual meaning when it follows the ideational meaning.

### 5.4.3 Textual Themes

According to Halliday (1985), textual meaning is "relevance to the context: both the preceding (and the following) text, and the context of situation" (p. 53). Textual meaning helps a writer combine clauses together to form a coherent text. It also enables a writer to relate the text to context. Such textual meaning is realised by (i) ‘continuatives’ such as ‘yes’, ‘no’, ‘well’, and ‘now’, (ii)

conjunctive adjuncts such as ‘moreover’, ‘furthermore’, ‘however’, ‘as a result’, and ‘for example’, (iii) co-ordinating and subordinating conjunctive such as ‘and’, ‘but’, ‘or’, and ‘if’ and (iv) definite and indefinite relatives such as ‘who’, ‘where’, ‘what’, and ‘whoever’, ‘whatever’, and ‘wherever’. However, as noted above, according to Halliday, these textual meanings function thematically only when they are used in initial positions before ideational Themes; if otherwise, textual meanings become part of the Rheme. Here are examples:

Figure 5.9 Textual Theme preceding Ideational Theme

<i>For example,</i>	men’s views about women	have changed.
<b>Textual Theme</b>	<b>Ideational Theme</b>	<b>Rheme</b>

Figure 5.10 Textual Conjunctive Adjunct in the Rheme part

Men’s views about women,	<i>for example,</i> have changed.
<b>Ideational Theme</b>	<b>Rheme</b>

To conclude, Halliday's position on Theme can be summarised as follows: As regards the definition of Theme, Halliday (1985/1994) provides us with three definitions of Theme: "the element which serves as the point of departure of the message"; "what the clause is going to be about"; and "that with which the clause is concerned" (p.37). These three definitions appear to be somewhat different. With respect to the identification of Theme, "as a general guide, Theme can be identified as that element which comes in first position of the clause" (p. 38). Hence, a Theme can be one of the following grammatical constituents: subject, verb, complement or adjunct, providing that there is within these constituents an ideational/topical element identifying: a process (verb), a



participant (grammatical subject or complement), or a circumstance (circumstantial adjunct or dependent clause). As regards multiple Theme, Halliday includes as part of Theme textual and/or interpersonal elements, providing that these elements precede an ideational (topical) Theme in a clause. So, a textual element such as a conjunctive adjunct or an interpersonal element such as a modal adjunct may function thematically if they precede an ideational element such as a participant, process or circumstance. Finally, Halliday distinguishes between marked and unmarked Theme in declarative clauses. "The subject is the element that is chosen as Theme unless there is a good reason for choosing something else" (p. 43). Thus, the choice of other constituents such as a circumstance or a complement is treated as marked. In English, the complement is seen as the most marked choice.

### **5.5. Questions raised by researchers about the function, definition and identification of Theme**

From the above discussion of the Hallidayan account of Theme, it would appear that there are questions about the function of Theme, the definitions of Theme, and about the identification of Theme. The problem arises most clearly when we see that Halliday's definitions of Theme are not matched clearly with identification. This is a problem which has been raised by a number of researchers such as Davies (1997), Vande Kopple (1991), Hudson (1986), and Huddleston (1988 and 1991).

According to Vande Kopple (1991), Halliday's discussion of given-new information and of the different kinds of Theme and a Rheme is difficult to follow. Even when Halliday comes to define Theme, he gives a number of definitions which seem to be unclear, especially when he defines Theme as "the

point of departure of the clause" (Halliday, 1985: 38) and when he sometimes describes Theme as what "the clause is going to be about" (p. 39). These two descriptions or functions of Theme: the point of departure for the clause, and what the clause is about, are not necessarily the same (Vande Kopple, 1991). Hudson (1986) and Huddleston (1988 and 1991) addressing the problem of Theme definition both describe Halliday's definition and interpretation of Theme as "vaguely defined" (Hudson, 1986: 798). They also question Halliday's justification of his definitions and interpretations. Hudson, for instance, comments:

Indeed, one wonders what criteria [Halliday] himself is using to identify themes when one reads that the subordinating conjunction *that* is a theme in the clause it introduces (P. 51) - it is very hard to see it as defining what the clause is going to be about, and if it is 'the point of departure' of the clause, it can only be in the sense of being the first element (p. 798).

Huddleston (1991: 97) presents a detailed critique of Halliday's definitions of Theme as what the clause is about, "that which is the concern of the message", and the "point of departure". For example, with respect to the concept of 'aboutness', Huddleston narrows "the notion of Theme to the notion of topic". He associates the notion of 'aboutness' with topicality, i.e. ideational Theme. He states three reasons for the relation between 'aboutness' (topicality) and Theme:

In the first place, the concept of what a clause, sentence or utterance is about is one commonly invoked in the non-systemic literature - there is here the potential for some point of contact between Systemic-Functional scholars and others. Secondly, it is reasonable to regard the topical Theme as the prototypical or most readily graspable kind of Theme: if we can't get clear on what Halliday means by topical Theme, we are not likely to get far in understanding textual and interpersonal Themes, or Theme in the more general sense that subsumes all three kinds. In this connection I would ask what kind of Theme is marked by

the Japanese and Tagalog particles. Do these mark Theme in this general sense or, as I suspect, just topical Theme? Thirdly, the concept of what the clause is about or concerned with plays a highly prominent role in Halliday's explanation of Theme (Huddleston, 1991: 97).

Davies (1988b and 1997), followed by Gosden (1993 and 1994), also addresses the problem of function, definition and identification of Theme. In her (1988b and 1997) studies, Davies postulates two potential functions of Theme: the identification of Topic, which is realised by grammatical subject (GS), and the provision of contextual frame (CF) which is realised by sentence-initial elements preceding the GS. Such elements may be conjunctions functioning as textual elements or themes, modal adjuncts functioning as interpersonal elements or themes, and circumstantial adjuncts functioning as ideational elements or themes. The following example, taken from the sample of the present study, shows the distinction between the two functions:

During the last century, (Contextual Frame) *women's role in most societies* (Topic) have undergone many changes.

In the above example, the underlined part, according to Davies, functions as a Contextual Frame (CF) Theme, and the italicised part functions as a Topical/Subject Theme. Further, Davies looks at the CF Theme as an optional element, serving "the function of signalling changes in real-world, fictional, or discourse circumstances" (Davies, 1997: 55). On the other hand, she sees the Topical/Subject Theme as an obligatory element that makes "the major contribution to the identification and of maintenance of topic continuity in a text" (p. 55).



Thus, both types of Themes are necessary for the development and progression of discourse. At one end of the scale, the re-occurrence of topical Theme, as equated with the "intuitive notion of 'what the clause/sentence is about',... is seen not only to specify topic, what a particular stretch of text is about, but also to be the primary means by which the continuity and hence cohesion of coherent discourse is achieved" (Davies, 1997: 55). Hence, the topical Themes realised by the GSs may be considered as a powerful, potential textual resource. Their potential derives from (i) their being recurrent components in discourse, (ii) their prominent structural position in the clause, (iii) their functional semantic roles in creating coherence in text, and (iv) as noted above, their being the primary participants in the clause. At the other end of the scale, sentence-initial elements, which precede Topical/subject Themes, albeit their non-recurrent nature, function, as noted above, as contextualising or framing Themes, vital for "signalling changes" and stages in the development of topic and progression of discourse. Further, Davies, in her work on marked and unmarked Themes, departs from Halliday, and we can note this departure clearly when she says:

"Thus while following Halliday in requiring an Ideational element as obligatory in Theme, here, constituents of Theme are not categorised with reference to Halliday's Textual, Interpersonal and Ideational functions, but with reference to the categories of Topic and Contextual Frame" (Davies, 1997: 77).

However, this relatively conservative move leaves Davies (1988b) with another problem: the grammatical subject may sometimes follow the main verb as in: *In the centre of the stage, suspended, upside down from the ceiling [was] a life-size life-like effigy of a horse.* (Davies, Lecture Notes 1997).

Berry (1989) also deals with the problem although she does not explicitly address it. In her analysis of children's texts, she includes everything up to the verb as part of Theme. In her (1989) study of school children's successful writing, Berry extended Theme to include everything preceding the verb of the main clause. The purpose of the study was to explore the way in which the distribution of topical Themes (topic-based Themes) contributed to the success or failure of written texts in the target genre. The task for these children was to write a passage about an English place called Grantham to be included in a guide book. The precise instructions given to the children were:

Pretend that a new Tourist Guide to Great Britain is being published by one of the major motoring organisations. They have asked you to write a piece of prose to attract tourists to Grantham. (Berry, 1989: 67)

Berry bases her (1989) analysis on a number of principles: (i) she considers only the Themes of the main clauses, (ii) she only analyses the declarative main clauses, ignoring the imperative and interrogative clauses as raising great problems for thematic analysis, (iii) she includes in the Theme everything that precedes the verb of the main clause; she includes as part of Theme any subordinate clause preceding the main clause, and (iv) she regards a Theme "as *interactional* if it included a word/phrase which referred to the writer or reader(s) of the passage, and as *topic-based* if it include[s] a word/phrase which referred to something which could be regarded as an aspect of the topic" (Berry, 1989: 71). In this study, Berry appears to exclude the existential "there" Themes from her analysis, although they were used by children somewhat frequently. Her justification for excluding these Themes from her analysis is because "they are neither topic-based nor interactional" (p. 73).

From the above, it would appear that there is a general consensus that the grammatical subject represents “the concern of the message” or “what a message is about”, and thus is a candidate for Theme. Further support for this idea comes from a consideration of the relative status of the participants, and circumstances of the process relations in the transitivity structure. As Halliday himself notes, circumstances are optional whereas participants and process are obligatory. This would suggest that in declaratives, participants, as the obligatory elements, must be a candidate for thematic status, if Theme represents the concern of the message.

## **5.6 New developments in Theme analysis**

As emphasised by Berry (1989) and Davies (1997), there is an increasing need to sharpen and refine the analytical tools which are to be applied in the analysis of discourse. It is worthwhile here to quote Berry:

Descriptive frameworks in the field of textlinguistics and discourse analysis are notoriously problematic. Categories are ill-defined and if one attempts to work on the basis of past practice, one finds that previous practitioners have been inconsistent in their application. If we wish to proceed with thematic analysis in the Hallidayan tradition, a good deal of preliminary work will clearly be essential in order to overcome the problems raised, for example, by Hudson (1986) and Huddleston (1988)” (Berry, 1989: 77-78).

As noted above, although Halliday's Theme system remains the basis for all Theme analyses in systemic functional grammar, other systemic researchers such as Davies (1988b and 1997), followed by Gosden (1993 and 1994), and Berry (1989 and 1996) have adopted other (personal) views of Theme and its realisation in texts. In what follows, I shall summarise these new developments of Theme analysis.



### 5.6.1 Different types of Theme

In addition to the categorisation of Theme into Contextual Frame Themes (CFTs) and Topical/Subject Themes (TTs), Davies (1988b) provides us with a new way of looking at how interaction is created in text. Further illustrating the range of choices available, Davies (1988b) presents us with a taxonomy of Subject-Roles at both sentence and discourse levels. In this top-to-bottom taxonomy, Davies shows how writers choose to present themselves along a "continuum of visibility" (p. 180) in their texts. For instance, the taxonomy starts with the most visible, i.e. when the writer presents himself as a *discourse participant*, as in *I think/believe/propose*, and followed by the next degree of writer's visibility, represented in *discourse viewpoint* such as when the writer chooses to use expressions such as *My view/argument* ...etc. Other degrees of visibility and invisibility such as *interactive participant*, *real-world participant*, *discourse entity*, *real-world entity* may be selected by writers in presenting their discourse, spoken or written. At the bottom of Davies's Subject-Role Taxonomy, we see the most invisible choices such as *objectivised viewpoints* as in *The reason of this phenomenon is...* or as in *The sad case is*, and last in the taxonomy we see the *invisible subject* as in *There appears to be...* Further discussion and more examples taken from the sample texts of the present study are found in Section 7.4.3.1.2 below.

The question which arises in this context, i.e. as regards (in)visibility of writers in text, is: *does the degree of the visibility and invisibility of the writer in text affect academic writing in terms of 'good' or 'poor'?* The answer to this question may be found in the following quotation from Davies (1988b):

In the representation of the visibility dimension or continuum ... relative visibility is not evaluated as either desirable or undesirable, or as representing good or bad academic writing; rather it is seen as reflecting the competing demands on writers of academic discourse seeking to maintain a delicate balance between, on the one hand, being explicit, and hence 'honest', about their views, and on the other, of ensuring reader focus on the research topic under discussion by avoiding unnecessary self-reference (Davies, 1988b: 182).

It is true that a relative use of visibility in a text may not affect its quality as good or bad; however, if frequent Visible Subject-Roles are used in a text, then the text may be viewed as more spoken than written. According to Davies, it is "In casual conversation, and in oral narrative" that typical Discourse or Interactive Participant Themes are selected as Subject-Roles. The selection of such highly visible Subject-Roles in such genres as narrative and conversation may be ascribed to "the face-to-face, here-and-now of the social situation" (Davies, 1988b: 183). Thus, this may make us think of written texts overusing Discourse and Interactive Participants in Theme position to be somewhat conversational, and having characteristics of the spoken mode.

As noted earlier, Gosden (1993 and 1994) follows Davies's Theme analytical framework in the analysis of scientific research articles (RAs) written by NS and NNS writers. In his (1993) study, for instance, Gosden reports on how "scientific research writers structure textual interaction with the external community" (p. 56). So, he selects 36 scientific research articles taken from 12 hard sciences international academic journals published in the UK, the USA and Canada, and examines 4358 sentence-initial elements identified by both marked Themes (CFTs) and unmarked Themes realised by grammatical subjects (GSs) in main clauses. In his analysis, however, Gosden focuses on the unmarked Themes, represented by the GSs functioning as both interactional and topic-



based elements in discourse. 67.2% of the sentence-initial Themes analysed were found to be GSs, not preceded by CFs.

In the analysis of both marked and unmarked Themes, Gosden used the same terminology used by Davies, i.e., Contextual Frame Themes (CFTs) and Subject/Topic Themes (TTs). However, he refines and extends Davies's (1988b) taxonomy of "Subject-Roles at Sentence and Discourse Level" (pp. 180-182). In his refinement of Davies's taxonomy, Gosden (1993) suggests four main domains, which can be distinguished in the scientific RAs: (i) the Participant domain, in which there may be a *discourse* participant (writer) who may be greatly visible through the use of the first person pronouns *I* and *We*, or an *interactive* participant (a researcher in the field or in the discourse community) such as *Berry (1996)* who may be less visible than the writer of the RA him/herself; (ii) the Discourse domain, where the focus of Theme shifts from *discourse participants* to *discourse entities* such as *Figure 5.4* and *discourse events or processes* such as *The conclusion*; (iii) the Hypothesised and Objectivised domain, in which the focus shifts to *hypothesised entities* such as *The model* and *objectivised* and *hypothesised viewpoints* such as *One factor* and *The possibility*, respectively; and finally (iv) the Real World domain, in which the Theme becomes a real-world entity, real-world event/process or mental process.

According to Gosden's model, which, as noted above, is based on Davies's (1988b) taxonomy, the more participant domain Themes we have in the text, the more visible the writer becomes and the more interactional the text becomes. On the other hand, the more real-world domain Themes we have in the text, the less visible the writer becomes and the more topic-based the text becomes. The



findings of this study revealed the dominance of the GS *real-world* Themes in the hard sciences RAs in general, and in the *experimental* section in particular. At the same time, the findings pointed to a relatively high appearance of Participant Themes in RAs examined, especially in the *introduction* and *discussion* sections. Thus, Gosden's findings point to more frequent topic-based Themes used in the experimental sections of the RAs than in the introduction and discussion sections which tend to have a somewhat high visibility of writers or discourse participants, which may indicate a certain degree of interactionality.

### 5.6.2 Pushing the boundaries of Theme

Since 1989, Berry has continued her attempts to refine the Theme analytical framework. Her most recent attempt (1996) has been the most "revolutionary" in considering what a Theme is and what a Theme includes. Being a systemic-functional text linguist and text analyst, Berry (1996) has chosen the Hallidayan meaning-based theory to be the basis for the analytical framework of Theme. The basis of the theory is that a "language is interpreted as a system of meanings, accompanied by forms through which the meanings can be realised. ... This puts the forms of a language in a different perspective: as means to an end, rather than as an end in themselves" (Halliday, 1985/94: xiv). Hence, Berry refers to Halliday and Hasan's (1985/89) theory of *text-context relations*, which was originally based on their (1976) definition of a text as "a passage of discourse which is coherent in these two regards: it is coherent with respect to the context of situation, and therefore consistent in register; and it is coherent with respect to itself, and therefore cohesive" (p.23).

Berry's (1996) work was based on three data collection techniques: (1) three passages taken from the University of Nottingham publications (the *Prospectus*,

*English Studies at Nottingham*, and the *Handbook*) to be analysed thematically; (2) informant judgements provided through interviews with (i) members of the Nottingham University who wrote or shared in writing and producing the passages, and (ii) with students and prospective students who were regarded as “genuine readers” of the passages; (3) and above all, judgements of the Bristol University Writing Research Group, who acted as expert informants.

Additionally, as a text linguist, Berry (1996) has taken the following points into consideration: (i) her investigation of texts is concerned with “the nature of *texts*, not the nature of syntax” (p. 2); (ii) she is also concerned with “the typology of *texts*, not the typology of languages” (p. 2); in other words, she is interested in describing and/or explaining the similarities and differences among texts or text types; (iii) context plays an important role in describing and explaining the nature of texts as well as the similarities and differences among texts or text types. This relates to the text participants, purposes of text and to the settings in which the text occurs; and (iv) informants' intuitions are of a great importance in the evaluation of texts; and whenever possible, producers and receivers of texts or text types are preferred to act as informants.

The above discussion leads us to Berry's concerns with the way writers prioritise meaning, and the ways in which meanings are determined and prioritised. First, it should be noted that in her (1996) study, Berry talks about two types of Theme: Theme<sub>M</sub> (Theme considered as meaning) and Theme<sub>F</sub> (Theme considered as form or grammar). (We should mention here that she took these two types of Theme, with some modification, from Huddleston's (1991) distinction between Theme<sub>C</sub> (Theme considered as content) and Theme<sub>E</sub> (Theme considered as expression)).

However, what seems to be more important than labelling is to know how such Themes are determined and prioritised meaningfully in texts. In this respect, Berry distinguishes two types of Theme<sub>M</sub>s: discourse or text Theme<sub>M</sub> and clause Theme<sub>M</sub>. She first focuses on a *discourse* Theme<sub>M</sub> and defines it as "something that a speaker or writer has in relation to a text or large section of a text" (p. 13). Conversely a *discourse* Theme<sub>M</sub> is determined in a text through speakers' or writers' main concerns, reflected in general types of meaning, which are in turn determined via informants' (writers/producers, genuine readers and 'expert witness' readers) intuitions and judgements.

To summarise what has been said above, Berry's procedure is to draw upon informant judgements, through which the writer-reader relationship in a text is looked at as a social one. "This, it was thought, might be basically a textual relationship, but again it was thought to have interpersonal implications. On this basis, any words and phrases designed to help readers, or to improve the flow of the discourse were considered by some members of the group [of expert witness informants] to be expressing interpersonal meaning" (p.16). Further, interactional or interpersonal meanings were prioritised according to the definition: "*interactional meaning being defined as references to writer(s) or reader(s), or to groups of people which include writer(s) or reader(s)*" (p. 17). According to Berry, there are also other resources for prioritising interpersonal/interactional meanings, based on the concept of social roles: the use of modality such as obligation and prohibition, and the use of "signposting meaning" which shows "how one part of a text fits together with other parts of a text" (p. 18). To summarise, speakers/writers' concerns (discourse Theme<sub>M</sub>s) are determined through informants (writers, receiver readers or expert witnesses or



readers), and on the basis of these concerns, general types of meaning are determined to be prioritised empirically.

*What about the second type of Theme<sub>M</sub>: clause Theme<sub>M</sub>? How is clause Theme<sub>M</sub> determined and prioritised?* According to Berry (1996: 19), "The determination of clause Theme<sub>M</sub> is based partly on expectations about meaning and partly on expectations about form." This leads us to the consideration and discussion of formal features or aspects of Theme, "such as position in clause, or postpositional particle" and whether these formal aspects have "any systematic association" with discourse Theme<sub>M</sub>s (p. 19). If such a connection was found, Berry argues, then discourse Theme<sub>M</sub>s or "discourse priority meanings would confer upon Theme<sub>F</sub> a special status as conveyer of important meanings" ... which may make readers "interpret *anything* conveyed by Theme<sub>F</sub> as a priority meaning" (p. 19). So, whatever Theme<sub>F</sub> conveys in a clause would be regarded as *clause Theme<sub>M</sub>*.

The question is: *what are the means or ways of prioritising meanings and determining Theme<sub>F</sub>s?* With respect to prioritising meanings, Berry lists five means of prioritising: the first is *repetition*, in which the meaning is realised *lexically* by frequency of mention (Fries, 1983), but with the consideration that frequency of mention might be regarded as grammatical if it was, as noted above, associated with a grammatical aspect such as *position*; the second means is *intonation*, in which the topic or meaning is realised *phonologically* (Halliday, 1985); meanings can also be prioritised through three grammatical means taken from (Halliday, 1985): a *special particle* such as the Japanese postposition particle *-wa* (Halliday, 1985); an *unusual position* such as the realisation of *marked themes* (Halliday, 1985); and the last grammatical means

of prioritising meanings is *fronting*, which is the general realisation of Theme in English (Berry, 1996).

As regards determining Theme<sub>F</sub>s which are, as noted above, regarded as clause Theme<sub>M</sub>s and thus realise prioritised meanings, Berry (1996) would seem to adopt Halliday's (1985/1994) general hypothesis "that Theme [discourse Theme<sub>M</sub> in Berry's terms] is realised by positioning at the beginning of the clause" (p. 21). Within this general framework of identifying Theme<sub>M</sub> as the beginning of the clause, she refers to a number of views, which she regards as "sub-hypotheses" (pp. 21-22), put forward by different systemic functional linguists. Based upon these views or sub-hypotheses which were set, tested and investigated empirically by Berry (pp. 22-31), she comes up with "a(nother) personal view of Theme", in which she evaluates extending the boundary of Theme<sub>F</sub> (clause Theme<sub>M</sub> as noted above) to include the four elements, which are repeated here and elsewhere for convenience of reference: (i) initial constituent other than subject or verb, (ii) subject, (iii) position between subject and verb, and (iv) verb (including both auxiliary and lexical verbs).

To conclude, Theme<sub>F</sub>s (grammatical Themes) are used in Berry (1996) to serve meanings, and so they are regarded as clause Theme<sub>M</sub>s, realised by grammatical aspects of a clause such as position and fronting. The system of Theme is, therefore, based on meaning; it goes from meaning to form. Meaning choices, as noted above, are realised through formal or grammatical aspects of Theme in a clause. In sum, this analytical framework of Theme reflects the basis of Halliday's functional grammar, and Berry admits that she as well as other text linguists and text analysts owe an enormous debt "to Halliday and to his innovatory approach to text analysis" (Berry, 1996: 1). However, in this paper,

although Berry is still working within Halliday's general framework of Theme analysis, she appears to go somewhat further than Halliday in considering the boundary of Theme. Thus, we can see her considering extending her Theme to include the auxiliary and lexical verbs. One may wonder why Berry does this. The reason for her consideration of including all these elements (pre-subject, subject, post-subject pre-verb, and auxiliary and lexical verbs) as part of Theme is her goal of finding an analytical system "which emphasises paradigmatic relations rather than syntagmatic relations in text" (Berry, 1996: 7); thus this type of system would enable a text analyst to reveal meanings in a text through linguistic choices, which are intended to serve speakers/writers' meaning choices. Within such a framework, language is viewed "as a system of choices for making meaning" (Halliday, 1985/94).

### **5.7 The Potential of Theme analysis**

From the above discussion, we can note the potential of Theme analysis in describing texts. Theme analysis has been used extensively by systemic functional linguists and researchers of writing as a framework to describe how a text develops (Davies, 1988b). Further, the motivation behind using this analysis is the claim that thematic organisation and thematic choices provide one index of how successful a particular text is (Berry, 1989; Gibson, 1993; Stainton, 1996) and more importantly what communicative roles such parts of clauses, Themes in this context, play (Vande Kopple, 1991).

As noted above, one of the major goals of this part of the present study is to look at EFL student texts and investigate the characteristic features of these texts, and how the EFL sample writers make meanings and produce their text through the selection or choice of semantic, syntactic and rhetorical aspects of



the language. This goal is expressed in the following question from Eiler's (1986) study on thematic distribution in a lecture-chapter text:

*"How can we make heuristic generalisations regarding text design that in fact reflect actual writers' choices?" (p. 49)*

In her analysis of the lecture-chapter which is taken from *The Feynman lectures on physics: Mainly mechanic, radiation, and heat*, Eiler (1986) suggests that the analysis of thematic choices and distribution of themes "can reveal heuristic structures defining a genre" (p. 49) and that this, in turn, will reveal the features of a particular text. Her genre-based functional analysis is based mainly on Halliday's concept of Theme as "the point of departure of the message" (1985: 38). Theme analysis can enable "the reader to distinguish a text from a random set of sentences" (Halliday, 1970: 143). In addition, the importance of Theme analysis stems from the potential of thematic choices and thematic organisation to discriminate amongst genres and to identify the characteristic linguistic features of each genre (Berry, 1989 and 1996; Davies, 1988b, and 1997; Fries, 1983, Francis, 1990; Gibson, 1993). Further, the manipulation of thematic choices seems to enable writers "to more clearly indicate relevance to co-text and the contexts of situation and culture and thereby construct more coherent and cohesive texts" (Gosden, 1994:16).

For example, in his (1993) study, Gibson investigates some of the linguistic features that affect the perceived success of an abstract. He starts his investigation by collecting and analysing textual data and then by obtaining informants' judgements and perceptions of the relative success of the abstracts, using sets of questionnaires designed for that purpose. According to Gibson's study of abstracts, one of the most important findings was that his respondents often seemed to be less concerned about what to say in the abstracts, but more

concerned about how to say it. Therefore, Gibson holds the view that an investigation of thematic choices is “potentially instructive” (p. 255). He states two reasons for this and the motivation for thematic analysis. The first is pertinent to the qualitative comments offered by his informants or judges regarding the texts under analysis. Gibson's informants' qualitative comments, such as “difficult to scan and absorb” (p. 255) and “... not clear as to salient points of article” are believed to motivate the analysis of thematic choices in the assigned texts. In this context, Gibson supports Martin's (1986) observations “that the skilful arrangement of topical items in first position can aid skim reading and promote easy navigation through the text” (p. 256).

#### **5.8. The role of thematic choices in the progression and cohesion of text**

Finally, the question that remains is: *what about the role of thematic choices in the progression and cohesion of text?* Fries (1983) discusses three major patterns of Theme-Rheme progression related to the three major modes or genres of written discourse: narrative, exposition, and argumentation. He suggests that in the *narrative mode*, the Theme of a clause is realised or characterised as a sequence in time or place. According to Fries, in *expository writing*, each sentence is supposed to follow logically from what has preceded, and in *argumentative writing* each new successive idea is an expansion of a previous one. In the latter mode of writing, i.e. the *argumentative*, the Theme of a clause is expected to pick up on an idea mentioned or given in the Rheme of the previous clause. Hence, continuity of Theme may be dominant in *argumentative* texts. In such a genre, a Theme recurs continuously and remains almost the same throughout the whole text, while “the Rhemes undergo subtle changes in order to become Themes” (Francis, 1990: 67).

Further, Berry (1996) points to the role of Theme, realised by the grammatical subject, argues that "While it is now recognised that not every subject in a text will refer to the discourse topic, one might expect that this grammatical constituent will still bear some responsibility for establishing and maintaining the topic" (p. 50). She adds that informants of her (1996) study "seem to prefer texts in which the subjects sometimes refer to aspects of the discourse topic, but not too often" (p. 50). And in her (1989) study of the 3 children's written texts, Berry reported that the text which had an average or moderate use of subjects referring to the discourse topic or to aspects of the discourse topic was the most highly valued by her. However, the other two texts were valued as less successful than the former. One of these latter texts was criticised and regarded as structurally repetitive due to the frequent use of topic-based subjects, and the other was valued the least highly due to the rare use of subjects related to the discourse topic. However, we should point out in this context that in Berry's (1989) study, although she used informants' judgements, she also relied heavily on her own intuitions in judging which of the four texts was the best. Further, she excluded from her analysis the existential *there* which was used frequently in children's texts, Child C's text in particular, which in her view was rated as the best. She also excluded *imperatives* and *interrogatives* from her analysis.

Nonetheless, thematic progression, which is sometimes equated with topic continuity, across a text is emphasised in research undertaken by Theme analysts. Lowe (1987: 9) states that thematic continuity "is a central consideration in determining which elements gets the sentence initial position." He adds that this position is also supported by Givon (1982: 55) who says that: "We build up stories, chapters or paragraphs by stringing together chains of propositions that (a) comprise the same theme (b) tend to repeat the same participant or topic over a stretch of clauses". Lowe concludes that thematic or topic continuity is regarded as an "unmarked case" , while thematic or topic



discontinuity is the "marked case". Further, Davies (1988b), supported by Gosden (1993), stresses the role of topic continuity in producing coherent discourse. She says:

"Subject is equated with the intuitive notion of "what the clause is about". In discourse, likewise, the repeated occurrence or re-occurrence of the same topical element or a related topical element as Subject is seen not only to specify topic, what a particular stretch is about (which may be more than one 'thing'), but also to be the primary means by which the continuity of coherent discourse is achieved" Davies (1988b: 177).

### 5.9 Verbs as part of Theme

As noted above, the ideational Themes are realised by the process itself or any one of its components. Since Berry (1996) considers the possibility of including the verb as part of Theme, it is necessary to look at this element with respect to types of verb, meaning and transitivity.

Verbs in the present context refer to two types of verbs: modal and lexical. With respect to the former type, modals, which are regarded as part of the auxiliary verbs, are necessary in expressing interpersonal meanings in clauses. They have the potential to reveal the interaction between writers and readers in texts. In other words, modal verbs express writers' viewpoints (Halliday, 1970) and invite their readers to evaluate these viewpoints through the meanings expressed in modality such as probability and obligation (Peters, 1986; Biber, 1988). Such interactional meanings expressed in modal auxiliary appear to motivate both Stainton (1993) and Berry (1996) to consider the possibility of including them as part of Theme, especially when we know that different interpersonal meanings are conveyed and realised by such grammatical aspects of the clause.

*What about lexical verbs?* As noted above, the clause, which is "the most significant grammatical unit" (Halliday, 1985: 101) of the language, consists of

three major constituents: participant (typically realised by a nominal group), process (typically realised by a verbal group) and circumstance (typically realised by an adverbial or prepositional group), the three of which are interrelated and interdependent and constitute the ideational metafunction of language. The components of process form the primary basis of the clause in that both the other components, participants and circumstances, are associated with it. Hence, one realises why linguists look at the three elements together as process, or say that a clause represents a process. In this context, it is worth quoting Halliday:

"A process potentially consists of three components:

(i) the process itself;

(ii) participants in the process;

(iii) circumstances associated with the process" (Halliday, 1985: 101).

Further, it is worthwhile here to know what is meant by a clause representing a process. Halliday says:

"What does it mean to say that a clause represents a process? Our most powerful conception of reality is that it consists of "goings-on": of doing, happening, feeling, being. These goings-on are sorted out in the semantic system of the language., and expressed through the grammar of the clause" (Halliday, 1985: 101).

As noted in the above quotation, a clause as process is realised through three major "goings-on": doing or happening (material processes), feeling or sensing (mental processes) and being (relational processes). On the other hand, there are minor types of processes such as behavioural and verbal processes. All these processes are realised by the verbal group constituent of a clause.

## **5.10 Conclusion**

As noted above, this chapter aimed to introduce the concept of Theme, its definition, its identification and realisation in a clause, and the different kinds of meaning conveyed in language through Theme. The chapter also reviewed how

various researchers, working within the systemic functional linguistics, approach and analyse Theme. As noted above, Halliday's approach to Theme analysis still functions as the quintessence of all the different analyses of Theme available in the field of text linguistics. It is the approach which describes a language as functional, where formal or grammatical aspects of a language are used to make meanings. However, the question of identification of Theme and what should be included as part of Theme in a given clause is still controversial amongst systemicists. Halliday, for instance, considers Theme as including everything up to the constituent deriving from the ideational metafunction; and so whatever textual or interpersonal element *precedes* the ideational element is part of Theme. This formal realisation of Theme, which was given by Halliday, has been criticised by some researchers such Hudson (1986) and Huddleston (1988).

In order to overcome problems raised about identification and what should be included in the Theme, other researchers have come up with different views of Theme analysis. These views aim to develop, and sharpen Halliday's Theme analytical approach. As we have noted above, among the systemicist scholars who succeeded in sharpening and refining Theme analysis are Davies (1988b; 1997) who extends Theme to include both a marked Theme (CFT) as an optional element and an unmarked Theme (GS) as an obligatory element, Gosden (1993; 1994) who followed Davies's Theme analysis, refined it and applied it to studying Theme choices in scientific RAs written by NS and NNS writers, and Berry who in her (1989) analysis, like Davies (1988b), extended the Theme to include the subject of the main clause, and in her (1996) study considered the possibility of extending the Theme to include the lexical verb. The chapter closes with two sections, one on the potential of Theme in creating development, progression and continuity in text, and the other section on verbs:



auxiliary and lexical; this latter section dealt with modality, process and transitivity.

As indicated in Chapter One, one of the major aims of the present study is to investigate how EFL students use form (grammar and vocabulary) to make meanings in their texts. As noted above, the Hallidayan functional grammar is concerned with how a language user makes meaning through a set of formal or syntagmatic aspects. The Theme system in particular has the potential of revealing how a language user (speaker or writer) chooses formal, grammatical units to express his/her meanings. Hence, in the analysis of the EFL sample texts of the present study, I follow the Hallidayan traditions of Theme analysis. However, since another aim of my study is to look at, first, what characterises EFL written texts in general, and second, what distinguishes more successful from less successful texts, I do not stick with Halliday's Theme analysis; instead, I follow Davies (1988b, 1997) and Berry (1989, 1996). The reason behind following Davies's and Berry's analytical frameworks is that I need a more flexible analysis of Theme which includes as much as possible in the part of Theme; this kind of analysis is hypothesised to reveal many characteristic features of EFL texts. Section 6.5 in the next chapter outlines the procedures of Theme analysis used in the present study.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **METHODOLOGY: EFL TEXT ANALYSIS**

#### **6.0 Introduction:**

This chapter describes how data in the form of texts were collected, selected and analysed. Section 6.1 presents a background to this chapter. Section 6.2 is concerned with the topics assigned in the writing task. Section 6.3 deals with the selection of EFL written texts for analysis and the types of analysis undertaken. Section 6.4 investigates the procedure used in interpreting how EFL student and tutor perceptions of the process of writing are reflected in actual writing practices. It also deals with the procedures followed in the holistic evaluation and the classification of EFL texts into successful and unsuccessful. Section 6.5 is concerned with the principles of Theme analytical framework used in the present study and the rationale behind using it. Finally, Section 6.6 presents a summary of the chapter.

#### **6.1 Background to this chapter**

As outlined in Chapter One, the present research is a twofold study through which, on the one hand, I look at EFL students' and tutors' perceptions of the writing process and the acquisition of second language writing, and on the other, at the EFL writing product, to see whether any of the perceptions reported above are reflected in actual practices in L2 student writing. In Part One of the study, I used a survey questionnaire in which EFL students and their tutors were asked to report their perceptions of writing in an EFL academic setting. An analysis of the survey and a discussion of its findings are presented in Part One, Chapter Four. In the second part of the present study, I analyse a sample of EFL written texts.

In addition to investigating whether EFL student and tutor perceptions are reflected in actual written texts, an analysis of a sample of texts is carried out in this part of the present study. The principal aim of the analysis is to reveal two things: the characteristic features of EFL students' written texts, and how they choose and make meanings to construct their texts. Therefore, to discover as many aspects of EFL students' written texts as possible, we need a multi-dimensional and flexible analytical framework, a framework which goes from meaning to form.

## **6.2 The writing task**

Seventy-one of the 210 EFL students who responded to the survey questionnaire of Part One of the current study volunteered to participate in the second part of the study. These students were requested to write an essay on one of two topics. Both topics assigned were of the argumentative type. As is evident from the titles of the topics below, two sides of an argument need to be addressed. Thus the title required that students should take one side of the issue, state their position and defend it. Following are the instructions and the two prompts which were assigned, as given to the EFL student writers.

Write a well-developed, properly organised essay of about *300 words* on one of the following topics. (*If you outline or make a draft, please do this in the same booklet provided.*)

a. Some people believe that a woman's place is in the home. Others do not.

Take one side of this issue, state your position and defend it.

b. Some people believe that automobiles are useful and necessary. Others believe that automobiles cause problems that affect our health and well-being.

Which position do you support? Give specific reasons that defend your position.



Such topics were selected to exemplify the kind of writing conventionally required of students in composition courses, and represent expectations for writing in a formal, academic register (Cumming, 1989).

**6.3 Selection of texts and types of analysis undertaken**

In this section I shall briefly describe the selection of the text sample, and then summarise the types of analysis undertaken, bearing in mind that Section 6.4 will present a detailed description of the procedure followed for all types of analysis undertaken in the study.

**6.3.1 Selection of text sample**

As noted above, EFL students were assigned two topics and asked to write a well-developed, properly-organised argumentative essay of about 300 words on one of them. The first topic was on *whether women should stay in the home or go out for work*. The other topic was on *whether automobiles are useful and necessary, or they cause problems to our health and well-being*. Figure 6.1 below summarises the EFL sample of texts analysed.

Seventy-one (71) students of those who completed the survey questionnaire volunteered to write an essay. Fifty-five (55) of them chose to write on the topic of *women*, while only sixteen (16) chose to write on the topic of *automobiles*.

**Figure 6.1: Sample of texts written by ELF students**

(1) Number of essays written on the "Women" topic	55
(2) Number of essays written on the "Automobiles" topic	16
(3) Total number of essays written on both topics	71

### 6.3.2 Pilot analysis

Prior to the final analysis of the corpus used for the present study, it was necessary to carry out a pilot analysis, the purpose of which was to try out the available Theme analytical frameworks on a number of texts taken from the target corpus of the study and check the applicability of different analyses and their potential to reveal linguistic and rhetorical features of EFL written essays. This pilot study was carried out as follows:

(1) Twelve out of the 55 essays written on the "*women*" topic were evaluated holistically by 6 raters who are members of the University of Glasgow Systemic-Functional Reading Group (UGSFRG). The evaluation was carried out in a seminar where the researcher was a member of the UGSFRG. Raters were requested to take into consideration, while evaluating the texts, the following linguistic and rhetorical aspects of written discourse: grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation, content, and organisation and structure of text.

(2) Based on the evaluation, the texts were divided into two sets: a 'more successful' set and a 'less successful' set.

(3) For the analysis of thematic choices in the selected texts, I first strictly followed Halliday's (1985/94) analysis of Theme. However, it appeared that my data were different from the data analysed by Halliday. The first problem I faced in applying this analysis was the extensive use of sentence-initial elements other than grammatical subjects in the EFL sample of the present study. These elements included projecting clauses, conjunctive adjuncts, modal adjuncts and circumstantial adjuncts. With respect to projecting clauses, Halliday appears to make only minimal reference to them and his categorisation is not entirely consistent. For example, in the clause *I don't believe that pudding ever will be*

*cooked* (p. 59) Halliday analyses the projecting clause *I don't believe* as an interpersonal Theme and *that pudding* as a topical Theme. However, in the clause *George finally realised that his son wanted to go off...* (p. 65) he analysed *George* as a topical Theme, *finally realised* as a Rheme, *that* as a textual Theme, and *his son* as a topical Theme.

As regards the extensive use of the other pre-subject constituents (conjunctive, modal and circumstantial adjuncts), I followed Halliday's analysis of multiple Theme (Section 5.3.3 above). In this analysis, if textual or interpersonal elements precede the ideational or topical Theme, they are considered as part of the Theme; however, if they come after the topical Theme, they do not function thematically. Since my aim in using Theme analysis was to reveal characteristic features of EFL texts, and how meaning is made in texts, I had to include as much as possible in the Theme part. Hence, I followed Davies (1988b and 1997), Gosden (1993 and 1994) and Berry (1989), who treated as Theme all sentence-initial constituents including the GS of the main independent clause. (See Chapter Five above for further details about these analyses.)

(4) The two sets of texts were also analysed for thematic progression and cohesion. In this analysis, I only looked at the distribution of the grammatical subjects of the main clauses. I categorised these elements into three types of Theme, using Hasan's (1985/89) labels: the first type consists of a *central* Theme referring to the main discourse topic *women* (which is the central topic in the title of the writing task) such as 'wife' and 'mother'; the second type consists of a *relevant* Theme relating to aspects of the main discourse topic such as 'work', 'job' and 'home'; and the third type consists of a *peripheral* Theme which does not refer to the main discourse topic such as the first and second personal pronouns: 'I', and 'you'.



(5) For further investigation of how EFL students make meaning in their texts, I looked at other grammatical elements: auxiliary and lexical verbs. I focused on the different meanings of modal verbs such as prohibition and obligation, and probability and possibility. I also examined the distribution of the various processes realised by the lexical verbs of the main independent clauses. For example in the sentence *Although some women choose to stay at home, we must encourage them to participate in life*, I included only the verb of the main, independent clause *encourage* in the analysis, and not *to participate* since this latter to-infinitive verb is part of the complement. In such an analysis, I followed Berry (1996), who considered extending the Theme of the main independent clause to include both modal and lexical verbs.

Although the pilot analysis revealed some problems in using Halliday's Theme analysis in this particular sample, it proved the applicability of Davies's (1988b and 1997) and Berry's (1989 and 1996) ways of looking at Theme. Further, the pilot study showed the potential of thematic progression in revealing some differences in terms of cohesion between more successful and less successful texts. Finally, the analysis of modal and lexical verbs indicated other features and aspects of meaning such as the frequent use of modality and relational processes that appear to characterise argumentative essays of this group of EFL students.

### **6.3.3 Types of analysis undertaken**

As noted above, this section is concerned with the types of text analysis undertaken in the present study and the texts used in each analysis. A detailed account of the procedure followed in each analysis is presented in Section 6.4 below. However, in what follows I shall summarise the parts and stages involved in the text analysis.

The first part of text analysis investigates whether EFL students' and tutors' perceptions reported in the survey questionnaire are reflected in the actual writing produced in EFL academic settings. The second part of the text analysis comprises two stages: the first of which consists of a holistic evaluation of the essays written on the "women" topic, and the second stage looks at thematic distribution in a sample of 42 texts divided into two mini-corpora, successful and unsuccessful. This analysis is also described in detail in the next section.

