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The Effect of Manipulating Intercultural Rhetoric Data on Rhetorical Transfer

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Declaration

I hereby declare that the substance of this dissertation is the result of my investigation as reference of acknowledgment is made when necessary to the whole of other researchers.

Hamza Cherifi

Dedication

To my family and to Bel Abbes Neddar,

Acknowledgment

I should like to thank my supervisor, the examiners of this work, my teachers and colleagues in the Department of English at Mostaganem University, participants of the study, the campus librarians and administrators, the deanship staff at the Faculty of Foreign Languages, and the hosting staff in the Department of Teacher Education at Helsinki University, Finland.

Abstract

The dissertation reports a study that escalates two main assumptions, each advancing the utility of L1 use in L2 writing pedagogy: First, that translation and L2 writing are analogous activities and, second, that avoidance of negative rhetorical transfer demands student writers understanding when existing L1 competences enhance or impede the L2 composition practice. This prompted the hypothesis that, for L1 composing competences to be exploited, Arabic-speaking EFL writers need instructions on (1) L1-based transfer errors, (2) contrasts in the textual mechanisms between Arabic and English, (3) contrasts in the cultural practices underpinning distinct rhetorical preferences, and (4) techniques for establishing textual translation equivalence.To test the hypothesis, a treatment was designed and manipulated on an experimental group. The effect was gauged, statistically, through a comparing the frequencies of transfer features in a post-test with three baselines and, qualitatively, via analysis of elicited interview and introspective data from participants. A class discussion method was implemented to cater for while-experiment data, and teachers' feedback on the treatment designed was elicited. Results lent support to the hypothesis in a number of ways: The decrease in the use of the targeted features in the experimental group's post-treatment test as compared to three baselines of performance; the causativeness of the treatment variable; the emphasis of course impact on participants as grounded in interview data; and the allegiance teachers expressed to the treatment. Applications of the study are categorized along the four components known to construe the language teaching enterprise. Suggestions for further research are made with varying relatedness to the present work.

List of Acronyms

BNC: The British National Corpus

CAET: The Corpus of Arabic and English Texts

CAH: The Contrastive Analyses Hypothesis

CR: Contrastive Rhetoric

ELP: The English Language Program

GTM: The Grammar-Translation Method

ICA: The International Corpus of Arabic

IAAC: International Arabic Learner Corpus

ILC: The International Learner Corpus

IR: Intercultural Rhetoric

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

QAC: The Quranic Arabic Corpus

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TL: Target Language

UCP: The University Composition Program

List of Abbreviations

CTR: Control

EXP: Experimental

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General Introduction

1. Motivation of the Study

Prior to my tantalizing choice of English as a university specialism, the desired study location was one of the translation departments—due to much enchantment I find in the translation activity. With this initial proviso in mind, a warm-up strategy of reading Arabic-to-English translations was made underway. The latter tactic ceased no sooner I decided to go for an English department, for translation and language learning hardly seemed to overlap, at least to me. What appeared to have gone in vain turned out to be potentially workable when the task of learning to compose in English offered itself. Thanks to exposure to translations, I established a number of convictions: That the English conjunction '*and'* is not as multifunctional as the Arabic 'counterpart' '*wa'*; that repetition—whether semantic or syntactic—does not characterize English as compared to Arabic; that beginning a new sentence in an English paragraph often makes a proper English translation of successive 'Arabic sentences', or *jumals*, connected by *and* or seperated by a comma; etc.

As such, the reflection on texts and their translations permitted disentangling features salient to English, especially in the light of the many alternatives sourced in standard Arabic, my mother tongue as "secondary [codified] discourse" (Fiano, 2013). The more I knew about the similarities and differences between Arabic and English writing the more there was this feeling that my English writing is more selective, more expressive, and more considerate of certain expectations. All this, I can say, was a result of a progressively thrift, conscious, and purposive deployment of L1-based composing knowledge through some sort of analogy. As a result of the change I undertook in handling the writing task, an assumption of relevance was planted in my head, and the attempt to escalate my experience into a piece of research seemed worthwhile.

While the above anecdote marks the central impetus for the present work, the need for empirical scrutiny does also build on arguments amenable to verifiability: The need for a variable that minimizes L1 interference, or *negative language transfer* (see Chapter 1), and an advocated translation-L2 writing analogy.

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1.1 Controversies in Language Transfer

The apparent disparity over what minimizes negative transfer suggests that another variable merits introducing. Specifically, literature relevant to L2 composition reveals that transfer errors demonstrated in EFL students' compositions make a major factor behind the inadequacy of writing performance. Student writers resorting to this strategy, El Daily (2011) concludes, "…are often pointed out as weak, for this reflects their struggling to compose". In line with this, literature on L2 writing seems to treat the latter as a variable constantly manipulated by the degree to which learners demonstrate L1-sepcific patterns (Kaplan, 1966; Mahamsadgy, 1988; Odlin, 1989; Fakhra, 2009; Ahmed, 2010; Abu Rass, 2011).

Another way in which the disparity features is the controversy over the proficiency factor. While some studies (Scott, 1996; Wolfersberger, 2003; Fawzi & Hussein, 2010; Zar-ee, 2011) reveal that high proficiency minimizes transfer errors, others (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008) indicate the unlikelihood of strong correlation between the two variables. Other accounts treat proficiency as a means for deploying L1-based patterns. Under this view, for composing strategies to be successfully carried to L2, learners are required to have an adequate level of proficiency in the target language (Odlin, 1989, 2003). Hence, one might deduce that just as proficient student writers are those avoiding negative transfer from their L1, this label may well apply to those deploying L1 existing knowledge for positive transfer. Several studies (see Aljomhouri, 2010; Fakhra, 2009; Fawzi & Hussein 2010) report that high proficiency writers switched more between L1 and L2 than low proficiency writers. Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) attribute these 'paradoxes' to the fact that proficiency studies deal with different learners, different aspects of language, and different measures of proficiency which identifies either with test scores or with years of target language learning. Hence, the effect of high or low proficiency on language transfer is hardly clear-cut.

At another level, error analyses studies detect *rhetorical transfer* irrespective of academic level or intensity of English writing courses (Nelson, 2002; Abu Radwan, 2010; Aljomhouri, 2010; Ridha, 2010). This transfer type involves the deployment of L1-based mechanisms of coherence and cohesion for the L2 writing task (see Chapter 2). Compatibly, the researcher identified transfer of cohesive devices from Arabic to English in essays written by second year Master students in the English Department at the University of Mostaganem (see Appendix A). The following passages illustrate *long sentence* and *semantic parallelism*, which represent ostensive markers of Arabic rhetoric:

1. Corpus linguistics is the study of large collections of language data with the aim of identifying what is frequent and important in this data, in addition, *corpus linguistics* deals with performance rather than competence data which is out of the concern of *corpus linguistics*, and the corpus linguist is occupied with the preferences in a given variety of language.

2. Understanding and interpretation of a *literary text* is essential in literary studies, the extent to which the reader can understand the *literary text* depends on the degree on which both the writer and reader's literary competence overlap, also the reader's immediate reaction to the *literary text* can be expressed, the *literary text* is different from a non-*literary text*.

The observation is compatible with Fawzi and Hussein (2010) and Zar-ee (2011). These studies conclude that learning how to write in a foreign language does not necessarily minimize discourse interference.

Aside of the persistence of transfer errors, students seem to assume universality of discourse. As Conner (1996, p. 32) concludes, "universality of discourse has too readily been assumed, and mechanisms of cohesion and coherence were thought to be universal enough to need no attention from language teacher". In fact, this in the English Department lies in the noticeable lack of feedback on transfer errors in students' English writing. Hence, the unlikelihood of a static perception of what minimizes transfer makes the issue merit complementary or alternative hypothesis. It is, here, assumed that transfer errors would be minimized through a process of error negotiation, and through getting learners to know the similarities and differences between mother tongue and the language under learning, in the sense Arabic and English.