All the 71 essays written on both topics, "Women" and "Automobiles", were included in the first part of the text analysis (the investigation of whether EFL student and tutor perceptions of the process of writing are reflected in the *actual* practices of EFL student writing). Figure 6.2 below shows the number of texts in each type of analysis undertaken in the present study.

**Figure 6.2: Number of texts in each type of analysis**

(1) Total number of essays written on both topics	71
(2) Number of essays evaluated holistically	55
(3) Number of essays evaluated as a "Successful Group"	21
(4) Number of essays evaluated as an "Unsuccessful Group"	21
(5) Number of essays <i>grouped as neutral or middle</i>	13
(6) Number of essays analysed for thematic choices (3+4 above)	42

Only the fifty-five (55) texts written on *Women* were included. This is due to two main reasons: the first is related to the holistic evaluation (the first stage of this second part of text analysis) which had to be carried out prior to the analysis of Theme (the second stage of the second part of the text analysis). Evaluating a group of texts written on the same topic makes it easier for raters to compare texts in terms of the linguistic and rhetorical features of lexicogrammar, coherence of text, text development and text structure and organisation. In addition, it could be argued that raters' judgements of whether a text is successful or less successful can best be achieved when all the texts are written

on the same topic and under the same circumstances. At the same time, comparing an essay written on *women*, for instance, to another written on the same topic (*women*) can, to some extent, guarantee more reliable judgements from raters than when the two essays are written on two different topics, one on *women* and the other on *automobiles*. In so doing, we can control differences in rating that might be ascribed to the topic variable.

The second reason for selecting the fifty-five (55) texts, which were written on "*women*", to be used in the second part of text analysis is related to the second stage of this part, which is Theme analysis. When a text analyst has a number of texts and s/he has to carry out a comparison of how Theme choices and thematic progression are achieved in different (successful and unsuccessful) texts, his/her comparison of such texts is expected to become easier, more accurate and more straightforward when the texts under scrutiny have been written on the same topic within the same genre. For example, when an analyst wants to compare two texts with respect to the choice of the various aspects or components of Theme such as sentence-initial elements (Contextual Frames), subjects (discourse topics), and verbs (processes), s/he can do that with greater reliability if the two analysed texts are on the same topic, *women* for instance, within the same writing mode or genre, 'argumentative writing' in this case.

As can also be noted from Figure 6.2 above, although all the essays written on the *women* topic were included in the first stage of the second part of text analysis (the holistic evaluation), only forty-two (42) texts were included in the second stage of text analysis (Theme analysis). These texts were categorised and divided, according to the holistic evaluation, into successful (the top 21 essays) and unsuccessful (the bottom 21 essays). The other 13 texts were excluded as some of them were evaluated as average, or as others were neutralised due to a lack of consensus among raters. The reason behind this process of divide and



include/exclude texts for analysis is that one of the major aims of the analysis is to contrast and compare the thematic features of EFL student successful texts and unsuccessful texts. Of course, as previously mentioned, the degree of success is based on the raters' evaluation which was carried out prior to Theme analysis, and which took into consideration the linguistic, discoursal and rhetorical properties of the texts under scrutiny. (See Section 6.4.2 below.)

#### **6.4 Procedures of text analysis**

In an attempt to sort out the above problem of revealing student and tutor perceptions through actual texts written by EFL students at a tertiary level, a multi-dimensional text analysis was used. As noted above, this is a two-part text analysis. In what follows, I shall describe in detail the procedures followed in the various stages of the analysis.

##### **6.4.1 Comparison of EFL student/tutor perceptions and actual writing practices**

As is pointed out above, the first part of the text analysis is concerned with an investigation into how EFL student and tutor perceptions of the process of writing are reflected in actual writing practices in EFL tertiary settings. In the second part of the present study, I analyse two mini-corpora of texts written by a sample of the EFL students who responded to the survey questionnaire. One of the basic aims of the text analysis is to investigate whether students' and tutors' perceptions of writing in a second or foreign language (as revealed in an analysis of their protocols in Chapter Four) are reflected in the *actual* practices of EFL student writers. However, there emerges a problem with respect to this aim. This problem may be worded in the form of the following question:

*What kind of evidence can be used to reveal whether EFL student and tutor perceptions of writing are actually reflected in the texts they write?*

For example, if respondents to the survey questionnaire perceive and report certain problems and difficulties encountered by EFL students when they write in English as a Second or Foreign Language, *do such problems or difficulties exist or prevail in the students' actual written texts?* If so, *how can we investigate and examine this?* In other words, *what are the criteria that should be established for looking at texts and comparing these texts to what students and tutors perceive or report.* And hence, *how can the student/tutor perceptions be validated, attested and revealed through writing practices?* In the present study, this investigation of comparing student and tutor perceptions to actual practices in writing was carried out as follows:

(i) According to the instructions given in the writing task, student writers were asked to outline, make a draft, revise and edit the writing they have done in the same booklet provided.

In the present study, outlining involves planning for writing, and it is defined in this particular context as a list of the main points or ideas to be discussed in the body of the essay. This procedural or operational definition of outlining is taken from the classrooms of EFL writing courses; that is, the EFL students of the present study are taught in the writing courses how to outline. Outlining in this context is known as listing the main points or ideas which are believed to be relevant to the writing topic/assignment, and which will be developed in the course of composing into an organised essay.

Drafting, on the other hand, was identified through the existence or presence of an initial draft of an essay, in the form of a text or a body of paragraph(s).

Finally, evidence of revising and editing of texts was marked and investigated through the presence of changes and corrections made in both initial and final drafts available in the booklets.

(ii) All the 71 booklets in which the essays were written were examined to reveal whether there were any traces or signs of outlining, drafting, revising and editing.

(iii) A count of the texts which revealed the above practices was made, and percentages of the essays with these practices were calculated. (Table 7.2 in Chapter Seven illustrates this procedure.)

(iv) Referring to the findings of the survey analysis (Table 4.1), I compared the respondents' perceptions reported on the practices involved in the process of writing to the *actual* practices evident in EFL writing assignments.

#### **6.4.2 Holistic evaluation and classification of texts**

This part of the text analysis comprises two stages: the first is related to the evaluation of EFL students' written texts; the second stage is related to the first: it is concerned with categorising the texts into three mini-corpora: successful, average or neutral, and unsuccessful. Following is a detailed description of the procedures followed in each stage:

As noted above, 55 of the texts written by EFL students were evaluated holistically by three raters, one native speaker who is a member of staff in the University of Glasgow Department of English and two non-native speakers who are postgraduate students, doing a Ph.D. in English. Their task was to read the 55 essays written by EFL learners, and to give them a holistic grade of A, B, C, D, or E. The raters were also given holistic scoring criteria to help them in the holistic evaluation. The holistic criteria were adapted from Engber (1995). They consisted of seven components to help measure linguistic and rhetorical features and aspects of written discourse. These components included the following: (i)



communicativeness in the essay: *is the essay obviously or minimally communicative?*; (ii) effective addressing of the topic: *does the essay effectively or superficially address the topic?*; (iii) organisation of the essay: *is the essay well organised or disorganised?*; (iv) content and support: *are there clearly appropriate details that support a topic sentence and illustrate ideas, or few appropriate details that do not support a topic sentence?*; (v) language use (grammar) throughout the essay: *is the language use consistently fluent, or are there frequent errors in syntax that may seriously obscure meaning?*; (vi) vocabulary and word choice: *is the word choice in the essay appropriate and varied or inappropriate and obscure meaning?*; and (vii) conventions of English (spelling, punctuation and capitalisation): *does the essay indicate mastery of the conventions of English, or have frequent evident errors in the conventions of English?* A copy of the criteria which were used in this holistic evaluation can be seen in Appendix C.

On the basis of the raters' holistic evaluation (the first stage of Part Two of text analysis), the texts were categorised into three groups: successful, unsuccessful and average (Stage Two of Part Two of text analysis). The classification of texts was based on the raters' given grades. The twenty-one texts with the highest grades were labelled as successful, the twenty-one texts with the lowest grades were labelled as unsuccessful, and those in between (thirteen texts) were labelled as average or neutral. The raters' initial agreement was high. When a discrepancy or disagreement emerged among the three raters, the following procedure was adopted: in the first place, when a discrepancy or disagreement on a particular text occurred among the three raters, i.e. when each of the three raters gave a different grade, the text was eliminated and labelled as neutral. Only five texts were neutralised according to the above procedure (the disagreement among the three raters). Secondly, when two raters agreed on the

evaluation of a particular text and the third disagreed, the rating of the text was based on the grade assigned by the two agreeing raters.

Following the classification of EFL written texts, the two mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts were analysed for thematic choice. This part of the text analysis is based on Theme and thematic choices within the systemic functional approach as outlined in Halliday (1985), and developed by Berry (1989 and 1996), and Davies (1988b and 1997). An eclectic analysis of Theme, which takes into account all the thematic aspects, components, and functions and metafunctions, was used in probing and comparing the two mini-corpora of EFL student texts. A detailed description of this Theme analysis as applied in the study follows in Section 6.5.

### **6.5 Theme analysis of texts**

As noted above, among the systemic functional analytical frameworks, Theme analysis is one which is regarded as having the potential to combine both grammar and meaning. It is also assumed that Theme "permits useful movement across the text, addressing the manner in which linguistic patternings are built up for the construction of the overall text in its particular genre" (Christie, 1985). Furthermore, as noted in Chapter Five above, the importance of Theme analysis stems from its potential to give insights into how a particular text is developed and organised, and into the way in which such a text achieves coherence. Brown and Yule (1983) assume that:

"Theme is a formal category in the analysis of a sentence" that "has two main functions:

- (i) connecting back and linking in to the previous discourse, maintaining a coherent point of view
- (ii) serving as a point of departure for the further development of the discourse" (Brown and Yule 1983: 133).

Further, since the Theme system belongs to the textual metafunction of the language, it is responsible for the organisation of information at both the clause and text levels. Martin et. al. (1997) state that:

Every clause is organised as a message related to an unfolding text. The system of THEME organises the clause to show what its local context is in relation to the general context of the text it serves in; the system is concerned with the current point of departure in relation to what has come before, so that it is clear where the clause is located in the text - how its contribution fits in (Martin, Matthiessen and Painter, 1997).

### **6.5.1 Theme analytical framework used in the present study**

#### **6.5.1.1 Introduction**

Although the Hallidayan Theme analysis up to this date forms the basis of all thematic frameworks used within the broad systemic functional approach to text analysis, the Theme analytical framework which is applied in this study has been developed and adjusted to suit the analysis of the target data, EFL student written texts. This analytical framework is informed by researchers who have modified Halliday in one way or another, namely Davies (1988b; 1997), Berry (1989; 1996), Gosden (1993; 1994), and Thompson (1996). Further, in analysing thematic progression and cohesion, I followed Fries (1983) with some adjustment. A comprehensive description of all the aforementioned analytical frameworks is presented in Chapter Five above. Section 6.5.1.2 below presents the principles of the Theme analysis used in the present study. However, before dealing with these principles, in what follows I shall summarise the main problems encountered with Theme analysis and the process I followed to overcome such problems.

As noted in Chapter Five above, text analysts such as Davies and Berry have emphasised the importance of sharpening and refining the existing analytical tools and frameworks in order to "proceed with thematic analysis in the



Hallidayan tradition" (Berry, 1989: 77). Hence, a good text analyst, in my view, is one who tries to refine and adapt the various existing analyses to his/her data, not one who adapts his/her data to the analyses, simply because the analyst who has devised or developed the analysis has first done so in order to use it for his/her own target data. In the present study, I found that I ran up against a number of problems that came up during the process of trying out different frameworks in analysing the target EFL texts thematically. Some of the problems emanated from the existing analytical frameworks, others from the nature of texts themselves. Following is a summary of the difficulties that emerged during the initial analysis of texts.

The first problem is concerned with the boundaries of Theme. For Halliday, the boundary of Theme is realised by the first ideational element in the clause. That is, whatever forms the ideational element, whether it is a circumstantial adjunct, a complement or a participant, is regarded as the Theme of the clause and the point of departure for it. This Hallidayan view seems to be unconvincing to some text analysts and writing researchers such as Davies and Berry who believe that a Theme should include the GS because the GS represents the topical element, which in turn identifies the 'aboutness' of the clause. The problem of Theme boundary continues to exist. However, Berry (1989 and 1996) sets out options of Theme boundary and gives clear criteria for selecting amongst these options. Thus, as will be noted in Section 6.5 below, I include as part of the Theme all constituents up to the lexical verb, following Berry's (1996) options.

Further, the ideational element which represents Theme in the Hallidayan tradition might be preceded by other elements in the clause. Halliday solves this problem by means of the multiple Theme principle which treats the element(s)

preceding the Ideational Theme as either Textual or Interpersonal Theme. Figure 6.3 below shows an example of a multiple Theme:

**Figure 6.3 Multiple Theme as represented in one clause**

Fortunately,	the conditions under which women used to work	have changed over the last few decades.
Interpersonal Theme	Ideational Theme	

In the present study, this issue remains problematic as Halliday argues that elements other than the ideational such as modal adjuncts (interpersonal elements) and conjunctive adjuncts (textual elements) do not function thematically unless they appear earlier than the ideational element in the clause. It appears that these elements, whether they represent ideational, interpersonal or textual meanings, are unconsciously opted and used initially by EFL students to make meanings in their texts. There are two ways out of such a problem: one is to follow Davies (1988b; 1997) who, as noted above, was the first Theme analyst to extend the Theme of the clause to include the Grammatical Subject, and thus provided us with two types of Theme: Contextual Frame Theme (CFT) and Subject/Topic Theme (TT). The other way is to follow Berry (1996) who considers extending Theme to include the lexical verb of the main, independent clause.

Other minor problems emanated from the texts under examination. There were a number of examples in the texts which did not form complete, grammatical clauses. These examples illustrated below were eliminated from analysis.

(6.1) What a formula.

(6.2) For example, the outlook to women and their role in the society, opportunity of learning to women, and responsibilities of women on those days.

(6.3) Firstly, the nature of women, I mean the emotional aspect.

Example 6.1 is an exclamative which lacks the constituents of a main clause. Examples 6.2 and 6.3 lack a main constituent which is the verb. As is seen from the examples above, none of them seems to make a complete grammatical clause. Further, since such examples were very few and limited in structure, I decided to exclude them from the analysis undertaken.

#### **6.5.1.2 Principles of Theme analytical framework in the present study**

There are three aims behind which the analysis of the present sample of texts is carried out: (i) to investigate how EFL students develop their written texts and make meanings in them; (ii) to probe the principal linguistic and discourse/rhetorical features which characterise EFL written texts; and (iii) to investigate the linguistic and discourse/rhetorical features which distinguish more successful from less successful EFL written texts. These three aims appear to overlap and map onto one another. What motivates these aims is the question of how EFL students, 'poor ones' and 'good ones', make or express meanings in texts. To investigate this general purpose, an analytical system which is based on meaning is needed, *a system which goes from meaning to form*. In other words, to tackle such an aim, we need a system which uses grammatical aspects (form) to realise meanings, or to put it in a more formal way, ideally we need "a finite set of formal realisations of meaning choices" (Davies, personal communication). On the other hand, to try to achieve the second and third aims stated above, we need a multi-dimensional *generous* analytical system which may be able to reveal as many linguistic and rhetorical aspects of EFL texts as possible, and then help us distinguish successful texts from unsuccessful texts. As noted in Chapter Five above, Berry's (1996) Theme analytical system,



together with Davies' (1988b, 1997) Theme analysis may be the most suitable for the stated purposes.

In what follows, I shall summarise the principles and criteria upon which I based the findings of Theme analysis reported in Chapter Seven of the present study.

(i) As my goal was to undertake a comprehensive analysis that could reveal the strengths and weaknesses of the texts under examination, I made every effort to adopt a multi-dimensional analysis of Theme that could function as a heuristic to indicate how a particular text was developed and structured. As a result of the pilot analysis in which I tried out different analytical frameworks of Theme, I finally chose Berry's (1996) analytical framework of Theme to form the basis of the present analysis. However, I tried to adapt other existing tools of Theme to Berry's analysis to make it more comprehensive and to meet my own purposes of analysing the target data, EFL written texts. For example, I adapted Davies's (1988b and 1997) way of looking at marked (CF) and unmarked (Subject/Topical) Themes to fit into the first element (sentence-initial constituent other than subject or verb), and second element (subject), which represent the first and second columns in Berry's analysis. Also, in order to reveal cohesion of texts at the Theme level, I tried to adapt Fries' (1983) and Francis' (1990) thematic progression analysis and cohesion and fit it into Berry's (1996) second column, which represents the subject of the main clause or the Topical Theme (Davies, 1988b). Further, I fully examined Berry's (1996) fourth column which represents the auxiliary and lexical verbs. I looked at the modality as well as the various lexical processes used in the EFL students' texts. In so doing, I adopted, and adapted, the multi-dimensional analytical framework of Theme which I had been seeking over quite a long period of time.

(ii) Drawing upon Davies (1988b) and Berry (1989), I considered only the Themes of main clauses in analysis, as it is argued by Halliday (1985) that "the main contribution comes from the thematic structure of independent clauses" (p. 62). This principle was also followed by Gosden (1993 and 1994) in his studies on marked and unmarked Themes in scientific research articles (RAs), and also followed in Montemayor-Borsinger's (1995) study on thematic choices in academic writing in the sciences.

(iii) All types of main clauses, declarative, imperative and interrogative were included in the analysis. I also included the existential *there* as a topical/Subject Theme. However, a few sentences were eliminated from analysis due to their being incomplete, such as missing a verb or a subject from a sentence.

(iv) Again based on Berry's (1996) consideration of including the auxiliary and lexical verbs in Theme, I extended the Theme of the main clause to include both the auxiliary verb and the lexical verb. In adopting such a practice, I included four constituents in Theme part: the first represents initial elements other than subject or verb (marked contextualising frames, following Davies, 1988b and 1997); the second represents subjects (topical elements, following Davies, 1988b and 1997); the third represents elements positioned between subjects and verbs; and the fourth represents verbs, both auxiliaries and lexicals. Figure 6.4 below shows the four constituents used in the analysis:

**Figure 6.4 The four columns of Theme constituents**

(i) Pre-subject Constituent	(ii) Grammati- cal Subject	(iii) Constituent between GS and Verb	(iv) Verb (Auxiliary and Lexical)	
Therefore,	women	nowadays	have to come out	of their imp.
Theme				Rheme



Further, in a very few cases, there were elements which were positioned between the auxiliary and lexical verbs. Here is an example which shows the word *only* between the auxiliary and the lexical verbs:

6.4 The woman should *only* work at home.

Such elements were not accounted for as there were very few examples which could not form a particular patterning throughout the corpus analysed.

(v) I considered as a topic-based (ideational) Theme every elliptical or elided subject that followed a conjunction such as *and*, *or* and *but*, provided that it referred to an aspect of the topic under discussion. For example, let us look at the sentences below:

(6.5) The woman who has no children can work *and* ... can leave her house to any job.

(6.6) In the dark ages, women were burned to death *or* ... .. crucified just because they had red hair and were thought to be witches.

In the first sentence, there is an elliptical grammatical subject, *she*, that refers to the main discourse topic, *woman*. And in the second sentence, there is the elliptical subject, *they*, that refers to the main discourse topic, *women*. In both examples, the elliptical elements were regarded in the analysis "as topic continuation Themes" (Berry 1989: 72).

(vi) With regard to the metafunctions of Themes, a Theme was regarded as interpersonal, if it included a word/phrase which referred to the writer or reader(s) of the passage. Communication among people takes place when there is interaction in a clause or text (discourse). Interaction reflects, "establishes and maintains appropriate social links" (Thompson, 1996: 38) among interactants.



Further, the interpersonal metafunction in the sample texts was seen to be realised through modal adjuncts provided that they are used in thematic position. For example, in the sentence: *Fortunately, women's position in the society has improved*, the modal adjunct *fortunately* is analysed as functioning interpersonally. On the other hand, a Theme was regarded as ideational if it included a word/phrase that referred to a subject-role participant, at sentence or discourse level, other than writer/reader(s), or that referred to a circumstantial adjunct including subordinate clauses and projecting clauses, or that referred to a complement/object that identified participants or circumstances (Davies, 1988b). In the sentence: *Here in Jordan, women managed to become ministers, members in the parliament and local committees*, the circumstantial adjuncts *Here in Jordan* is regarded as functioning ideationally. Finally, a Theme was regarded as textual if it included a word/phrase that served as a textual device such as conjunctive adjuncts and conjunctions (Halliday 1985/1994). For example, in the sentence: *Moreover, women have their husbands to take care of*, the conjunctive adjunct *moreover* is analysed as functioning textually.

This leads us to the realisation of these metafunctions. As noted above and elsewhere in the present study, the elements which are regarded as Contextual Frame Themes (CFTs) are realised by the various interpersonal, textual and ideational elements, used in pre-subject position. This means that the criterion used in the realisations of CFTs is "the point of departure" or "starting point" of the message, not "what the clause is about". Thus, according to this criterion, whatever of the following comes as preceding the GS of the main clause is regarded as a CFT: circumstantial adjuncts, projecting clauses, subordinate clauses, modal adjuncts and the various textual elements such as conjunctions and conjunctive adjuncts. (Further details about these elements are given in Chapter Seven.)

(vii) In the analysis of projection, I followed Davies (1988b; 1997) and Gosden (1993, 1994). I treated the whole projecting clause in the clause complex as a Contextual Frame Theme, and the Subject of the projected clause as a Topic/Subject Theme. For instance, in the clause complex *I think that women should have the chance to work outside their homes* the underlined projecting clause was analysed as a CF Theme, and the bold subject of the projected clause *women* was analysed as a Topic/Subject Theme. Further, as regards "thematised comments" (Thompson, 1996: 129), I treated all such clauses as projecting clauses. For example, in the clause complex *It is obvious that women have other responsibilities*, unlike Thompson (1996) who analyses the thematised comment *It is obvious* as a Theme, and the rest of the clause *that women have other responsibilities* as a Rheme, I analyse the whole underlined thematised comment *It is obvious that* as a CF Theme, and the bold subject *women* as a Topic/Subject Theme (Davies, 1988b; 1997).

In a further analysis of projecting clauses, I investigated the degree of writer's (in)visibility in text. I relied on both Davies's (1988b) taxonomy and Gosden's (1993) model, which show writers' visibility and invisibility in discourse. For example, in the projecting clause *I think that*, the writer is greatly visible in discourse, whereas in the projecting clause *it is obvious that*, the writer is less visible in discourse.

(viii) In a further analysis of subject or topical Themes (unmarked Themes), I followed Fries (1983) and Francis (1990) on thematic progression and Hasan (1985/1989) on cohesion. In this analysis, which I have adapted to fit my data, there are three main columns. The first column consists of the Themes representing the main discourse topic (central topic) which are recurrent across the texts analysed. The criterion for inclusion in this column is the mention of a synonym, a pronoun or an expanded noun phrase in a subject position (topical



Themes) referring to *women*, which is the central discourse topic in the assigned Essay Title.-Such Themes may include expressions like ‘woman’, ‘wife’, and ‘girl’, or other relevant words or phrases such as ‘the second half of the society’, or pronouns referring to these expressions. The second column consists of the Themes which are semantically or contextually related to the main discourse topic. The criterion used for this category of Theme is the relation of some expressions to the main discourse topic *women*. So, I scan-read the texts, and found that expressions such as ‘husband’, ‘children’, ‘society’, ‘home’, ‘work’, and ‘job’ were frequently used in close association with the main discourse topic *women*. And the third column represents the subject elements or topical Themes which have no relation at all with the main discourse topic such as the exophoric pronouns ‘I’, ‘you’, ‘we’, ‘one’ and the like. Such Themes are labelled as "peripheral".

(ix) As I included the verb, auxiliary and lexical, as part of Theme, I had to look at the distribution of different processes used in EFL texts. Further, I had to probe the modality used by EFL student writers when writing about such a particular topic, *women's work*. Regarding lexical verbs, I analysed only the main verbs which are believed to function thematically in the main clause (Berry, 1996; Francis et. al., 1996). In other words, I considered only the verb regarded as thematic, ignoring any other verbs following the main verb in the clause. For example, when the main verb is a ‘catenative’ verb, only this verb is included, whereas the second, following one is not considered as part of Theme. To make this point clearer, look at the example below:

(6.7) Also women *should be encouraged and stimulated* to participate in the developmental process to build, side by side with men, the society and to move from one social class to another.



In the above example, the verbs which were treated as thematic are *should be encouraged and stimulated*, the other verbs in the clause, *to participate, to build and to move*, were ignored and excluded from the analysis, as they are considered as part of the object or complement which is treated in this analysis as part of the Rheme, not Theme, following Francis et. al. (1996).

On the other hand, within the analysis of verbs, I analysed the modal verbs in the corpus and looked at the distribution of the different meanings of modality such as prohibition and obligation, predictability and possibility.

## 6.6 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the methodology used in the analysis of EFL written texts. The first part of the chapter explained how the writing tasks were assigned to the student sample selected for the study. The topics were of the argumentative writing genre. The essays selected were first evaluated holistically and then categorised into three groups. Although all the essays were initially examined to see whether EFL students' and their tutors' *perceptions* of the writing process were reflected in the *actual* writing tasks, only a "small slice" of texts were analysed *thematically*.

As noted above, the purpose of the Theme analysis of this sample of texts was to reveal how EFL students in general make or construct meaning in their texts. In a further step, the Theme analysis was also intended to distinguish more successful from less successful texts. With these two objectives in mind, one should think about a suitable Theme system which, on the one hand, moves from meaning to form, and on the other, is generous enough to reveal characteristic features of more successful and less successful texts. Consequently, an *eclectic* analytical framework of Theme was adopted in the analysis of the present sample of texts. Although the present framework is

mainly based on Berry's (1996) study of Theme in which she considers the possibility of extending the Theme of a main dependent clause up to the lexical verb, it also relies on Davies's (1988b; 1997) and Gosden's (1993), especially, on the one hand, in the analysis of marked Themes in sentence initial position (CFTs), and unmarked Themes (GSs), and on the other, in examining the degree of a writer's (in)visibility in text, and whether this latter feature affects text success.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### FINDINGS OF EFL TEXT ANALYSIS

#### 7.0 Introduction

This chapter is intended to answer Research Questions 10-12, which are stated in Chapter One above, through the use of text analysis. Consequently, this chapter presents the findings of analysis of the EFL students' texts. The first section of the chapter (Section 7.1) presents an overview of the database of the analysis. Section 7.2 reports on an investigation into whether some of the EFL student and tutor perceptions of the writing process and acquisition of L2 writing are *actually* reflected in the EFL written texts. Section 7.3, which includes other subsections, reports on the findings of the analysis of the two mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts. These findings derive from the use of a range of analytical frameworks of Theme which are based on systemic functional descriptions of the language, as outlined in Chapter Six above. Section 7.4 interprets and discusses the findings of text analysis, Theme analysis in particular. Section 5 presents the findings of an analysis of a number of EFL texts in terms of the Contextual Configuration and text structure. Finally, Section 7.6 presents a summary and a conclusion of the findings.

#### 7.1 Overview of the database

Before the findings of the analysis are presented and discussed, it is necessary to present an overview of the database of the analysis. Tables 7.1 (a) and 7.1 (b) below display the total number of words in the mini-corpora used in the analysis, the average number of words in each text, and the percentage of words in each mini-corpus in relation to the total number of words in the complete corpus of the three mini-corpora under examination.



As noted in Chapter Six above, the sample of texts used for analysis consisted of 55 texts written by EFL undergraduate students who responded to the survey questionnaire which was used to elicit and investigate both EFL student and tutor perceptions of L2 writing in the first part of this study. Prior to analysis, the fifty-five written texts were evaluated holistically by three raters, one native speaker of English (Senior Research Fellow of English at the University of Glasgow) and two non-native speakers of English (Ph.D. students in English). (The procedures of the rating of texts are presented in detail in Chapter Six, Section 6.4.2.) The texts were then categorised according to these ratings into three mini-corpora: successful (21 texts positioned at the top according to the rating), unsuccessful (21 texts positioned at the bottom according to the rating) and average (13 texts positioned at the middle according to the rating). The three mini-corpora comprised 15,234 words in total. However, as noted above, although the three mini-corpora were included in the initial analysis (Holistic Evaluation), only the successful and the unsuccessful mini-corpora which comprised 11,667 words (forming 76.6% of the total number of words in the three groups of EFL texts) were included in the main analysis (Theme Analysis). As noted in Section 6.4.2 above, the third mini-corpus was neutralised from the latter analysis either because the texts forming this group were rated as average or because of a lack of consensus among the three raters who evaluated the texts.

**Table 7.1(a): Distribution of words in the three mini-corpora of EFL texts and average number of words per text**

Mini-corpus of Texts	Total number of words	Average number of words per text	% of words in each mini-corpus to total number of words in all mini-corpora
(i) Successful Texts (N= 21)	6939	330	45.5%
(ii) Unsuccessful Texts (N= 21)	4728	225	31.1%
(iii) Neutralised Texts (N= 13)	3567	274	23.4%
Total of (i)+(ii)	11667	276.5	76.6%
Total of (i)+(ii)+(iii)	15234	277	100%

Of special interest is the significant difference among the three groups with respect to the total number of words per group and the average number of words per text. As can be seen in the above table, the mini-corpus of successful texts comprised 6,939 words, forming 45.5% of the total percentage of the whole corpus (the three groups together). In contrast, the mini-corpus of unsuccessful texts comprised only 4,728, forming 31.1% of the total percentage of the whole corpus. This variation in number of words was naturally reflected in the average number of words per text. The average number of words written in each text of the successful mini-corpus was 330, which is slightly higher than the number of words (300) required in the instructions of the writing task given to the student sample. In contrast, the average number of words per text written in the unsuccessful mini-corpus was 225, which is, in terms of statistics, significantly less than both the average number of words written per text in the successful mini-corpus (330) and the number of words required in the instructions given to the EFL writers (300). However, it appears that the average total of words written per text in the neutralised mini-corpus constituted a middle position (274 words) between the two mini-corpora above.

Table 7.1 (b) shows a comparison between the two mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts. As a result of the t-test used in the analysis of data, there were significant differences between the two mini-corpora. Table 7.1 (b) below shows the results of the comparison t-test.

**Table 7.1(b) Distribution of words in EFL written essays**

Mini-corpus	Mean	St. Dev.	Median	Range		P Value
				Min.	Max	
Successful Mini-corpus (N = 21)	330.4	80.3	312	223	511	0.0000
Unsuccessful Mini-corpus (N = 21)	225.1	65	221	49	384	



The above finding shows that the successful group and/or the successful text is typically longer than the unsuccessful group or text. *Does this indicate that the successful group of writers is more knowledgeable in terms of vocabulary?* That is, *does it mean that a student with better or greater knowledge of vocabulary writes better than one with less knowledge of vocabulary?* This question is explored in various places in the present study, especially in the in the first part of the study when the majority of both student and tutor respondents, in both methods of survey: the questionnaire and the informal interviews, reported that a good knowledge of vocabulary in the target language (English in this context) helped EFL students to produce better writing. Even students ranked lack of vocabulary as the first factor to cause problems and create difficulty in their second language (L2) writing. A detailed discussion of this issue is found in Chapter Four above.

## **7.2 Are EFL student and tutor perceptions of the writing process and acquisition of L2 writing reflected in *actual* written texts?**

As noted in Chapter One, one of the major aims of the present study is to compare, on the one hand, the EFL students' perceptions with tutors' perceptions of second language (L2) writing in an academic context and on the other hand, to investigate whether such student/tutor perceptions of writing do prevail in the EFL students' *actual* written texts. In Chapter Four above, through the analysis of the survey questionnaire, we saw a comparison between students' and tutors' perceptions of writing. This section, however, will describe how EFL students' and their tutors' perceptions of the process and acquisition of writing (based on the questionnaire findings) are reflected in the actual practices of EFL student writing, based on the writing task assigned. (The procedures used in comparing perceptions with practices are found in Chapter Six, Section 6.4.1 above.) Table 7.2 below displays the actual number and the percentage of the participating EFL students who, during the process of the writing task, made a draft and an outline,



and then revised and edited what they wrote before writing up their final draft. This table includes all texts on the two different topics- *Women* and *Automobiles*- written by all the 71 students who volunteered to participate in the written task.

**Table 7.2: Writing strategies (processes) as *actually* reflected in the whole corpus of EFL students' written texts (N= 71)**

No.	Strategy	No of Texts	Percentage
1.	Outline	6	8.45%
2.	Draft	17	23.94%
3.	Revision and editing	61	85.92%

As is seen in Table 7.2 above, the total number of EFL students who participated in the writing task was seventy-one (N=71). The data in the table above are based on an investigation in the original booklets which contain the target sample of written texts. Of these only 8.45% of the students participating in the writing assignment made an outline. By contrast, about 24% of the same students actually made a draft for their essays. Thus, it appears that two of the major strategies, outlining and drafting, involved in the writing process are not properly exploited, and their potential was not widely utilised. However, when investigating whether these student writers revised and edited what they had already written, it appears that most of them (85.92%) followed this important strategy.

Now let us compare these strategies, which are actually practised by EFL students during the process of writing, to the student and tutor perceptions as reported in the survey questionnaire. As indicated in the findings of the survey analysis chapter (Chapter Four) of Part One of the Study, the majority of both students and tutors reported that when EFL students were asked to write an essay in English, they did not always follow the traditions or strategies practised within process writing, which requires that a writer consider a number of cognitive practices which take place during the act of writing. For example, tutor

respondents to the survey questionnaire believed that only a small percentage of EFL student writers outlined or made a draft when writing. The findings reveal that this is *actually* reflected in the EFL students' practices following the investigation discussed above; as shown in Table 7.2 above, 8.45% and 24% of the written texts under scrutiny presented an outline and a draft with the essay in the writing booklet, as required in the instructions of the writing assignment. Another area where both student and tutor respondents' perceptions were *actually* reflected in EFL written texts was the revision and editing of text. Based on the examination of the original hand-written essays, about 86% of the written texts under investigation appeared to have been revised and edited, confirming the student and tutor perceptions elicited from the survey questionnaire.

Similarly, even when excluding the sixteen essays written on the different topic, *Automobiles*, the trend was almost the same as those in the 55 essays written on the *Women* topic. Table 7.3 below shows the number and percentage of texts in which strategies of writing such as drafting, outlining, revising and editing were traced.

**Table 7.3: Writing strategies as presented in EFL texts written on the "Women" Topic (N= 55)**

No.	Strategy	No. of Texts	Percentage
1.	Outline	6	10.91%
2.	Draft	10	18.18%
3.	Revision	46	83.64%

In order to probe whether the same practices existed in the two main mini-corpora of the study sample, i.e. the successful and the unsuccessful groups of EFL texts, the same comparison was undertaken. As can be seen in Table 7.4 below, the practices of both the successful and the unsuccessful groups were exactly the same. And like the above findings, it appears that only a small

percentage of EFL students actually follow the strategies of outlining and making a draft (14.2% and 19%) during writing.

**Table 7.4: Writing strategies as *actually* reflected in successful and unsuccessful groups of EFL students' texts written on the "Women" topic**

No.	Strategy	Successful (N=21)	Percentage	Unsuccessful (N=21)	Percentage
1.	Outline	3	14.2%	3	14.2%
2.	Draft	4	19.0%	4	19.0%
3.	Revision and editing	18	85.7%	18	85.7%

However, it appears that most of the student writers (85.7%) in the study sample, successful and unsuccessful mini-corpora, actually revised and edited what they wrote. The question that could be asked in this context is: *If the same percentage of both groups of students revised and edited their written products, why was this group rated as successful and the other unsuccessful?* In other words, *what was it that made the difference since the percentage could not be regarded as a discriminator?* In part, the answer may be found in what and how the successful writers revised and edited their written texts, which is beyond the scope of this study; or otherwise, there should be a way to discriminate between successful and unsuccessful texts. Hence, there comes a need for a linguistic analysis that has the potential to reveal characteristics of success in texts. Section 7.3 below presents the findings of Theme analysis of texts which is believed to function as a discriminator between text types, especially with respect to success (Davies 1988b,1997; Berry 1989/1995; Gibson 1993).

However, before we move to Theme analysis, let us see if there are other student and tutor perceptions of L2 writing practices reflected in the *actual* writing task. As indicated in Section 4.2.2.2 above, the respondents, tutors in particular, to the survey appear to complain about problems of argumentation in EFL student writing. The question which arises here:



*Is this problem (lack of argumentativeness in EFL written assignments) reflected in the sample students' written texts which are analysed in Part Two of the present study?*

A close examination of the texts which were written by a number of our EFL student respondents reveals the skill and ability of the student writers to present good argumentative essays. The three raters who evaluated the sample texts valued and commended the argumentativeness throughout the essays. They judged the texts to be well presented and properly organised. If the texts were judged to be well presented, *why would tutors complain about problems of organisation of text and development of arguments in their students' writing?* If such phenomena (problems in argumentation and organisation) actually prevail in EFL academic settings, then *why do such phenomena not prevail in the present texts?* This may be interpreted with reference to the topic which the EFL students were assigned to write about. It is argued that students write better when the topic is related to their culture. It was found that when EFL students write on topics for which their knowledge is "well-integrated" (Langer, 1984: 28), or on topics in which they are highly involved (Bridgeman and Carlson, 1984), "organisation of their writing is likely to be superior to essays produced on topic for which their knowledge is less secure" (Friedlander, 1989: 90). In our case, the topic assigned is culture-specific and familiar to the EFL student writers who wrote the texts analysed in the present study. Further discussion of this question is found in Section 7.4 which discusses the findings of text analysis.

The last question in this section is related to the assumption that when EFL students are asked to write an essay in L2, English in this context, they sometimes appear to be writing in Arabic and then translating, or sometimes transliterating, their writing into English, paying no attention to the linguistic and rhetorical aspects of English. In examining the texts written by our sample of EFL students, such transliteration can be traced easily. The following sentences,

which are taken from the mini-corpus of unsuccessful texts, may exemplify transliteration:

(4.1) So, we must educated to be an effective element participate in every important thing.

(4.2) and also men and women work together for a long period of (time) make a kind of immoral social relationships as happen in the western society.

We note that sentence (4.1) above lacks both the ‘verb-to-be’ which is used after must to construct a passive voice in English. In Arabic, we do not need a ‘verb-to-be’ to make a passive construction. So this student dropped the ‘be’ from the above sentence, which should read: *So, we must be educated to be an effective element participating in every important thing*. On the other hand, the first example above lacks the use of a relative pronoun which should come as a modifier for the noun element, or lacks an -ing form which can substitute the modifier. This construction without using a modifier or an -ing form is common in Arabic. So, it seems that the student is writing an English sentence using an Arabic construction. In the second example, we note the same problem which is the missing of a relative pronoun *who* before the verb work or an -ing form for the verb work. Further, the construction of using the infinitive verb *happen* after *as* in *as happen* is an Arabic transliteration.

### **7.3: Findings of Theme analysis**

#### **7.3.0 Introduction**

As noted in Chapters Five and Six above, the analytical framework used for the analysis of the text sample of the present study is based on systemic functional descriptions of written texts. This framework is multi-dimensional since it takes into account various elements used in the Theme part of the clause.

Thus, I include as part of Theme the sentence-initial (pre-subject) element, or contextual frame (CF) Theme as identified by Davies (1988b, 1997), the grammatical subject (GS), or topical/subject Theme as identified by Davies and, following Berry (1996), the element that is positioned between the subject and the verb (post-subject, pre-verb element), and the verb, both auxiliary and lexical. This framework yields four constituents as outlined by Berry: a pre-subject element, a subject, an element positioned between the subject and the verb, and the verb, both auxiliary and lexical.

### **7.3.1 Pre-subject Elements (Contextual Frame Themes)**

This section presents the findings of the analysis with respect to the sentence-initial, or pre-subject elements (contextual frame Themes) in the two mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts used in the study. Table 7.5 (a) below displays the distribution of these elements.

As is seen in the table below, it appears that what characterises the EFL sample of written texts, both the successful and the unsuccessful, is the extensive use of pre-subject elements, used as contextual frame (CF) Themes (Davies, 1988b and 1997). For example, in the mini-corpus of successful texts, there are 348 pre-subject elements distributed across 265 sentences forming 58.4% of the total number of sentences (454). This means that each single text in the successful mini-corpus comprises approximately 16 sentence-initial elements (distributed across 20.6 sentences forming each text) preceding the subject of the main clause. The mini-corpus of unsuccessful texts has a relatively similar distribution of such pre-subject Themes. In these texts, there are 221 pre-subject elements, distributed across 193 sentences, forming 62.3% of the total number of sentences (310).



In addition, it appears that a considerable percentage of both successful and unsuccessful texts (24.2% and 15% respectively) examined often have two or more pre-subject elements (multiple CF Themes) in one sentence. Table 7.5(a) below shows the distribution of both single and multiple pre-subject elements (multiple CF Themes) in the EFL text sample of the study. Item (iii) in the table indicates the number and percentage of the sentences with one pre-subject element (single CF Theme), and Item (iv) indicates the number and percentage of sentences with two or more pre-subject elements (multiple CF Themes) in each of the two mini-corpora. This finding reveals a slightly significant difference between the two successful and unsuccessful groups of texts in the distribution of both single and multiple CF Themes. In the successful group, for instance, there are 64 sentences with multiple CF Themes, constituting 24.2% of the sentences which have sentence-initial elements other than subjects. In contrast, the unsuccessful mini-corpus of texts has fewer sentences with multiple CF Themes: 29 sentences, constituting 15% of the sentences with pre-subject elements.

**Table 7.5 (a): Distribution of sentence-initial (pre-subject) elements (frequencies and percentages in the two mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts)**

SUCCESSFUL TEXTS (N=21)				UNSUCCESSFUL TEXTS (N=21)		
		All Texts (Total No of Sentences = 454)	Per Text (Average No of sentences = 20.6)*	All Texts (Total No of Sentences = 310)	Per Text (Average No of sentences = 14.1)*	NOTES *Total No of Sentences Total of Texts
(i)	No. of Sentences with CF Themes	265 (58.4%)*	12 (58.4%)	193 (62.3%)*	8.8 (62.3%)	*No. of sentences with CFsx100 Total of Sentences
(ii)	Total of CF Themes in pre- subject position	348 (76.7%)*	16.48 (76.7%)	221 (66.7%)*	10.48 (66.7%)	*Total of CFs x 100 Total No. of sentences
(iii)	Sentences with one (Single) CF Theme	201 (75.8%)*	9.1 (75.8%)	164 (85%)*	7.5 (85%)	* No. of single CFsx100 Total of CF Themes
(iv)	No. of Sentences with two or more (Multiple) CFs	64 (24.2%)*	2.9* (24.2%)	29 (15%)*	1.3* (15%)	*No of sentences with multiple CFsx100 Total No. of CF Themes
(v)	No. of Sentences with Projecting Clauses (PCs)	60* (13.2%)	2.9	42* (13.5%)	2	*No. of sentences with PCsx100 Total of Sentences

Further, in order to see whether there were any statistically significant differences between the two mini-corpora of texts (successful and unsuccessful), I had to undertake a statistical comparison test. The t-test, which is the statistical tool used to compare two groups of means, was conducted. As is clear from Table 7.5 (b) below, there was a highly significant difference in the use of pre-subject constituents (CFs) between the mini-corpus of successful texts and the mini-corpus of unsuccessful texts.