1.2 The Translation-L2 Writing Analogy

The second major factor behind the inception of this action research is a perceived translation-L2 writing analogy. Indeed, both acts appear to share the same intercultural dimension of communication, where conveyance is in the light of existent models: The translators' source text and the learners' deeply rooted mother tongue system. The latter kind of existent model stems from the nature of L2 writing which is, arguably, transfer-inviting (Kaplan, 1966; Corder; 1983; Koch, 1983; Odlin, 1989; Connor, 1997; Mohamed & Omar 2000). Odlin (1989) comments that one of the salient features of L2 writing is L2 writers'

tendency to switch back and forth between their L1 and the L2, especially when they are struggling with a problem when composing in that language (cited in Abu Radwan, 2012, p. 367). Uzawa (1996) concludes that the "efforts of the foreign language writer are no more than concealed translation" (p. 274).

Apparently, the transfer of language knowledge—present either in a concrete or abstract text—can have either 'positive' or 'negative' consequences on both translation and L2 writing. In the former, the transfer of source text knowledge for the construal of the target text identifies with literal translation. The latter results either in equivalent target text in case of "formal correspondence" Nida and Taber (1969), where the source language pattern is shared by the target language, or in non-equivalence when the TL deploys other patterns for conveying the intended meaning. This equation, however, seems invalid when translation is motivated by other than the quest for equivalence, where elements of the source text are removed in order to domesticate the translation to familiar reference of the target language community. By the same token, the transfer of L1-based knowledge to the L2 writing task does either impede or halt performance. Switching from LI, therefore, constitutes a major source of deviance in both processes.

In the same vein, (Nazal, 2012) concludes that the entities which greatly impact the process of translation are the same entities which exert an influence on the outcome of any intercultural communication. Such a state suggests that the foreign language student writer can be said to act upon a mental source text, more or less parallel to that engaged with in the translation activity. Hence, there seems to be a need for instruction on how the source text needs to be adapted, or to use the translation metalanguage, *shifted* so that textual equivalence is achieved. The provision of this knowledge is expected to enable learners to recognize how existing textual functions are expressed through L2.

Hence, one way in which discourse competence might be fostered is through adapting students' prior experience to the new medium of communication, by considering similarities and differences and contrasting composition practices be them cultural, cognitive or pedagogical.

2. Hypothesis of the Study

The study sets out to test and verify the hypothesis that Arabic-speaking EFL student writers need to be presented with Knowledge about:

- The similarities and differences between Arabic and English composition practice (mechanisms of cohesion and coherence).
- The cultural dimensions of Arabic and English textual patterns.
- The writing transfer errors pertinent to Arabic-speaking EFL learners.
- The translation techniques needed for establishing textual equivalence.

The above content is expected to get students to consciously exploit existing competences, either through avoidance of negative transfer or through transferring shared textual mechanisms. Translation is expected to play an adaptive role, allowing a principled adjustment of textual features to readers' expectation.

The above assumption is found in a more systematic manner recommended for the teaching of writing. Reviewing research investigating LI impact on the English writing of EFL Arab learners, findings of the research paradigm of *intercultural rhetoric* are recommended for the teaching of L2 writing, especially with reference to Arabic-speaking student writers:

> In general, Arabic and English speakers seem to use different organizational patterns and writing styles. Knowledge of these patterns and styles can be very beneficial to Arab students learning English. At the same time, those involved in teaching English to Arabic-speaking students, should be familiar with these organizational patterns, for this awareness can potentially lead them to a better understanding of the problems their students encounter. Once rhetorical and organizational differences are pointed out, they should be put to use prescriptively in the classroom. *"Presenting the findings of contrastive rhetoric in a pedagogical context can lead to enlightenment of learners about their writing in English* (Leki, 1991)". Awareness of rhetorical patterns thus might have some pedagogical value as it might translate into ability to use this knowledge in actual writing situations. (Abu Radwan, 2012, p. 391).

3. Aim, Objectives and Methods of the Study

This study sets out to explore the effect presenting data from Arabic-English intercultural rhetoric research will have on rhetorical transfer. To achieve this aim, the study purports:

- To design a treatment meant to comprise and deliver the knowledge the researcher advocates.
- To pre-test participants in a control (CTR) group and an experimental (EXP) group along features representing Arabic rhetoric.
- To manipulate the treatment on the EXP group participants and, then, administer a post-test to participants in both groups.
- To conduct a pre-post test comparison, where the performance of the EXP group in the pre-test gets compared both to their performance in the pre-test and to the performance of the CTR group.
- To investigate the effect of the treatment through participants' interview and introspective data.
- To elicit the feedback of teachers on the treatment designed.

As a way to boost conclusiveness of results, or to guarantee a high degree of internal validity, the effect of the treatment was allocated multiple dimensions. In doing so, the correlation between the two variables was examined in written performance and in the attitudes and introspection of participants. It was decided that the effect of the variable manifests in teacher's feedback on the treatment. Because the study operated within a mixed-methods paradigm (see Chapter 4), which allows exploratory intervention, other methodological decisions were taken in the course of the study. This involved considering while-experiment data. As such, the study was concerned not only with the effect of the treatment as a product but as a process as well.

4. Significance of the Study

In fact, my advocacy for the proposed knowledge partly stems from assuming a general utility of L1 use in L2 learning and teaching (see Widdowson, 2003; Cook, 2011). These proposals—due to the solid footing of their arguments—have been being provocative of empirical and theoretical treaties meant either to gauge their uptake or to make the issue reappear on the surface as a fashion move in language teaching literature. Students' L1

present in the L2 language classroom arguably sparks rivalries, with one's mother tongue hardly allocated connection with L2 acquisition or learning. Widdowson (2003) complains: "Presumably we should be busy getting the first language and the foreign language into contact in our learners, but what we seem to be doing is exactly the opposite" (p. 149). This opposite starts up with a deeply rooted resentment of reappraising L1 use in L2 learning. Indeed, the history of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) appears sprinkled with tension, reappraisals and rival claim: "Once an idea catches on and becomes widely accepted, it too becomes susceptible to being overthrown by new scientific findings" (Cook, 2011. p. 85). The tension appears in a variety of SLA controversies, including whether errors are of use; whether instruction alters the order of acquisition, whether interaction regulates hypothesis formulation; whether input determines output; whether the context of conversation governs interlanguage variation, etc. The repercussion on teachers, Cook (2011) comments, is that "after even some short time in the profession, they may encounter opposite truth" (p. 85). While these issues are kept prone to reappraisal, "the notion that translation is not helpful to acquisition seems to have been so firmly established that it is hardly being investigated at all (Cook, 2011, p. 88). One possible reason is that those rejections dragged behind the 'pitfalls' inherent in the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM). It has almost become consensual among teachers and applied linguistics students that GTM makes the ideal attempt to consider L1 use in L2 teaching—another way in which the idea gets resilient to evaluation and regeneration.

Adding to all this, language teaching seems governed more by factors other than pedagogical effectiveness and utility, namely the pervasiveness of ideology in the enterprise (Davies, 1995), which carved out an unrivaled prestige value assumed of an only-English industry. One possible factor behind the persistence of the latter is that "language teaching developed as a technology within the framework of agreed values…the concern is with improving rather than questioning values" (Cook, 2011, p. 85). The case does culminate in the apparent centralization of effective method and syllabus delivery in language teaching literature. This goes at the expanse of counterargument that seeks to reassess the genesis of the practice, a move that would reappraise and examine the incorporation of students' mother tongue.

Aside from the need to revisit and avoid much of the preconceptions about the issue, a number of reasons might back up the argument of L1 use in L2 teaching and learning. Above all, "English [and any other L2] as a foreign language is a bilingual subject", and "the very

foreignness of English means that another language [learners' L1] is implicated in some way in the process of achieving this capability" (Widdowson 2003, p. 149). Widdowson further implied that students' L1 represents prior knowledge that needs to be constructed upon: "Our students come to class with, at least, one language and our task is to get them acquire another one especially that "the objective of a language subject is to develop in students the capacity in a language other than L1" (p. 149).