**Table 7.5 (b) Distribution of sentence-initial elements (CFs) in successful and unsuccessful texts (Means, St. Deviations, Medians and Ranges).**

	Mean of CFs in one text	St. Dev.	Median	Range <u>Min.</u> <u>Max</u>	P Value
Successful Mini- corpus (N = 21)	16.48	7.22	16	7 35	0.0022
Unsuccessful Mini- corpus (N = 21)	10.48	3.87	10	4 19	

The final item (v) in Table 7.5 (a) above gives us an idea about projecting clauses used by EFL students in their writing. As is seen in the table above, both mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts appear to have almost the same percentages of projecting clauses (13.2% and 13.5% respectively) used as Contextual Frame Themes. However, it could be argued that the frequency of use and percentages of some linguistic aspects of texts may not function as a discriminating factor between successful and unsuccessful texts. Therefore, further examination may be needed.

Further investigation into the projecting clauses used in both mini-corpora of texts points to some differences in the quality of such clauses which 'successful' and 'unsuccessful' writers use. It was found that there was a wide range of projecting clauses in the EFL texts. (In this particular context, I will include "thematized comments" (Thompson, 1996: 129) as projecting clauses.) In the

present analysis, these projecting clauses were classified into two categories, labelled as 'low-rank' and 'high-rank' (Table 7.5 (c) below). In the present context, 'low-rank' projecting clauses refer to highly explicit subjective modality such as *I/We believe/think/see/agree/know that...*, where the writer is highly visible (Davies, 1988b). 'High-rank' projecting clauses refer to less explicit subjective modality and to thematised comments and reporting such as *It is obvious/important/interesting that...*, *The sad case/The first reason/A third opinion is that...*, or *It was considered/proved that...*, where the writer is greatly invisible (Davies, 1988b). As clear from the examples above, the 'high-rank' projecting clauses appear to be more sophisticated than the 'low-rank' ones.

As can be seen in Table 7.5 (c) below, what appears to discriminate successful from unsuccessful texts as regards the use of projecting clauses is that the successful mini-corpus appears to have a much higher percentage of 'high-rank' projecting clauses than the mini-corpus of unsuccessful texts. More specifically, while such high-rank clauses occupy a percentage of 36.7% of all the projecting clauses in the mini-corpus of successful texts, they occupy only 16.7% in the mini-corpus of unsuccessful texts. Further discussion of projecting clauses and examples of such clauses, including 'high-rank' projecting clauses is presented in Section 7.4. below.

**Table 7.5 (c) Distribution of Projecting Clauses in EFL Successful and Unsuccessful Texts (Frequencies and Percentages)**

SUCCESSFUL TEXTS (N=21)				UNSUCCESSFUL TEXTS (N=21)		
		All Texts (Total No of Sentences = 454)	Per Text (Total No of sentences = 20.6)*	All Texts (Total No of Sentences = 310)	Per Text (Total No of sentences = 14.1)*	NOTES * <u>Total No of Sentences</u> Total of Texts
(i)	No. of Sentences with Projecting Clauses (PCs)	60 (13.2%)*	2.9	42 (13.5%)*	2	* <u>No. of sentences with PCs</u> x100 Total of Sentences
(ii)	No. of Sentences with High-Rank Projecting Clauses ( H-R PCs)	22 (36.7%)*			7 (16.7%)*	* <u>No. of sen's with H-R PCs</u> x100 Total of Sentences with PCs



**7.3.1.1: Metafunctions of Marked Themes (Contextual Frames)**

Table 7.6 below displays all sentence-initial elements treated as Contextual Frame Themes with their metafunctions in terms of textuality, interpersonality and ideationality or topicality. The figures in the table below show, in terms of frequencies and percentages, the distribution of textual, interpersonal and ideational Themes in sentence-initial positions in both mini-corpora of texts: the successful and the unsuccessful.

**Table 7.6: Distribution of sentence-initial elements (CFs) in successful and unsuccessful texts (Frequencies and Percentages).**

Metafunction of Themes in Sentence-initial Position (Contextual Frames)		Successful Texts (No of sentences with CFs= 265/454)		Unsuccessful Texts No of sentences with CFs= 193/310)	
		Number	%	Number	%
1	Textual Themes	184	52.9%	115	52%
2	Interpersonal Themes	75	21.5%	51	23.%
3	Ideational Themes	89	25.6%	55	25%
Total		348	100%	221	100%

As can be seen from the above table, both mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts appear to contain a high percentage of sentence-initial elements functioning as Contextual Frame Themes. Out of 454 main sentences in the successful mini-corpus, there are 348 sentence-initial elements or Contextual Frame Themes (CFs) distributed in 265 sentences. This means that 58.4% of the sentences in the successful group have either one or more sentence-initial elements, functioning textually, interpersonally or ideationally. The same appears to apply to the unsuccessful mini-corpus. Out of 310 sentences which form the unsuccessful corpus, there are 221 sentence-initial elements (CFs) distributed in 193 sentences. This also means that 62.3% of the sentences in the unsuccessful group have either one or more sentence-initial elements. (Table 7.5 (a) above displays more data about single and multiple CFs in both mini-corpora.)

To compare the distribution of metafunctions of Themes in sentence-initial position, let us look again at Table 7.5 (a) above. As noted above, both groups, successful and unsuccessful, had high percentages of Contextual Frame Themes (348 and 221 respectively). The distribution of Textual Themes appears to be almost the same in both groups of texts (52.9% and 52%). Similarly, while Ideational Themes occupied 25.6% of the total percentage of sentence-initial elements in the successful mini-corpus of texts, Ideational Themes occupied 25% of the total percentage of sentence-initial elements in the unsuccessful mini-corpus of texts. However, a slightly different distribution of Interpersonal Themes seems to exist. In the successful group, Interpersonal Themes formed 21.5% of the total percentage of all kinds of meanings or Themes, while in the unsuccessful texts, Interpersonal Themes formed 23% of the total percentage, which is not a significant difference. However, as noted above, a relatively significant difference is revealed when we look at the number of sentence-initial elements in the form of single and multiple themes included at the sentence level in both mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts. Table 7.5 (a) above shows this difference clearly.

#### **7.3.1.2 Themes in pre-subject position and cohesion**

As noted above, textual elements used in sentence-initial position such as conjunctions and conjunctive adjuncts predominate in both mini-corpora of texts. And though the percentages of these elements, as seen in Table 7.6 above, appear to reveal no significant difference between the two categories of texts, further statistical analysis by means of the t-test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference, at 0.05 level of significance, between successful and unsuccessful texts in the use of textual elements. As shown in Table 7.7 (a) below, at the text level, for instance, the mean (average number) of textual



Themes in a successful text was approximately 9, while in the unsuccessful texts the average number of textual Themes was approximately 6.

**Table 7.7 (a) Distribution of Textual Themes in sentence-initial position per text (Means, St Deviations, Medians and Ranges)**

Mini-corpus	Mean	St. Dev.	Median	Range Min. Max	P Value (0.05)
Successful Mini-corpus (N = 21)	8.81	4.24	9	3 21	0.01
Unsuccessful Mini-corpus (N = 21)	5.86	2.56	6	2 10	

In addition, it appears that there are significant differences between the successful and the unsuccessful texts with respect to the distribution of conjunctions, conjunctive adjuncts and continuatives, used as textual Themes. This can be seen clearly in Table 7.7 (b) below which shows the distribution of such textual Themes in the two mini-corpora. With respect to the conjunctions, which are used as co-ordinators such as *and*, *but*, and *so* among clauses, it seems that the unsuccessful texts include more of such connectives than the successful ones. While the unsuccessful mini-corpus has 80 co-ordinators (70% of the textual Themes in the group), the successful group has 107 (only 58.2% of the textual Themes used in the mini-corpus).

**Table 7.7 (b): Distribution of textual Themes in both successful and unsuccessful texts**

Themes in Pre-subject Position (Contextual Frames)		Successful Texts (N= 184)		Unsuccessful Texts (N= 115)	
Textual Elements		Number	%	Number	%
1	Conjunctions (Co-ordinators)	107	58.2%	80	70%
2	Conjunctive Adjuncts	75	40.8%	35	30%
3	Others (Continuatives)	2	1%	0	0%
Total		184	100%	115	100%

This significant difference also applies when looking at conjunctive adjuncts, such as *however*, *therefore*, *etc.*. While the successful texts contain 75 conjunctive adjuncts (40.8% of the textual Themes in the whole mini-corpus), the



unsuccessful texts contain only 35 conjunctive adjuncts (only 30% of the textual Themes in the mini-corpus). This indicates that the writers of successful texts are more keen on using "high-rank" cohesive devices than the writers of unsuccessful texts.

Finally, two other textual elements (continuatives, *yes* and *now*) are used in the successful group, forming 1% of the textual Themes in this group), while no such components exist in the unsuccessful group.

#### **7.3.1.3. Co-ordination vs. subordination in pre-subject position (used as CF Themes)**

This section of the findings is concerned with the use of co-ordinators and subordinators in sentence-initial position. Table 7.8 (a) shows the distribution of these elements in the sample texts. As can be seen from the table below, the findings reveal slight differences between the two mini-corpora of texts with respect to the use of co-ordinators and subordinators. While there are 107 co-ordinators out of 348 pre-subject elements (occupying 30.7% of all CFs) used in the successful mini-corpus of texts, there are 80 co-ordinators out of 207 pre-subject elements in the unsuccessful mini-corpus, occupying 38.6% of all CFs. As regards subordination, the successful mini-corpus of texts has more subordinators than the unsuccessful mini-corpus. Subordinators in the successful mini-corpus form 13.8% of all the pre-subject elements, whereas in the unsuccessful mini-corpus subordinators form only 7.7%.

Although the writers of successful texts appear to use less co-ordination and more subordination than those of unsuccessful texts, both groups of writers tend to use more co-ordination than subordination in their writing. This finding may be consistent with research findings in the field of contrastive rhetoric. A number of researchers in this field such as Kaplan (1966) and Kharma (1985) argue that

Arab writers tend to use more co-ordination than subordination, and consequently Arab students transfer this strategy when they write in English as a foreign language.

**Table 7.8.(a): Distribution of co-ordination and subordination in pre-subject position (compared to the total number of CFs) in both mini-corpora of texts**

Subordinators and Co-ordinators used as Contextual Frame Themes in Pre-subject Position		Successful Texts (No of CFs= 348)		Unsuccessful Texts (No of CFs= 207)	
		Number	%	Number	%
1	Co-ordinators	107	30.7%	80	38.6%
2	Subordinators	48	13.8%	16	7.7%

The question which may be raised here is: *Does the variation in frequency and percentages indicate any statistically significant differences?* Of course, not. Hence, there is a need for further statistical tests. Tables 7.8 (b) and 7.8 (c) below shows the results of using the t-test which is employed to compare statistically between the means of two groups. With respect to the use of co-ordinators, as seen in Table 7.8 (b), the average number (mean) of co-ordinators is 5.05 in a successful text, and 3.76 in an unsuccessful text. According to the t-test, no statistically significant differences exist at 0.05 level of significance between the two mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts. This suggests that both groups of EFL student writers use much co-ordination.

**Table 7.8 (b) Distribution of co-ordinators in sentence-initial position (Means, St. Deviation, Median and Range at the text level in both mini-corpora)**

Mini-corpus	Mean	St. Dev.	Median	Range Min. Max	P Value
Successful Mini-corpus (N = 21)	5.05	2.40	1	1 9	0.065
Unsuccessful Mini-corpus (N = 21)	3.76	1.97	4	1 8	

However, as regards the use of subordinators in sentence-initial position, the findings of the t-test, as seen in Table 7.8 (c) below, reveal highly significant



differences existing between the two mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts. Sentence-initial subordinators appear to occur more frequently in a single successful text than in a single unsuccessful text (2.19 and 0.81, respectively). This may indicate the successful writers' awareness of the importance of subordination in written texts. On the other hand, this may in part interpret why raters rated this group of texts as more successful than the other one. More discussion of this issue comes in the discussion of findings, Section 7.4 below.

**Table 7.8 (c): Distribution of subordinators in sentence-initial position (Means, St. Deviation, Median and Range at the text level in both mini-corpora)**

Mini-corpus	Mean	St. Dev.	Median	Range		P Value
				Min.	Max	
Successful Mini-corpus (N = 21)	2.19	1.54	2	0	6	0.0013
Unsuccessful Mini-corpus (N = 21)	0.81	0.93	1	0	3	

**7.3.1.4 Identification of the interpersonal metafunction in pre-subject position**

There are three categories or types of Interpersonal Themes identifiable in sentence-initial position in the EFL written texts of the current study: modal adjuncts, writer/reader voices and other voices. While the first category is grammatical, the other two are functional. Table 8.9 below indicates that the distribution of Interpersonal Themes in the two mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts appears to be relatively different. Modal adjuncts such as *in my opinion*, *perhaps* and *from my point of view* seem to occur in the successful texts more frequently than in the unsuccessful texts (25.3% and 20% of the total interpersonal Themes).



**Table 7.9: Types of Interpersonal Themes as distributed in sentence-initial position (pre-subject elements or contextual frame Themes)**

Interpersonal Themes in Sentence-initial Position (Contextual Frames)		Successful Texts (N= 21)		Unsuccessful Texts (N= 21)	
Type of Interpersonal Themes		Number	%	Number	%
1	Modal Adjuncts	19	25.3%	10	20.0%
2	Writer/Reader Voices	35	46.7%	28	55.0%
3	Other Voices	21	28.0%	13	25.0%
Total		75	100%	51	100%

However, the second type of interpersonal Themes (writer/reader voices) appears to be the most frequently used in both sets of texts. Yet, more of such writer/reader voices such as *I believe that* and *I think that* appear in the unsuccessful than in the successful texts (55.0% and 46.7% respectively). There are also other voices prevailing in the EFL texts. Examples of such voices are *some people believe/think/feel/see that, it is believed/thought that, the Arab culture believes that* and *one may argue that*. The distribution of such voices seems to occupy about a quarter of the total interpersonal elements in both sets of texts (28% of the successful and 25% of the unsuccessful texts). The question which arises here is: *why is this frequent use of such interpersonal Themes, especially writer/reader and other voices, in this sample of EFL texts?* The answer to this question is found in the discussion, Section 7.4.3.1.2 below.

**7.3.2. Subject elements as Topical Themes**

**7.3.2.0 Introduction**

This section is concerned with Topical Themes in subject position. In Table 7.10 below, we can see the distribution of Topical Themes in subject slots as represented in both mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts. As noted above, all the main/independent sentences, including the co-ordinated, in both sets are analysed. This, of course, implies that there are a number of subjects that are omitted or elided. In the present study, I treat these as functioning

thematically since, though elided, they are Subjects that constitute an essential part of the main clause. (A detailed discussion of the procedure used for this analysis, together with examples, is found in Chapter Six, Section 6.5.1.2 above.)

**Figure 7.10: Distribution of subject-position (Topical) Themes in successful and unsuccessful texts**

	Successful Texts	Unsuccessful Texts
No. of main sentences	454 (including co-ordinated sentences)	310 (including co-ordinated sentences)
No. of subjects (topical Themes) preceded by sentence-initial constituents	454 (including 30 elided subjects)	310 (including 19 elided subjects and 1 missing subject)
No. of subjects with no sentence-initial element	189 (41.6%)	117 (37.7%)

As shown in Table 7.10 above, the mini-corpus of successful texts consists of 454 independent sentences; this means that there should be 454 subjects. Yet, 30 (6.6%) of these sentences lack an explicit subject. The subjects of these sentences are elided, referring to the same subjects in the preceding sentences. On the other hand, the mini-corpus of unsuccessful texts consists of 310 main sentences, 19 of which lack an explicit subject. This forms 6.1% of the total number of subjects in the whole set of unsuccessful texts, (which is almost the same proportion of elided subjects in the successful set of texts).

However, what characterises the EFL written texts of this study sample is that a high proportion of sentences in both sets of texts have a pre-subject constituent (Contextual Frame) as their starting point of the clause. As is seen from Table 7.5 (a) above, while 58.4% and 62.3% of successful and unsuccessful texts respectively have pre-subject elements as a starting point, only 41.6% of the sentences in the successful set of texts and 37.7% of the sentences in the unsuccessful set have Subject as their starting point.



### 7.3.2.1 Thematic progression and lexical cohesion

As the EFL texts under scrutiny are intended to be argumentative, the Themes which refer to the main topic of discourse or aspects of the discourse topic are expected to be recurrent throughout the text. It is argued that this re-occurrence of such topical Themes can play a major and important role in the progression and development of the written discourse (Fries, 1983; Davies, 1988b; Francis, 1990; Gosden, 1993). According to Davies, topical Themes are obligatory in discourse and they are realised by the grammatical subject (GS), which "is equated with the intuitive notion of 'what the clause is about'" Davies (1988b: 177). This, however, may not always be the case; we may find several grammatical Subjects in a text which do not refer to the discourse topic. However, although "not every subject in a text will refer to the discourse topic, one might expect that this grammatical constituent will bear some responsibility for establishing and maintaining the topic" (Berry, 1996: 35). Hence, in order to examine thematic progression in written text, an analyst is required to trace the topic-related expressions which are distributed as Subjects of the main clauses.

For the purpose of investigating thematic progression and selection of Themes in Subject position in the present study, as an *initial stage* of analysis a total of 24 texts (12 successful and 12 unsuccessful) were randomly selected from the data pool. Table 7.11 below displays the distribution of three types of topical Themes selected by writers as Subjects of the independent clauses. The first type comprises all Themes in Subject position which are directly related to the central topic of discourse as identified in the prompt of the writing task. Such Themes are identified in the present context through analysis of synonyms, pronouns and expanded noun phrases such as *girls, wives, the second half of the society and she/they* referring to *woman/women*, the main discourse topic in the essay title. In Table 7.11 below it is evident that in both sets of texts a relatively high percentage of this type of Theme appears to predominate. However, the



successful mini-corpus seems to have more central topic Themes than the unsuccessful mini-corpus (49.6% and 44.2% of the total percentage).

**Table 7.11: Distribution of types of topical Themes in subject position**

SUCCESSFUL TEXTS (N= 12)				UNSUCCESSFUL TEXTS (12)		
	Type of Subject/Topical Themes	Number	%	Number	%	Notes
1.	Topic-referent (central) Themes*	124	49.6%	69	44.2%	*topical Themes in subject position referring to the main discourse topic (women)
2.	Topic-relevant Themes*	78	31.2%	25	16.0%	*Topical Themes in subject position relevant to the discourse topic (women's <i>role, job or home</i> )
3.	Peripheral Themes	48	19.2%	62	39.8%	*Themes in subject position unrelated to the discourse topic (such as <i>exophoric references</i> )
4.	Total*	250	100%	156	100%	*Total of the three types of topical Themes in subject position

The second type of Theme in this respect comprises all Themes in subject position which appear to be relevant and relating to the central discourse topic. Such Themes are realised in the present context by expressions such as women's *work, role, jobs...etc.* In regard to the distribution of such topical Themes in the EFL written texts, it is obvious that the successful set contains many more topic-relevant Themes than the unsuccessful set (31.2% and 16.0% respectively). Thus, more Subject/topical Themes related to the main discourse topic occur in successful than in unsuccessful texts. This finding may indicate that EFL texts evaluated as successful are more thematically cohesive and coherent than those evaluated as unsuccessful.

Further, the third type of Theme is looked at as nontopical or "peripheral" as called by Hasan (1989), i.e. unrelated to the central topic of discourse. Such Themes are in Subject position of main clauses, but they refer exophorically. Examples of these themes are *I, we, there, it, religion, prophet...etc.* As is seen in the above table, a much wider distribution of such Themes appears to exist in the unsuccessful texts than the successful ones. While peripheral Themes in the

unsuccessful texts seem to occupy about 40% of the Themes in Subject position, they occupy only 19.2% in the successful texts. This overuse of peripheral Themes which are used in Subject position in the unsuccessful texts appears to affect thematic cohesion. And this might be one of the factors which made raters evaluate these texts as unsuccessful.

To summarise, it is evident that successful texts seem to have a much wider distribution of Themes related/relevant to the central discourse topic than the unsuccessful texts (a total of 80.8% and 60.2% respectively). This, of course, may indicate that the successful texts are more lexically and textually cohesive.

The question which arises here is: *does the same distribution of the three types of Subject/Topical Themes still prevail in the whole corpus of successful and unsuccessful texts?* So, at a later stage, I had to look at all the texts in both mini-corpora to investigate whether the same patterns which emanated from *the initial stage* of analysing Subject/Topical Themes still prevailed when analysing all the other remaining texts. Table 7.12 (a) below shows the average number of Subject/Topical Themes as distributed in each text. While a successful text has an average of approximately 22 Topical Themes, the unsuccessful text has an average of approximately 15. Further, as is clear from Table 8.12 (a) below, there is a significant difference (0.0002) in the use of Topical Themes between the successful and unsuccessful texts.

**Table 7.12 (a): Distribution of Topical Themes in subject slots**

Mini-corpus	Mean	St. Dev.	Median	Range Min. Max		P Value
Successful Mini-corpus (N = 21)	21.67	6.30	21	12	36	0.0002
Unsuccessful Mini-corpus (N = 21)	14.86	3.97	15	4	21	



Further, Table 7.12 (b) below shows the means (averages) of the three types of Topical Themes (Central, Relevant and Peripheral) as distributed in each text. As is seen in Table 7.12 (b) below, there are 9.8 Central Topical Themes distributed in one successful text. By contrast, there are 6.7 Central Topical Themes in an unsuccessful text. This variation in the means of Central Topical Themes reveals a statistically significant difference between successful texts and unsuccessful texts. This finding may indicate that successful texts appear to be more cohesive than unsuccessful texts, as the main discourse topic *women* is more recurrent across the mini-corpus of successful texts than across the mini-corpus of unsuccessful texts. However, as is clear from Table 7.12 (b), the variation in means as regards the other two types of Topical Themes (Relevant and Peripheral) does not reveal any statistically significant differences.

**Table 7.12 (b) Distribution (Means) of Central, Relevant and Peripheral Themes in Topical/Subject slots**

	Means			St. Deviations			Medians			Ranges						P Value		
	CTs	RTs	PTs	CTs	RTs	PTs	CTs	RTs	PTs	Min.			Max			CTs	RTs	PTs
										CTs	RTs	PTs	CTs	RTs	PTs			
Successful Mini-corpus	9.8	5.1	6.7	4.5	3.1	4.2	9	5	5	3	1	2	18	11	17	.025	.059	.08
Unsuccessful Mini-corpus	6.7	3.5	4.6	4.2	2.3	3.3	6	3	4	1	0	0	14	8	13			

*Note: CTs stands for Central Themes, RTs for Relevant Themes and PTs for Peripheral Themes.*

### 7.3.3 Post-subject, pre-verb position elements

Following Berry (1996), Column (iii) in the analysis (Appendices D.1 and D.2) shows the elements positioned between subject and verb in the text sample of the present study. Compared to the constituents of the Theme which are represented in the other columns (Columns i, ii, and iv), these elements form a very small proportion. In both groups of texts, the post-subject, pre-verb elements occur in 25 out of 454 sentences of the successful texts and in 13 out of 310 sentences of the unsuccessful texts, occupying only 5.5% and 4.2% of the total number of



sentences in both mini-corpora of texts. However, it appears that the three different elements realising different meanings of discourse (ideational, interpersonal and textual) are represented in such a position, but in varied proportions. Elements such as "now" and "nowadays" which express ideational meaning seem to be the most dominant in both successful and unsuccessful mini-corpora of texts (64% and 69% respectively). Tables 7.13 (a) and 7.13 (b) show the distribution of post-subject, pre-verb elements and the meanings they express in discourse in the successful and unsuccessful texts.

Table 7.13 (a): Distribution of elements positioned between subject and verb

SUCCESSFUL TEXTS (Total No. of sentences= 454)				UNSUCCESSFUL TEXTS (Total No. of sentences= 310)		
	No. of post-subj., pre-verb elements	25	5.5%*	13	4.2%*	No. of elementsx100 Total No. of sentences

Table 7.13 (b): Distribution of discourse meanings in post-subject pre-verb position.

SUCCESSFUL TEXTS (Total No. of post-subject, pre-verb elements= 25)				UNSUCCESSFUL TEXTS (Total No. of post-subject, pre-verb elements= 13)		
1.	Ideational elements	16	64%	9	69%	
2.	Interpersonal elements	4	16%	3	23%	
3.	Textual elements	5	20%	1	8%	
4.	Total	25	100%	13	100%	

7.3.4 Auxiliary and Lexical Verbs in Thematic Positions

7.3.4.0 Introduction

As noted in Chapter Five above, in her recent study on Theme, Berry (1996) has suggested including both the auxiliary and lexical verbs as part of Theme. In the analysis of the EFL texts (the sample of the present study), I follow Berry (1996) in looking at both auxiliary and lexical verbs as part of the Theme of main clauses. Thus, both the auxiliary and the lexical verbs of main/independent clauses are analysed. The auxiliary verbs in the present study are represented by modal verbs preceding main lexical verbs. The auxiliary modal verbs are

expected to realise three kinds of interpersonal meaning: obligation and necessity, prediction, and possibility (Section 7.3.4.2 below). The lexical verbs, including the verbs-to-be used as main verbs, on the other hand, are characterised by their potential to contribute to the realisation of ideational meaning which is represented through the various types of processes.

#### 7.3.4.1 Frequency of main verbs

As noted above, each of the two mini-corpora of texts comprises 21 written texts. However, the number of main clauses in each set is not the same. While the successful mini-corpus consists of 454 sentences, the unsuccessful mini-corpus contains only 310. It should be noted here that the number of main verbs in each mini-corpus must be equal to the number of main clauses mentioned above (as each main clause is supposed to have its main verb). The main verb of a clause, here, can be either a lexical verb, representing the different types of processes (material, relational, mental, behavioural and verbal) as in *Women play an important role in building the society*, or it can be a 'be-verb', standing as a main lexical verb in the clause and regarded as expressing a relational process, as in *Women are an important element in the community*.

Table 7.14 (a) below shows the distribution of lexical verbs (including be-verbs) used as main verbs, not auxiliaries, in both successful and unsuccessful mini-corpora. As shown in the table, although the total number of main verbs varies widely (454 and 310), both groups of texts appear to have the same percentage of lexical (71.4% and 71% respectively) and 'be-verbs' used as main verbs (28.6% and 29% respectively).



**Table 7.14 (a): Distribution of main verbs (lexical and being) in successful and unsuccessful texts**

SUCCESSFUL TEXTS (N= 21)				LESS SUCCESSFUL TEXTS (N= 21)		
1.	No. of Lexical verbs other than be-verbs	324	71.4%*	220	71%*	* $\frac{\text{No. of Lexical Vs} \times 100}{\text{Total No. of Main Verbs}}$
2.	No. of Be-verbs (used as main verbs, not auxiliaries)	130	28.6%*	90	29%*	* $\frac{\text{No. of Being Vs} \times 100}{\text{Total No. of Main Verbs}}$
3.	Total No. of Main Verbs in all Mini-corpus *	454	100%	310	100%	* Co-ordinated Verbs are included

What remains to consider in this respect is the question: *how are these main verbs distributed in terms of process?* Since the verbal group acts as an essential part of the clause, being the nucleus of both the participant and the circumstance, it has become necessary to look at processes in the EFL written texts under investigation. In the present study, as I analyse independent clauses only, including their main lexical verbs as part of Theme, I shall confine my analysis of processes to the verbs of this type of clause. That is, I will only look at the main lexical verbs (including the 'verbs-to-be' which are used as main lexical verbs in the clause, not as auxiliaries) in *thematic* position. For example, in the sentence *When we want to discuss a woman's place, we have to talk about a complex web of variables*, the main verb *talk* in the independent clause is the one to be analysed here. And in the sentence *It is generally believed that if a woman leaves her home, she might neglect her family matters*, the verb of the independent clause *neglect* is the one to be analysed at the process level; I *do not* consider the verb *is believed* in the projecting clause or the verb *leaves* in the subordinate clause. Finally in the sentence *Women are an important element in the community*, the verb *are* is analysed because it is the main verb in the clause.

In Hallidayan functional grammar, processes are classified into three major types: material (those of doing or happening), mental (those of sensing or feeling) and relational (those of being or possessing). There are also other three



minor types: behavioural, verbal and existential processes. In both mini-corpora of sample texts written by EFL students, the six types of process are represented. What appears to be striking is that in both mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts, there is a high percentage of relational processes. As can be seen in Table 7.14 (b), verbs representing relational processes occupy 48.4% and 45.5% of the lexical main verbs ('verbs-to-be' inclusive) in successful and unsuccessful texts, respectively. Material processes come next to relational processes in both mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts with percentages of 38.3% and 41.9%, respectively. Mental processes, though far less frequent than the first two, are ranked third amongst the six types of process used in the EFL students' texts, with percentages of 7.9% (successful) and 6.8% (unsuccessful). As seen in Table 7.14 (b) below, the other three types of process existential, verbal and behavioural, are also used in the two mini-corpora of texts, but with small proportions. But, *what does it indicate to have more relational processes than others in writing?* This question is discussed in Section 7.4.3.4.2 below.

**Table 7.14 (b): Distribution of main lexical verbs (including lexical verb "to-be") in successful and unsuccessful texts in terms of processes**

		Successful Texts (N= 21)		Unsuccessful Texts (N= 21)	
1.	No. of Relational Processes	220	48.4%	141	45.5%
2.	No. of Material Processes	174	38.3%	130	41.9%
3.	No. of Mental Processes	35	7.9%	21	6.8%
4.	No. of Verbal Processes	10	2.2%	12	3.9%
5.	No. of Existential Processes	12	2.6%	4	1.3%
6.	No. of Behavioural Processes	3	0.6%	2	0.6%
	<b>Total</b>	<b>454</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>310</b>	<b>100%</b>

7.3.4.2 Modal verbs

In addition to modal adjuncts which we have seen in the pre-subject position and post-subject, pre-verb position (Columns (i) and (iii)) in our analysis, modality is also represented in Column (iv), i.e. the verb constituent. In this case, modality is realised by the use of modal auxiliaries which express 'interpersonality'. This 'interpersonality' is represented in the various categories or meanings of modal auxiliaries such as obligation/prohibition, prediction, and possibility.

With respect to modality, Table 7.15 (a) below shows the number and percentage of modal auxiliary verbs distributed in the text sample. 36.6% of the main verbs in the successful (166 out of 454) are accompanied, or preceded, by modal auxiliaries. A smaller percentage of such modality is, however, used in the unsuccessful group (94 out of 310, i.e. 30%).

Table 7.15 (a): Distribution of modal verbs preceding main verbs in the main clauses

SUCCESSFUL TEXTS (N= 21)				LESS SUCCESSFUL TEXTS (N= 21)		
	No. of Main Verbs with modals	166/454	36.6%*	94/310	30%*	* $\frac{\text{No. of Modal Vs} \times 100}{\text{Total No. of Main Verbs}}$

Table 7.15 (b) below displays the various modality meanings used in the texts in both mini-corpora. As is clear in the table, three main meanings or types of modality, namely obligation, prediction and possibility, appear to prevail, to varying degrees, in the sample. The obligation meaning of modality, for instance, seems to be the most common in both sets of texts (43.4% in the successful set and 53.2% in the unsuccessful set), followed by possibility (36.7% and 27.7%), and prediction (18.7% and 17.0%) meanings. *What does this frequent use of modality suggest?* With respect to the essay title of the writing task: *Should women stay at home or go out for work?*, one may expect writers to have

extensive use of modality, since modals "express the speaker/writer's assessment of the social obligations inherent in the information" (Peters, 1986: 175).

**Table 7.15 (b): Distribution of modal auxiliary verbs with respect to meaning**

SUCCESSFUL TEXTS (N= 21)				LESS SUCCESSFUL TEXTS (N= 21)		
1.	No. of Obligation Modals	72	43.4%*	50	53.2%*	* $\frac{\text{No. of obl. Modals} \times 100}{\text{Total No. of Modals}}$
2.	No. of Possibility Modals	61	36.7%*	26	27.7%*	* $\frac{\text{No. of Pos. Modals} \times 100}{\text{Total No. of Modals}}$
3.	No. of Prediction Modals	31	18.7%*	16	17.0%*	* $\frac{\text{No. of Prd. Modals} \times 100}{\text{Total No. of Modals}}$
4.	Other Modals (used to)	2	1.2%*	2	2.1%*	* $\frac{\text{No. of Others} \times 100}{\text{Total No. of Modals}}$
5.	Total No. of Main Verbs with modals	166	100%*	94	100%*	*Total of 1+2+3+4

### 7.4 Discussion of findings of text analysis

In Section 7.3 above, I presented the findings of text analysis. In the present section, however, I shall briefly summarise the findings in the previous section and then attempt an interpretation and discussion of these findings.

#### 7.4.1 Length of EFL written texts and lexical density

##### 7.4.1.1 Length of texts

The first, perhaps, unexpected finding is the wide variation in the total number of words and sentences that are contained in the texts which make up the corpus of the study. As noted above, the corpus used for the Theme analysis was classified according to the raters' evaluation into two equal mini-corpora (successful and unsuccessful), each of which comprised 21 texts. However, while the mini-corpus of successful texts consisted of 6,939 words (330 words per text), the mini-corpus of unsuccessful texts had only 4,728 words (225 words per text). Further statistical testing through the use of a comparison t-test, there revealed highly significant differences between the number of words used by both groups. (Table 7.1 (b) above displays the results of the comparison test.) Hence, the successful group appears to be able to produce the number of words required in



the prompt instructions (which is about 300 words per essay), while the unsuccessful group does not.

This distinction between the two sets of texts may suggest that writers of successful texts seem to have a wider knowledge of the vocabulary of the target language which may in turn contribute to a better quality of writing as student writers become less worried about finding and selecting the words to be used in their texts. This, of course, reflects one of the findings of the survey analysis when more than half (52%) of EFL students perceived that acquiring a good knowledge of vocabulary in a particular language could make it easier for a learner to write better. Furthermore, when EFL students were asked to respond to the factors which were believed to cause difficulty in writing, they ranked "lack of vocabulary" as the first among five factors assumed to impede their writing ability and performance. In both the open-ended questions of the survey questionnaire and the informal interviews, students confirmed that a good command of the language in which they write is necessary "to express [themselves] more spontaneously, effectively and convincingly".

#### **7.4.1.2 Lexical density**

In a further investigation, an analysis of lexical density was undertaken. The aim of this analysis was to further distinguish successful from unsuccessful texts in terms of lexical items which "are often called 'content words'" (Halliday, 1989: 63). According to Halliday (1989), higher degrees of lexical density are characteristic of writing, while spoken language is characterised by lower lexical density. In the present study, it is hypothesised that successful texts will have higher lexical density than unsuccessful texts.

According to Halliday, while grammatical items like personal pronouns "enter into a closed system", lexical items like nouns and lexical verbs "enter into an

open set, which is indefinitely extendible” (p. 63). He also identifies a third set of words like prepositions and modal adverbs, which occupy an intermediate case. In my analysis, I follow Halliday’s (1989) considering only the second set of items as lexical items. For example, in the sentence *Her delicacy and weakness prevent her from performing her work* I consider *delicacy, weakness, prevent, performing, and work* as lexical items. Further, I also follow Halliday’s formula, which measures lexical density as “the number of lexical items as a ratio of the number of clauses” (p. 67).

Ten (10) texts of each mini-corpus were selected for this analysis. Table 7.16 below shows the findings of the investigation. The findings of the analysis were strikingly disappointing. Although it was hypothesised that successful texts would have a higher lexical density than unsuccessful texts, it was found that both types of texts have almost the same mean lexical density. The successful texts have a mean lexical density of 6.5 per clause. The unsuccessful texts also have a mean lexical density of 6.4. However, what appears to be surprising is that both sets of texts have more grammatical words than lexical words, which leads us to the conclusion, that the EFL written texts of the present study appear to be more spoken-oriented than written-oriented.

**Table 7.16 Lexical Density in 10 texts of each mini-corpus**

	Successful Texts (N= 10)			Unsuccessful Texts (N= 10)		
	Per mini-corpus (N= 210 clauses)	Per text	Per clause	Per mini- corpus (149 clauses)	Per text	Per clause
Lexical Words	1370 (43.3%)	137	6.5	957 (42.4%)	95.7	6.42
Grammatical Words	1797 (56.7%)	179.7	8.6	1301 (57.6%)	130.1	8.73
Total	3167	316.7	15.1	2258	225.8	15.2

Further, the findings of lexical density motivate us to look at other analytical systems which may be able to distinguish successful from unsuccessful texts. An analysis which examines the *choice* of lexical and syntactical items in thematic



position may have the potential to reveal more distinctive characteristics of such texts. Section 7.4.3 is concerned with the findings of the Theme analysis used in the present study.

#### **7.4.2 Writing process and strategies as prevalent in EFL written texts**

As noted in the previous section (Section 7.3), the findings related to the writing strategies followed by EFL students reflect some degree of consensus and harmony between student/tutor perceptions of the process of writing (Chapter Four) and *actual* writing practices in EFL academic writing settings (Section 7.2 in this chapter). The present investigation of such practices revealed that our sample students' written texts lacked both outlining and drafting, two major strategies in the process of writing. As a result of investigation, only a small proportion (8.45%) of the whole text corpus used for analysis showed actual outlining practices. However, this appears to be inconsistent with student respondents' perceptions. 51.1% and 54.3% of the students reported that they usually outline and make a draft for their writing, respectively. This inconsistency in students' perceptions and their actual practices may be ascribed to the variation in the number of respondents and written texts. While the number of students who completed the questionnaire was 210, the number of texts was 55. It should be pointed out here that this finding may point to the weakness of this particular research instrument.

This failure of using the writing strategies in L2 writing may be attributed to the EFL students' failure to use such strategies in their first language writing. In the interviews with a small number of the survey questionnaire respondents, both tutors and students believed that weakness in applying writing strategies such as outlining/planning and drafting in their L2 writing might be ascribed to the absence of such process writing in first language writing (Arabic). Students, for example, reported they did not use to outline or plan for their writing in Arabic.



According to the student interviewees, only a few make a draft; this is when they are sure they have enough time to do so. Hence, if it is true that ESL/EFL writers may transfer composing strategies of their native language to exploit them in their second language writing (Jones and Tetroe, 1987; Edelsky, 1982), then it seems that the present EFL sample students' failure to use appropriate strategies of writing in L2 may be ascribed either to their failure to use appropriate writing strategies in their mother tongue or to time constraints.

Additionally, another explanation for the failure of using strategies like outlining/planning and drafting may lie in the familiarity of the writing task assigned. As noted in Chapter Four above, the topic which the EFL students wrote about was familiar to them. *Whether women should stay at home or go out for work* is a culture-specific topic, in which our students are highly involved, and for which their knowledge is well-integrated (Bridgeman and Carlson, 1984; Langer, 1984). Familiarity with the topic may assist student writers "in activating a greater amount of knowledge in memory" (Friedlander, 1989: 48). Consequently, we find that many EFL students wrote directly without outlining on paper or making a draft.

However, revising and editing what is written appears to be a common practice in EFL classrooms. It was found that about 86% of both successful and unsuccessful written texts were *actually* revised and edited. This is consistent with the high degree of agreement among students and tutors who responded to the survey questionnaire in Part One of the study. More than two thirds of each group (73.3% and 73.1% respectively) believed that students *always/usually* revise and edit what they have written. But, the questions that may be raised here are: *What is it that EFL student writers revise and edit in their written products? Is it the linguistic aspects of writing such as grammar, vocabulary and spelling or the discoursal/rhetorical aspects such as content and organisation and*

*structure of texts which student writers attend to when revising and editing?* In the findings of the survey questionnaire (Section 4.1.1.4) in Chapter Four above), both students and their tutors reported that more attention was given by EFL student writers to linguistic than to rhetorical skills in revision and editing. This finding is also reflected in the students' actual writing. Referring to the written scripts, I found that most of the EFL students' revision and editing focused on local errors relating to vocabulary, grammar and spelling. Further, according to the interviews with students and tutors, it is the linguistic aspects of writing which EFL students appear to pay more attention to when revising.

This finding relating to writing strategies used in EFL writing applies to both mini-corpora of texts under examination. For instance, with regard to revision and editing activities, the majority of both groups, as noted above, appear to practise such activities. However, a perplexing question may be addressed here: *Should this practice of revision and editing influence the evaluation and rating of texts in terms of 'successful' and 'unsuccessful'?* Despite the fact that this writing strategy seems to prevail in both successful and unsuccessful texts, it is apparent that it has no effect on rating, since it is revealed, as noted above, that when students revise and edit what they have written, they attend more to linguistic features than to rhetorical features of writing in their final products. This of course leads us to think about other ways of looking at the written texts of the present study which may be able to help us distinguish successful from unsuccessful texts. Other factors such as thematic choices may have had an impact on the quality of texts which may in turn have made the difference. The following section and subsections seek to throw light on the Theme analysis of the text sample of the present study.



### 7.4.3. Theme analysis of EFL written texts

#### 7.4.3.0 Introduction

Chapter Five above presented a detailed discussion of Theme: definition, meanings and identification of Theme. However, a summary of metafunctions and meanings of Theme, together with examples from the data under analysis may be necessary in this context. The textual metafunction or meaning is related "to the context: both the preceding (and following) text, and the context of situation" (Halliday, 1985: 53). Further, this textual metafunction can be exemplified and represented by a set of textual components coming under continuatives (yes, well...etc.), conjunctive adjuncts (in other words, moreover, as a result...etc., and conjunctions (co-ordinators such as and, but...etc., and subordinators such as if, because, although ...etc.). Here are some examples starting with a textual component taken from the data under analysis:

(7.1) Finally, I think that women should have the chance to work outside their homes.

(7.2) Moreover, women have their children to take care of.

(7.3) But the working woman has to pay attention to a very important point.