The researcher believes that this enquiry does warrant investigation for multiple reasons. Primarily, the study deals with a key but apparently neglected issue related to L2 learners' difficulties with composition in the Algerian context. Generally, L1 influence on L2 learning—whether positive or negative—attracts less scrutiny compared to other SLA issues. When dealt with, the rhetorical kind of language transfer—the one highlighted as a problem in the present study—is hardly investigated. The same might be true of pragmatic transfer and the transfer of reading strategies. Transfer studies in the Algerian context rather seem to be confined to grammar and lexis, the likes of preposition (Temme, 2011) and articles (Boukhaled, 2010). Therefore, testing and providing an account of rhetorical transfer would assist in helping both students and teachers to identify and consciously cater for the problem of negative transfer in writing. It would render students more aware of their errors and provide teachers with more insights in terms of giving feedback on students' written tasks, especially in the light of a noticeable lack of feedback on transfer errors.

Advancing the relevance of translation, the study comes out with a given presumption about the role of L1 in L2, and hence penetrates a non-stop debate. Arguably, L1 in L2 teaching marks a ceaseless debate which halts empirical intervention. The present work, however, handles the issue avoiding sweeping generalization that either confirm or refute the relevance of L1 use in L2 teaching and learning. Instead, the study looks at student's L1 as an add-on strategy rather than an entirely L1-based paradigm. As such, the work does not ideologically incline to opposition of an only-English EFL industry.

5. Structure of the Dissertation

Before engaging in any experimental work, I give some theoretical foundations meant for establishing concepts needed for methodological and interpretative decisions. Chapter 1 deals with language transfer, offering a synthesis of studies and theories related to the L1-L2 relationship. In doing so, the chapter reviews matters such as when transfer occurs; what learners transfer most; and what linguistic features are transferred from Arabic to English. In

the second chapter, the research paradigm used to design the treatment is described. The chapter traces the development of intercultural rhetoric as an area of composition research with definable aims. In line with this, Chapter 3 shows how the researcher used Connor's (1996) model to design the treatment variable of the present study. The fourth chapter exposes the methodology and research design underlying the conduct of the study. Subsequently, Chapter 5 lays out the results obtained, providing an analysis and discussion of the data. In the sixth chapter, I discuss the implication of the study, and I offer suggestions for further research. Finally, the conclusion of my research gives a summary of the aim, the methodology and findings of the study, along with a brief account on the recommendations put forth.

Chapter One: Background on Language Transfer

1. Introduction

As stated, the essence of the present work is a data-based appraisal of what effect instructions on intercultural rhetoric would have on rhetorical transfer as demonstrated by Arabic-speaking EFL student writers. As a step towards this direction, pertaining theoretical pronouncements need reviewing so that to establish knowledge base relevant to the variables in question.The fact that negative transfer from Arabic to English marks the problematic motivating this work necessitates a thorough elaboration on the notion of language transfer. This chapter, hence, initially ventures on a discussion of the language transfer concept, followed by a portrayal of the enigmatic nature of transfer as embodied in the disparity over L1 role in L2 acquisition. Current conceptions of transfer are reviewed, and a location of transfer studies within the Algeria context is made. The chapter positions transfer from Arabic to English via a presentation of findings of studies investigating students' transfer along a variety of language areas.

2. The Language Transfer Concept

Of all the constructs pertinent to second language acquisition, language transfer appears the one sprinkled with tension most, namely as the issue follows the rival claims characteristic of discourses on theories of language. Indeed, to all SLA accounts—from highly structuralist to purely generative—there exists a consensus over the need for considering how first language influences second language learning. Beneath this "surface level" consensus lurks a set of disparities with regard to the depth of the influence and the significance transfer may exercise on L2 learning.

Though having been debatable, it has become a tautology that language learners often apply influencing linguistic and compositional patterns to the L2 encountered situation. One possible reason behind this phenomenon is that "learners unconsciously tend to perceive their native communicative and organizational patterns as universal and unique" (Petric, 2005, p. 116). It should be noted that language transfer invokes speaker's deviant language and, as such, prevailed ever since people from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds attempted to communicate in a language other than theirs. Apparently, the most cited definition of language transfer is that of Odlin (1989): "The influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been learnt or perhaps imperfectly acquired" (p.11). Yet, Odlin (2003) reconsiders that this definition is

imprecise as the term ‘influence’ requires some tightening, advancing that a thicker understanding would have been available if neurological facets are charted.

In the literature relevant to L1 influence on L2 learning, the term ‘interference’ often implies anomalous language behaviour, thereby unsuccessful learning. By this token, this term denies the possible merits of utilizing mother tongue repertoire culminating in *positive transfer*. This follows that the word remains associative of behaviourists’ strong rejection of learners’ L1, or “old habits” which can hardly be perceived—at least by practitioners in classrooms—as assistant in a sense. The term ‘transfer’, though apparently more neutral, does run into problems due to the limited epicenter of what transfer denotes as to cater for L1 influence on L2. Whereas transfer concerns the carryover of linguistic patterns from L1 to L2., L1 influence further takes the form of avoidance and overproduction (see Ellis, 2008): The L2 learner avoids structures dissimilar to his/her native language while, as a refuge, overusing those patterns presumably available in both languages. This results in a stylistically deviant performance, namely in written communication (Odlin, 1989, 2003; Ellis, 2008). Adding to this, depending on the L1-L2 similarities, transfer is found to override the speed at which some L2 patterns are learnt. One evidential basis for this features in Ard and Homburg’s (1983) comparison of Arabic- and Spanish-speaking EFL learners. The study concludes that, due to cognate vocabulary between English and Spanish, Spanish learners were found advantageous.

The expansion in the transfer concept does give the impression that the term ‘transfer’ is too narrow to account for a complex, multifaceted matter like L1 influence. In the same vein, Cook (2000) sees that “the word transfer is polarizing, as it predisposes a L1/L2 dichotomy”, stating that “language acquisition is not transferring something from one part of the mind to another, but two systems accommodating to each other [a continuum]” (p. 18). As a result of the criticism directed at the use of the term ‘transfer’, different alternatives surfaced. These mainly involve *mother tongue influence* (Cordor, 1983) and *cross linguistic influence* (Kellerman and Sharwood-Smith, 1986). The fact, however, remains that the term transfer seems more appropriate, partly because it does enjoy more conventionality and partly because the non-specificity of the term allows more aspects and processes to be encompassed.

In the profound sense of the word, transfer denotes the carryover of available knowledge to newly encountered tasks. The seed to exploiting this prototype in language is Weinreich (1953) perceiving deviations in the language performance of bilinguals as sourced

to incompatibility of the two systems. Robert Lado (1953) explains this phenomenon as "the transfer of language, meaning and culture", manifesting "both productively, when attempting to speak a language and act in the culture, and receptively, when attempting to grasp and understand the culture as practiced by natives" (1957, p. 02). As such, transfer comes either positive, when the L1 knowledge is applicable to a given L2 task or negative—also referred to as 'interference'—in so far the transferred L1 patterns do not converge with the knowledge deployed in performing an L2 task.

3. Attitudes towards Language Transfer

Literature on language transfer reveals the unlikelihood of general consensus over its significance in L2 learning. This relativity appears consistent with the divergence in views of how L2 is acquired with reference to L1. Arguably, it is only until the work of Weinreich (1953) that transfer was given theoretical provenance. However, the issue is held to associate with the foundational work of Robert Lado (1957) entitled "Linguistics across Cultures". This popularity may stem from the fact that Lado brought transfer on surface within the then-popular notions of learning theories. It seems legitimate to advance that it is this first step—merging transfer with learning theories—that sparked tension and separism as evident in the claims and counter claims overridden by the diverse epistemologies underlying learning theories. This gains more plausibility in view of the standpoint made by Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008), who disfavour the practice of rooting transfer in learning theories. Implied in this token is a call for the modularity of the transfer issue, and a case against bringing the issue in line with the rigid set of polarizing learning theories.

3.1 The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

The behaviourist paradigm positions transfer as the sole explicandum of language learners' errors. The underlying premise taken up by Lado (1957) is that language learning implicates the acquisition of new habits, which can be either enhanced or impeded by the previously learnt habits depending on the degree of similarity. The notion of old habits being distracting to learning suggests that one's mother tongue embodies main revenue for difficulty in L2 learning:

> Learning a second language constitutes a very different task from learning a first language. The basic problems arise not out of any essential difficulty in the features of the new languages themselves, but primarily out of the special set created by the first language habits (Lado, 1957, p. 02).