The second metafunction represented in discourse is interpersonal. The interpersonal meaning is related to what the speaker/writer does to the listener/reader via discourse. It "is that of exchanging role in rhetorical interaction: statements, questions, offers, and commands, together with accompanying modalities" (Halliday, 1985: 53). Within the interpersonal metafunctions, there are the modal adjuncts which express probability (probably, certainly...etc.), usuality (sometimes, never...etc.) , opinion (in my opinion, I think...etc., validativeness (broadly or strictly speaking, on the whole...etc.), predictiveness (amazingly, as expected...etc.) ...etc. (Halliday, 1985: 50).



Following are some examples of interpersonal elements used as the starting point of the clause:

(7.4) In my opinion, there is nothing wrong with women going out for work.

(7.5) I think that a good working woman is one who considers both her job and her home.

(7.6) Of course, all of this will lead to the corruption of the family and society.

As noted in the examples above, *in my opinion* in (7.4) and *I think that* in (7.5) are used in thematic position to express the writer's 'viewpoint' and 'perspective'. Similarly, the modal adjunct, *Of course* in (7.6), is used initially to express 'probability'.

The third metafunction represented in the content of discourse is the ideational kind of meaning. The ideational metafunction of a clause is represented by processes, participants and circumstantial adjuncts. In the following examples (7.7, 7.8 and 7.9) which are taken from the sample texts, we can note that how circumstantial adjuncts are used in thematic position to indicate an ideational function.

(7.7) During the last century, women's role in most societies have undergone many changes.

(7.8) In the dark ages, women were burned to death.

(7.9) In science, we can see Madam Curie who is famous for her discovery.

Although Halliday asserts that all the three metafunctional elements, if existing in a clause, can work thematically, he holds the view that to work thematically, such elements follow a typical order of: textual, followed by interpersonal, followed by ideational. In other words, in order for the textual and interpersonal elements to function thematically, they should precede the ideational element in the clause. And for Halliday, when the ideational element comes as the point of departure of the clause, then it is the only element that functions thematically and whatever textual or interpersonal element follows becomes part of the Rheme.

To summarise, in the analysis of the present study I consider functioning thematically, irrespective of its sequence in the Theme part of the clause, whatever comes as pre-subject, sentence-initial element. Such elements are not used by the speaker/writer haphazardly; on the contrary, when the speaker/writer uses such elements, s/he has in mind a particular function or purpose for them, which might be the framing of his/her discourse. And in most of the cases, the speaker/writer uses such elements to provide a context for what s/he is saying or writing. Hence, I see that it is necessary to have all the pre-subject, sentence-initial elements function thematically, forming and adding more textual, interpersonal or ideational meanings to discourse.

In what follows I shall discuss the findings of Theme analysis which were presented under Section 7.3 and other subsections above.

#### **7.4.3.1 Pre-subject elements (CF Themes)**

That Theme plays a major role in framing messages in discourse has been demonstrated by various researchers in the field of Theme analysis. Chafe (1976), for instance, emphasises the major role which sentence-initial elements in thematic position play in framing the message. This is also supported by Scarcella (1984) who holds the view that a writer may use some signalling devices in the

opening of his/her text in order to engage the reader's attention. A further investigation into the role of marked Themes "realised in the foregrounding or fronting of clause elements" (Eiler, 1986: 51) has revealed the potential of such Themes for characterising text types and genres (Eiler, 1986; Davies, 1997). In a recent study investigating thematic choices used in texts written in English by Malawian writers, Daborn (1996) points out how Malawian writers use circumstantial adjuncts of time and place in thematic position as contextualising frameworks in their texts. Such sentence-initial elements or Contextual Frame Themes (Davies, 1988b; 1997) may be used in texts to function textually, interpersonally and ideationally to form "the basis of the semantic organisation" (Halliday, 1985: 53) of discourse.

With regard to the findings related to the analysis of sentence-initial constituents other than subjects or verbs, it appears that both sets of EFL student written texts are characterised by having a substantial proportion of Contextual Frame Themes. More than half of the main clauses used in the two mini-corpora analysed include sentence-initial elements other than subject or verb. (See Section 7.3.1 above for further data.) This widespread use of these elements could be interpreted as providing a contextual framework through which EFL student writers seek to introduce their main clauses that carry the content of their topic.

In what follows I will attempt to discuss the various types of sentence-initial constituents other than subject or verb which seem to form characteristic patterns prevailing in the EFL written texts.

#### **7.4.3.1.1 Textual elements in pre-subject position**

At the textual level, for example, there are a number of sets of textual components like continuatives, conjunctive adjuncts and conjunctions which are



used in discourse to serve "the context: both the preceding (and following) text, and the context of situation" (Halliday, 1985: 53). As noted in the findings above, more than 50% of the pre-subject constituents in both successful and unsuccessful groups of texts are textual elements. (See Section 7.3.1.1 above for comparative data.) This may be interpreted in either of two ways. At one end of the continuum, it could be the overteaching of such elements in EFL contexts that causes this overuse. My own observation is that teachers of English as a Foreign Language try to concentrate on textual components in their teaching and always keep on drawing their learners' attention to the importance of such elements in cohesive writing in particular.

Further, in second language skills classrooms, teachers appear to rely on textbooks of grammar and language skills which comprise many exercises on cohesive and linking words. This in turn may result in the misuse of textual elements by learners who come to sprinkle conjunctive adjuncts and conjunctions across their texts, making no difference whether these connectives are necessary or not, bearing in their mind two purposes: linking their written discourse and pleasing their teachers. In the informal interviews of the present study, two of the instructors commented on this problem by saying that their students used unnecessary linking words in their written assignments, and when tutors asked their students not to use a linking word unless there was a need for it, students started complaining that they were in trouble - as they did not know whether to follow the grammar and writing instructors and use these words, or to follow the advice of tutors of other courses and other disciplines and avoid using such words if they were not sure of their correct usage.

At the other end of the continuum, it appears that 58.2% of the successful and 70% of the unsuccessful texts tend to use co-ordinators like *and*, and *but* rather than conjunctive adjuncts like *however* and *therefore*. This may be interpreted as

an influence of, or a transfer from, mother tongue (Arabic Language) (Kaplan, 1966; Ostler, 1987; Kharma, 1985) where it is argued that the Arabic Language tends to have more co-ordination than subordination. Hence, Arab learners of English transfer this pattern of using more co-ordinated than subordinated sentences when they write in English.

The overuse of such textual elements could be attributed to a combination of both interpretations (the overteaching and the transfer). However, I am more inclined to support the first interpretation (overteaching), since such overuse of co-ordinating conjunctions normally exists in the writing of native speakers of English, especially beginners. Further, it appears that beginner non-native speakers of English in particular may find it easier to use more co-ordinating conjunctions than conjunctive adjuncts to link their discourse when they write. Another factor which appears to cause this overuse of co-ordination may be the influence of spoken language, for more co-ordination is usually used in speech than in writing (Biber, 1988). I do not think that all non-native speakers of English are aware of variations and differences in conventions between speech and writing. Therefore, they may tend to use more co-ordinators than conjunctives to connect their written texts. It is also likely that non-native speakers of English are unaware of what is acceptable or what is unacceptable in academic writing and formal use of language.

What may be added to the discussion here is the issue of L1 interference and transfer. As noted above, in contrastive rhetoric research, it is claimed that Arabic prefers the use of co-ordination in linking discourse. (As discussed in Chapter Two above, I personally do not support this claim.) If the Arabic language, as claimed above, tends to have more co-ordination than subordination patterns, then it is expected that Arab student writers may transfer such patterns



to their second language writing, English in this particular context (Kaplan, 1966; Yorkey, 1974; Kharma, 1985; Ostler, 1987).

However, the questions which may emerge here are: *does the same distribution of these textual elements prevail in both mini-corpora of texts?* If not, *are there any statistically significant differences in the use of these elements between successful and unsuccessful texts?* As is apparent from the findings in Section 7.3.1.2 above, and in terms of frequency of use and percentages, as is clear from Tables 7.7 (b) and 7.8 (a), there appear to be some differences. However, when using the statistical t-test for comparing the two groups, we can note a rather different finding. Tables 7.8 (b) and 7.8 (c) above show whether there are statistically significant differences between successful and unsuccessful texts in the use of co-ordinators and subordinators. With respect to co-ordination (Table 7.8 (b)), there are no statistically significant differences between successful and unsuccessful texts. By contrast, as regards the use of subordination (Table 7.8 (c)), there are highly significant differences between the two mini-corpora of texts.

Although both more successful and less successful writers appear to have a preference for using co-ordinators over subordinators, there are differences in the percentages or proportions of such conjunctions between the two groups. More subordination is prevalent in the mini-corpus of successful texts than that in the mini-corpus of unsuccessful texts. This may reflect greater awareness by the writers of the successful texts about the importance of having such types of conjunction, especially in the argumentative type of writing. On the other hand, this greater use of subordination in the successful texts may have influenced the degree of success given to the texts by raters.



#### 7.4.3.1.2 Interpersonal elements in pre-subject position

As noted in Section 7.3.1.4 above, interpersonal elements in pre-subject position are, in the present study, identified through three grammatical and functional categories: (i) modal adjuncts, based on Halliday (1985: 50), such as those of probability (*probably, certainly, obviously, surely* and *of course*) and those of opinion (*in my opinion, personally* and *from my point of view*)...etc., (ii) through subordinate clauses including writer/reader interaction realised by the use of first and second personal pronouns *I/we* and *you*, and (iii) through projecting clauses which signify modality such as those having verbs of 'perspective' (*think* and *believe*, and sometimes *feel* and *see* when used to signify a viewpoint). However, there are problems which emerge when projecting clauses, indicating modality, are treated as functioning interpersonally or interactionally. One problem resides in the voices used in such clauses. For example, some voices refer to the writer/reader such as *I, you* or *we believe that*, while other voices refer to a general audience such as *some people* or *others believe that*.

Another problem resides in *what are the verbs that can signify modality and express perspective or viewpoint?* The verbs *think* and *believe* would also appear to be presenting 'perspective'. But, *what about see and feel?* Through asking a number of Arab students doing their studies in the UK universities, a consensus was reached that when they say *I feel that* or *I see that*, they mean *I believe that*. As a result of testing, it appears that such verbs and projecting clauses are used to indicate modality and perspective. Further, the use of *I feel/see that* could be interpreted with respect to mother tongue interference. In both the formal and informal Arabic, we use *I feel/see that* to express our viewpoint and opinion. For example, when someone asks someone else about their viewpoint in a certain matter, the first would ask or say: *what do you think?* The second may answer: *well, I see that (you do so and so)*. It is acceptable in Arabic for a person to use the latter expression to mean *I think that (you do so and so)*.

As indicated in the findings (Table 7.6), more than one fifth of the sentence-initial constituents other than subjects in each of the two groups of texts are categorised as interpersonal elements or Themes. As is seen in Table 7.9 above, these interpersonal elements were classified into three types: modal adjuncts, writer/reader voices and other voices. (For further details, see Section 7.3.1.4.) A variation appears to exist in the distribution of the three types of interpersonal components between successful and unsuccessful texts. Nevertheless, when ranking these types in terms of which category is the most frequent and which is the least frequent, we see that in both sets of texts it is the second type, writer/reader voices like the projecting clause *I think/believe that*, that seems to be the most frequent (46.7% in the successful set and 55% in the unsuccessful set). This is followed by other voices such as the projecting clause *some people believe that*.

*Why is this high percentage of such projecting clauses in the EFL student written texts? And how can this be interpreted?* This generous use of voices (writer/reader's and others') in the writing of EFL students may be construed in one of two ways. On the one hand, the genre within which students are required to produce their written texts has an effect on the style and the way writing is produced. In this particular context, the genre is supposed to be an argumentative essay writing. Within this particular genre, writers are expected to use expressions signifying 'viewpoints' and 'perspectives' more frequently than within other genres such as narrative or descriptive writing. In addition, the nature of the topic which the students were assigned, within the argumentative genre, to write about may have caused students to use such 'hedging' projecting clauses in abundance. These hedging expressions are believed to indicate 'perspective' or 'opinion' and mark "a generalised or uncertain presentation of information" (Biber, 1988: 106). The writers of the text sample are Arab students living in a



Muslim community (where *some people still have some reservations about the work of women in certain occupations and believe that this is prohibited in Islam*). Therefore, in this specific cultural context, it seems that it is the nature of the topic which may require or motivate our student writers to expose their personal thoughts, feelings and attitudes in such a cautious manner. In this way, Arab student writers may appear to try to distance themselves from the responsibility of what is said about the issue of *women staying at home or going out for work*, by presenting their ideas in a cautious way, using fronting hedging expressions such as *I think* and *some people believe*. However, "the responsibility for the truth of what is averred lies with the averrer, who may or may not be the writer of the text, because all writers have the option,..., of transferring the role of averrer by quoting another writer (or speaker)" (Coulthard, 1994: 6). So, whenever a writer uses other voices, s/he uses them to help him/her express his/her views (Coulthard, 1994). Here are two extracts taken from two different texts, one successful and another unsuccessful:

(1) *Some people think that a woman's place is in the home. Others do not (think that a woman's place is in the home). I think that I agree with the second opinion.*

(2) *Some people believe that a woman's place is in the home, cleaning, cooking and giving birth...etc. I cannot deny this which is the most important role in the woman's life, which is actually a mission from God for the continuation of the human race. But I believe that the woman's place is not only in the home.*

In the examples above, writers use two voices at the same time: writer's voice and other people's voice; and by doing so, they seem to be cautious in what they say. The verbs *believe* and *think* in the above context are used to show that the



persons using them may want to protect themselves, since these verbs do not mean that what comes after is 100% certain. This way of presenting propositions may reflect a cultural thought pattern of Arabic.

On the other hand, the use of expressions of hedging realised through projecting clauses may be interpreted as a characteristic feature of speech. From my experience in listening to people discussing a certain social or political issue in modern Arabic, for instance, expressions modifying viewpoint and modality are extensively used, particularly in argumentative conversation. In English, however, projecting clauses such as *I think* and *I believe* do not seem to exist *extensively* in formal usage, especially in writing (Hawkins, 1983). Yet, they could be used in speech or informally, for example, in personal letters and emails and also in conversation (This last bit of discussion is based on an informal communication with some native speakers of English. I asked five postgraduate students whether they used *I think/believe that* in their academic and formal writing. They responded with "no" or "rarely", but they confirmed using these expressions in personal letters and emails.) This may suggest that EFL learners of English do not differentiate between what is formal and what is informal when they write in English. They may watch T.V. programmes and listen to the radio in English where the language used is not the same as that of the academic writing. So, they are not aware of this fact, they do not distinguish in their writing between what is formal and what is informal, and what is used for speech and what is used for writing. Thus, we sometimes feel our EFL student writers speaking on paper, instead of writing. This 'orality' in the present sample of written texts characterises other samples of texts written by EFL/ESL writers (Daborn, 1996).

There remains a final interesting finding relating to the use of projecting clauses. (In this analysis, I treat Thompson's (1996: 129) "thematized comments" as

projecting clauses.) As noted in Section 7.3.1 above, both types of EFL texts, successful and unsuccessful appear to have a considerable proportion of projecting clauses (13.2% and 13.5% respectively) as contextual frame Themes in pre-subject position. These reporting or projecting clauses are viewed by Thompson (1996) to involve "a different kind of relationship between clauses than other types of clause complex; and this is reflected in the uncertain status of projected Themes in text. ... Both types of Themes typically seem to be important in the development of the text" (p. 139).

However, as noted above, a further investigation was undertaken to see if there were any differences in the quality of the projecting clauses which may function as a discriminator between successful and unsuccessful texts. Indeed, there seem to be two kinds of these projecting clauses in the EFL students' texts. 'High-quality' and 'low-quality', or as labelled in the examples below 'high-rank' and 'low-rank' types of projecting clauses were found. The criteria used for these two types or categories were based on Davies's (1988b) "subject-roles at sentence and discourse level" and the degree of visibility and invisibility in "speakers/writers' viewpoints" (p. 180). As defined above, a high-rank projecting clause is more sophisticated and less explicit than a low-rank projected clause. Following are some examples of both types of clauses as used in EFL student texts.

(i) Low-rank projecting clauses, where there is a high degree of discourse participant's *visibility*:

(7.10) *I think that* a woman's place is only in the home.

(7.11) *We all know that* God created men and women equal in everything.

(7.12) *We can see that* the woman's role is great, not only in the home but also in the society.



(ii) High-rank projecting clauses, where there is a high degree discourse participant's *invisibility*:

(7.13) *The traditional view has it that* a woman's "proper" place is in the home.

(7.14) *It was natural that* home is their place.

(7.15) *The sad case is that* most women who work neglect their homes and children.

(7.15) *It should be considered that* a woman has a great role in society.

(7.16) *One may argue that* women need money to support themselves.

In the first set of examples (7.10-7.12) above, we note that the writer is clearly visible. By contrast, in the second set of examples, the discourse participant or the writer is invisible; instead of being visible in discourse, we note that writers of these examples present their viewpoints objectively or invisibly (Davies, 1988b).

As a result of further investigation into the two types of projecting clauses in both mini-corpora of EFL texts, successful texts were found to have more of the high-rank type than the unsuccessful texts. As can be seen in Table 7.5 (c) above, while the successful texts had 36.7% of the projecting clauses as high-rank, the unsuccessful texts had only 16.7%. This may suggest that more successful EFL student writers appear to select and use more sophisticated and better quality projecting clauses and "thematized comments" (Thompson, 1996: 129) than do less successful EFL student writers. This may also reflect more successful writers' awareness of generic conventions, in this case academic writing. Further, Davies (1988b) argues that "For the aspiring critical reader it is recommended that objectively presented viewpoints are given careful consideration. ... For



writers seeking to present their own viewpoints as established fact, the potential 'empty' subject offers a powerful tool" (p.197). Consequently, this greater use of this kind of high quality contextual frame Themes (objective and invisible viewpoints) used by our EFL students may have *unconsciously* influenced raters and played a part in the rating of texts.

To conclude, it is argued that an awareness of audience is indicated through the use of interpersonal (modality) elements in discourse (Peters, 1986; Biber, 1988). Hence, in order to assert a relationship with the reader, writers usually exploit interpersonal devices in their texts. In this context, it is worth quoting Corbett (1992):

Modality, then, is one of a number of ways (including the use of verbs of expressing "subjective" mental processes, concessive circumstances, and certain attributes such as "plausible", and "reasonable", etc.) in which the writer can "hedge", that is, show his uncertainty about the content expressed and/or employ politeness strategies. As such, modality is only one index of the writer's attitude to both the text and the readership (Corbett, 1992: 260-261).

If this is true, then, the frequent use of modality realised by interpersonal Themes in the present sample of EFL written texts may suggest that the writers of these texts may be aware of the importance of an audience. This consequently supports the finding in Chapter Four when the majority of student respondents to the survey questionnaire reported that they usually take an audience into their consideration when writing.

### **7.4.3.2 Subject elements as Topical Themes**

#### **7.4.3.2.1 Introduction**

This section is, in one way or another, related to the above section (7.4.3.1). First, it is apparent that most subject constituents which are used by both groups of

EFL student writers are preceded by sentence-initial constituents, functioning as contextual frames. 58.4% of the sentences in the mini-corpus of successful texts and 62.3% of the sentences in the mini-corpus of unsuccessful texts begin with elements other than subject or verb. Only 41.6% and 37.7% of the sentences in the two sets respectively have the subject constituent as their starting point. The interpretation of such a phenomenon may reside in the EFL students' goal of providing a context to what they are saying or writing. This could also be a strategy which writers use to influence their readers and prepare or provide a grounding to what they want to say about their topic. Such a grounding may be an ideational Theme which expresses world experience and knowledge, and is represented in circumstantial adjuncts of space, place, time, concession or conditions. Such ideational Themes occupied one fourth of the pre-subject constituents in the whole corpus of EFL texts (as shown in Table 8.6 above). On the other hand, the grounding provided may be an interpersonal Theme which expresses interaction and modality, and is represented by writer/reader aspects of interaction or in modal adjuncts expressing viewpoint. These interpersonal Themes occupied more than one fifth of the pre-subject elements used in the texts analysed. Further, more than fifty percent of such pre-subject grounding constituents are textual Themes which are used by EFL writers at initial positions in order to organise and link the discourse. Such Themes are realised through the widespread use of conjunctive adjuncts and conjunctions.

#### **7.4.3.2.2 Thematic progression and lexical cohesion**

Of great importance in written discourse is both what and how something is said or presented in text to make and express meanings. In written texts which are intended to be argumentative, for instance, continuity of Theme is expected (Fries, 1983; Francis, 1990). Hence, as the EFL texts under scrutiny are meant to be argumentative, the Themes which refer to the main topic of discourse are expected to recur continuously and to be repeated throughout the whole corpus.

This re-occurrence of such topical Themes can ensure the progression and development of the written discourse. As noted above, in order to examine thematic progression in the study sample, I first had to trace the topic-related Themes in subject positions of main clauses across a randomly-selected sample of EFL written texts (12 successful and 12 unsuccessful texts). However, since the purpose of this text analysis was to uncover strong co-occurrence patterns that actually define linguistic features or dimensions which are selected by EFL students to make meanings in their texts, we need to analyse a large number of texts, for "a representative selection of texts and linguistic features is thus a crucial prerequisite to this type of analysis" (Biber, 1991: 20). Therefore, at a later stage, I traced all Themes in subject slots (whether related or unrelated to the main discourse topic in all texts. A detailed account of how I did such an investigation is presented in Chapter Six and in Section 7.3.2.1 above.

As noted in Section 7.3.2.1 above, the topical Themes used in the subject slot are divided into three types: topic-referent (central) Theme, referring directly to the main discourse topic in the text, topic-relevant Theme, referring to an aspect of the main discourse topic, and nontopical or peripheral Theme, unrelated to the main discourse topic. (Examples of these types of Themes are found in Section 7.3.2.1).

It may be argued that a good, successful text will have more Topical Themes related directly to the topic of discourse *women* used in the subject position than an unsuccessful text. The findings of the analysis of subject/topical constituents support this hypothesis. This is seen clearly from Table 7.11 which shows the distribution of the three types of Topical Themes (central, relevant and peripheral) in the two mini-corpora of texts, and from Table 7.12 (a) which shows the average number of the three types of Topical Themes in the subject slot at the level of individual texts. The re-occurrence and recurrent use of



expressions referring directly to the central topic of discourse indicate continuity of discourse and high lexical cohesion, which in turn contribute to good progression and development of text. A statistical comparison test (t-test) was used to test whether there were any significant differences in the use of Topical Themes related directly to the topic of discourse, *women*, in the subject position between successful texts and unsuccessful texts. The results showed a statistically significant difference at 0.05 level of significance between the successful and unsuccessful texts with respect to the use of central Topical Themes. This finding may suggest that ELF writers of successful texts appear to be aware of text cohesion, as they recurrently use the main discourse topic, *women*, synonyms or anaphoric references in the form of personal or demonstrative pronouns.

#### **7.4.3.3 Post-subject, pre-verb elements**

The third constituent of Theme, according to Berry (1996), is that which is located between the subject and verb of a main clause. Such constituents are not very frequent in the sample of EFL written texts. Nonetheless, it is worth noting that the three types of discourse meaning are exemplified here. Further, the most dominant of these types is ideational meaning (forming 64% in the successful and 69% in the unsuccessful texts). The high proportion of ideational meaning could be interpreted as normal since this intermediate position between the subject and verb (which are looked at as identifying ideational or experiential meaning) may be more suitable for ideational Themes than for textual or interpersonal Themes (which are treated as elements of organising discourse). Moreover, circumstantial adjuncts together with subject and verb are described as modifying ideational meaning. Hence, we may find more of circumstantial adjuncts than of conjunctive or modal adjuncts used between the subject and verb. This finding supports Berry (1996) who argues that "column 3, [which represents post-subject, pre-verb constituents], like Columns 2, [which represents

subjects], and 4, [which represents verbs], could be regarded as representing an experientially derived constituent" (Berry, 1996: 51).

#### **7.4.3.4 Auxiliary and lexical verbs**

##### **7.4.3.4.0 Introduction**

As noted in Section 7.3.4.1 above, what characterises the sample of the present study (successful and unsuccessful texts) is the extensive use of auxiliary verbs, both modal verbs and 'verbs-to-be'. The 'verbs-to-be', for example, in both sets of texts appear to occupy about 29% of main verbs of main clauses. This could be ascribed to the nature of the topic which requires more relational processes since it is intended to be an argumentative topic (Francis, 1989). However, the use of so many 'verbs-to-be' as main verbs in clauses could also be interpreted as a weakness resulting from the EFL students' limited vocabulary. And as EFL students and their tutors reported (Part One of the study), vocabulary causes students much difficulty when they write an essay in English as a second language, so it is possible that they tend to use more 'verbs-to-be' as it is sometimes difficult for them to find the suitable lexical verb which fits in a certain context.

##### **7.4.3.4.1 Modality**

With regard to the auxiliary modal verbs, it also appears that EFL student writers use modality generously (about 36.6% of the successful and 30% of the unsuccessful text clauses have a modal preceding the main verb). This may also be interpreted in relation to the nature of the topic assigned to the students. As the topic is of an argumentative type, it is to be expected that writers will employ a great deal of modality of all types in order to influence their audience, and as argued by Biber (1988) such use of modals "can be considered as overt markers of persuasion in one way or another" (P. 148). For instance, obligation modality, realised by the use of 'should', 'must' and 'have to', are the most common in the



text sample, and they seem to be used by writers in an attempt to persuade their addressees that particular "events are desirable" (ibid: 148). Further, the extensive use of obligation modality may also be attributed to socio-cultural background. It is typical in Arabic to use 'should' and 'must' to refer to questions which are negotiable or argumentable and disputable. In a question like "whether women should stay at home or go out to work", it is expected from one writing about this subject to use much modality, obligation and prohibition modality in particular.

Finally, it remains to say that the use of modal verbs with different meanings expresses interpersonality. In other words, as Halliday (1970) indicates, modal verbs express the writer's opinion. "Thus modals such as *can, could, may, might, must, should, would, and will* all invite the reader to put a particular probability value on the accompanying information" (Peters, 1986: 174). Again, as noted in Section 7.4.3.1.2, this use of interpersonal elements in EFL written texts indicates the presence of a relationship between the writer and the reader, which may suggest that the writers of our sample texts may have taken their audience into consideration when they wrote their texts. This finding also seems to be consistent with the finding elicited in the survey questionnaire when EFL students reported that they usually considered an audience when writing. However, awareness of audience, as indicated by Ong (1975), may have been created by writers of the texts as a by-product, especially when we know that the nature of the topic, as indicated above, requires the use of such interpersonal elements or devices.

#### **7.4.3.4.2 Lexical verbs**

In the Hallidayan functional grammar, the clause, which is "the most significant grammatical unit" (Halliday, 1985: 101) of the language, consists of three major constituents: participant (typically realised by a nominal group), process



(typically realised by a verbal group) and circumstance( typically realised by an adverbial or prepositional group), the three of which are interrelated and interdependent to constitute the ideational metafunction of language. The component of process forms the primary basis of the clause in that both the other components, participants and circumstances, are associated with it.

For Halliday (1985: 101), a clause as process is realised through three major "goings-on": doing or happening (material processes), feeling or sensing (mental processes) and being (relational processes). In addition, there are minor types of processes such as behavioural and verbal processes. All these processes are realised by the verbal group constituent, which acts as an essential part of the clause, being the nucleus of both the participant and the circumstance. Therefore, it seems necessary to look at verbs in terms of processes in the EFL written texts under investigation.

As noted in Section 7.3.4.1 above, both major processes (relational, material and mental) and minor processes (existential, verbal and behavioural) are represented with different proportions in the sample texts. As shown in Table 7.14 (b) above, in both mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts, the most frequent type of process is the relational, followed by the material and then the mental (48.4% and 45.5%, 38.3% and 41.9%, and 7.9% and 6.8%, respectively). The three other types are represented, but as noted above, in small proportions.

*What does it indicate to have more relational processes than others in writing?* It is argued that in argumentative written genres or discourse, relational processes are expected to occur more frequently than others. For instance, Francis (1989) found that more relational processes are used in editorials and letters than in news which requires "more *ideation* and more *information*" (Francis, 1989: 202), and thus is characterised by frequent use of material processes instead. As noted

above, the topic assigned to our students to write about is of an argumentative type. So, it is expected from them to have a high percentage of relational processes in their texts. Hence, the frequent use of this kind of process may indicate that, unlike what their tutors reported in the survey questionnaire and in the face-to-face conversations, EFL students' written texts are properly developed. This is also supported by the raters who evaluated the development of argument in these texts.

### **7.5 Contextual Configuration and text structure**

Halliday (1985/89: 10) defines a text as "language that is functional". He adds that "by functional, we simply mean language that is doing some job in some context... of situation" (p.10). This leads us to Hasan's (1985/89) statement that there is "a very close partnership between language and living the life" (p. 54). In what follows, we shall see how language is related to culturally-construed social situations.

As noted above, we cannot separate language from "culturally construed" social situations (context). According to Halliday (1985/89), there are three elements of social situation: field, tenor and mode. The three elements are closely related, interrelated and interdependent. They are all represented in any given text. The field refers to the social action, or to what is taking place or happening among participants of the discourse. The tenor refers to the participants, or who is/are taking part in the discourse, their statuses and roles. The mode refers to "what part the language is playing" (Halliday, 1985/89: 12). In addition, there are other sub-elements involved in the social context. For example, under tenor there is the "social distance", which is related to the status and roles of participants. This can be minimal or maximal, depending on the degree of familiarity among participants. There is also the sub-element "process sharing". A second sub-element under mode is the language role, whether it is "constitutive" or



"ancillary". There are also the channel (phonic/aural or graphic/visual), and the medium (spoken or written). *What is the difference between these two elements?* The term channel in this context "refers to the modality through which the addressee comes in contact with the speaker's [or addresser's] messages" (Hasan, 1985/89: 58). In other words, *does the addressee get a message from his/her addresser phonically, through a telephone call or a talk for a professional group for instance which may take the form of a dialogue, or graphically, through a formal letter or a memo etc. which may take the form of a monologue?* While process sharing is most active in the phonic channel where the addressee listens to (and sometimes communicates with) his/her addresser, it is almost passive in the graphic channel, unless there is collaborative writing and peer conferencing. On the other hand, the term medium "refers to the patterning [of] the wordings themselves: for example, is there a degree of grammatical complexity or of lexical density?" (p. 58). According to Hasan, "variation in medium - spoken versus written - is a product of variation in channel - phonic versus graphic" (p. 58). This indicates that a kind of relation between channel and medium may exist. In this way, using the phonic channel, for example, we may expect that the medium is a spoken one. Similarly, using the graphic channel, we may expect that the medium is a written one.

These elements of social situation form the basis of Hasan's (1985/89) notion of Contextual Configuration (CC). Hasan defines the CC as "a set of values that realise field, tenor, and mode" (p.55). Examples of such contextual configuration are: parent (tenor) - praising (field) - child (tenor) - in speech (mode), and employer (tenor) - blaming (field) - employee (tenor) - in writing (mode). Hasan postulates a strong relationship between the CC and text structure. She proposes that the analysis of the systems of field, mode and tenor should form the basis for the prediction of structure of any text. She demonstrates this with an analysis of a minimal selling/buying spoken text. Interestingly, Hasan recommends that



the CC, or the social situation, of the text is analysed before elements of structure are identified. In practice, her analysis appears to proceed from the text itself to the social situation, or the CC.

The CC analysis is attempted for four argumentative essays written by our sample of EFL students. The reason for undertaking this analysis is *to investigate whether there are differences between EFL successful and unsuccessful texts in terms of contextual configuration and text structure*.

In the first place, I shall summarise the *background* of these texts in terms of the three elements and sub-elements of social context, i.e. the Contextual Configuration.

**Figure 7.1 : The Contextual Configuration of the writing task (EFL student texts)**

**Field (what):** essay writing task: women's place (should women stay at home or go to work?)

**Tenor (who):** students as writers in a second language, and tutors as an audience.

**Social distance:** minimal-maximal (although familiarity is available, the relationship is still formal).

**Process sharing:** audience comes to the product when it is finished.

**Mode (how):**

**Language role:** constitutive (argumentation)

**Channel:** graphic/visual

**Medium:** written/spoken

The following two texts were selected randomly from the mini-corpus of successful texts:

**Successful Text (A)**

Women are an important element in any community because they have major tasks to perform and without which the community is destined to ruin. It is over these tasks that many people argue

nowadays. Does the woman have to work in her home ? Or, does she have the choice to work outside it?

On my part, I support the former viewpoint. The woman should only work at home for several reasons- for her own benefit, for her husband, for her children and for the family's happiness and stability.

Physiologically speaking, the woman has not been created to take over big tasks. Her delicacy and weakness prevent her from performing hard work. Besides, as long as the man can support her and the family, she does not have to work.

Women are created to perform one great task and that is bringing up our children. What nobler task can one do more than this? This is the task that no man can perform alone. Actually, women are so lucky and so honoured to have such a task.

Moreover, women have their husbands to take care of. The husband who has the responsibility of supporting and protecting the family. For him, the wife should bring about all sorts of restfulness and she should always be at hand to back him morally whenever he needs that.

Having these qualities, the wife can bring about happiness and stability for all the members of the family. And this is what all women should aim at, and this is what all women wish to have.

### Successful Text (B)

Women are those humans whom any society rely on. They are considered to be the most efficient persons who play a great role in society. Since women have great roles in society, that is bringing up children and educate them, they are able to work effectively in any job outside their homes.

Women should work outside their homes to face many difficulties concerning their own life with their families. They should work in order to acquire the essential knowledge which helps them in teaching their children the right behaviour they should follow. And the last reason is by working women will be able to build up a strong personality since they face different kinds of people with different culture.

Women should work to face different difficulties which arise during their upbringings in their family. For example, difficulties concerning their behaviour they should do this or that because they are girls or women. So this kind of difficulty will arise another dangerous difficulty which is related to their personalities. So by



work they are able to overcome this difficulty and be a different person.

Another reason for letting women work is to acquire the essential knowledge which helps them to teach their children. They will know the right way of teaching good morals since the children's age or adults' is an important issue to decide the right way of teaching or learning. So work provides great knowledge and also experience to women.

The last reason is building up women's personalities. Since they work they will face different cultural people who will in a way or another, directly or indirectly affects women's personalities. They become courageous, strong brave, well-educated, well organised and self confident.

Finally, I think women should have the chance to work outside their homes in order to let them face life difficulties easily and without problems.

Let us now see whether the elements of the Contextual Configuration are represented in the two texts above. With respect to field, both writers appear to succeed in presenting their topic clearly throughout the texts. In the first text, the writer is saying that women should stay at home, and s/he is stating the reasons why women should stay at home. In the second text, the writer is saying that women should leave their home and go to work, then s/he is stating the reasons why women should go to work.

As regards tenor, the participants are a student and a tutor, the student as a writer and the teacher as a reader or an audience. Although the relationship may be formal between the tutor and his/her student, the social distance is supposed to be minimal since there is some familiarity between a student and his/her teacher. However, when it comes to process sharing, it appears that the teacher as an addressee in this particular context is remote until the product is finished; there were not any discussions or peer conferences with the teacher during the process of writing.



As for mode, first, the language used in the two essays is constitutive, in the sense that the argument in the texts is developed properly and the ideas appear to flow smoothly. Second, the channel used by the writers of the texts is graphic and visual. Finally, the medium used in developing these successful texts is written, with good choice of grammar and lexical items.

Having identified the CC, the next step is to predict text structure. First, we should take into our consideration the fact that EFL students are taught in their academic writing contexts that an essay should have the following text structure: a beginning, a middle and an end. At the beginning of their essay, students may initiate the topic, and state the thesis statement. In the middle, where there is usually more than one paragraph, students are required to support their thesis statement, using specific details, facts, and examples to persuade their audience. At the end of their essay, students are expected to summarise and evaluate their topic.

The analysis yielded the following (tentative) elements of structure: (i) Initiation, (ii) Declaring position (thesis statement), (iii) Supporting position, and (iv) Conclusion/Evaluation. The criteria used for identifying the elements were as follows:

Initiation is identified by the use of one or more general statements introducing the main topic. The writer here uses general words or expressions relating to the topic, such as *women*, *main tasks* and *community* in Paragraph I of successful Text (A).

Declaring position is identified by an explicit statement of position. Statements 5 and 6 in Figure 7.2 presents the writer's position.

Supporting position is identified by specific statements and further details relating to the general idea(s) introduced in the thesis statement. This is represented by Paragraphs III, IV and V in Figure 7.2. For example, in Paragraph IV, the writer develops his/her idea of the importance of the woman staying at

home for the sake of “her children”, which was emphasised in the declaration of position (Statement 6).

The conclusion/evaluation is identified by a ‘general’ statement summarising and evaluating the writer’s position. ‘Summary’ words such as *finally* and *thus* are often used in this particular section.

**Figure 7.2: Structure of successful Text (A)**

**Paragraph I (sentences 1-4): Initiation**

1. Women are an important element in any community because they have major tasks to perform and without which the community is destined to ruin.
2. It is over these tasks that many people argue nowadays.
3. Does the woman have to work in her home ?
4. Or, does she have the choice to work outside it?

**Paragraph II (Sentences 5-6): Declaring position (Thesis statement or topic sentence)**

5. On my part, I support the former viewpoint .
6. The woman should only work at home for several reasons- for her own benefit, for her husband, for her children and for the family’s happiness and stability.

**Paragraph III. (Sentences 7-9): Supporting position**

7. Physiologically speaking, the woman has not been created to take over big tasks.
8. Her delicacy and weakness prevent her from performing hard work.
9. Besides, as long as the man can support her and the family, she does not have to work.

**Paragraph IV. (Sentences 10-13): Supporting position**

10. Women are created to perform one great task and that is bringing up our children.
11. What nobler task can one do more than this?
12. This is the task that no man can perform alone.
13. Actually, women are so lucky and so honoured to have such a task.

**Paragraph V. (Sentences 14-17): Supporting position**

14. Moreover, women have their husbands to take care of.
15. The husband who has the responsibility of supporting and protecting the family.
16. For him, the wife should bring about all sorts of restfulness
17. and she should always be at hand to back him morally whenever he needs that.

**Paragraph VI. (Sentences 18-20): Summary and Evaluation**

18. Having these qualities, the wife can bring about happiness and stability for all the members of the family.
19. And this is what all women should aim at
20. and this is what all women wish to have.

As is seen in Figure 7.2 above, this successful text has six paragraphs. In the first paragraph, the student writer initiates the subject of the topic. In the second



paragraph, s/he states his/her position in the form of a topic sentence or a thesis statement: *The woman should only work at home for several reasons- for her own benefit, for her husband, for her children and for the family's happiness and stability.* In the next four paragraphs, the student writer elaborates his/her topic sentence and supports his/her position. The final paragraph is a concluding paragraph in which the student summarises and evaluates his/her argument.

Almost the same pattern may be observed if we apply the analysis of contextual configuration and text structure to the successful text (Text b) below. Since it is the same social situation, the same contextual configuration (Figure 7.1) applies to Text (b) here. With regard to text structure, we can see Paragraph I functioning as initiation. Paragraph II presents the writer's position in Sentence 4 which functions as a thesis statement or a topic sentence *Women should work outside their homes to face many difficulties concerning their own life with their families.* Paragraphs III, IV and V support the topic sentence (the writer's position). The final paragraph (IV) is a concluding paragraph, in which the writer summarises and evaluates his/her argument. Figure 7.3 below shows the text structure of unsuccessful Text (B).



### **Figure 7.3 : Structure of successful Text (B)**

#### **Paragraph I (sentences 1-3): Initiation**

1. Women are those humans whom any society rely on.
2. They are considered to be the most efficient persons who play a great role in society.
3. Since women have great roles in society, that is bringing up children and educate them, they are able to work effectively in any job outside their homes.

#### **Paragraph II (Sentences 4-6): Declaring position (Thesis statement or topic sentence)**

4. Women should work outside their homes to face many difficulties concerning their own life with their families.
5. They should work in order to acquire the essential knowledge which helps them in teaching their children the right behaviour they should follow.
6. And the last reason is by working women will be able to build up a strong personality since they face different kinds of people with different culture.

#### **Paragraph III. (Sentences 7-11): Supporting position**

7. Women should work to face different difficulties which arise during their upbringings in their family.
8. For example, difficulties concerning their behaviour they should do this or that because they are girls or women.
9. So this kind of difficulty will arise another dangerous difficulty which is related to their personalities.
10. So by work they are able to overcome this difficulty
11. and be a different person.

#### **Paragraph IV. (Sentences 12-14): Supporting position**

12. Another reason for letting women work is to acquire the essential knowledge which helps them to teach their children.
13. They will know the right way of teaching good morals since the children's age or adults' is an important issue to decide the right way of teaching or learning.
14. So work provides great knowledge and also experience to women.

#### **Paragraph V. (Sentences 15-17): Supporting position**

15. The last reason is building up women's personalities.
16. Since they work they will face different cultural people who will in a way or another, directly or indirectly affects women's personalities.
17. They become courageous, strong brave, well-educated, well organised and self confident.

#### **Paragraph VI. (Sentence 18): Summary and Evaluation**

18. Finally, I think women should have the chance to work outside their homes in order to let them face life difficulties easily and without problems.

Further, in the analysis of text structure, Hasan (1985/89) speaks about obligatory and optional elements contained in the text. In the above two texts, it appears that there is an optional element which is the initiation element (Paragraph I). It is possible for a student writer to begin his/her essay directly with a paragraph that states the topic sentence or the thesis statement. So, whether the first initiation

paragraph was included or not in the above texts, the structure of the text would be achieved, since the topic sentence is stated in the second paragraph, supported in the following paragraphs, and summarised and evaluated in the final paragraph.

*Is the same contextual configuration and text structure used in the EFL mini-corpus of unsuccessful texts?* In what follows, I shall analyse two texts selected randomly from the mini-corpus. First, here are the two texts:

#### Unsuccessful Text (A)

I think that a woman's place is only in the home. She has many responsibilities at home, that's why she is to stay in the home. She has to raise children and make out of them good ones. She has to look after her children when they are babies by feeding them, teaching them good morals as they grow older and older. By doing all of this, I believe, she is helping very much in having a good community. A woman teaches her boys to be brave men and teaches her daughters to be good wives and good mothers. On the other side we have the man's role out side the home. His responsibility is to work out side the home, bring the money, and look after the whole family. In some communities people are asking for freedom to women to go out side the home and share the man his work and his responsibilities. In these communities women, themselves, hate working and they wish to have a family and stay with children at home because they are bored with such a dark life.

#### Unsuccessful Text (B)

Womans place is in the home. I strongly believe in this because of capacity, society, and religion.

In my oponion woman is more capable to look after her familly than man, she can bring up her children goodly because god give her this ability and the ability to be the organizer of the familly. All these actions are suitable for woman and not for man because man is responsible for getting money and food for the familly but when woman goes out of her home and work instead of man something wrong happens in the life system.



Secondly the society reject the going out of women from their homes to work. This action leads to bad results and leads men to be jobless because women occupy their jobs.

Thirdly our religion says that women should stay in their homes to look after their families and in order to protect her self from the bad persons because she is capable only for one job which is looking after her family.

In conclusion I say that women are challenging nature and religion in their going out of their homes to work. I see that homes are the suitable places of them.

*What about the elements of the contextual configuration in the unsuccessful texts? Are they represented in the texts above?* Let us see. With respect to field, the writers appear to present their topic throughout their texts, though not as clearly and successfully as the writers of the texts in Figures 7.2 and 7.3 above. For example, in the first text (Figure 7.4), the writer is saying that women should stay at home; however, s/he does not seem to develop the argument fully. S/he is only stating one reason why women should stay at home. S/he is saying that women should stay at home because they are needed to look after their children.

As for tenor, the participants are a student and a tutor, the student as a writer and the tutor as an audience. As noted above, since there is some familiarity between a student and his/her tutor, the social distance is supposed to be minimal. However, as we have noted above, when it comes to process sharing, it appears that the tutor in this particular writing task was remote until the product was finished. No discussions or peer conferences took place during the process of writing.

As regards mode, it appears that both writers failed to consider this respect. First, the language in the two essays should be constitutive, in the sense that the argument in the texts should be developed properly. Instead, the argument,



especially in the text in Figure 7.4, is not sufficiently supportive to the writer's position. As for the second element of mode, the channel used by the writers of the two texts is graphic and visual. However, the medium used in developing these texts is not seen as typically and characteristically written; as noted in the texts, there are some spoken characteristics such as the frequent use of the modal adjuncts: *I believe, I think, I see, and In my opinion.*

However, with respect to text structure, the case seems to be somewhat different. First, as is seen above, unsuccessful Text (A) does not seem to have paragraphing. The whole essay is written in one paragraph. However, examining the text carefully, we can identify boundaries which may indicate some kind of text structure. Sentence 1 appears to function as a thesis statement, in which the writer appears to state his/her position. Sentences 2-11 form the middle of the essay, where we can see the writer supporting his/her topic sentence and defending his/her position. Finally Sentences 12-14 seem to function as a conclusion for the essay, in which the writer tries to evaluate his/her argument above.

**Figure 7.4: Text structure of Unsuccessful Text (A)**

**Sentence 1: Thesis statement and declaring position**

1. I think that a woman's place is only in the home.

**Sentences 2-11: Supporting position**

2. She has many responsibilities at home

3. that's why she is to stay in the home.

4. She has to raise children

5. and make out of them good ones.

6. She has to look after her children when they are babies by feeding them, teaching them good morals as they grow older and older.

7. By doing all of this, I believe, she is helping very much in having a good community.

8. A woman teaches her boys to be brave men

9. and teaches her daughters to be good wives and good mothers.

10. On the other side we have the man's role out side the home.

11. His responsibility is to work out side the home, bring the money, and look after the whole family.

**Sentences 12-14: Conclusion and evaluation**

12. In some communities people are asking for freedom to women to go out side the home and share the man his work and his responsibilities.

13. In these communities women, themselves, hate working

14. and they wish to have a family and stay with children at home because they are bored with such a dark life.

As regards the second unsuccessful text (Figure 7.5 below), Paragraph I appears to introduce the topic sentence and state the writer's position. In the second, third and fourth paragraphs, the writer supports his/her topic sentence and defends his/her position. In the concluding paragraph (Paragraph V), the writer summarises and evaluates his/her argument.

**Figure 7.5 : Structure of Unsuccessful Text (B)**

**Paragraph I (Sentences 1-2): Introducing topic sentence and declaring position**

1. Womans place is in the home.
2. I strongly believe in this because of capacity, society, and religion.

**Paragraph II. (Sentences 3-6): Supporting position**

3. In my oponion woman is more capable to look after her familly than man,
4. she can bring up her children goodly because god give her this ability and the ability to be the organizer of the familly.
5. All these actions are suitable for woman and not for man because man is responsible for getting money and food for the familly.
6. but when woman goes out of her home and work instead of man something wrong happens in the life system.

**Paragraph III. (Sentences 7-9): Supporting position**

7. Secondly the society reject the going out of women from their homes to work.
8. This action leads to bad results
9. and leads men to be jobless because women occupy their jobs.

**Paragraph IV. (Sentence 10): Supporting position**

10. Thirdly our religion says that women should stay in their homes to look after their families and in order to protect her self from the bad persons because she is capable only for one job which is looking after her familly.

**Paragraph V. (Sentences 11-12): Summary and Evaluation**

11. In conclusion I say that women are challenging nature and relegion in their going out of their homes to work.
12. I see that homes are the suitable places of them.

In sum, it would appear that Hasan's (1985/89) contextual configuration and text structure analysis has potential. It can to some extent be applied to indicate whether EFL writers consider the three elements of social context in their writing. It can also reveal how writers organise and structure their texts within the elements and sub-elements of contextual configuration: field, tenor, mode, language role, process sharing, channel and medium. This analysis can also reveal what optional or obligatory elements are used in text. For example, as we have noted above, the initiation element in argumentative essay writing is optional since a writer has the choice to start by introducing his topic sentence and stating his position. However, the other elements such as introducing the topic sentence, developing, and evaluating the argument are obligatory.



Another characteristic feature of the CC analysis is its potential to expose linguistic aspects as well as rhetorical aspects of spoken and written discourse. For example, through the examination of the channel and medium used in the texts, we could see how EFL students choose certain lexical and grammatical items in constructing their texts. While good writers appear to succeed in developing their texts, using written-oriented linguistic choices, poor students fail to do so. As noted above, they develop their texts using some spoken-oriented linguistic choices. Further, the analysis of the four texts above indicates how, unlike the unsuccessful texts, the two successful texts have clear boundaries of structure.

However, the application of the CC analytical framework does not appear to reveal many specific linguistic characteristics of written discourse. Therefore, there was a need to look for other analytical frameworks, which may have the potential to reveal different linguistic and rhetorical aspects of texts. Theme analysis, for instance, may be more comprehensive than the CC analysis, particularly in respect of revealing how texts are developed and constructed both locally and globally.

## **7.6 Conclusion**

As noted above, all the linguistic features which are considered in this study derive from systemic-functional analyses; although I used Hasan's analysis of contextual configuration and text structure to look at how EFL students structure their texts, it is the Theme system which forms the basis of this study. Both Davies's (1988b; 1997) and Berry's (1989; 1996) Theme analytical frameworks function as the foundation for the analytical framework used for the present study.

In what follows, I shall summarise the major findings of both analyses: the Theme and the CC and text structure.

With respect to the first constituent of Theme, it appears that EFL written texts both, successful and unsuccessful, are characterised by extensive use of pre-subject elements, used by writers as contextual frames. About 60% of the grammatical subjects of the main dependent clauses in the texts are preceded by textual, interpersonal or ideational elements. Although the distribution of such elements is similar in both mini-corpora of texts, what appears to distinguish successful texts from unsuccessful texts is the choice of these elements. While successful texts, for example, use a high percentage of conjunctive adjuncts and sub-ordinators, unsuccessful texts use more co-ordinators such as the conjunctions *and* and *but*.

The second constituent of Theme is represented by the grammatical subject of the main, independent clause. These constituents were analysed with reference to the extent to which they contributed to continuity and progression of text. According to the findings of the analysis, successful texts appear to use more topical Themes related to the discourse topic than unsuccessful texts. While good EFL student writers develop their texts choosing about 81% of their topical Themes related to the discourse topic, poor EFL student writers choose 60% of their topical Themes related to the main discourse topic. This indicates that successful texts have more continuity, more progression and more cohesion than unsuccessful texts.

One of the main characteristics of EFL texts is the obvious use of the ‘hedging’ expressions that indicate *perspective* or *opinion*. Examples of these expressions are *I think that*, *I believe that*, *In my opinion*, *some people think that*, ..etc. Such expressions are believed to mark “a generalised or uncertain presentation of

information” (Biber, 1988: 106). The nature of topic assigned to the EFL students could be the motif behind which these expressions are scattering here and there in the texts. It is a topic, which, in this specific cultural context, requires or motivates students to expose their personal feelings and attitudes, but very carefully and cautiously.

Linguistic features such as the use of modals, as Biber (1988: 148) argues, “can be considered as overt markers of persuasion in one way or another.” Prediction and possibility modals, for instance, are believed to mark “the speaker’s (writer’s) own assessment of likelihood or advisability.” (ibid: 148). In attempting to persuade his/her addressee, the writer or speaker uses necessity modals such as *should* or *must*. Necessity modals can signify or show that particular “events are desirable” (ibid: 148).

In the EFL written texts, there appears to be widespread use of modals in both mini-corpora of successful texts and unsuccessful texts. Further, in both mini-corpora, *necessity modals* constitute the major category. *Possibility modals* come second in use in both mini-corpora. And finally *prediction modals* come third in use.

According to Biber (1988: 107), subordination seems “to be associated with expression of information under real-time production constraints, when there is little opportunity to elaborate through precise lexical choice.” Halliday (1979), cited by Biber (1988), views subordination as associated with the constraints characteristic of speech. If this is true, then this indicates that non-native speakers of English (EFL writers in our context ) use extensive subordination either because they do not distinguish between speech and writing modes, or because they have problems with precise lexical choice, and hence they find it easier to use subordination. However, certain types of subordination such as conditional



and causative clauses mark an argumentative dimension of discourse. They are used in discourse to justify actions and beliefs. They “can be considered as markers of affect or stance” (Biber, 1988: 107), despite the fact that they are looked at as “associated with a relatively loose presentation of information”.

All the above characteristics or linguistic features prevailing in the writing of EFL students were arrived at through the Theme analysis. With respect to the global features which characterise EFL written texts, it was found through the use of Hasan’s analysis of the CC and text structure that EFL students, especially the ‘good’ ones, appear to be aware of the elements of the CC, and organisation and text structure. Examining four essays selected randomly from the EFL written texts of the present study revealed the following elements of text structure: (i) initiation, which is an optional element; (ii) Thesis statement, in which the writer declares his/her position; (iii) developing the thesis statement and supporting the writer’s position; and (iv) conclusion, in which the writer evaluates his/her position. Elements (ii), (iii) and (iv) are obligatory.

Although the analysis of EFL written texts in the present study appears to provide a broad picture of the characteristic features of EFL Arab students’ written essays and the nature of writing in EFL academic settings at tertiary levels, there may be a number of restrictions that might affect the generalisability of the findings reported above. For example, with regard to the sample of the study, it is clear that its size is relatively small (42 texts). Chapter Eight is concerned with a summary of the major findings of the first and second part of the present study. It also deals with further limitations, suggestions and recommendations worthy of attention by teachers and researchers.

## CHAPTER EIGHT

### CONCLUSION

#### 8.0 Introduction

This chapter is intended to present concluding remarks relating to the major findings of the present study, followed by implications, limitations and suggestions for future research. However, before this, a summary of the chapters comprising the thesis appears to be necessary.

Chapter One focused on the importance of literacy, and on writing in particular, as having the major role of conveying knowledge from one generation to another. It stressed the importance of the English Language as a global language, needed by academics, politicians and businessmen. The major part of the chapter is that which deals with the aims and questions of the present study. The study was designed to explore aspects of writing in EFL academic settings with reference to both process and product. The major goal was to answer two key questions: The first is: *What are the problems encountered by students of English as a Foreign Language when they are asked to write an essay on a particular topic in English?* The second question is: *How do EFL students choose formal aspects of the language to make meanings in their written texts?*

These two questions led to the question: *How best can we research the above questions?* which led to Chapters Two and Three.

Chapter Two reviewed the literature relating to three areas: the need to take account of student/tutor perceptions in researching writing, the writing process and acquisition of writing, and contrastive rhetoric and L2 writing. While the findings of the first area proved to be consistent in the sense that they all emphasised the role of eliciting what a language learner needs through



investigating teachers' and learners' perceptions of the language skills, the findings of both process and rhetoric studies were somewhat contradictory. For example, while a number of studies such as Cumming's (1989) concentrate on the importance of acquiring language proficiency skills in order for an L2 learner to write well, other studies such as Zamel's (1983) emphasised the importance of global skills. Further, while the findings of research in contrastive rhetoric focused on the negative effect of transferring organisational patterns from L1 to L2 (Kaplan, 1966, 1972; Ostler, 1987), the findings on ESL composing processes revealed that at certain points ESL students might be able to write better in L2 when using their first language in planning and generating their texts (Friedlander, 1989).

This variation and inconsistency in the findings, which may be attributed to variation in research methodology, led to the conclusion that the field of writing pedagogy is still short of both a comprehensive theory and model of writing. However, it would appear that the variation in the research findings and the limited theory have motivated some researchers such as Grabe and Kaplan (1996) to work towards a more comprehensive, integrated model of writing. This model is based on a taxonomy of skills and 'ethnography' of writing, which takes into consideration a number of factors such as the writing task, the setting for the writing task, participants and purpose. Linguistic, sociolinguistic, contextual and cognitive components are synthesised in the model.

Chapter Three was intended to answer the question stated above which is concerned with how best one can research the major questions of the present study. The principal research tool here was a survey questionnaire, the aim of which was to elicit EFL student and tutor perceptions of writing in EFL academic contexts, and to answer the first nine research questions posed in Section 1.4.1. In answer to Research Question 10 which investigated whether



student and tutor perceptions of the process and problems of writing are reflected in actual practices in EFL writing settings, a comparison of student and tutor perceptions and thoughts with actual texts was made. Although this particular method pointed to a certain degree of applicability, it appeared to point more towards the weakness of the methodology instrument. For example, while more than 50% of the students reported through the questionnaire that they usually outlined and made a draft for their writing, only 13.6% and 18.2% of their actual texts showed outlining and drafting practices, respectively. One aim of the questionnaire was to compare student beliefs about writing with their actual practice. The results strongly indicate that for this purpose the questionnaire was too blunt an instrument to yield productive data. It would appear that the use of observation and introspective methodology would have been better suited for this purpose. However, the answer to Question 10 did reveal a discrepancy between beliefs and practice. What was not clear is whether this discrepancy was a consequence of the particular writing task.

Chapter Four presented and discussed the findings which were arrived at through the survey analysis. The findings presented in this chapter relate to four major areas: the processes and strategies practised within EFL academic settings; the acquisition of writing and learning to write in L2; the teaching of writing in EFL academic settings; the areas and causes of L2 writing difficulty. A summary of these findings is presented in Section 8.1.1 below.

Chapter Five presented a review of Theme analysis within Halliday's (1985/94) model, which forms the basis for other analytical frameworks of Theme. It focused on the concept of Theme and the different positions taken by systemic-functional linguists. Further, this chapter discussed questions raised about Halliday's Theme analysis: the function, definition and identification of Theme.

Alternative Theme analytical frameworks emerging from Halliday's approach to Theme analysis were also presented. Davies's (1988b and 1997) different types of Theme (CFTs and TTs), as well as Berry's (1996) consideration of extending the boundary of Theme to include the auxiliary and lexical verb, were discussed in detail. They were found to be useful for analysis, especially, as noted in Chapters Six and Seven, in their potential, on the one hand, to show how writers choose grammatical and lexical items to construct their texts, and on the other, to discriminate between successful texts and unsuccessful texts.

Chapter Six is an extension of Chapter Five in the sense that it focuses mainly on Theme analysis. Following a demonstration of how the texts of the present study were evaluated by three raters, and classified into two mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts, the principles of the Theme analytical framework, which was used in the analysis of the sample texts of the present study, were outlined.

Chapter Seven presented and discussed the findings of three text analyses: lexical density, Theme, and contextual configuration and text structure. Although the analysis of lexical density and the CC and text structure pointed to general features of EFL written texts, the Theme analysis proved to have the potential to reveal more characteristic features of EFL student writing and it appeared to serve as a discriminator of successful and unsuccessful texts. A summary of the major findings of text analysis is presented in Section 8.1.2 below.



## **8.1 Review of major findings**

The findings of the present study were presented and discussed in detail in Chapters Four and Seven. In what follows, I shall summarise these findings under two sections: Section 8.1.1 which deals with the findings relating to aspects of process in EFL student writing, and Section 8.1.2 which deals with the findings relating to aspects of product.

### **8.1.1 Aspects of process in EFL student writing**

The findings summarised in this section relate to EFL student and tutor perceptions of writing in EFL academic settings. As regards the processes and strategies practised within writing classrooms, according to both students' and tutors' perceptions elicited through both 'closed' and 'open-ended' questions of the survey questionnaire, it appears that the student writers fail to utilise a number of writing strategies which are widely believed to be of importance within the process model of writing, since they are hypothesised to contribute to better written products (Flower and Hayes, 1980, 1981; Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987). These strategies include outlining/planning, drafting and collaboration. With regard to the first two strategies, further investigation of the sample texts confirmed that EFL students appeared to disregard the potential of outlining and drafting during the process of writing. As regards collaboration, which is emphasised by researchers in process writing (Mangelsdorf, 1992; Mittan, 1989), it was also found that students in EFL writing classrooms rarely discuss their writing with others. Peer conferences and talking through ideas with one another are almost absent in such contexts. This contrasts with the findings of Davies and Forey (1996) who report that 82.2% of managers writing key documents, choose to collaborate in writing and 77.4% have their documents edited.



However, EFL students appear to make use of other important strategies such as revising and editing their written texts. The strategies which are regarded as a "significant part of the writing process" (Murray, 1978: 86) do appear to be carried out during student writing. In addition to the findings revealed through the data collected in the survey, further examination of the student written texts indicates that such strategies are quite widely employed. However, it remains to say something about EFL student writers' concerns while revising and drafting their writing. With respect to revising, the findings of the survey analysis indicate that EFL student writers give more attention to local aspects of writing such as grammar, vocabulary and spelling than to global aspects of writing, such as content and organisation of text. However, this appears to depend on whether it is an initial or a final draft. Students, as noted above, appear to rarely practise drafting activities; however, when they do so, their concerns in initial drafts appear to differ from those in a final draft. In initial drafts, students give more focus to content than to form.

With respect to beliefs about the acquisition of writing and learning to write in a second language, there are a number of issues to discuss in this context. The first issue relates to how EFL students and tutors perceive writing in EFL academic settings. According to the findings revealed through the survey questionnaire in Chapter Four, writing is believed to be a cognitive process, where several mental and thinking activities such as planning, generating and developing ideas, as well as recursive activities like revising, take place. However, at the same time, EFL students and their tutors regard writing as a mechanical process. They think that practising writing, and exposure to authentic model texts written by professionals may help motivate students to acquire L2 writing skills, and thus improve their written products (Murray, 1984; Matsuhashi and Gordon, 1985; Hamp-Lyons and Heasley, 1987; Chen, 1997).

The second issue, which relates to the findings addressing Research Questions 3 and 4, is concerned with the role of writing skills in the mother tongue in helping students write more easily in a second language. The findings in this respect are striking. Both EFL students and their tutors share the belief that good command of writing skills in the native language makes it rather easier to write in a second language. This may be true, providing that a writer has acquired a good knowledge of L2 linguistic and rhetorical skills. This finding is supported by research in the field of writing pedagogy. It is argued that language learners may "tend to transfer aspects of their first language" (Friedlander, 1989: 23) such as writing strategies to their second language (Mohan and Lo, 1985; Jones and Tetroe, 1987).

The third issue relating to beliefs about the acquisition of second language writing is concerned with the potential of strategies such as outlining/planning, revising and editing, to contribute to the quality of texts written by EFL students. As noted above, it was found that student writers do not usually outline their ideas, plan for their writing on paper, or make a draft. Nevertheless, both students and tutors view these strategies, as well as revising and editing, as essential practices within the process of writing.

The findings which relate to the teaching of writing in EFL academic contexts are concerned with the skills and aspects of writing which student writers believe they need from the EFL writing courses offered at their universities. According to the findings presented in Section 4.1.5 and discussed in Section 4.2.5, students expect their writing courses to provide them with both local and global skills for L2 writing. Amongst the local skills needed are those relating to language proficiency such as the correct choice of lexis and syntax, spelling and

punctuation. Amongst the global writing skills needed are those relating to the organisation and structure of text, and coherence of text. Students view low-level and global tuition as inseparable. This was reflected again when both students and tutors were asked about the areas of difficulty encountered in academic writing contexts.

The findings reported in Chapter Seven point to three types of difficulty facing EFL students when they write an essay in English: the first type relates to language proficiency skills, the second to discoursal and rhetorical skills, and the third relates to writing process skills, or to the strategies involved in the writing process.

In their responses to the closed and open-ended questions raised about writing problems in the survey questionnaire and informal interviews, both students and their tutors consistently confirmed their belief that lack of second language proficiency skills impedes writing in the target language. Amongst the linguistic skills reported to cause student writing problems are skills relating to vocabulary, grammar, spelling and punctuation. As for the second type of problem encountered by EFL student writers, it was found that there were two categories: the first relating to generating ideas, developing arguments, and organisation, structure and coherence of text, and the second relating to context, purpose and audience.

However, it is worth mentioning that although both students and tutors agree that both types of problem relating to linguistic and rhetorical skills exist in EFL academic contexts, students appear to regard linguistic skills as more



problematic than rhetorical skills. In contrast, tutors view their student writing as lacking coherence, development and argumentation, which suggests that they believe that rhetorical skills pose more problems in EFL student written texts than linguistic skills. However, this may be an assumption which is not borne out by reality. Furthermore, it may not be possible to separate linguistic from rhetorical issues. It would appear that the findings again reflect the importance of all these elements in writing. As pointed out by Grabe and Kaplan (1996), linguistic, social, cognitive, contextual and rhetorical components are inseparable. They are not all needed in the process of writing, but are inevitably interdependent.

The last type of problem in EFL writing settings relates to the writing process itself. As noted above, students find difficulty in carrying out strategies recommended within writing process models. For example, the relative infrequency of outlining and planning for writing, and the scarcity of making initial and final drafts may arise from a general lack of confidence.

In a further investigation, it was found that difficulty in L2 student writing is ascribed to a number of causes. The lack of second language command (vocabulary and grammar) and differences in rhetorical conventions of both L1 and L2 are strongly agreed by students and tutors to be the major causes of difficulty in L2 student writing. Other factors believed to give rise to writing problems are: different organisational and cultural thought patterns of students' mother tongue and their second language, and different systems of L1 and L2. Further, it may be argued that students tend to transfer linguistic, rhetorical and cultural features of their native language to the target language in which they

write, English in this particular context (Kaplan, 1966, Kharma, 1985, Shakir, 1991).

Additionally, the findings revealed that there are other factors which may affect EFL students' performance in writing. For example, one of these factors may be related to the way writing is taught in EFL academic settings. Participants in the present study report that writing is still taught in the traditional product-oriented method. Many teachers of L2 writing are still more concerned about accuracy and local aspects than about discoursal and global aspects of their student writing. The lack, or sometimes the absence, of certain process writing activities and strategies such as outlining, drafting and conferences may affect student writing performance.

Further, in the present study, students raised an important issue relating to types of writing taught in EFL academic contexts. It appears that the most common focus in such writing contexts is on argumentative types of writing. Other types of writing which are vital for students in the workplace are almost neglected. Students would like their writing courses to teach them how to write a business letter, a memo, a report, etc. This finding reflects EFL students' growing awareness of genre. However, at the present it appears that the writing courses fail to develop this awareness.

### **8.1.2 Aspects of product in EFL student writing**

This section summarises the findings of Research Questions 10-12. The findings which address Research Question 10 relate to both parts of the present study. As noted above, the question is concerned with whether EFL student and tutor perceptions of the writing process and acquisition of writing are actually



reflected in the writing task. As regards the writing process, it was found, through the examination of a sample of texts written by EFL students, that a number of strategies are not exploited fully by writers. Strategies such as outlining for writing and making a draft appear to be neglected in EFL settings. The findings reported here point more towards the weakness of the research instrument, i.e. the comparison of thoughts and perceptions with texts. As indicated above, the results were inconsistent. While about half of the students reported to some extent carrying out drafting and outlining strategies, a few texts revealed such practices.

However, other research instruments based on functional grammar, such as the analysis of lexical density, the Theme analysis and the CC and text structure analysis proved applicable. The findings of the analysis of lexical density, for instance, pointed, to some extent, to the problems of EFL students with vocabulary. It was found that both mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts have more grammatical items than lexical items. This finding may indicate that these texts tend to be more spoken- than written-oriented (Halliday, 1989). However, the lexical density analysis did not prove to be a good way of distinguishing successful from unsuccessful texts, which was one of the major aims of the present study. The mean lexical density of both mini-corpora of texts was almost the same (6.5 per clause). The question arises here: Do other functional analyses have more potential than the lexical density analysis to reveal more characteristic features of EFL writing, and at the same time distinguish 'good' writers from 'poor' writers?

The findings which address Research Questions 11 and 12 relate to the thematic analysis of EFL written texts. As indicated in the questions and aims of the study, the Theme analysis was intended to (i) explore how EFL students use the



language to make meaning and construct text, and (ii) distinguish more successful from less successful texts.

As noted above, the Theme analytical framework which was used in the present study is based on Davies's (1988b, 1997), and Berry's (1989, 1996) modification of Halliday's analysis of Theme. In the analytical framework, I included as part of Theme four elements: (i) pre-subject constituents which is referred to as Contextual Frame Themes (Davies, 1988b, 1997; Gosden, 1993 and 1997), (ii) Grammatical Subjects of the main dependent clause, or Subject/Topical Themes (Davies, 1988b, 1997; Gosden, 1993 and 1997), (iii) post-subject, pre-verb constituents (Berry, 1989, 1996), and (iv) verbs, auxiliary and lexical (Berry, 1996). In what follows I will summarise the main findings of the Theme analysis with reference to the four constituents.

Let us first summarise the findings related to the Theme analysis. With respect to the first constituent of Theme, it was found that EFL students *frequently* use pre-subject, sentence-initial elements in this particular writing task. This feature appears to characterise both min-corpora of texts under investigation; 58.4% and 62.3% of the main independent clauses in the successful and unsuccessful texts, respectively, start with pre-subject elements, functioning as Contextual Frame Themes (Davies, 1988b and 1997).

In both mini-corpora of texts, it was also found that these CFTs express three kinds of Theme as follows: in the successful and unsuccessful texts, respectively, 52.9% and 52% of the CFTs were textual; 25.6% and 25% were ideational; and 21.5% and 23% were interpersonal. The textual Themes in pre-subject position were distributed as follows: 58.2% and 70% were conjunctions (co-ordinators); and 40.8% and 30% were conjunctive adjuncts

According to the above findings, although both mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts appear to have similar proportions of CFTs as sentence-initial elements, what appears to distinguish EFL 'successful' writers from 'unsuccessful' writers is the quality of choice of these CFTs. With respect to textual Themes, for instance, 'successful' writers appear to use conjunctive adjuncts more frequently than 'unsuccessful' writers. By contrast, 'unsuccessful' writers appear to use conjunctions more frequently than 'successful' writers. This finding indicates that 'unsuccessful' writers tend to use more co-ordination than subordination (Table 7.8 (a) above).

Further, as regards pre-subject sentence-initial elements which function interpersonally, although it was found that both mini-corpora of texts, as noted above, have almost the same proportion of interpersonal Themes, it appears that 'successful' writers differ from 'unsuccessful' writers in respect of the choice of types of interpersonal elements used in their texts. As noted in Section 7.3.1.4 above, 'successful' writers employ more modal adjuncts and fewer reader-writer voices than 'unsuccessful' writers. This may indicate that the unsuccessful writers tend to produce more spoken-oriented texts, because of the frequent use of reader-writer voices such as *I think*, *I believe*, and *in my view* (Biber, 1988).

Additionally, further investigation of the projecting clauses which are used in sentence-initial position revealed that EFL unsuccessful writers use 'low-rank' projecting clauses such as *I think that* and *I believe that* which indicate the writer's high *visibility* in text (Davies, 1988b). By contrast, 'successful' writers tend to use 'high-rank' projecting clauses such as *It is obvious that* and *The sad case is that* which indicate the writer's invisibility (Davies, 1988b). This finding may reflect the 'successful' writers' awareness of the generic conventions used in academic writing.

As regards the second constituent of Theme, 41.6% of the successful texts and 37.7% of the unsuccessful texts had the grammatical subjects (GSs) chosen by EFL writers as sentence-initial elements, i.e. as points of departure for their independent clauses. However, as we have noted above, whether used initially or preceded by a CFT, the GS is regarded in the present study as realising a topical Theme. In tracing topical Themes in both mini-corpora of texts, it was found that 'successful' writers use more topic-related Themes than 'unsuccessful' ones (81% and 60%, respectively). This finding indicates that the EFL successful texts show more continuity and progression than unsuccessful texts.

With respect to the third constituent, both mini-corpora of successful and unsuccessful texts had a small percentage of post-subject pre-verb elements (5.5% and 4.2%, respectively). In both mini-corpora, most of these elements realise ideational meaning.

The fourth and last constituent included as part of Theme in this analysis is the verb, both auxiliary and lexical. As regards lexical verbs, these were analysed for transitivity processes. Most of the verbs in both mini-corpora of texts expressed relational processes (48.4% and 45.5%), followed by material processes (38.3% and 41.9%), and mental processes (7.9% and 6.8%).

On the other hand, modal auxiliary verbs were also used extensively in the EFL student written texts. 36.6% and 30% of the lexical verbs in successful and unsuccessful texts, respectively, were accompanied by modals. Modals expressing obligation were most common in both mini-corpora, followed by possibility, and then prediction modals.



We have noted how the analysis of Theme which was carried out at clause level revealed EFL students' choices in making meanings in their texts. In a further investigation, Hasan's (1989) contextual configuration and text structure was used to see how students develop their texts globally. The findings indicated that successful texts were better structured at text level than unsuccessful texts. While most of the successful texts were developed using the structure: initiation - topic sentence - elaboration and support - conclusion and evaluation, only a small portion of the unsuccessful texts showed this structure of text. Most of the unsuccessful texts lacked good paragraphing and organisation of text. Time constraints allowed only the superficial analysis of the CCs of a limited number of texts. The results did suggest that this form of analysis has potential.

### **8.3 Discussion**

As noted above, the findings of the study suggest aspects of writing worthy of attention by teachers and deserving further research. In what follows, I shall explore some suggestions and implications that the findings seem to support.

In the process of writing, for instance, many useful strategies seem to be ignored in EFL academic settings. In writing classes, both at school and university levels, there appears to be a case for encouraging students to adopt and practise basic activities in writing such as collaboration and peer conferences, outlining ideas on paper, making initial and final drafts, revising and editing.

The present study provides evidence for something which writing researchers and practitioners in academic arenas are becoming increasingly conscious of; it is the assumption that writing is a recursive process that requires a writer to perform a number of activities simultaneously during the writing process. This suggests that more attention needs to be given to the idea that writing is a

mental process that requires a writer to use his/her thinking skills in developing topics. Recursive activities such as rewriting, correcting, revising and editing student written products may help to raise awareness if they are encouraged to take place at the same time of the composing process. Some students in the present study appear to be aware of the potential of outlining, drafting, revising, editing and re-scanning of their written products. However, they seem to fail to exploit some of these strategies.

Furthermore, the change of focus from initial drafts to final drafts should be taken into account. In initial drafts, students are required to pay more attention to content and organisation of their text. In the final draft, however, a shift in emphasis may take place; more attention and concern may be given to linguistic and mechanical aspects of written language such as grammar, vocabulary, spelling, capitalisation and punctuation.

The findings also suggest that both bottom-up and top-down skills are interrelated, integrated, and simultaneously needed for enhancing student writing. Although the students appear to concern themselves very much with language proficiency and local skills such as grammar, vocabulary and spelling, which are possibly needed to help them flow in their writing, discoursal and rhetorical practices are also to be considered. Tutors in the survey strongly indicated that thinking and rhetorical skills cause EFL students a great deal of difficulty. The evidence from the rating and analysis of texts, however, suggests that these students come to the writing task with well-established rhetorical skills and a good knowledge of the basic structure of argument. Raters, for instance, evaluated positively the development and organisation of student essays. This was also supported by the analysis of the contextual configuration and text structure, which was undertaken in the second part of the present study. This analysis revealed that students were able to develop their arguments,

following a text structure of initiation, declaration of position, supporting, and then evaluating position. The evidence from the study suggests that students come to the writing task with rhetorical knowledge, but are impeded by language problems.

There were also findings which point to aspects of writing deserving more attention from tutors of writing in EFL academic settings. These include the use of authentic materials, and the exposure to various types and genres of writing. Both student and tutor participants in the present study feel that EFL students need exposure to authentic materials of the target language. They feel the need for more exposure to writing patterns and models written by professionals. This may help students both linguistically, through exposure to new vocabulary and grammatical structures, and rhetorically, through learning how professional writers present their ideas and develop their arguments.

Further, the participants, students in particular, express their need for various types and genres of writing to be taught in writing classes. This, they think, will help them in the workplace in the future. And since the question of training for writing in the workplace is increasingly receiving attention (Berry, 1989; Davies and Forey, 1996; Davies, Forey and Hyatt, in press), both schools and universities need to review what is being provided to students in the writing classrooms. Training students for writing in the future workplace should become a priority.

The present study indicates that the task for writing teachers, or language teachers in general, is not simply to pinpoint or comment on problems of student writing, but to try to help students overcome writing difficulty and discomfort. Inevitably, the effort is somewhat greater than that required to assign a topic to students to write on.



The findings of the present study also have potentially important consequences for the place of transfer in EFL writing. EFL tutors believe that their students transfer certain linguistic characteristics, rhetorical conventions and organisational patterns of Arabic when they are asked to write about a particular topic in the target language, English, in the classroom. For example, they believe that the extensive use of co-ordination in the EFL written texts is attributed to L1 (Arabic) linguistic and rhetorical structure, where there is overuse of parallel constructions through the use of repetition and the use of the conjunctions. Arab students are believed to transfer such constructions from L1 to L2. This may be true, since it is indicated, in the thematic analysis of the sample texts written by EFL students in the present study, that there is a widespread use of co-ordination by means of *and* in particular and by means of *but*, *then* and *so* in general. However, this does not mean that this kind of structure is predominant. The same analysis revealed a considerable use of subordination in the texts. For example, in the mini-corpus of successful texts, about 14% of the sentence-initial elements, other than subject or verb, in thematic position were subordinators.

That Arab students transfer some linguistic and rhetorical patterns of Arabic to their writing in English may be true. However, this does not mean that their written products in English, as claimed by tutors, lack organisation and argumentativeness. On the contrary, the EFL written texts analysed in the second part of the present study show a clear awareness level of organisation and argumentation. As noted above, the three raters who rated the texts holistically viewed the texts as acceptably organised and appropriately argumentative. While the raters gave a high evaluation of the organisation and structure of texts written by our students, they believed that the problem of the texts resides in the grammar and word choice. By contrast, the tutors surveyed

in the study may be simply presenting the *orthodox* view of research conducted in the area of contrastive rhetoric (Kaplan, 1966, 1972; Dudley-Evans and Swales, 1980; Ostler, 1987; Kharma, 1985; Al-Jubouri, 1984).

For example, Kaplan (1972) gives us an example of how Arabic prefers co-ordinated forms to subordinated forms. He claims that in Arabic the following two sentences: *The boy was here. He drank the milk* are preferred in the co-ordinated form: *The boy was here, and he drank the milk*, whereas in English, they are preferred semantically subordinated as they are originally written as two sentences, or grammatically subordinated as in: *Milk was drunk by the boy who was here*. My own observation is that Arabic prefers these two sentences subordinated in one of two ways: either *When the boy was here, he drank the milk* or *The boy who was here drank the milk*. Further, although Arabic prefers not to use the agent (doer) in the passive constructions, it is, however, acceptable to say *The milk was drunk by the boy who was here*. Thus, in either of the three ways above, the two sentences are preferably subordinated in Arabic. It is beginner and weak writers in Arabic, I think, who prefer co-ordination in their writing because they find it easier to use than subordination, as is the case for beginner writers in other languages. If we examine Hasan's (1985) texts which were written by English-native beginning writers in English, we can note extensive use of the co-ordinator *and*. Further, the findings of EFL text analysis of the present study reveal that the unsuccessful group of writers use much more co-ordination and much less subordination than do the successful group. Researchers in contrastive rhetoric ascribe this problem to the influence of L1 (Kaplan, 1966; Ostler, 1980; Kharma, 1985). They argue that Arab students transfer linguistic and rhetorical conventions of the Arabic Language to L2. Of these conventions are the extensive use of repetition and co-ordination which is believed to cause parallelism in writing.



However, it should be emphasised here that writing in Arabic is not always developed through repetition and parallelism. In both classical and modern Arabic, we may find many examples of written texts which are developed linearly with little, or no, repetition or parallelism. Holes (1995) refutes the claim that Arabic written texts, whether argumentative or narrative, are characterised by repetition and parallelism. He argues that "this claim seems an overstatement...[for] there have been periods in Arabic literary history when genres of writing involving 'argumentation' have come to the fore, but in which repetition and periphrastic parallelism were hardly used at all" (Holes, 1995: 272).

#### 8.4 Summary

It would appear that current research is based on the implicit assumption that from a cognitive point of view, linguistic skills, such as vocabulary and grammar, and rhetorical skills, such as organisation and text structure, are separable factors or separable schemata. The findings of the present study indicate that these factors are integrated. This appears to reflect Grabe and Kaplan's (1996) integrative model of writing, which builds upon the notion of language competence, which requires the interdependency of linguistic, sociolinguistic and discoursal components. EFL student writers perceive such components as inseparable. Students appear to want both *low-level* and *global* tuition to help them write better. Unlike reading, which seems to be initiated at least by *low-level* or *bottom-up* processing, writing might be predicted to be more *top-down*. Thus, we may predict that, in writing, initial considerations will be *global*, and that the writer will have to simultaneously give attention to the *ideational* and the *interpersonal* elements and meanings. However, the minute drafting starts, or even before, *bottom-up* elements - words and grammar- will come to the fore, first in the *mind*, but sooner or later, on the *page*. "And the



minute the first words appear on the page, the textual component will be activated. And from then on all three components - ideational, interpersonal and textual - will have to be managed" (Davies, personal communication).

Unlike reading, where the textual component is given and ready on the page, and the only task for the reader therefore is to interpret the words - which is certainly complex - writing is, however, a more complicated process since it requires activating the three components together - the ideational and interpersonal which are responsible for content and rhetorical organisation, and the textual which is responsible for producing the words. In a second language, it might be predicted that the ideational and interpersonal capacities should transfer from L1 to L2. For example, in the case of the ideational component, the learner may have the knowledge, but not the words - the textual component - to express it. Further, the interpersonal may be subject to cultural influences, though not so much as to make communication seriously difficult; again, as noted from the findings of the study, the textual component which is realised by words and grammar, will be seen as central by second language learners and will cause the greatest difficulty.

So what does this indicate? It indicates that, in both L1 and L2, the relationship between the textual elements, and ideational and interpersonal elements is one of interdependency. For the writing task, the writer needs both low-level, linguistic aspects - words and grammar, and global, rhetorical schemata - content, organisation and text structure. This may lead us to the conclusion that it is not only the actual physical/cognitive process of writing which is recursive, as demonstrated by Flower and Hayes (1981), but also the access to schemata - textual, ideational and interpersonal - is recursive, unconstrained, interdependent and integrative.

As noted above, I undertook different types of analysis to investigate, on the one hand, what characterises EFL student written texts, and on the other, what distinguishes 'good' writers from 'poor' ones. All of the analytical frameworks - the lexical density, the Theme, and the Contextual Configuration and text structure appeared to yield useful data. For example, the lexical density analysis revealed the EFL students' problem with lexical items, which may expose their writing as more spoken-oriented than written-oriented. The findings reflected one of the EFL students' perceptions that they suffer from limited vocabulary, which impedes their writing performance.

The Theme analysis did prove to be a discriminator of successful and unsuccessful texts. For instance, it revealed how EFL student writers use extensive pre-subject initial elements as Contextual Frames (Davies, 1988b and 1997). Through a further investigation of the pre-subject elements, it was found that 'good' writers use CFTs different from those used by 'poor' writers. For instance, while the 'good' writers appear to use 'high-rank' projecting clauses such as *It is obvious that* and *One may argue that* in which the writer is less visible (Davies, 1988b), the 'poor' writers appear to use 'low-rank' projecting clauses, such as *I think that* and *I believe that*, in which the writer is highly visible. While the use of less visible writer's roles reflects 'good' student writers' awareness of generic conventions (academic writing in this context), the use of writer's more visible roles reflects the conventions of a spoken genre. Further, the investigation of Topical Themes revealed continuity and progression in EFL students' written texts. Successful texts appeared to have more topic-related Themes than unsuccessful texts. The findings elicited from the analysis of different types of Theme points to the importance of drawing the students' attention in academic writing settings to the appropriate choice of their CFTs and TTs.



Finally, the analysis of the CC and text structure also showed how EFL students structure their essays, using obligatory and optional elements of structure such as initiation, declaring position, supporting position and evaluating position. All these analytical frameworks which were used in the analysis of texts derive from systemic functional grammar.

The aim of a functional grammar is "to construct a grammar for purposes of text analysis: one that would make it possible to say sensible and useful things about any text, spoken or written, in modern English" (Halliday 1985/94: xv). Further, functional grammar helps text analysts "understand the quality of texts: why a text means what it does, and why it is valued as it is" (p. xxx). Indeed, the analytical frameworks used in the present study were of great help in understanding and revealing how EFL student writers express themselves and make meanings, the 'poor' ones as 'on their way' and the 'good' ones as 'getting there'.

It remains to say that the present study, like other research studies, has raised as many questions as it attempted to answer. The following are limitations of the present study:

With respect to the questionnaire completed by the sample of the present study, this was confined to 210 EFL students and 26 EFL tutors at two Jordanian government universities: The University of Jordan and Yarmouk University.

As regards interviews, they were informal, taking the form of face-to-face conversation. The number of interviewees was also limited, 10 students and 8 tutors.



As regards the corpus of texts used for Theme analysis in the present study, it (i) was a small sample limited in number: 42 texts divided into two mini-corpora (21 successful and 21 unsuccessful texts), (ii) is on a single topic (Should women stay at home or go out to work?), (iii) represents one genre (argumentative writing), (iv) is written in a restricted context (classroom), and (v) is written in a limited time (45 minutes).

As noted above, the size of the EFL text sample used for analysis in the present study was small. This will certainly affect its generalisability. Future research will require bigger sample sizes in order to reveal more precisely features of EFL writing, both at local and global levels. Further, along with a NNS corpus of texts, a corpus of native-speakers' written texts, which was not included in the present study, is required as a control. The latter set of texts may function as a normative group, providing comparative data. Further, the writing task assigned to the student writers of the present study represents a single genre, argumentative genre. Future research needs to include other genres, and to compare how EFL writers construct and develop their texts in various genres.