This stance gets escalated into a principled research enterprise culminating in the *contrastive analysis hypothesis* (CAH). Central to this approach is the view that "the greater the gap between the two languages, the more transfer can be expected".(Aljoamhouri, 2010, p. 56). In other words, "those elements similar to his [the learner] native language will be simple…and those elements which are different will be difficult" (Lado, 1957, p. 02). The essence of the CAH is identifying the problems language learners encounter by means of comparing their native language with the language to be learnt, on the ground that "difference equals difficulty" and, as such, "similarities and differences are important predictors of ease and difficulties" (Khaled, & Nassadjy, 2013, p. 15). Within the contrastive analysis paradigm, the learner is perceived as merely resorting to L1.

The presumed centrality and determinacy of L1 prompted Lado's proposal for a responsive pedagogy: The CAH also manifests as a teaching method basically informed by findings of comparison of languages across several segments. As Lado puts it, "the most efficient materials are those based on a scientific description of the two languages to be learnt, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner" (1957, p. 10).

As a prototype, Lado presented ways of comparing two sound systems. The comparison basically presupposes drawing contrasts in terms of phonemes "which are units of sounds that exist in all the languages we know" (Lado 1957, p. 11). This specification excludes accounts on non-phonemic differences, which, for instance, contrast the aspirated /p/ in *pin* with the unexploded /p/ in *capture*. The identification of phonemic differences, however, involves drawing contrast between separate sound units in terms of voicing, place of articulation, and manner of articulation.

The native user finds it easy to operate such contrasts because of an already available system of habits. Conversely, the case with non-native speaker is what Lado calls "perception blind spot": Learners perceiving in the target language only those phonemic differences similar to the differences existing in mother tongue. For Lado, this constitutes a reason why sound comparison for difficulty prediction warrants pursuit. Generally, the process begins by an analysis of the sound system of the two languages in question followed by drawing

similarities and differences. The same process holds for comparing two systems of vocabulary, grammar, writing, and culture. However, Ellis (1985) reframed the subcategory of cultural comparison into the much more principled framework of "contrastive pragmatics".

3.1.1 Criticism of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

In the years that followed its inception, the CAH paradigm faced criticism questioning its internal validity and sense of pedagogic plausibility. Ellis (1983) groups such criticism under three main headings: Error predictability, feasibility of comparison, and relevance to language teachers. To address the case with error predictability, it is fitting to reassert that the CAH predicates on a transfer theory, according to which one's old linguistic habits are the main interrupters of gains in the new habits. It should, therefore, follow that difficulty positively correlates with the L1-L2 dissimilarities, offering the likelihood for a preconception of errors.

Despite the fact that such attitudes towards language learning arguably reflected a monolithic behaviourist account proclaiming self-sufficiency, it was until through Schautcher's (1973) paradigm-shifting study that the predictive 'potential' of CA began to be appraised. Schautcher (1973) investigates English relative clause production by learners of diverse L1 background, concluding that, even thought Chinese contains not an English-like relative clause, Chinese learners' relative clause production was found les anomalous compared to the Arabic language group whose native language involves a relativization system partially similar to that of English. It was later established that "interference is more likely when there is a crucial similarity measure" (Ellis, 1985, p. 24). The idea is that the L2 learner gets invited by partial similarity to presume total similarity. To illustrate, let us mention the fact that Arabic EFL learners often tend to assume that the English discourse marker *and* is as multifunctional as the Arabic discourse marker *wa*, on the basis of partial similarity. This is evident in the writing of Arabic-speaking learners where *and* is allocated subordinating functions, while it is much limited to a coordinating function (see Mohammed & Omar, 2000). The notion of "similarity measure" relates to a more general notion of L1-L2 distance, which would be detailed when elaborating on the variables affecting transfer. For the moment, it should be asserted that the need for partial similarity, while running counter to the difference-similarity standard, does not seem to discard the transfer theory.

Adding to the suspicion whether the predicted errors really occur, criticism of the CAH concerned contrastive analysts' conception of language learners' errors. The empirically supported objections of CAH were further subsided by theoretical deduction. With regard to the presumed difference-difficulty connection, Ellis (1985, p. 31) remarks that "difference is a linguistic concept, while difficulty is a psychological concept, and therefore we cannot infer difficulty from linguistic differences". Nor does difficulty seem to necessarily imply errors, for "a sentence which contains many errors may not cause the learner any difficulty at all" while "a well-formed sentence might have been produced at the cost of considerable difficulty" (Ellis, 1985, p. 31).