Other recommendations for future research relate to the research instruments used in the present study. As regards the first part of the present study, it appeared to be difficult to compare student beliefs with actual texts. Further, it appeared to be difficult to compare student perceptions to those of tutors. In their response to the question of areas and causes of difficulty encountered in student writing, student and tutor perceptions were inconsistent. Tutors seemed to be influenced by the findings of the current research, especially the research on contrastive rhetoric. It is suggested that in future research, either two comparative groups of students or two comparative groups of tutors are studied.

With respect to the findings of text analysis, although the analytical frameworks, the Theme analysis and the CC and text structure in particular, were effective in revealing characteristic features of EFL writing, other measures are also needed

for the analysis of appropriateness of vocabulary and grammatical acceptability. In the present study, a traditional word count and lexical density analysis were used. However, more compatible, sensitive and reliable measures of vocabulary and grammatical items based on the computerised concordance programmes are recommended for future research.

Finally, as regards the research undertaken in the field of writing, it would appear that most writing research, as indicated above, seems to be emerging from a deficit model. Consequently, we have noted the contradiction in the findings of writing research (Chapter Two). This may point to the need for a more developmental model of writing, to function as the nucleus of the research undertaken in the field. It is true that Grabe and Kaplan (1996) provide the foundation of a more comprehensive model of writing, which combines low-level and global, rhetorical components of writing, including linguistic, sociolinguistic and cognitive aspects. However, it would appear that the field of L2 is still short of a writing model. Therefore, it is suggested that future research should take this issue into consideration and work toward a developmental model of L2 writing, a model which combines aspects of process and product of writing, and integrates linguistic, bottom-up schemata such as words and grammar, and rhetorical, top-down schemata such as content, organisation of text. Such a model should also combine linguistic, social, cultural and ideological contexts to which the writer belongs and in which the act of writing takes place.



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APPENDIX A.1

EFL Student/Tutor Perceptions of Writing in Academic settings Questionnaire

(Student Version)

I. The Writing Process

Question 1. When you are required to write an essay about a certain topic in English, how often do you do the following? (Please tick in one of the boxes provided for each item.)

Strategies and practices during the process of writing	always	usually	sometimes	rarely	never
- outline your ideas on paper					
- outline your ideas in your mind					
- make a draft					
- revise and edit what you have written					
- talk through your ideas with a friend					
- write directly without outlining					

Question 2. During the process of writing, to what extent do you..... (Please tick in the relevant box. a.v.l. stands for a very large extent, and a.l. stands for a large extent.)

During the process of writing, I.....	To a v. l. extent	To a l. extent	To some extent	To a small extent	Not at all
- worry about grammar					
- worry about vocabulary					
- worry about spelling					
- worry about punctuation					
- concentrate more on ideas than on grammar, vocabulary, punctuation and spelling					
- take into consideration the purpose of my writing such as persuasion, description, etc.					
- spend a lot of time considering my reader					
- establish an audience (reader) for myself					
- re-scan what I have written for correcting grammar, vocabulary, spelling					
- re-scan what I have written to assess the fit between my initial plan and the final draft					
- re-read my final product to see how it sounds					

**Question 3.** If you make initial and final drafts, how much attention do you usually give the following? (Please indicate the attention you give by ticking in the relevant box.)

<b>3a. Initial Drafts</b>	<b>Substantial attention</b>	<b>much attention</b>	<b>some attention</b>	<b>a little attention</b>	<b>no attention at all</b>
- grammar					
- vocabulary					
- punctuation					
- capitalisation					
- spelling					
- structure and organisation of text					
- content (facts and ideas)					
- other (please specify):					

<b>3b. Final Draft</b>	<b>substantial attention</b>	<b>much attention</b>	<b>some attention</b>	<b>a little attention</b>	<b>no attention at all</b>
- grammar					
- vocabulary					
- punctuation					
- capitalisation					
- spelling					
-structure and organisation of text					
- content (facts and ideas)					
- other (please specify):					

**Question 4.** In revising and editing what you write, indicate the importance that you generally give to each of the following. (Please tick in the appropriate box.)

	<b>substantial attention</b>	<b>much attention</b>	<b>some attention</b>	<b>a little attention</b>	<b>no attention at all</b>
- grammar					
- vocabulary					
- punctuation					
- capitalisation					
- spelling					
- structure and organisation of text					
- content					
- other (please specify):					



**II. The nature of writing**

**Question 5.** Please respond to the following in terms of your perception of the nature of writing in an academic context: (Please tick in the boxes provided.)

	strongly agree	agree	disagree	strongly disagree	don't know
- writing is a mental process that involves developing ideas					
- writing is a mechanical process that requires the learning and application of simple rules					
- writing is a process during which a writer uses a number of strategies and activities such as revising and editing					
- writing is a negotiation with a known reader					
- writing is a strictly personal, private activity					
- writing is the most difficult skill amongst the four language skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing)					
- writing requires a comprehensive knowledge of vocabulary					
- writing is a process that is linguistically-demanding					
- writing requires a comprehensive knowledge of the rhetorical conventions and organisational patterns of a language					
writing is a laborious, painful process that requires deep concentration					
- writing is, to some extent, problem solving					
- writing becomes more complicated and more problematic in a foreign language					
- writing is a negotiation with a range of different readers					
- writing is one's own self-expression					
- writing requires a good knowledge of the cultural thought patterns of a language					
- other (please specify) :					

**Question 6:** In your own perception, how much trouble does each of the following modes cause you when writing ? (Please tick in one of the boxes provided for each item.)

Mode of Writing	enormous trouble	much trouble	some trouble	a little trouble	no trouble
- argumentation					
- description					

**III. Learning to Write and Acquiring Competence**

**Question 7:** Please respond to the following assumptions about learning to write in a foreign language:    *( For each item, please tick in one of the boxes provided.)*

Assumptions about learning to write in a foreign language	strongly agree	agree	disagree	strongly disagree	don't know
- exposure to “models” of writing may help learners to write better					
- pattern practice may provide a meaningful context for learning how to write well					
- some people are born with a special ability that helps them write easily in any particular language					
- as soon as a learner has acquired a good knowledge of grammar and vocabulary in a certain language, he can easily write in that language					
- it is easy for someone who writes well in their native language to learn how to write well in a foreign language after they have acquired its grammar and vocabulary					
- exposure to authentic, cultural materials may increase student motivation to learn how to write better in the target language					
- writing in a foreign language is basically a matter of translating from the first language					
- planning, editing and revising writing in a foreign language contribute to the quality of the written text that an L2 learner produces					

**IV. The Areas of Difficulty**

**Question 8:** Please respond to the following in terms of difficulty you have when you write an essay in English. *(Please tick in the relevant box.)*

When I am given an assigned topic to write about, I have <i>difficulty</i> .....	always	usually	sometimes	rarely	never
- writing grammatically correct sentences					
- choosing the right word(s) to use					
- expressing my ideas effectively					
- using correct punctuation					
- using correct capitalisation					
- using correct spelling					
- developing my ideas					
- generating ideas for my writing topic					
- developing arguments					
- putting my ideas together so that my writing becomes coherent.					
- putting my ideas together so that my writing makes sense to my reader					
- using logical cohesive devices such as "for example," "however," "therefore," etc.					
- using transition devices such as "first," "second, finally," etc.					
- organising my ideas to construct logically-sequenced and properly-organised paragraphs and essays.					
- ordering the different sections of paragraphs, i.e., what comes at the beginning and what comes in the conclusion.					
- other (please specify)					

**Question 9:** To what extent do you think the following factors may cause you difficulty when you write in English? ( Please tick in the appropriate box)

Factors causing difficulty	to a very large extent	to a large extent	to some extent	not at all	don't know
- lack of vocabulary					
- lack of language command					
- different cultural thought patterns of your mother language and English					
- different organisational patterns of your mother language and English					
- different systems of your mother language and English					
- other (please specify)					



**V. The Teaching of Writing**

**Question 10:** In your own view, how much attention do language tutors (instructors) of writing usually pay to the following writing components in students' writing ?  
*(Please tick in the relevant box.)*

writing components	much	some	a little	none	unsure
- content (facts and ideas)					
- structure and organisation of text					
- grammar					
- vocabulary (word choice)					
- punctuation					
- capitalisation					
- spelling.					
- other (please specify)					

**Question 11:** One of the purposes of your writing courses is to help prepare you for the writing you have to do in your other courses. Please circle the number below that best represents your feelings about how well your writing courses have prepared you for the writing you do in the other courses.

4

Very well

3

Well

2

Adequately

1

Not very well

0

Not well at all

**Question 12:** What would you like the writing course(s) to provide you with?

**Question 13:** Do you have any other comments you would like to make on anything about writing in English?

*I hope you have enjoyed completing this questionnaire. If you have any comments, questions, or thoughts on effective writing in an academic setting, please use the space provided to write your comments or thoughts.*

**PLEASE GO TO THE NEXT PAGE.**

*Please complete this section which is required for statistical purposes only.*

**1. Number -----**

## 2. Gender

Male  
Female

### 3. Age:

Under 20  
20 - 24  
25 - 29  
30 - 34  
35 - 39  
40 - 44  
45 - 49  
50 and above

4. Name of university -----

5. Department -----(i) major-----  
(ii) minor-----

## 6. Level

3rd year  
4th year

### 7. Number of writing courses covered

1 course  
2 courses  
3 courses  
None

*Thank you again for your cooperation in completing this questionnaire, and please be assured that your answers are confidential.*

APPENDIX A.2

EFL Student/Tutor Perceptions of Writing in Academic settings Questionnaire

(Tutor Version)

I. The Writing Process

Question 1. When you ask your students to write an essay about a certain topic in English, in your own view, *how often* do they *do* the following? (Please tick in one of the boxes provided for each item.)

Strategies and practices during the process of writing	always	usually	sometimes	rarely	never
- outline your ideas on paper					
- outline your ideas in your mind					
- make a draft					
- revise and edit what you have written					
- talk through your ideas with a friend					
- write directly without outlining					

Question 2. During the process of writing, to what extent do you think your students..... (Please tick in the relevant box. *a.v.l.* stands for a very large extent, and *a.l.* stands for a large extent.)

During the process of writing, I think my students.....	To a v. l. extent	To a l. extent	To some extent	To a small extent	Not at all
- worry about grammar					
- worry about vocabulary					
- worry about spelling					
- worry about punctuation					
- concentrate more on ideas than on grammar, vocabulary, punctuation and spelling					
- take into consideration the purpose of my writing such as persuasion, description, etc.					
- spend a lot of time considering my reader					
- establish an audience (reader) for myself					
- re-scan what I have written for correcting grammar, vocabulary, spelling					
- re-scan what I have written to assess the fit between my initial plan and the final draft					
- re-read my final product to see how it sounds					



**Question 3.** If you ask your students to make initial and final drafts, how much attention do you usually ask them to give the following? (Please tick in the relevant box.)

<i>3a. Initial Drafts</i>	Substantial attention	much attention	some attention	a little attention	no attention at all
- grammar					
- vocabulary					
- punctuation					
- capitalisation					
- spelling					
- structure and organisation of text					
- content (facts and ideas)					
- other (please specify):					

<i>3b. Final Draft</i>	substantial attention	much attention	some attention	a little attention	no attention at all
- grammar					
- vocabulary					
- punctuation					
- capitalisation					
- spelling					
-.structure and organisation of text					
- content (facts and ideas)					
- other (please specify):					

**Question 4.** In revising and editing what your students write, please indicate the importance that you generally expect them to give to each of the following. (Please tick in the appropriate box.)

	substantial attention	much attention	some attention	a little attention	no attention at all
- grammar					
- vocabulary					
- punctuation					
- capitalisation					
- spelling					
- structure and organisation of text					
- content					
- other (please specify):					

**II. The nature of writing**

**Question 5.** Please respond to the following in terms of your perception of the nature of writing in an academic context: (Please tick in the boxes provided.)

	strongly agree	agree	disagree	strongly disagree	don't know
- writing is a mental process that involves developing ideas					
- writing is a mechanical process that requires the learning and application of simple rules					
- writing is a process during which a writer uses a number of strategies and activities such as revising and editing					
- writing is a negotiation with a known reader					
- writing is a strictly personal, private activity					
- writing is the most difficult skill amongst the four language skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing)					
- writing requires a comprehensive knowledge of vocabulary					
- writing is a process that is linguistically-demanding					
- writing requires a comprehensive knowledge of the rhetorical conventions and organisational patterns of a language					
writing is a laborious, painful process that requires deep concentration					
- writing is, to some extent, problem solving					
- writing becomes more complicated and more problematic in a foreign language					
- writing is a negotiation with a range of different readers					
- writing is one's own self-expression					
- writing requires a good knowledge of the cultural thought patterns of a language					
- other (please specify) :					

**Question 6:** In your own perception, how much trouble does each of the following modes cause your students when writing in English? (Please tick in one of the boxes provided for each item.)

Mode of Writing	enormous trouble	much trouble	some trouble	a little trouble	no trouble
- argumentation					
- description					

**III. Learning to Write and Acquiring Competence**

**Question 7:** Please respond to the following assumptions about learning to write in a foreign language:    *( For each item, please tick in one of the boxes provided.)*

Assumptions about learning to write in a foreign language	strongly agree	agree	disagree	strongly disagree	don't know
- exposure to “models” of writing may help learners to write better					
- pattern practice may provide a meaningful context for learning how to write well					
- some people are born with a special ability that helps them write easily in any particular language					
- as soon as a learner has acquired a good knowledge of grammar and vocabulary in a certain language, he can easily write in that language					
- it is easy for someone who writes well in their native language to learn how to write well in a foreign language after they have acquired its grammar and vocabulary					
- exposure to authentic, cultural materials may increase student motivation to learn how to write better in the target language					
- writing in a foreign language is basically a matter of translating from the first language					
- planning, editing and revising writing in a foreign language contribute to the quality of the written text that an L2 learner produces					



**IV. The Areas of Difficulty in Second Language Writing**

**Question 8:** Please respond to the following in terms of difficulty your students have when they write an essay in English. *(Please tick in the relevant box.)*

When my students are given a topic to write about, they usually have <i>difficulty</i> ...	always	usually	sometimes	rarely	never
- writing grammatically correct sentences					
- choosing the right word(s) to use					
- expressing my ideas effectively					
- using correct punctuation					
- using correct capitalisation					
- using correct spelling					
- developing my ideas					
- generating ideas for my writing topic					
- developing arguments					
- putting my ideas together so that my writing becomes coherent.					
- putting my ideas together so that my writing makes sense to my reader					
- using logical cohesive devices such as "for example," "however," "therefore," etc.					
- using transition devices such as "first," "second, finally," etc.					
- organising my ideas to construct logically-sequenced and properly-organised paragraphs and essays.					
- ordering the different sections of paragraphs, i.e., what comes at the beginning and what comes in the conclusion.					
- other (please specify)					

**Question 9:** To what extent do you think the following factors may cause students difficulty when they write in English? ( Please tick in the appropriate box)

Factors causing difficulty	to a very large extent	to a large extent	to some extent	not at all	don't know
- lack of vocabulary					
- lack of language command					
- different cultural thought patterns of your mother language and English					
- different organisational patterns of your mother language and English					
- different systems of your mother language and English					
- other (please specify)					

**V. The Teaching of Writing**

**Question 10:** In your own view, how much attention do language tutors (instructors) of writing usually pay to the following writing components in students' writing ?  
(Please tick in the relevant box.)

writing components	much	some	a little	none	unsure
- content (facts and ideas)					
- structure and organisation of text					
- grammar					
- vocabulary (word choice)					
- punctuation					
- capitalisation					
- spelling.					
- other (please specify)					

**Question 11:** One of the purposes of the writing courses offered at the university is to help prepare students for the writing they have to do in their other courses. Please circle the number below that best represents your feelings about how well the writing courses have prepared students for the writing they should do in the other courses.

- 4  
Very well
- 3  
Well
- 2  
Adequately
- 1  
Not very well
- 0  
Not well at all

**Question 12:** What would you like the writing course(s) to provide your students with?

**Question 13:** Do you have any other comments you would like to make on anything about writing in English?

*I hope you have enjoyed completing this questionnaire. If you have any comments, questions, or thoughts on effective writing in an academic setting, please use the space provided to write your comments or thoughts.*

**PLEASE GO TO THE NEXT PAGE.**

*Please complete this section which is required for statistical purposes only.*

## 1. Gender

Male  
Female

**2. Age:**

Under 30  
30 - 34  
35 - 39  
40 - 44  
45 - 49  
50 and above

3. Name of university -----

**4. Department -----**

## 5. Teaching Experience

Less than 5 years  
 5-9 years  
 10-14 years  
 15-19 years  
 20 and above

**6. Please indicate the type of courses you teach.**

**Linguistics**  
**Literature**  
**Criticism**  
**Writing**  
**Other (please specify):**  
-----  
-----

*Thank you again for your cooperation in completing this questionnaire, and please be assured that your answers are confidential.*



## **APPENDIX B.1**

### **Mini-corpus of Successful Texts**

**(1)**

Women are an important element in any community because they have major tasks to perform and without which the community is destined to ruin. It is over these tasks that many people argue nowadays. Does the woman have to work in her home ? Or, does she have the choice to work outside it?

On my part, I support the former viewpoint. The woman should only work at home for several reasons- for her own benefit, for her husband, for her children and for the family's happiness and stability.

Physiologically speaking, the woman has not been created to take over big tasks. Her delicacy and weakness prevent her from performing hard work. Besides, as long as the man can support her and the family, she does not have to work.

Women are created to perform one great task and that is bringing up our children. What nobler task can one do more than this? This is the task that no man can perform alone. Actually, women are so lucky and so honoured to have such a task.

Moreover, women have their husbands to take care of. The husband who has the responsibility of supporting and protecting the family. For him, the wife should bring about all sorts of restfulness and she should always be at hand to back him morally whenever he needs that.

Having these qualities, the wife can bring about happiness and stability for all the members of the family. And this is what all women should aim at and this is what all women wish to have.

**(3)**

### **Women Should Work Outside Homes**

Women are those humans whom any society rely on. They are considered to be the most efficient persons who play a great role in society. Since women have great roles in society, that is bringing up children and educate them, they are able to work effectively in any job outside their homes. Women should work outside their homes to face many difficulties concerning their own life with their families. They should work in order to acquire the essential knowledge which helps them in teaching their children the right behaviour they should follow. And the last reason is by working women will be able to build up a strong personality since they face different kinds of people with different culture.

Women should work to face different difficulties which arise during their upbringings in their family. For example, difficulties concerning their behaviour they should do this or that because they are girls or women. So this kind of difficulty will arise another dangerous difficulty which is related to their personalities. So by work they are able to overcome this difficulty and be a different person.

Another reason for letting women work is to acquire the essential knowledge which helps them to teach their children. They will know the right way of teaching good morals since the children's age or adults' is an important issue to decide the right way of teaching or learning. So work provides great knowledge and also experience to women.

The last reason is building up women's personalities. Since they work they will face different cultural people who will in a way or another, directly or indirectly affects women's personalities. They become courageous, strong brave, well-educated, well organised and self confident.



Finally, I think women should have the chance to work outside their homes in order to let them face life difficulties easily and without problems.

(4)

#### Woman's Role

Through out the years, it was believed that the natural and only place a woman is in the house raising children, cleaning and managing the family, but it is not the case any more.

During the last century, women's role in most societies have undergone many changes. There has been a great shift regarding the responsibilities of women all over the world. Women were forced to leave their domestic lives and be involved in more serious duties. They worked in factories, schools and institutions and succeeded if not more just as men.

Unlike the old believes, women proved themselves as effective members in the society. They managed to occupy important position in the industrial, educational, agricultural and economical sectors. They were also able to stand by men and play an effective role in the political sector. Here in Jordan, women managed to be ministers, members in the parliament and the local committees. Their outstanding efforts and abilities were appreciated and rewarded something which encouraged them to work harder and improve their performance.

Finally, no one can deny the sacred role of women as wives and especially as mothers, but this does not mean that it is the only thing that they can succeed in. Women are clever and resourceful and can prove themselves in the most difficult careers exactly like men.

(6)

Some people believe that women should work side by side with men because they also believe that if women don't work, a great paralysis would attack the society. But, I believe, they are wrong. Women should stay at their homes for two main reasons.

First, women are needed to bring and raise up children. God created women with a certain physiology and psychology. Physically speaking, they are the only side of the two sexes that can beget children; they are also the only of the two sexes that can raise up children for they have more passion than the men. Therefore, if women go out for work, forgetting about their main duty, they wouldn't be able to beget children, or they wouldn't be able to raise them up, at least in a good way. One evidence for this is the western civilization. There, women, who work for long hours, are suffering a lot because they can't reconcile between their works and their duties at home whereas in the Arabic society, women don't face this problem, generally speaking. They are devoted for their homes and children.

Women, also, occupy men's places in many fields. When women go out for work, they fight men for places in universities and in other jobs, even those that need a hard effort to do them. Accordingly, a number of men will suffer because they can't find a source of income, a thing which may prevent them from getting married and forming new families. One may argue, that women need also money and certain income to support them. Yes, that's right for certain women like those who lost their supporters. But in general, women are just help for men and not the main responsible side about money making in the family whereas men, in most cases, are the bread winners in the family.

In conclusion, one can notice that there are certain reasons that may explain why women should stay at home instead of going out to work out side by side with men.



(8)

### Woman's Work.

Some people think that a woman's place is in the home. Others do not. I think that I agree with the second opinion. The woman in the past used to set at home, doing the housework, bringing up her children and also she helped her husband while he was working in the farm.

Because of the social environment and the difficult circumstances, the woman in the past couldn't get contact with the others in the same country or outside her country. But after that, the circumstances began to change and the industrial revolution happened. Through that time many institutions were built asking for women rights in so many sides especially at work. So gradually, the woman began to work different jobs like teaching, nursing, helping the injured people, working in factories, working in the hospitals...etc.

But the working woman has to pay attention to a very important point, which is that her work shouldn't have a negative effect on her home and her children especially. She has to be clever enough to know how to do it correctly. Her work shouldn't be at the expense of doing her other duties at home. Some say that it's forbidden for women to work out of their homes whatever the job is. Others say that they can work but only some specific jobs like teaching and nursing. A third opinion is that the woman is free to do whatever she likes and she work in any area she wishes. I think that the woman can work whatever she want but at the same time she must protect herself and not have the wrong jobs. She can have the ones which are suitable for her physical characters, and aren't a burden and hard to her.

I think that a good working woman is the one who makes fair between her job and her home.

(11)

Some people believe that a woman's place is in the home. Other do not. Take one side of this issue, state your position and defend it.

Woman's place is in the home for many reasons. First, women's role to build the society, block by block is more important and necessary rather than if they were engaged in several jobs outside their homes. No one can replace the woman in her house, to be with her children, while she is leaving to do her job. Servants can do some of the job but not all of the works can be done by servants. The woman who has no children can work and can leave her house to any job, but if she has children, she can not do two roles in the same time "If you run after two sheep, you will catch neither". Children at home need their mother all the time, if you watch children at home, they sit beside their mother not beside anyone else, a child need developing step by step in his life. No one care with the child like his or her mother, especially about the affective domain, women have to look after their children. It's good for the woman to participate in every thing in the life, but something is important and other is more important.

Second, the abilities of women don't like abilities of men for many jobs, because of body of them. Women can't do hard works while men can do, also, the works that the women do at home, men can't do, so it's good for men and women to the suitable work for them. In real life situation, if any observes women during their work, he finds out that most of the time they engage about their children and their homes, and they look at the time waiting the end of the work to leave and do the main role at home.

(12)

Some people believe that a woman's place is in the home.

For centuries women's place in this world was related to home, children and slavery. But at the beginning of this 20th century many movements and changes happened as women liberation. So,



on the basis of civilization and development in the world in general and in our societies in specific, I claim and believe that women must have a chance for exploring and challenging the outside world, that is outside their homes.

On the first hand, regardless married women who have responsibilities towards their homes and their children, women should have a chance in this world for education and learning as well as the men of our societies. As for many times women proved to be more intelligent than men in many fields and in many areas. For example, women proved to be more intelligent in the field of education and elections as well, as their massive success this year in the Tawjihiy and the elections that took place.

On the second hand, I may sound like a feminist for the first while, but actually I only want to have a better world to live in, a world without racism. Thus if we want to live a better life and to build a better future for the generations coming, we should let women participate in it in order to have an equal share for women with men. And to write a new history that is full of human happiness not human misery.

In conclusion, women must have a chance to leave their homes, although some chose to stay at home, we must encourage them to participate in life. And they must be treated equally.

(13)

Some people believe that a woman's place is in the home. Others do not.

Women, throughout the centuries have been looked at as second rate people in the society. Men have always been dominant. It was a man's world. Women were treated as slaves; they were sold and bought; They were created for man's pleasures; and others thought that they were devils, evil; cruelty, and all man's displeasures were from them. In the dark ages women were burned to death or crucified just because they had red hair and were thought to be witches. All these ideas about women was the result of the women's status in society nowadays. Therefore we will not be astonished to find that some people nowadays believe that a woman's place is in the home.

As far as I am concerned, I believe that my prophet muhamad taught us. And what I learned from my religion. Women in my religion are given the same rights as men. My religion regained women identity as a well-respected human being who has the same rights and privilege as men; although their roles may differ; they have the same rights. I don't believe that just because a woman bears children, that she should be considered less; nor do I believe that a woman who received her rights in Islam; should neglect her home and children.

A woman can do most of the roles in society that a man does. It's just that how she goes about doing these roles is the question. If a woman wants to work outside her home and has children; she is free to do so, but not on the account of her husband and children. In doing her role she should try to be fair; and not neglect her home.

The sad case is that most women who work in society neglect their homes and children. But that's not all true in all cases. Some women who stay at home; neglect their responsibilities towards their husbands and children. All they do is visit and gossip all day. So from my point of view I think it all refers to the person within and that the woman's place is in society. Whether it's inside or outside her home; because her home is part of the society whether she's doing well in her home or outside it she is playing a role in building her society.

(14)

### To be or not to be

The traditionalist view has it that a woman's "proper" place is in the home. Although it is perfectly alright for a woman to choose to stay at home, without any outside pressure of course, forcing women to stay at home denies them the basic rights of any individual- the freedom to make a decision.

The question is : why are some women forced to stay at home? Some husbands feel that their wife shouldn't mix with men. This is a position which explicitly admits that women are sex objects and are not good for anything but to be admired and put on a pedestal, so to speak clearly, a husband in this case is projecting his own sexual problems ( that of insecurity) on other males. In that sense, women have become the prisoners of an image created by men.

If we deny someone the right to water, for example, we will be looked upon as cruel and merciless. Yet, women are denied the most basic requirements- the right to earn their livelihood and support themselves. Male-dominated societies want to keep power in the hands of the males because female empowerment brings out all kinds of insecurity and threats to the male's manhood.

Thus, the question is not whether women should or shouldn't stay at home. Rather, like any individual in society, women should have freedom of choice, without which a society would lose half of its productive members.

(15)

### A Woman's Place is in the Home

Some people believe that a woman's place is in the home. For myself, I believe it, too. There are two reasons, in my opinion, that makes the woman's place her home. The first reason is a family sake one. The second is a cultural one. I will try to elaborate my position towards this issue, as an Arab, educated girl, in the following paragraphs.

The first reason is that its better for the woman to stay home for her family sake. Most jobs requires a person to spend nearly much of his time away from his home. Thus, if we assume that the mother and the father works, then, the children had to be left alone in a nursery or with a maid without a considerate eye on them. So they might be raised wrongly or adopt some bad habits which will make them suffer their future consequences. Moreover, the children will be deprived of the great love and tenderness of their mother; thus, will grow up as a deprived, complicated individuals. On the other side, if we look at a family whose mother is always present, we will notice how its members are closely related and how they are leading a happy, easy life because of the ever present mother supervision. As a result, we can produce and establish a community which its base is firm. And as an Arab woman, the woman will have her ever lasting happiness, for she has a great family and had pleased God in her great work.

The second reason is a cultural reason. That is, the Arab culture believes that a woman's place is in the home. That her only job and place is her family. She has to please her husband and bring up well raised children. In addition, the woman should not leave for work out in the public life in the fear that she will neglect her family; thus, will result in the corruption of her children and her own self. It is generally believed that if a woman leaves her home, she might neglect her family matters. And, if children are let alone in the house they might deviate. Of course, all of these results will lead to the corruption of the family then the corruption of the whole society.

Finally, although I believe in this, I also believe that because of the continuing high cost of the living standard woman should go out and work to help her husband in establishing a proper kind of life and future for her children. I say this with two conditions. First, she gets a job that will not take much of her time on the expense of her family. Thus, it won't distract her from her proper raising of children. Second, her full confidence in herself that she will manage both her family



and her job. If these two conditions are fulfilled, then there is no harm for her not to leave her home, which will always be her first priority and her final rest after a long hard day.

(19)

A woman's place is in the home. This idea may be accepted in the previous centuries when the conditions of life were completely different from the modern ones. For example outlook to women and their role in society, opportunities of learning to women, and responsibilities of women in those days. All these phenomena change completely in the modern life which make this idea unacceptable.

In the previous centuries. It was thought that women don't have the capabilities which men have that enable them to learn and to work. It was thought that they are able to cook, to wash and to take care of their children. It was disgrace for women to leave their home because they thought that women are weak and can't protect themselves. Moreover, women didn't have the opportunities of learning. So it was natural that home is their place.

However, In the modern life, all those phenomena changed completely. The outlook to women is changed. It is not disgrace for women to leave their home. Women have the opportunities of learning. Modern discoveries eliminate the life and reduce the responsibilities of women. It was proved that women have capabilities which enable them to learn and work like men do.

Therefore, a woman's place is not only her house. Her house may be a hospital, a school, she, Nowadays, do many works in several sectors. The social ones like the committees of charity. The political ones like the parliament and soon we now see the doctors, the teachers, the nurses, They prove that they are like men.

(20)

Women have a great role in developing societies as well as men. Some people even, believe that women hold a more serious role than men, specially in Arab societies where the mother takes up most of the responsibilities of raising her children and taking care of the whole family. Due to this responsibility and due to some cultural beliefs, women stayed in their homes to fulfil their tasks and try their utmost to bring up children and take care of the family. But this attitude and this role of women has changed through history; life has changed and roles that people play in the society have changed as well.

Women now have to come out of the home, leave their cosy homes and do their part in the society. There are many reasons why I believe that women shouldn't stay in their homes. Life has become more difficult and complicated that a man can never support the family by himself. Women's attitudes and how they look upon themselves have changed. Lastly, the hazards that are awaiting us makes it a must for women to try to fight side by side with men to beat problems.

First, we all now know and agree that if we want to live good and comfortable life we have to have enough money this has forced women to go out looking for jobs to make a better living and to support their family; the man can never do it alone anymore, besides the more you make money the better life you and your children will have.

The second reason is the self-esteem of the woman herself and where she stands in the society. Women now reject the old role that goes back to ancient history of the mother who has to die in her home while serving and trying to please her kids and husband. Now they claim for their rights and say that we can make a difference in societies like men, we can change and develop. Lastly, and this point of view is shared between both men and women, they believe that one half of the family can't stand against the dangers that face societies, economy, politics, colony and media both men and women have to be strong and educated to face all this.



Now, I think it's clear enough to say that women should find their place out of their homes too.

(25)

#### A woman's Place is Outside Her Home

A woman's place is not restricted to her home. A woman can play an effective role in the community outside her small kingdom. work and education can, for example, shift the woman to a wider circle of facing life and people.

The term "work" isn't exclusive to men any more. The traditional outlook of not accepting women to work side by side with men has been vanished since the beginning of first quarter of this century. Women seventy years ago were not allowed to leave their homes to take any kind of job. Those who belonged to the "middle class" only waited for handsome young men to ask for their hands while those who managed to get a university degree were able to get good jobs but they were looked at as exceptions. Later, as the years passed that outlook was changed and women began to feel the opportunities of getting suitable jobs not only exclusive to women as dress making or millinery but also to those dominated by men in every aspect of life. So, we began to see women doctors, women economists, women engineers and even women pilots.

Education is, in fact, an important factor for driving women to work. Better education opens better chances for women to achieve their self identity, a sense of self-esteem, and a distinguished economic situation. I can elicit an example of the working class girls in the thirties in England. This category was forced to work as servants in the homes of the rich class and factory workers with meagre wages to support their families. Because they haven't received or were able to get little education, they were badly used by the factory owners and the families whom they worked for. They had to work in the factories sixty hours a week in miserable conditions and low wages. On the other hand, those who managed to get better education and graduated from universities had the chance to become secretaries or doing office work.

By citing the above examples, I can come to the conclusion that work and education go hand in hand toward achieving a more prosperous future for the woman's position not only in her community but in life as well. A final statement is a quotation by a member of the women's liberation Organization: "There isn't any job that a woman can't do as well as man."

(26)

Some people believe that a woman's place is in the home. Others do not. Take one side of this issue, state your position and defend it.

Now-a-days there are more opportunities for everyone, including women, to be educated. More and more women are joining high- schools, colleges, and universities.

This increasing number of women didn't go out and spent nights and days studying and working hard just to hang the certificate or degree in the kitchen.

They did it because they want to change their lives, to express themselves, and to be an effective member in the society; They did it because they want to go out and work.

In my opinion, there is nothing wrong with women going out and working it is their right just as it is a right for men. But of course, there will be more responsibility on her, since now she has double duties: she has to work inside and outside home; because I think that if she has been able to gain and practice her rights of working outside, she should never forget her duties toward her home, husband, and children.



Getting the first condition fulfilled (i.e working in and out without neglecting either one of them and letting one affect the other), we move to the second condition. woman's work should take place in a certain atmosphere, as our religion in the Arab and Islamic world permits; women should work apart from men, (there should be two separate sections for men and women at work), since that can really cause family damages and many other problems that we may not be able to avoid.

Also, there are certain jobs that women can attend and other that she can't; for example working in building and constructing is not suitable for a woman, either physically or for her own special situation in society as a mother or wife. There are many other open fields for her, as teaching or being a doctor (for woman and children only), or mending and sewing clothes and many other suitable jobs for women's nature.

To conclude, women's work is not a shame, not a sin; it is a right which she can practice within certain conditions, and without neglecting her home.

(36)

We all know that God created man and woman equals in every thing, so why should a woman feel less or inferior to a man?

Some people say that physically men are stronger than women, but that's not true because nowadays we find women wrestlers, body builders, constructors and women who practice all sorts of sports, all this shows that women are capable of doing men's work and even better than men. Some people also say that women are not intelligent enough and that their place is in the home cooking looking after the children just like any piece of furniture in the house, this is our problem in our societies, men don't give women a chance to prove themselves, they're very intelligent creatures sometimes even more intelligent than men, but they're not given the chance to show their abilities, they're forbidden to drive, to work, to be free of doing whatever she wants, there is always discrimination between man and women and this is not just why should there be? women have two hands, two legs, brain, feelings just like men and some women are more competent.

So what I am saying is that men should stop looking down on women and treat them like their equals and not like an object and feel free in planning her own life and future because times are changing and we don't want to be left behind.

(47)

#### The role of women

Women have a great role to play outside their homes. Since they are half of the society their role must not be limited in a very limited area which is their houses. Teaching, medical care, factories, and social activities are important fields for intelligent women to act in.

Education has been developed to include all children in various stages for different purposes. Women are very close to kids so they are very efficient in nursery stages than men. Only women can understand girls' problem and help to resolve them. Neglecting women in Education means graduating unplanned learners. These learners are going to receive only one single point of view from one side of the community. Women as experienced in dealing with their children as a result of staying a lot of time with them, will enrich educational situations.

Being passionate, women are able to deal with patients. Along history women were only concerned with injured after battles. It was the great woman Florence Nightingale who was first to raise the flag of helping war victims. Women have the patience and experience to take care of ill people. They are motivated by their maternal passion. So neglecting this role is any how



neglecting its nature, the women nature. Medical sector, therefore is a realm where women must allow to contribute in a high degree of responsibility.

No one can say that men, according to their physical nature are more skillful than women. Not all jobs need using muscles. Many jobs need skillful fingers for example T.V and computer factories. These factories can prove that women are worthy. These jobs may help women to use their talents and skills. Dropping women from this sector means waste of half nation talent and skill. Economists use their whole efforts for searching for natural resources. When they find them they only use half society talent to deal with them. What a stupid formula?

The world is not only facing political and military problems. Large communities, industries, civilization intercourse and modern communication means create many social problems. Women, being well educated and responsible can reduce the dangerous effects of those problems. They are well accepted to visit houses and discuss problems and give the advice to deal with. Adolescents are happy to reveal what suppressed in his mind to a woman appears to be as if she is his mother. Women in responsibility can provide good guidance to new generation.

Anyhow I am not going to prove the superiority of women over men. What I am saying is that women are not only a thing that a man can take. She is equal and worthy and must play roles in all fields rather than their traditional role in their traditional place, which is the house.

(48)

Some people believe that a woman's place is in the home. Others do not. Take one side of this issue, state your position and defend it.

Firstly, I think that every society consists of men as well as women. And women are the half of the society. And I think women should have the right to work wherever they like. They should have the right to choose the place and the job. If women have the needed qualifications and the desire to work in any field of life, and if we want enlightened and balanced citizens, then we have to support and help women and be facilitators not hinderers to them.

Secondly, it is clear and obvious that we see many great and successful women in every field in this life. In politics, we can see Mrs Gandhi and Thatcher who are regarded as great and eminent. In science we can see Madam Curie who is very famous for her discovery. In Education, we can see many female teachers who are more than excellent because they have the proficiency and the skill to teach, especially in teaching small children. I think female teachers are much better in teaching small kids because small children are always nearer to their mothers than to their fathers, and therefore they like female teacher best.

In nursing, I think also that female nurses are nearer to patients because they are more active and more effective in dealing with sick people. As doctors, it is easier for female doctors to deal with women who are sick especially if the case concerns sex illnesses.

In literature, we see many good female writers, female poets, female playwrights who are in some way equal to men if not better. And I think we should seek the good literature and it is not important if the writer is a man or a woman. In television, we also see many and many good newscasters and directors and actresses. Women are the soul of all programmes. It is just difficult to think, even for a minute, of a programme without a woman or a girl in it. Any programme without a woman will be dull and boring.

Lastly, I think that we are in much need for women to work in all aspects of life, easily because men alone can not face the winds and obstacles of this fearful life. And we should be open minded and not let sex discrimination to destroy our future and the future of coming generations.



(50)

Some people believe that a woman's place is the home. Others do not. Take one side of this issue and state your position and defend it.

Although I agree that a woman's place is the home, but I disagree if you think her total place is in the home, because she can share in other responsibilities to help her husband and her family in getting a better life.

Earlier at the time of our prophet Muhammed, she shared in helping the soldier in wars by giving water and helping in treating the wounded ones. She showed that she had benefits as well as men. A woman's work outside her home will not obstacle her work inside if she is well organized. Because this will make her active and she will not stay sleep until mid day as many of the unworking wives do nowadays, she will take in consideration every bit of time to take benefit of it. She will organize her family to depend on themselves, also she will make them share the work inside. Never ever the woman's work will make her weak or lazy or depend on the others, but on the contrary she will show her activeness and power. As I said this will make from her a strong active, useful woman who will help in building her self and her society as well. A woman is an important element in the community and she has more responsibilities as men and more. She looks after her children as well as her husband, also she takes care of her house and nearly most the women work outside and the women who work outside show that they are more successful than those who do not work.

I know and agree a woman has a role in home but she can share the man work outside. She has many rights to gain and also she has the ability to share the same work if the man except some hard work as driving a bulldozer or working in mines or building houses or as works which are not suitable with her soft personality.

In this way a woman has a role inside and another role outside which make her personality independent on the man.

The up to date woman proved that she is an important member inside and outside and if all women stopped working outside the pillar of society will be bent because she share in raising these pillars as well as the man does.

(51)

As women form half the society, no one can deny the great role that they can play in any society. They can be housewives as well as great queens and great leaders.

As I think, any woman can run her house successfully, can run a great country more successfully. History can provide us with evidences of women who were very successful in running more than a house. Ancient Egypt was run for ages by great queens who were able to lead armies to occupy other countries, they were able to control every bit of the country. We must not forget the great queens of Europe in medieval ages, who were able to let every one hear about their accomplishments. History do not forget women in modern ages who were very successful in many aspects of life. Nowadays, every one hears the name Ghandi, will remember that great woman who led a nation of more than eight hundred million people for more than twenty years. On the other hand, history keeps a great record for women who were very successful in other aspects of life other than politics. Mary Curie was a good example of a woman who struggled more than many men to benefit the human race through her useful discoveries.

As I mentioned before, one can now find women everywhere, in banks, in hospitals, in stores, in police at schools and universities,.....etc.

I support women to get out of homes, to have their contribution in running the society side by side with men, because we can't neglect their important role in the society, and if we prisoned them at homes, we might lose much by losing the great talents that women have.

(52)

### Women's work

Many people argue on women's work. Lots are supporters, the others are apposite. Supporters of women's work view it as a means of expressing herself and having a high position in the community, helping in solving the financial problems of the house and being aware of what's happening in the world between now and then. Really, I was one of those who used to support women's work the time when I was a single, but really, nowadays I began to have a reversal in my point of view after experiencing and living some problems of women's work.

Firstly, a woman who work is accustomed to leave her home at least for 6 hours, and that means to leave children without guidance protection and pation which really couldn't be supported by any other person as the same as mother. Secondly, family relationship could be or mostly affected becoming weather in a house in which the woman works: that is when both man and woman go to work they come of it tired exhausted. The woman instead of welcoming her husband, preparing him a restful and comfortable atmosphere, she else becomes tired and bored she and in the best condition go for a rest or a sleep. But if the matters are worse she can't have that, of course she will come to housework such as cookery, washing...etc. That also makes her always nervous treating her family nervously and that leads to a bad effect. Really family in which a woman works will have a mechanical life at the best conditions, and nervous or problematic life in others conditions.

Thirdly money itself arises problem in such a society in which the male must be the superier or the only financial supporter to the family. Men consider it harm if one share him the responsibilities in managing his house and of course when a woman works she naturally interferes and that makes problems larger.

At last I would say that work for women affects families and socities negatively rather than positively but women became restricted and obliged to work.

(53)

Some people believe that a woman's place is in the home. Others do not.

When we talk about a woman's place we have to talk about a complex web of variables; we have to talk about education, training, motivation and responsibilities. Before we talk about this subject we have to remember hundreds of women who are considered to be the pillars of their societies.

Many studies have been conducted on a woman's place, these studies show that the woman's place is not only in the home, her place is in every place all over the world. Moreover I have watched tens of programmes on TV that are talking about this issue. We have to remember the difficult and interesting jobs that are occupied by women; we have to remember woman pilots, woman civil engineers, woman agriculture engineers and many others.

Concerning education, I think woman should be educated and trained in order to help her to take part in every walk of life.

Also, woman should be encouraged and stimulated to participate in the developmental process to build, side by side with man, the society and to move from one social class to another.

In short, a woman's work is not only looking after children and doing the house work, she has another responsibilities beyond that. A woman's place is not in the home, her place is in every place all over the world.



## APPENDIX B.2

### Mini-corpus of Unsuccessful Texts

(2)

I think that a woman's place is only in the home. She has many responsibilities at home that's why she is to stay in the home. She has to raise children and make out of them good ones. She has to look after her children when they are babies by feeding them, teaching them good morals as they grow older and older. By doing all of this, I believe, she is helping very much in having a good community. A woman teaches her boys to be brave men and teaches her daughters to be good wives and good mothers. On the other side we have the man's role outside the home. His responsibility is to work outside the home, bring the money, and look after the whole family. In some communities people are asking for freedom to women to go outside the home and share the man his work and his responsibilities. In these communities women, themselves, hate working and they wish to have a family and stay with children at home because they are bored with such a dark life.

(5)

Womans place is in the home. I strongly believe in this because of capacity, society, and religion.

In my opinion woman is more capable to look after her family than man, she can bring up her children goodly because God gave her this ability and the ability to be the organizer of the family. All these actions are suitable for woman and not for man because man is responsible for getting money and food for the family. But when woman goes out of her home and work instead of man something wrong happens in the life system.

Secondly the society rejects the going out of women from their homes to work. This action leads to bad results and leads men to be jobless because women occupy their jobs.

Thirdly our religion says that women should stay in their homes to look after their families and in order to protect herself from the bad persons because she is capable only for one job which is looking after her family.

In conclusion I say that women are a challenging nature and religion in their going out of their homes to work. I see that homes are the suitable places of them.

(7)

#### A Woman's Place.

Before the Islamic age, in the ignorance age women were free to do what they like, without any moral instructions. Nowadays the freedom is given to them but it is controlled. Most people prefer women to stay at their homes, others like to join in special works, works which do not allow the confounding. In other words, men should be isolated and separated from women.

Who prefer their women to stay at home give some convincing pretexts. One of these logical thinking is to spend her time looking after her children who have the priority in nursing. The second is coming from the Islamic view which says confounding may expose this gentle mankind to decrease their honour and dignity. Who are psychologically weak may make some abuses to them. Besides the one-sitting service when they want to travel to their works. On common those who are rich and find sufficient livelihood reject their women to work unless this work is exclusively feminine. Who like them to work either they are materialists or elusive with woman's charming beauty which may make pressure to allow her to work.



Going and wandering in common places is an Irrating to our almighty.

People who are against the working women desire the paradise in the hereafter since they obey and represent the right willingly.

(9)

Some people believe that a woman's place is in the home. Personally I think this statement is baseless. In the past, woman's roles in society were restricted to: taking care of the house, children, and husband besides doing other tasks that requires a great effort. In the presence, we can say that women have been able to do some of the hardest jobs that men do. Now women go to schools, they get university degrees, and they go out and work. Being educated, and having jobs, have allowed women to support their families emotionally and financially. Women are no more worthless objects to men. In the past, men used to be superior to women. When men talk, women must listen and not say a word, they have to agree with their husbands on everything they say, even if they are wrong.

Nowadays, women are able to stand for themselves; they argue with men, they stand up for their rights. Regarding marriage, women are no longer afraid of the word "divorce". The moment they feel that they are treated like "trash", or being ignored, They have the right to fight for themselves and file for a divorce. Women now are able to apply for the highest position in Governments all over the world, which is something very pleasing and thrilling.

(10)

In the previous time life was easier and people used to have some opinions about women's role in the society. They believed that women didn't have to do anything except taking care of their houses and children and that was true to some extent in the past since life was not sophisticated as it is now. Men took over all the responsibilities for supporting their families. Nowadays it's become more difficult for men to take over all these responsibilities since life became more sophisticated and everything became more expensive.

Women stood by their husbands in sharing the expenses to support the family. They worked hard inside and outside their houses just to give a hand for their husbands. By doing this women put a big burden on their owns without complaining about it. I think that women's main role is inside their homes if their husbands are able to fully support the family; otherwise, they should take part and find jobs that will help in supporting the family.

(16)

Women nowadays are equal with men so they share the men in every aspect of life because the condition require this thing and obliged the women to go outside their homes to work because we live in difficult condition. but some people believe that a woman's place is in the home this thing was in the past because of the restriction and the limitation which prevent the women to go outside the home also because at that time the men were strong and have the ability to guide the family without the objection of any one especially the wife.

but nowadays every thing change nearly the situation become the opposite. The women take their chances to go outside home and to study at universities and after graduation the women become independent this thing allow the women to work in order to help her husband and her family.

all of what I have said does not prevent the women to take care of their children and teach them the good and the bad and the good values and the things that care happen if the women divided and organized their time. in this may be women participate the men and both of them become one unit



Finally we can say that man and woman are equal and both of them help each other to establish stable life in which they can live in

(17)

### Woman's Position

Women in this society have the important element and they have many responsibilities in This life. I think that women in this society must take their right such as education and The Jobs.

The education is very important to women. Women must be educated to know how to deal with life, I mean with life, the people who live in and the problems that they are facing.

Women must be educated and take a high level of education to be equal with men . Somehow, I think women are more clever than men so, we must be educated to be an effective element participate in every important thing.

Women who are educated can be raise their children in a good way because they know a developed techniques to raise the children so, children grow in a good way. Moreover, women must be educated to prove their personalities. They mustn't all time in home because when they are in home all time their personality type of people hide since they do not deal with different type of people they don't know a new think of techniques. I agree with who say that women must be educated.

On the other hand, women must take their positions in profession. Women all time need money to buy any thing they want. They must have a Job to depend on your selves' to be not need for men. So, they must have a Job to develop herself and prove her personalities.

(18)

a- People who think that woman's place is in the home is wrong because this woman is not different from man but they are same. On other hand, woman should not be in full freedom as man because she is weak and disirable by man so she has to be in between. Woman has many rights according to our religion which puts her in a good position. Our societies depend Largely on woman because she is the one who take care of children the base of the society.

Woman has the main role in the society because she is the cause of our presence in this world. She gives us the sympathy and the save. Woman is like man but he is more strong than her and he is responsible for everything demands labour. Nowadays women becomes like man in everything like work, high rank and studying because the circumstances in which we live demand her to be like this but she has to be conservative and take care of herself.

Some people stand in wrong position toward woman, they think that she is slave for man and she is borned Just for servant, I think they are in mistake because they do not know that this woman is respected by God who order us to obey and put her in high position.

(22)

Some people believe that a woman's place is at home, other don't.

People believe that children raising and being looked after is the women's job, the women have to bring children and look after them, and teaching them the right way to live and behave politely. This is exactly what most people especially old generation believe. They believe also that women's job is for look after what her husband owned, to clean the house, to do her best to keep her jobs done correctly, in other words women have to stay at home which is actually her



suitable place far away from public places which have the men to work in. Old generation believe that women must not go out to join the men's works and to be a member of any company or association nor to appear when men or guests are available at home. They depends on their belief of women place is at home not out because our scoiety is some what different from others and it is far away from their believes.

Those people have forgotten that a woman can be an active member in the society, she must take her turn to serve the scoiety; in addition of her serving in bringing up children and looking after her home, her family, but this doesnt prevent her from being one of useful members in her scoiety, interacting with men in their jobs and life, doing her best to build, and work as others since she can do the same jobs that men can do, why not if she believes that first women in Islam work with the army in battles to treat the wounded soldiers and to treat the patients, she can sacrifice as those women did when it was a need for them to do. So she must share all of her brothers, the men in their jobs, some of women feel proud to do this, being an active member in building her home land, sharing the men their jobs. Most of the Young generation believe this and they encourage women to join the society, being an active person in her job both at home and outside her home.

(23)

Women are the half of the society so women now adays take their places side to side to the second half of the society the man. The role of woman in the modern life is not only to have children and to look after them, but also to work or, to have the responsibility of their lives in doing any thing or any work they like to do. So women now doctors, teachers engeneers, mechanics and other jobs that they could do as strong as man.

In past time women were only for having children and looking after them and looking after their fathers, washing cooking, cleaning, sometimes working in the farm, going out with sheep, she was working all the time helping others without feeling of her own personality.

In the twentieth century the role of the women has changed to something different. If we look at past we can find that woman have became teachers, then they tried to have every job that man could do.

Now adays the women success to be not only the half of the society, but the whole of the society because a number of women now work all the time out side and inside and their husband setting in the home doing nothing.

So the place of woman is in and out home because she able to do what men can't do.

(24)

As you said there are two argument positions about the role of the women in general. One of them encouraging the women to stay at home, the other supporting the women to work outside. let's say something about the women's biology. she is weak, she is not strong enough to finish a hard work like men. So I support the first position for many reasons.

Firstly, The nature of women, I mean the emotional aspect she is simple and when she wants to give an opinion, she hesitates for times, then she suggests her opinion even though she is not sure of it. And because of her hesitation, her suggestion will lose the effect.

Secondly, Each family needs at least a woman at home, as Arabs we need our mothers to be at home. They have responsibility at home more than outside. They need to feel as mothers, bring up their children look after them do anything for them until they can take their suggestions and opinions by owns.



Thirdly, women feel with their dignity when they finish their job as mothers against their children really they feel proud, encourage, love, safe and more than these things. Also their children will not forget their job as mothers.

Finally I like to be a mother and do everything for my children at home, and I will find supporting from my family, colleagues, friends.

(27)

Some people believe that a woman's place is in the home. others do not. Take one side of this issue, state your position and defend it.

There are many opinion in the issue of working or staying at home. Some people believe that the woman's place is at home, others think that she must work to have her role. Now a days, most of the students who graduated try to find a job and some of them like to stay at home.

In my opinion the women should not stay at home, she must work, and take her role in the society. But in this case she must make a balance between her house if she is married and between her job. In some cases many educated people stay at home for a long time without working and this will never matter to them. Unemployment causes many problems now a days because logically each individule must have a role in society. So whether to stay at home or work is an important issue, if the woman is married and she can mange both she can do it.

As for those who believe that woman must stay at home are wrong, conservative people because today most of women have a chance to work because they have a high-level education staying at home will not give for a chance to interact and communicate with the society, so she'll lack many experiences, and she'll not be self-confident.

So I believe that if I'd have chance to chose, I'll chose the job in order to serve the society in order to have a better experience in life and to have my own personality

(29)

### Women and Jobs

Women's having a job has been one of the most critical issues that were aroused by many women liberation movements. This issue has witnessed a lot of arguements between both sexes. Consequently, men and women considered women's having jobs as an issue which closely has to do with dignity.

It is obvious that women have responsibilities other than having a job. A woman is a mother and a wife; and the mother has children whom she must look after and protect. Similarly, the wife should shoulder her responsibilities towards her husband and her house. Basically, these duties should be done by women since their physical, emotional, and psychological structure is suitable for such duties.

Now some women have high amibition beyond their home duties, which I think it is a good thing. They dream of becoming useful citizens to improve themselves and their society. I believe that working women are honourable women and they deserve respect; but the most important thing here is not to ignore their home duties or avoid them because these duties are basic and their jobs are secondary.

Women's having jobs is excellent but this must not affect their responsibilities as mothers or wives.

(31)

Some people believe that a woman's place is in the home. Others do not. Take one side of this issue, state your position and defend it.

Well, in my opinion I don't believe that women's place is in the home, she must study, and work to earn her own living, and not to be dependant on her father or her husband. Women also, must be the leader of herself, to have her own opinions.

(33)

Woman's place is at home

Women's place has always been at home, regardless of any theory or application the many hint the other wise.

Over the centuries, up to the beggining of our carrent century woman's status remain the same as the qardian of the family, the protector of the family and the manager of the family.

If we ask a simple question like the following what would be the answer? who give birth to childern? who rase them? who feed them. who sit late during right curing an infant? The answer would simply the mother; we cann't think any one who can take her role adequetly, this means that any disturbance in her aimed and specific role would lead to un pleasent un wanted out comes, there - fore awomen who does her assigend duty is areal woman who obsorb her natural significance and ultimately lead to perfct family, a well- grown up children. I believe we can't change what God has desginated to us by any mean.

However due the variables of our communities, life has change therefore new tasks have assigned to woman, but this doesn't change the globle view to woman's role which will always be as what nature has designated.

(38)

Women's Place

Some people believe that a woman's place is in the home. Others do not. People all over the world keep arguing about this. Shall she stay or go out to work.

I'm one of those who disagree the idea of the working woman in some cases especially if she is married and have children, it is better for her to look after her family and to do them their needs. Working woman sometimes cannot manage her life between work and house. Some of the well educated women said we have to work, to go out and have job, we need equality, but I think that equality is there nowadays everywhere, in everything in this large world.

Also our conventional rules have a role in our behavior as an oriental people, the man who have to support his family not the woman, if we look at the western culture we can notice that women start working at the age of sixteen and continue this even she has a family and children, and sometimes she may lose her family because she wants to gain name and fame in her job.

Finally, I can say that the woman's place is in the home where she can find her rest and can do so much to her family especially her children who needs her in every moment.



(41)

### Woman's Place Is The Home

It should be considered that woman has a great role in society, But her main place is in the home for many reasons. First of all, woman has to take care of her children in order to produce highly qualified generation for providing society with powers that help defend it from the enemies. Instead of registering children in nurseries and letting them have a bad education and being imposed to harm by the nurses, woman is able to raise her children herself and give them good education without causing any harm. Second, she has a big role in the home which is to look after it by keeping it clean, washing clothes, and cooking, otherwise, her husband will have to take his lunch outside the home and that is side-effect because it leads to corruption of the family since the husband will be forced to take his lunch in another place and he may be attracted by another woman.

This might be because his wife has no time to be with her husband in order to discuss the problem facing the family.

Third, woman is a main cause of unemployment because she takes the role of man and that leads to social corruption made by both, man and woman.

(43)

### Woman's Place

I believe that woman's place is in the home. Woman's main role is raising children with the help of her husband. If the woman changes her main role it will affect the whole position of the family sooner or later. Problems and difficulties will occur in the family's life. Raising children will be related to a foreign housekeeper from a foreign culture, as it is happening in some societies nowadays. As a result of this, a new generation is growing up. This new generation lack the cognition of his parents' culture.

Another factor for my belief is that when the woman is outside home for work or other task, she will feel herself in an equal position of the man who is her husband, and in this case she will ignore her obedience to her husband. This may destroy the family unless the man overcomes some of his pride. All religions, as I think have kept the woman's rights while she is in home. The woman in such case is not in need to go out and leave her house, her husband, and her children. The woman has more respect in the home than outside the home.

(45)

### Woman's Place

There has been a conflict about woman's role in the society for centuries.

Some people believe that woman's place is in the home cleaning, cooking and giving birth ....etc. I cannot deny this which is the most important role in the woman's life which is actually a mission from God for the continuation of the human race.

But I believe that the woman's place is not only in the home. Women nowadays can work side by side with men in every field in our life. Women must not be isolated from the world they have the right to get their high education, and get all kinds of jobs in order to be equal with men.

Women can help in the progress and prosperity of their society, they proved themselves in many fields in our life for instance in instruction field, nursing, medicine, engineering, economy, and in politics. So that no one can deny the great roles of women and their limitless achievements.



My point of view is that, the woman's role is very great either in the home where she looks after her children and educates them in order to be good citizens, and efficient members in the society, or in working outside the home.

In fact I am against the idea which says that the right place for women is the home.

Women should get their high certificates, seek for knowledge to know what is happening around them, they should not live in a complete ignorance, They are the most important and efficient members in the society, they have to be aware of everything in the world and take part in the development of their society since they are responsible for bringing up their children who are the new generation to come, and who are going to be members of the society.

From this we can see that the woman's role is great not only in the home but also in the society, moreover they can improve their economic position since the needs and the demands of our modern life call for the great effort of men and women to work side by side to have a good and respectable life.

Taking all these facts about a woman's place one can conclude that the woman's place is not only in the home.

(49)

I'm going to explain the role of a woman from the religion point of view. The first job of a woman is breeding her children at home and be loyal and honest with her husband. She should also make every thing that makes her husband please. She should also avoid disobeying him in doing peaceful and helpful thing to him and her family.

Religiously, we can't prevent a woman from sharing jobs in the society, because some jobs don't need much efforts and can be done easily. As sewing, cutting hair for women. Teaching girls at schools is the most important and obvious job than a woman can do.

Nowadays, many social diseases have envaded the Arab society by opening doors wide to women to practise all kinds of jobs and this cause unemployment in many different societies, in which women become the most kind of employment without looking at men's right in doing jobs that are well done by them not by women. and also men and women work together for along period of make a kind of immoral social relationships as happen in western society.

In my point of view I am with the first side that is woman's place first is home, but if there is a suitable job that she can have and help her family, I think it's nice but if she doesn't find this kind of jobs, I think staying at home and looking after children is better than being exploited by worker and employee infactories or establishments.

(56)

Women in this world is one of the most important parts that help to develop and to support. There are different cases conected with the position of the woman in this world, each case has its special time.

In the past, according to bad customs woman was considered as a bad element in the society, since woman's always connected with unlowful sexual relationship. so that her relatives committed a bad crime by bureing her although she is still alive. This bad condition was befor the appearence of Islame.

In the light of the Islam's appearence, woman take her position in the society, by giving her all her rights. For example, it is her right to say her opinion in marriage , also Islame prevents burying

women in their life. Moreover Islame doesn't prevent woman from practicing and at the same time take her position in her house.

In our time the ways of life change completely, and life is getting to be more difficult espicially financial case so that man and woman work together side by side in order to overcome their financial problems woman's work dosn't limit her activity. that means woman can do her job perfectly and practsice her special life at the same time. In addition to that, there is some kinds of women works not only to have money but also to prove their place in society, and to take a part in devellopping their countries.

So, woman's position is not only in her home or in her work, her position is in both.

## **APPENDIX C**

### **HOLISTIC SCORING CRITERIA\***

**I. In terms of communicativeness, the essay is:**

- 5. obviously communicative
- 4. communicative
- 3. adequately communicative
- 2. communicatively limited
- 1. minimally communicative
- 0. not at all communicative

**II. In terms of effective addressing of the topic, the essay:**

- 5. effectively addresses the topic
- 4. addresses the topic
- 3. addresses the topic, but development is limited
- 2. addresses the topic, but with several weaknesses
- 1. only superficially addresses the topic.
- 0. does not address the topic at all.

**III. In terms of organisation, the essay is:**

- 5. well organised
- 4. generally well organised
- 3. adequately organised
- 2. unevenly organised (uneven organisation)
- 1. disorganised
- 0. seriously disorganised

**IV. In terms of content and support, the essay has:**

- 5. clearly appropriate details that support a thesis and illustrate ideas
- 4. appropriate details that support a thesis and illustrate ideas
- 3. some details that support a thesis
- 2. insufficient details that support a thesis but inappropriately
- 1. few appropriate details that do not support a thesis
- 0. irrelevant details that do not at all support a thesis

**V. In terms of language use, throughout the essay:**

- 5. language use is consistently fluent, but there may be occasional errors
- 4. language use is fluent, but may be somewhat inconsistent
- 3. language use is inconsistent but does not obscure meaning
- 2. language use may at times obscure meaning
- 1. there are frequent errors in syntax that may seriously obscure meaning
- 0. there are frequent errors that may severely obscure meaning



VI. In terms of word choice (vocabulary),

5. word choice is appropriate and varied
4. some variety in word choice is evident
3. word choice is generally appropriate but may not be varied
2. inappropriate word choice and repetition are characteristic
1. inappropriate word choice that seriously obscures meaning
0. frequent errors in vocabulary and word choice that severely obscure meaning

VII. In terms of the conventions of English, the essay:

5. indicates mastery of the conventions of English
4. indicates generally correct use of the conventions of English
3. has occasional errors in the conventions of English
2. has errors in the conventions of English
1. has evident errors in the conventions of English
0. has frequent characteristic severe errors in the conventions of English

\*Adapted from:

Engber, Cheryl (1995) The relationship of lexical proficiency to the quality of ESL composition. *Journal of second language writing*, 4(2), 139- 155

## APPENDIX D.1

### Analysis of Theme - Successful Texts

Notes: CFT stands for Contextual Frame Theme, TT for Topical Theme, Post-Sub Pre-V. for Post-Subject Pre-Verb, Text. for Textual, Int. for Interpersonal, Ideat. for Ideational, C for Central, R for Relevant, P for Peripheral, Rel. for Relational, Mat. for Material, Ment. for Mental, Verb. for Verbal, Beh. for Behavioural, and Exist. for Existential.

	(i) Contextual Frame Themes (CFTs)	Function of CFT	(ii) Subject (Topical Themes)	Type of TT	(iii) Post-Sub-pre-V		(iv) Verb	Type of process
1/1			Women	C			are	Rel.
2	It is over these tasks that	Text.	many people	P			argue	Verbal
3	Does	Int.	the woman	C			have to work	Mat.
4	a.Or b. does	Text. Int.	she	C			have	Rel.
5	On my part	Int.	I	P			support	Mat.
6			The woman	C			should only work**	Mat.
7	Physiologically speaking	Int.	the woman	C			has not been created	Mat.
8			Her delcacy and weakness	C			prevent	Mat.
9	a.Besides, b. as long as the man can support her	Text. Ideat.	she	C			does not have to work.	Mat.
10	a. .... b. and		a. Women b. that	C R			a. are created b. is	Mat. Rel.
11	What nobler task (can)	Ideat.	one	P			do	Mat.
12			This	R			is	Rel.
13	Actually	Text	women	C			are	Rel.
14	Moreover	Text	women	C			have	Rel.
15			The husband	R	(who)	Ideat	has	Rel.
16	For him	Text	the wife	C			should bring about	Mat.
17	and	Text	she	C			should (always) be	Rel.
18	Having these qualities	Text	the wife	C			can bring about	Mat.
19	And	Text	this	R			is	Rel.
20	and	Text	this	R			is	Rel.
3/2			Women	C			are	Rel.
1								
22			They	C			are considere d	Rel.
23	Since women have great roles in the society	Ideat.	they	C			are able to work	Mat.
24			Women	C			should work	Mat.
25			They	C			should work	Mat.
26	And	Text	the last reason	P			is	Rel.
27			Women	C			should work	Mat.
28	For example	Text	difficulties	P				
29	So	Text	this kind of difficulty	P			will arise	Rel.

30	a. So, b. by work	Text Ideat.	a.+b. they	C			a+b. are able to overcome	Mat.
31	c. and	Text	c.....	C			c. be	Rel.
32			Another reason for letting women work	P			is	Rel.
33			They	C			will know	Ment.
34	So	Text	work	R			provides* *	Rel.**
35			The last reason	P			is	Rel.
36	Since they work	Ideat	they	C			will face	Rel.
37			They	C			become	Rel.
38	a. Finally, b. I think	Text Int.	women	C			should have	Rel.
4/3 9	a. Throughout the years, b. it was believed that	Ideat. Int.	the natural and only place (for) a woman	R C			is	Rel.
40	but	Text	it	P			is	Rel.
41	During the last century	Ideat.	women's role in most society	R			have undergone	Mat.
42			There	P			has been	Rel.
43			Women	C			were forced (to leave)	Mat.
44			44.....	C			44. be involved	Mat.
45 46	and		They 46.....	C C			worked 46...(were )	Mat. Rel.
47	Unlike the old belie(f)s	Ideat	women	C			proved	Rel.
48			They	C			managed to occupy	Mat.
49			They	C			were also able to stand	Rel.
50	and	Text.	50.....	C			play	Rel.
51	a. Here b. in Jordan	Ideat Ideat.	women	C			managed to be	Rel.
52			Their outstand-ing efforts and abilities	R			were appreciate d	Men.
53	and	Text.	53.....	R			53rewarde d	Mat.
54	Finally	Text	no one	P			can deny	Men.
55	but this does not mean that	Text Ideat..	it	P			is	Rel.
56 57	and	Text	a. Women b. ....	C C			a. are b. can prove	Rel. Rel.
6/5 8	Some people believe that	Int.	women	C			should work	Mat.
59	But, I believe	Text. Int.	they	C			are	Rel.
60			Women	C			should stay	Mat.
61	First	Text.	women	C			are needed to bring and raise up	Mat. Mat.
62			God	P			created	Mat.
63	Physically speaking	Int.	they	C			are	Rel.
64			they	C			are	Rel.



65	Therefore if women go out for work, forgetting about their main duty, ...	Text. Ideat.	they	C			wouldn't be able to beget	Rel.
66	or	Text.	they	C			wouldn't be able to raise	Mat.
67			One evidence for this	P			is	Rel.
68	There	Ideat.	women	C	,who work for long hours,	Ideat	are suffering	Mat.
69			They	C			are devoted	Rel.
70			Women	C	, also,	Text	occupy	Mat.
71	When women go out for work,	Ideat.	they	C			fight	Mat.
72	Accordingly	Text.	a number of men	R			will suffer	Mat.
73	One may argue that	Int.	women	C			need	Rel.
74	Yes	Text.	that	R			's	Rel.
75	But in general	Text Int.	women	C			are	Rel.
76	76. and	Text	76.....	C			76.(are)..n ot the...	Rel
77	In conclusion one can notice that	Text. Int.	there	P			are	exist.
8/7 8	Some people think that	Int.	a woman's place	R			is	Rel.
79			Others	P			do not (believe).	Men.
80	I think that	Int.	I	P			agree	Men.
81			The woman	C	in the past	Ideat	used to sit	Mat.
82	and also	Text. Text.	she				helped	Mat
83	Because of the the social environmentand the difficult circumstances,	Ideat.	the woman	C	in the past	Ideat	couldn't get	Rel.
84	But after that	Text. Text.	the circum- stances	P			began	Rel.
85	and	Text.	the industrial revolution	P			happened	Mat.
86	Through the last time	Ideat.	many institutions	P			were	Rel.
87	So gradually	Text. Int.	the woman	C			began	Rel.
88	But	Text.	the working woman	C			has to pay	Mat.
89			She	C			has to be	Rel.
90			Her work	R			shouldn't be	Rel.
91	Some say that	Text./Int.	it	P			's forbidden	Mat.
92	Others say that	Text./Int.	they	C			can work	Mat.
93	A third opinion is that	Text/Int.	the woman	C			is free to do	Mat.
94	and	Text.	she	C			works	Mat
95	I think that	Int	the woman	C			can work	Mat
96	but at the same time	Text. Text.	she	C			must protect	Mat.
97	and	Text.	.....				not have	Rel
98			She	C			can have	Rel.

99	I think that	Int.	A good working woman	C			is	Rel.
11/ 100			Woman's place	R			is	Rel.
101	First	Text.	women's role to build the society	R			is	Rel.
102			No one	P			can replace	Mat.
103			Servants	P			can do	Mat.
104	but	Text.	not all of the works	R			can be done	Mat.
105			The woman who has no children .....	C			can work	Mat.
106	and	Text.		C			can leave	Mat.
107	but if she has children	Text. Ideat.	she	C			can not do	Mat.
108	"If you run after two sheep	Ideat./Int.	you	P			will catch	Rel.
109			Children	R	at home	Ideat	need	Rel.
110	If you watch children at home	Int.	they	R			sit	Mat./B
111			a child	R			need	Rel.
112			No one	P			care	Beh.
113	especially about the effective domain	Ideat.	women	C			have to look after	Mat.
114			It	P			's	Rel.
115	but	Text.	something	P			is	Rel.
116	and	Text.	other	P			is	Rel.
117	Second	Text.	the abilities of women	R			<i>don't</i> like (aren't like)	Rel.
118			Women	C			can't do	Mat.
119	also, the works that the women do at home	Text. Ideat.	men	R			can't do,	Mat.
120	So	Text.	it	P			's	Rel.
121	In real life situation, if any observes women during their work	Ideat. Ideat.	he	P			finds out	Mat.
12/ 122	For centuries	Ideat.	women's place	R	in this world	Ideat	was related	Rel.
123	But at the beginning of this century	Text. Ideat.	many movements and changes	P			happened	Mat.
124	So,  on the basis of civilisation and development in the world in general and in our societies in specific,  I claim and believe that	Text.  Ideat.  Int.	   women	   C			   must have	   Rel..
125	On the first hand, regardless married women who have responsibilities towards their homes and their children	Text. Ideat.	  women	  C			  should have	  Rel.
126	As for many times	Ideat.	women	C			proved	Rel.

127	For example	Text.	women	C			proved	Rel.
128	On the second hand	Text.	I	P			may sound	Rel.
129	but actually	Text. Text	I	P	only	Int.	want to have	Rel.
130	Thus if we want to live a better life and to build a better future for the generations coming	Text. Int.	we	P			should let	Mat.
131	In conclusion	Text	women	C			must have	Rel.
132	although some chose to stay at home	Ideat.	we	P			must encourage	Mat.
133	And	Text	they	C			must be treated	Mat..
13/ 134	Some people believe that	Int.	a woman's place	R			is	Rel.
135			Others	P			do not (believe).	Men
136			Women,	C	throughout the centuries	Ideat	have been looked at	Mat.**
137 *			Men	R			have always* been	Rel.
138			It	P			was	Rel.
139			Women	C			were treated	Mat.
140			they	C			were sold and bought;	Mat Mat.
141			They	C			were created	Mat.
142	and others thought that	Text. Int.	they	C			were	Rel.
143	and	Text.	all man's displeasures	P			were	Rel.
144	In the dark ages	Ideat.	women	C			were burned	Mat.
145	or	Text.	.....	C			crusified	Mat.
146			All these ideas about women	R			was (were)	Rel.
147	Therefore	Text.	we	P			will not be astonished	Men.
148	As far as I am concerned, I believe that	Int. Int.	my prophet Mohammed	P			taught	Mat.
149	And	Text.	what I learned from my religion.	P			.....	
150			Women in my religion	C			are given	Rel.
151			My religion	P			regained	Mat.
152	Although their roles may differ	Ideat.	they	C			have	Rel.
153	I don't believe that just because a woman bears children that	Int. Ideat.	she	C			should be considered	Rel.
154	nor do I believe that	Text. Int.	a woman who received her rights in Islam	C			should neglect	Beh.



155			A woman	C			can do	Mat.
156			It	P			's	Rel.
157	If a woman wants to work outside her home and has children	Ideat	She	C			is	Rel.
158	In doing her role	Ideat.	she	C			should try	Mat
159	and	Text.	.....	C			not neglect	Beh.
160			The sad case	C			is	Rel.
161	But	Text.	that	R			's	Rel.
162			Some women who stay at home	C			neglect	Beh.
163			All they do	C			is	Rel.
164	So from my point of view I think	Text. Int. Int.	it all	P			refers	Men.
165	Whether it's inside or outside her home; because her home is part of the society; whether she's doing well in her home or outside it	Ideat.  Ideat.  Ideat.	she	C			is playing	Rel.
14/ 166	The traditional view has it that	Int.	a woman's "proper" place	R			is	Rel.
167	Although it is perfectly alright for a women to choose to stay at home, without any outside pressure of course,	Ideat.	forcing women to stay at home	R			denies	Mat.
168			The question	P			is:	Rel.
169	Some husbands feel that	Int/Ideat.	their wife	C			shouldn't mix	Mat.
170 ?	This is a position which explicitly admits that	Ideat	women	C			are	Rel.
171	So to speak clearly	Text. Int.	a husband	R	in this case	Text	is projecting	Mat.
172	In that sense	Text/Idea.	women	C			have become	Rel.
173	If we deny someone the right to water, for example	Int.  Text.	we	P			will be looked upon	Beh.
174	Yet	Text.	women	C			are denied	Mat.
175			Male-dominating societies	R			want	Men.
176	Thus	Text.	the question	P			is not	Rel.
177	Rather, like any individual in society	Text Ideat.	women	C			should have	Rel.
15/ 178	Some people believe that	Int.	a woman's place	R			is	Rel.
179	For myself	Int	I	P			believe	Men.
180			There	P			are	Exist.
181			The first reason	R			is	Rel.
182			The second	R			is	Rel.
183			I	P			will try	Mat.
184			The first reason	R			is	Rel.

185			Most jobs	R			requires	Rel.
186	Thus, if we assume that the mother and father work, then	Text. Ideat.  Text	  the children	  R			  had to be left	  Mat.
187	So	Text.	they	R			might be raised	Mat
188	or	Text.	.....	R			adopt	Mat.
189	Moreover	Text.	the children	R			will be deprived	Mat.
190	thus	Text.	.....	R			will grow up	Rel.
191	On the other side, if we look at a family whose mother is always present	Text. Int.	  we	  P			  will notice	  Men.
192	As a result	Text.	we	P			can produce	Mat.
193	and	Text.	.....	P			 establish	Mat.
194	And as an Arab woman	Text. Ideat.	the woman	C			will have	Rel.
195			The second reason	P			is	Rel.
196	That is, the Arab culture believes that	Text. Int.	a woman's place	R			is	Rel.
197			That her only job and place	R			is	Rel.
198	.....  and	  Text.	a. She  .....	  C C			has to please  bring up	  Men. Mat.
199	In addition,	Text.	the woman	C			should not leave	Mat
200			this	R			will result	Rel.
201	It is generally believed that if a woman leaves her home,	Int.  Ideat.	  she	  C			  might neglect	  Beh.
202	And if children are let alone in the house	Text Ideat.	they	R			might deviate.	Beh.
203	Of course	Int.	all these results	P			will lead	Rel.
204	Finally, although I believe in this, I also believe that because of the continuing high cost of the living standard	Text. Int.  Int. Text	    woman	    C			    should go out	    Mat.
205	and	Text	.....	C			work	Mat
206			I	P			say	Ver.
207	First	Text.	she	C			gets	Rel.
208	Thus	Text.	it	P			won't distract	Mat
209	Second, her full confidence in herself that	Text. Ideat.	 she	 C			 will manage	 Mat

210	If these two conditions were fulfilled, then	Ideat. Text.		P			is	Exist
19/ 211			A woman's place	R			is	Rel.
212			This idea	R			may be accepted	Mat.
213	<i>For example,</i>	Text.	<i>outlook to women and their role in society, opportunity of learning to women, and responsibilities of women in those day.</i>	****			***No predicate	
214			All these phenomena	R			change	Mat.
215	In the previous centuries it was thought that	Ideat. Int.	women	C			don't have	Rel.
216	It was thought that	Int.	they	C			are able to cook,	Mat.
217			.....	C			to wash	Mat.
218	and	Text.	.....	C			to take care	Beh.
219			It	P			was	Rel.
220	Moreover	Text.	women	C			didn't have	Rel.
221	So it was natural that	Text. Int.	home	R			is	Rel.
222	However, in the modern life	Text. Ideat.	all those phenomena	R			changed	Mat.
223			The outlook to women	R			is changed.	Mat.
224			It	P			is not	Rel.
225			Women	C			have	Rel.
226			Modern discoveries	P			eliminate	Mat.
227	and		.....	P			reduce	Mat
228	It was proved that	Ideat.	women	C			have	Rel.
229	Therefore	Text.	a woman's place	R			is not	Rel.
230			Her house	R			may be	Rel.
231			She	C	nowadays,	Ideat	do(es)	Mat
232	and soon	Text. Text.	we	P	now	Ideat	see	Men
233	They prove that	Ideat.	they	C			are	Rel.
20/ 234			Women	C			have	Rel.
235	Some people even believe that	Int.	women	C			hold	Rel.
236	Due to this responsibility and due to some cultural beliefs	Ideat.	women	C			stayed	Rel.
237	But	Text.	this attitude and this role of women	R			has changed	Mat.
238			life	R			has changed	Mat.
239	and	Text.	the roles that people play in the society	R			have changed	Mat.



240			Women	C	now	Ideat	have to come out	Mat.
241			.....	C			leave	Mat.
242	and	Text.	.....	C			do	Mat.
243			There	P			are	Exist.
244			Life	R			has become	Rel.
245			Women's attitude and how they look upon themselves	R			have changed.	Mat.
246	Lastly	Text.	the hazards that are awaiting us	P				
247	First we all now know and agree that if we want to live good and comfortable life	Text. Int.  Id./Int.	   we	   P			   have to have	   Rel
248			this	R			has forced	Mat.
249			the man	R			can *never do	Mat.
250	besides, the more	Text. Ideat.	you	P			make	Mat.
251			The second reason	R			is	Rel.
252			Women	C	now	Ideat	reject	Mat.
253	Now	Ideat.	they	C			claim	Ver.
	and	Text.	.....	C			say	Ver.
254	Lastly, and this point of view is shared between both men and women, they believe that	Text. Text. Ideat.  Int.	one half of the family	C			can't stand	Rel.
256			both men and women	C			have to be	Rel.
257	Now I think it's clear enough to say that	Text. Int. Int.	women	C			should find	Mat.
25/ 258			A woman's place	R			is not restricted	Mat.**
259			A woman	C			can play	Rel.
260			Work and education	R			can, for example, shift	Mat.
261			The term "work"	R			isn't	Rel.
262			The traditional outlook of not accepting women to work side by side with men	R			has been vanished	Mat.
263			Women	C	seventy years ago	Ideat	were not allowed to leave	Mat.
264			Those who belonged to the "middle class"	C	only		waited	Mat.
265	but	Text	they	C			were looked at	Mat/Rel

266	Later, as the years passed	Text. Ideat.	that look	R			was changed,	Mat.
267	and	Text.	women	C			began	Rel.
268	So	Text.	we	P			began	Rel.
269			Education	R			is,	Rel.
270			Better education	R			opens	Mat.
271			I	P			can elicit	Mat.
272			This category	C			was forced to work	Mat.
273	Because they haven't received or were able to get little education,	Ideat.	they	C			were badly used	Mat.
274			They	C			had to work	Mat.
275	On the other hand	Text.	those who managed to get better education and graduated from universities	C			had	Rel.
276	a.By citing the above examples,	Ideat.	I	P			can come	Mat.
277			A final statement	R			is	Rel.
278			"There	R			isn't	Exist.
26/ 279	Nowadays	Ideat.	there	P			are	Exist.
280			More and more women	C			are joining	Mat.
281			This increasing number of women .....	C			didn't go out	Mat.
282	and	Text.		C			spent	Mat.
283			They	C			did	Mat.
284			they	C			did	Mat.
285	In my openion	Int.	there	P			is	Exist.
286			it	P			is	Rel.
287	But, of course	Text Int.	there	P			will be	Exist.
288			she	C			has to work	Mat.
289	Getting the first condition fulfilled (i.e working in and out without neglecting either one of them and letting one affect the other),	Ideat.	we	P			move	Mat.
290			Women's work	R			should take place	Mat.
291			Women	C			should work	Mat.
292			there	P			should be	Exist
293	Also	Text.	there	P			are	Exist.
294	for example,	Text.	working in building and constrution	R			is not	Rel.
295			There	P			are	Exist
296 297	To conclude	Text.	woman's work .....	R R			is not (is).not a sin	Rel. Rel
298			it	R			is	Rel.
36/ 299	We all know that		God	P			created	Men.

300	So why (should)	Text. Int.	a woman	C			(should) feel	Men.
301	Some people say that physically	*Int. Ideat.	men	R			are	Rel.
302	but	Text.	that	R			's	Rel.
303	all this shows that	Ideat.	women	C			are	Rel.
304	Some people also say that and that	Int.	women	C			are	Rel.
305		Text.	their place	R			is	Rel.
306			this	R			is	Rel.
307			men	R			don't give	Mat.
308			they (women)	C			're	Rel.
309	but	Text.	they	C			're not given	Mat.
310			they	C			're forbidden to drive, to work, to feel	Mat. Mat. Men.
311			there	P			is	Exist
312	and	Text.	this	R			is not	Rel.
313			Women	C			have	Rel.
314	and	Text.	some women	C			are	Rel.
315	So	Text.	what I am saying	P			is	Rel.
47/ 316			Women	C			have	Rel.
317	Since they are half of the society	Ideat.	their role	R			must not be limited	Mat.
318			Teaching, medical care, factories and social activities	P			are	Rel.
319			Education	P			has been developed	Mat.
320			Women	C			are	Rel.
321	so	Text.	they	C			are	Rel.
322	Only	Text	women	C			can understand	Men.
323	and	Text.	.....	C			help	Mat
324			Neglecting women in education	R			means	Rel.
325			These learners	R			are going to receive	Rel.
326			Women	C	as experienced in dealing with their children as a result of staying a lot of time with them,	Ideat.	will enrich	Mat.
327	Being passionate	Ideat.	women	C			are able to deal	Mat.
328	Along history	Ideat.	women	C			were only concerned	Rel.
329			It	P			was	Rel.
330			Women	C			have	Rel.
331			They	C			are	Rel.
332	So	Text.	neglecting this role	R			is	Rel.



333			Medical sector,	R	therefore	Text	is	Rel.
334			No one	P			can say	Ver.
335			Not all jobs	R			needs	Rel.
336			Many jobs	R			needs	Rel.
337			These factories	R			can prove	Rel.
338			These jobs	R			may help	Mat.
339			Dropping women from this sector	R			means	Rel.
340			Economics	R			use	Mat.
341	When they find them	Ideat.	they	C	only	Int.	use	Mat.
342	What a stupid formula?			****				
343			The world	P			is not only facing	Mat.
344			Large communities,... and modern communications means	R			creat	Mat
345			Women,	C	being well educated and responsibl e,	Ideat.	can reduce	Mat.
346			They	C			are	Rel.
347			Adulscents	R			are	Rel.
348			Women in responsibility	C			can provide	Rel.
349	Anyhow	Text.	I	P			am not going (to) prove	Rel.
350			what I am saying	R			is	Rel.
351			She	C			is	Rel.
352	and	Text.	.....	C			must play	Rel.
48/ 353	Firstly, I think that	Text. Int.	every society	R			consists of	Rel.
354	And	Text.	women	C			are	Rel.
355	And I think	Text. Int.	women	C			should have	Rel.
356			They	C			should have	Rel.
357 a	If women have the needed qualifications and the desire to work in any field of life, and if we want enlightened and balanced citizens, then	Ideat.					have to support	Mat.
357 b	and	Text	we	P			help	Mat.
358	and	Text	.....	P			be	Rel
359	Secondly,	Text.	it	P			is	Rel.
360	In politics	Ideat.	we	P			can see	Men.
361	In science	Ideat.	we	P			can see	Men.
362	In education	Ideat.	we	P			can see	Men.
363	I think	Int.	female teachers	C			are	Rel.
364	and therefore	Text. Text.	they	C			like	Men.
365	In nursing I think also that	Ideat. Int.	female nurses	C			are	Rel.
366	As doctors	Ideat.	it	P			is	Rel.
367	In literature	Ideat.	we	P			see	Men.

368	and I think	Text. Int.	we	P			should seek	Mat.
369	and	Text.	it	P			is not	Rel.
370	In television	Ideat.	we	P	also	Text	see	Men
371			Women	C			are	Rel.
372			It	P			is	Rel.
373			Any programme without a woman	R			will be	Rel.
374	Lastly, I think that	Text. Int.	we	P			are	Rel.
375	And	Text.	we	P			should be	Rel.
376	and	Text.	.....	P			...not let	Mat**
50/ 377	Although I agree that a woman's place is the home, but	Int.  Text.	 I	 P			 disagree	 Ver.
378	Earlier at the time of our profit Muhammed,	Ideat.	she	C			shared	Mat.
379			She	C			showed	Rel.
380			A woman's work outside her home	R			will not obstacle	Mat.
381	Because this will make her active and she will not stay sleep until mid day as many of the unworking wives do now adays,	Ideat.	 she	 C			 will take	 Mat.
382			she	C			will orgnize	Mat.
383	also	Text.	she	C			will make	Mat.
384	Never ever	Int.	the woman's work	R			will make	Mat.
385	but on the contrary	Text. Text.	she	C			will show	Rel.
386	As I said	Int.	this	R			will make	Mat.
387			A woman	C			is	Rel.
388	and	Text.	she	C			has	Rel.
389			She	C			looks after	Mat.
390	also	Text.	she	C			takes care	Beh.
391	and nearly	Text. Int.	 most the women	 C			 work	 Mat
392	and	Text.	the women who work outside	C			show	Rel.
393	I know and agree	Int.	a woman	C			has	Rel.
394	but	Text.	she	C			can share	Rel.
395			She	C			has	Rel.
396	and also	Text. Text.	she	C			has	Rel
397	In this way	Text.	a woman	C			has	Rel.
398			The up-to-date woman	C			proved	Rel.
399	and if all women stopped working outside	Text. Ideat.	the pillar of society	C			will be bent	Mat.
51/ 400	As women form half of the society	Ideat.	no one	P			can deny	Ver.
401			They	C			can be	Rel.
402	As I think	Int.	any woman (who) can run her house	C			 can run	 Mat.
403			History	R			can provide	Rel.
404			Ancient Egypt	R			was run	Mat.
405			they	C			were able to control	Mat.

406			We	P			must not forget	Men.**
407			History	R			do not forget	Men.**
408	Nowadays	Ideat.	everyone (who) hears the name Ghandi.	P			will remember	Men.**
409	On the other hand	Text.	history	R			keeps	Rel.
410			Mary Curie	R			was	Rel.
411	As I mentioned before	Int.	one	P			can now find	Rel.
412			I	P			support	Mat.
413	and if we prisoned them at homes	Text. Int.	we	P			might lose	Mat.
52/ 414			Many people	P			argue	Ver.
415			Lots	P			are	Rel.
416			the others	P			are	Rel.
417			Supporters of women's work	R			view	Men.
418	Really	Int.	I	P			was	Rel.
419	But really, nowadays	Text. Int. Ideat.	I	P			began	Rel.
420	Firstly	Text.	a woman who work	C			is	Rel.
421	and	Text.	that	R			means	Rel.
422	Secondly	Text.	family relationship	R			could be mostly affected	Mat.
423	that is, when both a man or a woman go to work	Text. Ideat.	they	C			come	Mat.
424	(The woman) instead of welcoming her husband, preparing him a restful and comfortable atmosphere,		she (the woman)	C	else	Text.	becomes	Rel.
425			she	C	in the best conditio	Ideat.	go (for a rest or a sleep)	Mat.
426	But, if the matters are worse	Text. Ideat	she	C			can't have	Rel.
427	of course	Int	she	C			will come	Mat.
428			That	R	also	Text.	makes	Mat.
429	and	Text.	that	R			leads to	Rel.
430	Really	Int.	(the) family in which the woman works	R			will have	Rel.
431	Thirdly	Text.	money itself	R			arises	Mat.
432			Men	R			consider	Rel.
433	and of course when a woman works,	Text Int. Ideat.	she	C	naturally	Int.	interferes,	Mat.
434	and	Text.	that	R			makes	Mat.
435	At last I would say that	Text. Int.	work for women	R			affects	Mat.
436	but	Text.	women	C			became	Rel.
53/ 437 438	Some people believe that	Int.	a woman's place	R			is	Rel.
439	when we talk about women's place	Ideat.	Others we	P P			do not (believe) have to talk	Men Ver.



440			we	P			have to talk	Ver.
441	before we talk about this subject	Ideat.	we	P			have to remember	Men.
442			Many studies	R			have been conducted	Mat.
443	these studies show that	Ideat.	a woman's place	R			is	Rel.
444			her place	R			is	Rel.
445	Moreover	Text.	I	P			have watched	Men.
446			We	P			have to remember	Men.
447			we	P			have to remember	Men.
448	Concerning education, I think	Ideat. Int.	women	C			should be educated and trained	Mat. Mat.
449	Also	Text.	women	C			should be encouraged	Mat.
450	and	Text.	.....	C			stimulated	Mat.
451	In short	Text.	a woman's work	R			is	Rel.
452			she	C			has	Rel.
453			A woman's place	R			is not	Rel.
454			her place	R			is	Rel.

## APPENDIX D.2

### Analysis of Theme - Unsuccessful Texts

Notes: CFT stands for Contextual Frame Theme, TT for Topical Theme, Post-Sub Pre-V. for Post-Subject Pre-Verb, Text. for Textual, Int. for Interpersonal, Ideat. for Ideational, C for Central, R for Relevant, P for Peripheral, Rel. for Relational, Mat. for Material, Ment. for Mental, Verb. for Verbal, Beh. for Behavioural, and Exist. for Existential.

No.	Contextual Frame Themes (CFTs)	Function of CFT	Topical Themes (TTs)	Type of TTs	Post Subject Pre-Verb		Verb	Type of Process
2/1	I think that	Int.	a woman's place	R			is	Rel
2			She	C			has	Rel
3			that	R			's	Rel
4			She	C			has to raise	Mat
5	and	Text.	.....	C			make	Mat
6			She	C			has to look after	Mat
7	By doing all of this, I believe,	Ideat. Int.	she	C			is helping	Mat
8			A woman	C			teaches	Mat
9	and	Text.	.....	C			teaches	Mat
10	On the other side	Text.	we	P			have	Rel
11			His responsibility	R			is	Rel
12	In some communities	Ideat.	people	P			are asking	Ver
13	In these communities	Ideat.	women,	C	themselves,	Ideat.	hate	Men
14	and	Text.	they	C			wish	Men
5/15			Womans place	R			is	Rel
16			I	P	strongly	Int.	believe	Men
17	In my oponion	Int.	woman	C			is	Rel
18			she	C			can bring up	Rel
19			All these actions	R			are	Rel
20	but when woman goes out of her home and work instead of man	Text. Ideat.	something wrong	P			happens	Mat
21	Secondly	Text.	the society	R			reject	Mat
22			This action	R			leads to	Rel
23	and	Text.	.....	R			leads	Rel
24	Thirdly our religion says that	Text. Int.	women	C			should stay	Mat
25	In conclusion I say that	Text. Int.	women	C			are challenging	Mat
26	I see that	Int.	homes	R			are	Rel
7/27	Before the Islamic age, in the ignorance age	Ideat.	women	C			were free to do	Mat
28	Nowadays	Ideat.	the freedom	R			is given	Mat
29	but	Text.	it	R			is controlled.	Mat
30			Most people	P			prefer	Men
31			others	P			like	Men
32	In other words,	Text.	men	R			should be isloted and separated	Mat Mat

33			(Those) who prefer their women to stay at home	*****				
							give	Mat
34			One of these logical thinking	P			is to spend	Mat
35			The second	P			is coming	Mat
36			(Those) who are psychologically weak	P			may make	Mat
37	Besides the one-sitting service when they want to travel to their work.			*****				*****
38	On common	Text.	those who are rich and find sufficient living-hood	P			reject	Mat
39			(Those) who like them to work either they	P			are	Rel
40.			Going and wandering in common places				is	
41			People who are against the working women	P			desire	Men
9/42	Some people believe that	Int.	a woman's place	R			is	Rel
43	Personally, I think	Int. Int.	this statement	R			is	Rel
44	In the past	Ideat.	woman's roles in society	R			were restricted	Mat
45	In the presence,	Ideat.	we	P			can say	Ver
46	Now	Ideat.	women	C			go	Mat
47			they	C			get	Rel
48	and	Text.	they	C			go out	Mat
49	and	Text.	.....	C			work.	Mat
50			Being educated and having jobs	R			have allowed	Mat
51			Women	C			are	Rel
52	In the past	Ideat.	men	R			used to be	Rel
53	When men talk	Ideat.	women	C			must listen	Men
54	and	Text.	.....	C			say	Ver
55			they	C			have to agree	Ver
56	Nowadays	Ideat.	women	C			are able to stand	Mat
57			they	C			argue	Ver
58			they	C			stand up	Mat
59	Regarding marriage	Ideat.	women	C			are	Rel
60	The moment they feel that they are treated like "trash" or being ignored	Ideat	they	C			have	Rel
61			Women	C	now	Ideat.	are able to apply	Mat



10/6 2	In the previous time	Ideat.	life	P			was	Rel
63	and	Text.	people	P			used to have	Rel
64	They believed that	Int.	women	C			didn't have to do	Mat
65	and	Text	that	R			was	Rel
66			Men	R			took over	Mat
67	Nowadays	Ideat..	it	P			's become	Rel
68			Women	C			stood	Mat
69			They	C			worked	Mat
70	By doing this	Ideat.	women	C			put	Mat
71	I think that	Int.	women's main role	R			is	Rel
72	otherwise	Text.	they	C			should take	Mat
73	and	Text.	.....	C			find	Mat
16/7 4			Women	C	nowadays	Ideat.	are	Rel.
75a	So	Text.	they	C			share	
75b	but, some people believe that	Text. Int.	a woman's place	R			is	Rel
76			This thing	R			was	Rel
77	But nowadays	Text. Ideat.	every thing	P			change	Mat
78	nearly	Int.	the situation	R			become	Rel
79			The women	C			take chances	Mat
80	and after graduation	Text. Ideat.	the woman	C			become	Rel
81			This thing	R			allow	Mat
82			All of what I have said	P			does not prevent	Mat
83	and	Text.	the thing	P			can happen	Mat
84	In this way	Text.	the women	C			participate	Mat
85	and	Text.	both of them	R			become	Rel
86	Finally we can say that	Text. Int.	men and women	R			are	Rel
87	and	Text.	both of them	R			help	Mat
17/8 8			Women in the society	C			have	Rel
89	and	Text.	they	C			have	Rel
90	I think that	Int.	women in this society	C			must take	Mat
91			The education	R			is	Rel
92			Women	C			must be educated	Mat
93a			Women	C			must be educated	Mat
93b	and	Text.	.....	C			take	Mat
94	Somehow, I think	Text. Int.	women	C			are	Rel
95	So	Text	we (women)	C			must (be)educate d t	Mat
96			Women who are educated	C			can be raise	Mat
97	so	Text.	children	R			grow	Rel
98	Moreover	Text.	women	C			must educate	Mat

99			They	C			mustn't (be)	Rel
100			I	P			agree	Ver
101	On the other hand	Text.	women	C			must take	Mat
102			Women	C	all time	Id.	need	Rel
103			They	C			must have	Rel
104	So	Text.	they	C			must have	Rel
18/1 05			People who think that woman's place is in the home	P			is	Rel
106	On the other hand	Text.	woman	C			should not be	Rel
107	so	Text.	she	C			has to be	Rel
108			Woman	C			has	Rel
109			Our society	R			depend	Mat
110			woman	C			has	Rel
111			She	C			gives	Mat
112			Woman	C			is	Rel
113	but	Text.	he	R			is	Rel
114	and	Text.	he	R			is	Rel
115	Nowadays	Ideat.	woman	C			becames	Rel
116	but	Text.	she	C			has to be	Rel
117	and	Text.	.....	C			take care	Beh
118			Some people	P			stand	Mat
119	they think that	Int.	she	C			is	Rel
120	and	Text.	she	C			is borned	Mat
121	I think	Int.	they	C			are	Rel
22/1 22	People believe that	Int.	children raising and being looked after	R			is	Rel
123			the woman	C			have to	Mat
124	and	Text.	.....	C			bring up	Mat
125	and	Text.	.....	C			look after	Mat
126			This	R			teaching	Mat
127*	They believe also that	Int	women's job	R			is	Rel
128	in other words	Text.	women	C			have to stay	Mat
129	Old generation believe that	Int.	women	C			must not go out	Mat
130	nor	Text.	.....	C			appear	Mat
131			They	C			depends	Mat
132	Those people have forgotten that	Ideat.	a woman	C			can be	Rel
133			she	C			must take	Mat
134	but	Text.	this	R			doesnt prevent	Mat
135	Why not if she believes that the first women in Islam work with the army.....,	Ideat.	she	C			can sacrifice	Beh
136	So	Text.	she	C			must share	Mat
137			some women	C			feel	Men
138			Most of the young generation	P			believe	Men
139	and	Text.	they	P			encouerge	Mat
23/1 40			Women	C			are	Rel
141	so	Text.	women	C	nowadays	Ideat.	take	Mat

142			The role of woman in the modern life	R			is	Rel
143	So	Text.	women	C	now	Ideat.	(are).....	Rel
144	In past time	Ideat.	women	C			were	Rel
145			she	C			was working	Mat
146	In the twetith century	Ideat.	the role of the women	R			has changed	Mat
147	If we look at past	Int.	we	P			can find	Mat
148	Nowadays	Ideat.	the women	C			succeed	Beh
149	So	Text.	the place of woman	R			is	Rel
24/1 50	As you said	Int.	there	P			are	Exist
151							let's say	Ver
152			she	C			is	Rel
153			she	C			is	Rel
154	So	Text.	I	P			support	Mat
155a	<i>Firstly, The nature of women, I mean the emotional aspect</i>	Text. Ideat. Int.						
156			she	C			is	Rel
157	and when she wants to give an opinion,	Text. Ideat.	she	C			hesitates	Ver
158	then	Text.	she	C			suggests	Ver
159	And because of her hesitation,	Text. Ideat.	her suggestion	R			will lose	Mat
160	Secondly,	Text.	Each family	R			needs	Rel
161	as Arabs	Ideat.	we	P			need	Rel
162			They	C			have	Rel
163			They	C			need to feel,...	Men
164	Thirdly,	Text.	women	C			feel	Men
165	really	Int.	they	C			feel	Men
166	Also	Text.	their children	R			will not forget	Men
167	Finally	Text.	I	P			like	Men
168	and	Text.	I	P			will find	Mat
27/1 69			There	P			are	Exist
170	Some people believe that	Int.	the woman's place	R			is	Rel
171	others think that	Int.	she	C			must work	Mat
172	Nowadays,	Ideat.	most of the students who graduated	R			try	Mat
173	and	Text.	some of them	R			like	Men
174	In my opinion	Int.	women	C			should not stay	Mat
175			she	C			must work,	Mat
176	and	Text.	.....	C			...take	Mat
177	But, in this case	Text. Text	she	C			must make	Mat
178	In some cases	Ideat.	many educated people	P			stay	Mat
179	and	Text.	this	P			will never matter	Men



180			Unemploy- ment	P			causes	Rel
181	So	Text.	whether to stay at home or work	R			is	Rel
182	if the woman is married and she can mange both	Ideat.	she	C			can do	Mat
183a	As for those who believe that woman must stay at home,	Ideat.	(they)	P			are	Rel
183b	because they have a high-level education	Ideat.	staying at home	R			will not give	Mat
184	so	Text.	she	C			'll lack	Rel
185	and	Text.	she	C			'll not be	Rel
186	So I believe that if I'd have the chance to choose	Text. Int. Int.	I	P			'll choose	Mat
29/1 87			Women's having a job	R			has been	Rel
188			This issue	R			has witnessed	Men
189	Consequently,	Text.	men and women	R			considered	Rel
190	It is obvious that	Ideat.	women	C			have	Rel
191			A woman	C			is	Rel
192	and	Text.	the mother	C			has	Rel
193	Similarly,	Text.	the wife	C			should shoulder	Mat
194	Basically,	Int.	these duties	R			should be done	Mat
195	Now	Ideat.	some women	C			have	Rel
196			They	C			dream	Men
197	I believe that	Int.	working women	C			are	Rel
198	and	Text.	they	C			deserve	Beh
199	but	Text.	the most important thing	P	here	Ideat.	is	Rel
200			Women's having jobs	R			is	Rel
201	but	Text.	this	R			must not affect	Mat
31/2 0 2	Well, in my opinion I don't believe that	Text. Int. Int.	the woman's place	R			is	Rel
203			she	C			must study,	Mat
204	and	Text.	.....	C			work	Mat
205			Women	C	also,	Text.	must be	Rel
33/2 06			Women's place	R			has *always* been	Rel
207	Over the centuries, up to the beggining of our carrent century	Ideat.	woman's status	R			remain	Rel**

208	If we ask a simple question like the following	Int.	what	P			would be	Rel
209			who	P			give birth	Mat
210			who	P			raise	Mat
211			who	P			feed	Mat
212			who	P			sit	Mat
213			The answer	P			would simply be	Rel
214			we	P			can't think	Men
215	this means that	Ideat.	any disturbance in her aimed or specific role	P			would lead	Rel
216	therefore	Text.	a women who does her assignd duty	C			is	Rel
217	I believe	Int.	we	P			can't change	Mat
218	However due to the variables of our communities,	Text. Ideat.	life	P			has change	Mat
219*	therefore	Text.	new tasks	R			have (been) assignd	Mat
220	but	Text.	this	R			doesn't change	Mat
38/2 21	Some people believe that	Int.	a woman's place	R			is	Rel
222			Others	P			do not (believe)	Men
223			People all over the world	P			keep	Rel
224a 224b	Shall or	Int. Text.	she .....	C C			...stay ...go out	Mat Mat
225a			I	P			'm	Rel
225b	in some cases especially if she is married and have children,	Ideat. Ideat.	it	P			is	Rel
226			Working woman	C	sometimes	Int.	cannot manage	Mat
227 228	Some of the well educated women said	Int.	we we	P P			have to work need	Mat Rel
229	but I think that	Text Int.	equality	R			is	Rel
230	Also	Text.	our conventional rules	P			have	Rel
231	if we look at the western culture we can notice that	Int.						
232	and	Int. Text.	women .....	C C			start continue	Mat** Mat
233	and sometimes	Text. Int.	she	C			may lose	Mat
234	Finally, I can say that	Text. Int.	the woman's place	R			is	Rel

41/2 35	It should be considered that	Int	woman	C			has	Rel
236	But	Text.	her main place	R			is	Rel
237	First of all,	Text.	woman	C			has to take care	Beh
238	Instead of registering children in nurseries and letting them have a bad education and being emposed to harm by the nurses,	Ideat.	woman	C			is able to raise...	Mat
239	and	Text.	.....	C			give	Mat
240	Second,	Text.	she	C			has	Rel
241	otherwise,	Text.	her husband	R			will have to take	Mat
242	and	Text.	that	R			is	Rel
243			This	R			might be	Rel
244	Third,	Text.	woman	C			is	Rel
245	and	Text.	that	P			leads	Rel
43/2 46	I belive that	Int.	woman's place	R			is	Rel
247			Woman's main role	R			is	Rel
248	If the woman changes her main role	Ideat.	it	R			will affect	Mat
249			Problems and difficulties	P			will occur	Mat
250			Araising children	P			will be related	Rel
251	As a result of this,	Text.	a new generation	R			is growing up.	Mat
252			This new generation	R			lack	Rel
253			Another factor for my bellief	P			is	Rel
254	and in this case	Text. Text.	she	C			will egnore	Beh
255			This	R			may destroy	Mat
256			All religions,	P	as I think	Int.	have kept	Rel
257			The woman	C	in such case	Text.	is	Rel
258			The woman	C			has	Rel
45/2 59			There	P			has been	Exist
260	Some people believe that	Int	woman's place	R			is	Rel
261			I	P			cannot deny	Ver
262	But I believe that	Text. Int.	the woman's place	R			is	Rel
263			Women	C	nowadays	Ideat.	can work	Mat
264			Women	C			must not be isolated	Mat
265			they	C			have	Rel
266			Women	C			can help	Mat
267			they	C			proved	Rel
268	So that	Text.	no one	P			can deny	Ver
269	My point of view is that	Int.	the woman's role	R			is	Rel
270	In fact	Text.	I	P			am	Rel
271			Women	C			should get	Rel
272			.....	C			seek	Mat
273			they	C			should not live	Mat



274			They	C			are	Rel
275			they	C			have to be...	Rel
276	and	Text.	.....	C			take	Mat
277	From this we can see that	Text. Int.	the woman's role	R			is	Rel
278	moreover	Text.	they	C			can improve	Rel
279	Taking all these facts about a woman's place, one can conclude that	Ideat.  Int	  the woman's place	  R			  is	  Rel
47/2 80			I	P			'm going to explain	Ver
281			The first job of a woman	R			is	Rel
282			She	C			should also make	Mat
283			She	C			should also avoid	Mat
284	Religeosly,	Ideat.	we	P			can't prevent	Mat
285			Teaching girls at school	R			is	Rel
286	Nowadays,	Ideat.	many social diseases	P			have envaded	Mat
287	and	Text.	this	R			cause	Rel
288	and also	Text. Text.	men and women work(ing) together for a long period of time	C			make	Mat
289	In my point of view	Int.	I	P			am	Rel
290	a. but b. if there is a suitable job that she can have and help her family	Text. Ideat.	I	P			think	Men
291	but if she doesn't find this kind of jobs, I think	Text Ideat.  Int.	staying at home and looking after children	R			is	Rel
56/2 92			Women in this world	C			is	Rel
293			There	P			are	Exist
294			each case	P			has	Rel
295	In the past according to bad customs	Ideat. Ideat.	woman	C			was considered	Rel
296	so that	Text	her relatives	R			commited	Mat
297			This bad condition	P			was	Rel
298	In the light of the Islam's appearence	Ideat.	woman	C			take	Mat
299	For example	Text.	it	P			is	Rel
300	also	Text.	Islam	P			prevents	Mat
301	Moreover	Text.	Islam	P			doesn't prevent	Mat
302	In our time	Ideat.	the ways of life	P			change	Mat
303	and	Text.	life	P			is getting	Rel
304	so that	Text.	man and woman	C			work	Mat
305			woman's work	R			doesn't limit	Mat
306	that means	Text.	woman	C			can do	Mat
307	and	Text.	.....	C			practice	Mat

308	In addition to that	Text.	there	P			is	Exist
309	So	Text.	woman's position	R			is	Rel
310			her position	R			is	Rel

APPENDIX E.1

Thematic Progression - successful texts

(1)

<u>Topic-related Themes</u>	<u>Themes unrelated to topic</u>
1. Women	
	2. It
3. the woman	
4. she	
	5. I
6. The woman	
7. The woman	
8. Her delicacy	
9. she	
10. women	
	11. One
	12. This
13. women	
14. women	
15. The husband	
16. the wife	
17. she	
18. the wife	
	19. This
	20. this

(4)

1. the natural and only place for a woman	
	2. it
3. women's role in most society	
	4. There
5. Women	
6. They	
7. women	
8.They	
9.They	
10. women	
11. Their outstanding efforts and abilities	
	12. no one
13. this (women's role as wives and mothers)	
14. Women	
15. <i>they</i> (elided)	

(6)

1. women	
2. they	
3. Women	
4. women	
	5. God
6. they	
7. they	
8. they	
9. they	
10. One evidence for this (women's raising up children)	
11. women	



- 12. They
- 13. Women
- 14. they
- 15. a number of men
- 16. women
- 17. that
- 18. women
- 19. there

(13)

- 1. a woman's place
- 2. Others
- 3. Women
- 4. Men
- 5. It
- 6. Women
- 7. they
- 8. They
- 9. they
- 10. all man's displeasures
- 11. women
- 12 *they* (elided)
- 13. All these ideas about women
- 14. we
- 15. my prophet Mohammed
- 16. I
- 17. Women in my religion
- 18. they
- 19. she (woman)
- 20. a woman who received her rights in Islam
- 21. A woman
- 22. It
- 23. she
- 24. she
- 25. most women
- 26. that (working women's neglecting their homes and children)
- 27. Some women who stay at home
- 28. all they do
- 29. It all
- 30. she

(14)

- 1. a woman's proper place
- 2. forcing women to stay at home
- 3. The question (that women are forced to stay at home)
- 4. the wife
- 5. This
- 6. a husband
- 7. women
- 8. we
- 9. women
- 10. Male-dominating societies
- 11. the question (whether should stay at home or not)
- 12. women

(19)

- 1. A woman's place
- 2. This idea (women's place is in the home)

3. the outlook to women and their role in the society
4. All these phenomena (opportunities of learning and responsibilities given to women)
5. women
6. they
  7. It (women's leaving their homes)
8. women
  9. home
  10. all those phenomena
  11. The outlook to women
  12. It ( women's leaving their homes)
13. Women
  14. Modern discoveries
15. women
  16. a woman's place
  17. Her house
18. she
  19. we
20. They

(20)

1. Women
2. women
3. wome
  4. this aaatude and this role of women
  5. Life
    6. the roles that people play in the society
7. Women
8. *they* (elided)
9. *they* (elided)
  10. There (two reasons)
  11. Life (the first reason)
  12. Women's attitude and how they look upon themselves
    13. the hazards that are awaiting us
    14. we
    15. this
  16. the man
    17. you
    18. The second reason
19. Women
20. they
21. *they* (elided)
22. they
23. both men and women
24. women

(25)

1. A woman's place
2. A woman
  3. Work and education
  4. The term "work"
    5. The traditional outlook of not accepting women to work
6. Women
7. Those (women) who belonged to the "middle class"
8. they
  9. that look
10. women
  11. we
  12. Education

- 13. Better education
- 14. I
- 15. This category (of women)
- 16. they
- 17. They
- 18. those (of women) who managed to get better education
- 19. I
- 20. A final statement
- 21. There (a job)

(26)

- 1. There (opportunities for women)
- 2. More and more women
- 3. This increasing number of women
- 4. *they* (elided)
- 5. They
- 6. they
- 7. There
- 8. It (women's right)
- 9. There (responsibility on her)
- 10. she
- 11. we
- 12. Women's work
- 13. Women
- 14. There (sections for men and women)
- 15. there (jobs for women)
- 16. working
- 17. There (fields open for women)
- 18. women's work
- 19. *it* (elided)

(36)

- 1. God
- 2. a woman
- 3. men
- 4. That
- 4. women
- 5. women
- 6. their place
- 7. this (people's view of women)
- 8. men
- 9. they (women)
- 10. they
- 11. they
- 12. There (discrimination against women)
- 13. this
- 14. Women
- 15. some women
- 16. men

(47)

- 1. Women
- 2. their role
- 3. Teaching, medical care, factories and social activities
- 4. Education
- 5. Women
- 6. they
- 7. women



- 8 *they* (elided)
    9. Neglecting women in education
    10. These learners
  11. Women
  12. women
  13. women
    14. It (the great woman Florence Nightingale)
  15. Women
  16. They
    17. Neglecting this role
    18. Medical sector
    19. men
    - 20 Not all jobs
    21. Many jobs
  22. women
    23. These jobs
    24. dropping women from this sector
    25. Economics
    26. they
      27. The world
      28. large communities and modern communication means
  29. Women
  30. They
    31. adulscents
  32. Women in responsibility
    32. I
  33. women
  34. she
  35. *she* (elided)
- (50)
1. I
  2. she
  3. She
    4. a woman's work outside her home
  5. she
  6. she
  7. she
    8. the woman's work
  9. she
    10. this (showing her activity and power)
  11. A woman
  12. she
  13. she
  14. she
  15. a woman
  16. The up-to-date woman
    17. the pillar of the society

## APPENDIX E.2

### Thematic Progression - Unsuccessful texts

#### Topic-related Themes

#### Themes unrelated to topic

(2)

1. a woman's place
2. She
3. She
4. she
5. A woman
6. *she* (elided)

7. we
8. His responsibility
9. people

10. women
11. they

(5)

1. Women's place
3. woman
4. she

2. I

5. All those actions
6. Something wrong
7. the society
8. This action
9. it (this action)

10. women
11. women
12. homes

(7)

1. women

2. th freedom
3. it
4. Most people
5. Others

6. men

7. (*Those people*) who prefer
8. One of these logical thinking
9. (*Those people*) who are psychologically weak
10. those (people) who are rich
11. going and wandering in common places

12. People who are against the working women

(10)

1. life
2. people
3. women
4. that
5. Men
6. it
7. women
8. They

9. women
10. women's main role
11. they
12. *they* (elided)

(17)

1. Women in this society
2. they
3. women in this society
4. The education
5. women
6. women
7. we
8. Women who are educated
9. children
10. women
11. I
13. women
14. Women
15. They
16. they

(18)

1. People who think
2. woman
3. she
4. Woman
5. Our society
6. woman
7. she
8. woman
9. he (man)
10. he
11. woman
12. she
13. *she* (elided)
14. Some people
15. she
16. she
17. they

(23)

1. Women
2. women
3. the role of women in the modern life
4. women
5. she
6. the role of the women
7. we
8. the women
9. the place of women

(27)

1. There
2. the woman's place
3. she



- 4. most of the students who graduated
- 5. some of them
- 6. women
- 7. she
- 8. *she* (elided)
- 9. she
- 10. many educated people
- 11. this
- 12. Unemployment
- 13. whether to stay at home or work
- 14. she
- 15. *they* (people who believe...*missing*)
- 16. staying at home
- 17. she
- 18. she
- 17. I

- (31)
- 1. the woman's place
  - 2. she
  - 3. *she* (elided)
  - 4. Women

- (33)
- 1. Women's place
  - 2. woman's status
  - 3. what
  - 4. The answer
  - 5. any disturbance
  - 6. a woman who does her assigned duty
  - 7. we
  - 8. life
  - 9. new tasks
  - 10. this

- (38)
- 1. a woman's place
  - 2. Others
  - 3. People all over the world
  - 4. she
  - 5. *she* (elided)
  - 6. I
  - 7. it ( woman's looking after her children)
  - 8. working woman
  - 9. we
  - 10. we
  - 11. equality
  - 12. our conventional traditions
  - 13. women
  - 14. *they* (elided)
  - 15. she
  - 16. the woman's place

(56)

1. Women in this world
2. There
3. each case
4. woman
5. her relatives
6. This bad condition
7. woman
8. it
9. Islam
10. Islam
11. the ways of life
12. life
13. man and woman
14. woman's work
15. woman
16. *she* (elided)
17. there
18. woman's position
19. her position

## APPENDIX F.1

### Analysis of Lexical density - Successful Texts

Women important element community have major tasks perform community destined ruin.  
tasks people argue nowadays.  
woman work home  
have choice work

part support former viewpoint .  
woman work home reasons benefit husband children family's happiness stability.

Physiologically speaking woman created take big tasks.  
delicacy weakness prevent performing hard work.  
man support family work.

Women created perform great task bringing children.  
nobler task one  
task man perform  
women lucky honoured have task.

women have husbands take care  
husband has responsibility supporting protecting family.  
wife bring sorts restfulness  
hand back morally needs

Having qualities wife bring happiness stability members family.  
women aim  
women wish have.

Women humans society rely  
considered efficient persons play great role society.  
women have great roles society bringing children educate work effectively job homes.  
Women work homes face difficulties concerning life families.  
work acquire essential knowledge helps teaching children right behaviour follow.  
last reason working women build strong personality face different kinds people different culture.

Women work face different difficulties arise upbringings family.  
difficulties concerning behaviour do girls women.  
kind difficulty arise dangerous difficulty related personalities.  
work overcome difficulty  
different person.

reason letting women work acquire essential knowledge helps teach children.  
know right way teaching good morals children's age adults important issue decide right way  
teaching learning.  
work provides great knowledge experience women.

last reason building women's personalities.  
work face different cultural people way directly indirectly affects women's personalities.  
become courageous strong brave-educated organised self confident.

think women have chance work homes let face life difficulties easily problems.

years believed natural place a woman house raising children cleaning managing family,  
case



last century women role societies undergone changes.  
great shift regarding responsibilities women world.  
Women forced leave domestic lives  
involved serious duties.  
worked factories schools institutions  
succeeded men.

unlike old believes, women proved effective members society.  
managed occupy important position industrial, educational, agricultural economical sectors.  
stand men  
play effective role political sector.  
Here Jordan women managed ministers, members parliament local committees.  
outstanding efforts abilities appreciated  
rewarded encouraged work harder improve performance.

one deny sacred role women wives especially mothers,  
mean thing succeed  
55 Women clever resourceful  
prove difficult careers exactly like men.

people believe women side side work men believe women work, great paralysis attack society.  
believe, wrong.  
Women stay homes main reasons.

women needed bring raise children.  
God created women certain physiology psychology.  
Physically speaking, side sexes beget children;  
sexes raise children have passion men.  
women go work, forgetting main duty, beget children,  
raise good way.  
evidence western civilization.  
There, women, work long hours, suffering reconcile works duties home Arabic society, women  
face problem, generally speaking.  
devoted homes children.

Women occupy men's places fields.  
women go work fight men places universities jobs, need hard effort do  
number men suffer find source income thing prevent getting married forming new families.  
One argue women need money certain income support  
right certain women like lost supporters.  
general women help men  
main responsible side money making family men cases bread winners family.

conclusion one notice certain reasons explain women stay home going work side side men.

people think woman's place home.  
Others do  
think agree second opinion.  
woman past used sit home doing housework bringing children  
helped husband working farm.

social environment difficult circumstances woman past get contact others same country country.  
circumstances began change  
industrial revolution happened.  
time institutions built asking women rights sides especially work.  
gradually woman began work different jobs like teaching, nursing, helping injured people,  
working factories, working hospitals

working woman pay attention important point work have negative effect home children especially.

clever know do correctly.

work expense doing duties home.

say forbidden women work homes job

Others say work specific jobs teaching nursing.

opinion woman free do likes

work area wishes.

think woman work want

time protect

have wrong jobs.

have ones suitable physical characters burden hard

think good working woman one makes fair job home.

Woman's place home reasons.

women's role build society, block block important necessary engaged jobs homes.

one replace woman house, children, leaving do job.

Servants do job

works done servants.

woman has children work

leave house job,

has children do roles same time

run sheep, catch

Children home need mother time,

watch children home, sit mother one

child need developing step step life.

one care child like mother,

especially affective domain, women look after children.

good woman participate thing life,

thing important

important.

abilities women like abilities men jobs, body

Women do hard works men do,

works women do home, men do,

good men women do suitable work

real life situation observes women work finds time engage children homes look time waiting end

work leave do main role home.

people believe woman's place home.

centuries women's place world related home, children slavery.

beginning century movements changes happened women liberation.

basis civilization development world general societies specific, claim believe women have chance exploring challenging world, homes.

married women have responsibilities homes children, women have chance world education learning men societies.

times women proved intelligent men many fields areas.

example women proved intelligent field education elections massive success year Tawjihy elections took place.

sound feminist while,

want have better world live world racism.

want live better life build better future generations coming let women participate have equal share women men. write new history full human happiness human misery.



conclusion, women have chance leave homes,  
chose stay home encourage participate life.  
treated equally.

people believe woman's place home.  
Others do

Women centuries looked second rate people society.  
Men have dominant.  
man's world.  
Women treated slaves;  
sold bought;  
created man's pleasures;  
others thought devils evil; cruelty,  
man's displeasures  
dark ages women burned death  
crucified had red hair thought witches.  
ideas women result women's status society nowadays.  
astonished find people nowadays believe woman's place home.  
concerned, believe prophet Mohammed taught  
learned religion.  
Women religion given same rights men.  
religion regained women identity respected human has same rights privilege men;  
roles differ have same rights.  
believe woman bears children, considered  
believe woman received rights Islam neglect home children.  
woman do roles society man does.  
goes doing roles question.  
woman wants work home has children free do account husband children.  
doing role try fair;  
neglect home.  
sad case women work society neglect homes children.  
true cases.  
women stay home neglect responsibilities husbands children.  
do visit gossip day.  
point view think refers person woman's place society.  
home home part society doing home playing role building society.

traditionalist view has woman's "proper" place home.  
perfectly women choose stay home, pressure course, forcing women stay home denies basic  
rights individual freedom make decision.

question women forced stay home  
husbands feel wife mix men.  
position explicitly admits women sex objects good thing admired put pedestal,  
speak clearly husband case projecting sexual problems insecurity males.  
sense, women become prisoners image created men.

deny one right water, example looked cruel merciless.  
women denied basic requirements right earn livelihood support  
Male-dominated societies want keep power hands males female empowerment brings kinds  
insecurity threats male's manhood.

question women stay home.  
individual society, women have freedom choice, society lose half productive members.

people believe woman's place home.  
believe



reasons opinion makes woman's place home.  
first reason family sake one  
second cultural one.  
try elaborate position issue Arab, educated girl, following paragraphs.

first reason better woman stay home family sake.  
jobs requires person spend time home.  
assume mother father works children left nursery maid considerate eye  
raised wrongly  
adopt bad habits make suffer future consequences.  
children deprived great love tenderness mother;  
grow deprived, complicated individuals.  
look family mother present notice members closely related leading happy, easy life \* present  
mother supervision.  
result produce establish community base firm.  
Arab woman, woman have lasting happiness has great family had pleased God great work.

second reason cultural reason.  
Arab culture believes woman's place home.  
job place family.  
please husband bring raised children.  
woman leave work public life fear neglect family;  
result corruption children self.  
believed woman leaves home neglect family matters.  
children let alone house, deviate.  
results lead corruption family corruption whole society.

believe believe continuing high cost living standard woman go work help husband establishing  
proper kind life future children.  
say conditions.  
gets job take time expense family.  
distract proper raising children.  
full confidence manage family job.  
conditions fulfilled, harm leave home,  
first priority final rest long hard day.

## APPENDIX F.2

### Analysis of Lexical density - Unsuccessful Texts

think woman's place home.

has responsibilities home

stay home.

raise children

make good ones.

look children babies feeding teaching good morals grow older

doing believe helping having good community.

woman teaches boys brave men

teaches daughters good wives good mothers.

have man's role home.

responsibility work home, bring oney, look whole family.

communities people asking freedom women go home share man work responsibilities.

communities women, hate working

wish have family stay children bored dark life.

Womans place home.

strongly believe capacity, society religion.

opinion woman capable look family man,

bring children god give ability ability organizer family.

actions suitable woman man man responsible getting money food family.

woman goes home work man thing wrong happens life system.

society reject going women homes work.

action leads bad results

leads men jobless women occupy jobs.

religion says women stay homes look families protect bad persons capable job looking family .

conclusion say women challenging nature religion going homes work.

see homes suitable places

Islamic age ignorance age women free do like moral instructions.

Nowaday freedom given

controlled.

people prefer women stay homes,  
others like join special works, works allow confounding.  
men isolated separated women.

prefer women stay home give convincing protests.  
logical thinking spend time looking children have priority nursing.  
coming Islamic view says confounding expose gentle mankind decrease honour dignity.  
psychologically weak make abuses  
sitting service want travel works.  
rich find sufficient livinghood reject women work work exclusively feminine.  
like work materialists elusive woman's charming beauty make pressure allow work.

Going wandering common places irritating almighty.

People working women desire paradise obey represent right willingly.

people believe woman's place home.  
Personally think statement baseless.  
past, woman's roles society restricted taking care house, children husband doing tasks requires  
great effort.  
say women hardest jobs men do.  
women go schools,  
get university degrees,  
go  
work.  
educated having jobs allowed women support families emotionally financially.  
Women worthless objects men.  
past, men superior women.  
men talk, women listen  
say word,  
agree husbands thing say wrong.

Nowadays, women stand  
argue men,  
stand rights.  
marriage, women afraid word "divorce"  
feel treated "trash", ignored have right fight divorce.  
Women apply highest position Governments world thing pleasing thrilling.



previous time life easier  
people have opinions women's role society.  
believed women do thing taking care houses children  
true extent past life sophisticated  
Men responsibilities supporting families.  
Nowadays became difficult men take responsibilities life became sophisticated thing became expensive.

Women stood husbands sharing expenses support family.  
worked houses give hand husbands.  
doing women put big burden complaining  
think women's main role homes husbands support family;  
take part  
find jobs help supporting family.

Women nowadays equal men  
share men aspect life condition require thing obliged women go homes work live difficult condition.  
people believe woman's place home  
past restriction limitation prevent women go home men strong have ability guide family objection especially wife.  
nowadays thing change  
situation become opposite.  
women take chances go home study universities  
graduation women become independent  
thing allow women work help husband family.

said prevent women take care children teach good bad good values  
thing happen women divided organized time.  
women participate men  
become unit

say man woman equal  
help establish stable life live

Women society have important element  
have responsibilities life.  
think women society take right education jobs.

education important women.

Women educated know deal life, mean life people live problemes face.

Women educated take high level education equal men.

think women clever men

educated effective element particapte important thing.

Women educated raise children good way know developed techniques raise children  
children grow good way.

women educate prove personalities.

home home personality type people hide deal defferent type people know think techniques.

agree say women educate.

women take positions proffesion.

Women need money buy thing want.

have job depend need men.

have job develop prove personalities.

People think womans' place home wrong woman different man same.

woman freedom man weak disirable man

Woman has writes riligion puts good position.

societies depend largely woman one take care children base the society.

Woman has main role society cause presence world.

gives sympathy save.

Woman man

stong

responsible hing demands labour.

Nowadays women man thing work, high rank studying circumstances live demand  
conservative

take care

people stand wrong poisition woman,

think slave man

borned servant,

think mistake know woman respected God order obey put high poisition.

People believe children raising looked women's job,  
women bring children  
look  
teaching right way live behave politely.  
exactly people especially old generation believe.  
believe women's job look husband owned, clean house, do best keep jobs done correctly,  
women stay home suitable place public places have men work  
Old generation believe women go join men's works member company association  
appear men guests available home.  
depends belief women place home society different believes.  
people forgotten woman active member society,  
take turn serve society serving ringing children looking home family,  
prevent useful members society, interacting men jobs life doing best build, work do same jobs  
men do,  
believes women Islam work army battles treat wounded soldiers treat patients sacrifice women did  
need do.  
share brothers men jobs,  
women feel proud do active member building homeland, sharing men jobs.  
Young generation believe  
encourage women join society active person job home home.

#### Women half society

women nowadays take places side side half society man.  
role woman modern life have children look work have responsibility lives doing thing work like  
do.  
women doctors, teachers engineers, mechanics jobs do strong man.

past time women having children looking looking fathers, washing cooking, cleaning, working  
farm, going sheep,  
working helping others feeling personality.

century role women changed thing different.

look past find woman became teachers, tried have job man do.

women succeed half society, whole society number women work husband setting home doing  
nothing.

place woman home do men do.