Besides, criticism touched on the linguistic basis within which contrastive studies operated. It can be fairly claimed that this kind of criticism originates in the then-emerging functional views of language. Although differing in their handling of functionality concept, those views share a common decentring of structural views and an inclination for concern with the social determinacy of language use and meaning. Under this premise contrastive analyses were rejected as unreliable due to the lack of accounts on functional similarities and differences. To illustrate, while the *if+* conditional clause in English gets conventionally limited to the function of hypothesizing, the counterpart *si+* in French serves, besides hypothesizing, suggesting and requesting (Mondjie, 2008), In effect, the rise in primacy of functional accounts of language description and language learning suggests that "contrastive analysis needs to compare structural as well as pragmatic aspects of language….It needs to account for the appropriate language use and correct language usage" (Ellis, 1985, p. 32).

3.2 Transfer and Innateness

On the other extreme of the language transfer continuum, L1 influence is allotted a minimum role in L2 acquisition by advocates of the innateness paradigm. This standpoint derives from subverting L2 acquisition by innate, generative mechanisms. Central to Chomsky's linguistics is the view of language being an inborn (endowed), mentally modular entity, independent of social and environmental variables. Dulay and Burt (1974) maintain that adult L2 acquisition is very similar to child L1 acquisition. Similarly, Krashen (1981) regards L2 acquisition to follow more or less the same path as L1 acquisition. This is put forth not only as certain structures appear acquired before others, but as the errors demonstrated in the route of L1 and L2 acquisition are developmental. This follows that the acquisition of language is presumed to result from the operation of innate mechanisms. Krashen (1981,

1982) advances that the order of acquisition is relatively common both to first and to second language acquisition (see Figure 1.1).

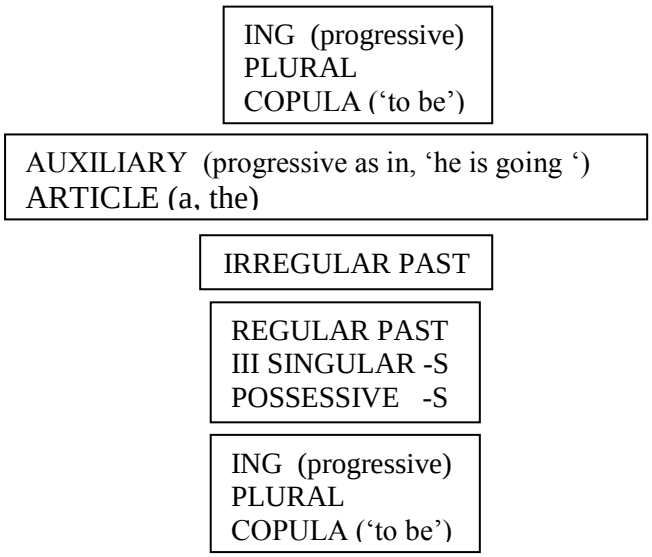


Figure 1.1 Average order of acquisition of grammatical morphemes for English as a second language (Krashen, 1981, 1982).

Assuming the pervasiveness of developmental sequence in L2 follows from Krashen's central assumption: "Most adults second language teaching methods assume that adults do not acquire but depend wholly on conscious learning….adults can acquire language at least to some extent" (Krashen, 1976, p. 163). This flouts assumptions of children's advantage in learning languages on the premise of the "critical period". As a rationale, Krashen draws on evidence of adults' capacity to unambiguously discriminate grammatical from anomalous utterances (see Krashen, 1976). This likelihood offers itself from a movement learners make from, "I", or the rule already available, to "i+1", "the message which contains aspects of language we have not acquired" (Krashen, 2013, p. 3). The-unfamiliar-with "i+1" is said to be made sense of by the learner exploiting the previously acquired structure as combined with knowledge inferred from context. Understanding is said to offer an acquired system discharging the generation of utterances. The other side of the L2 production continuum is a leant system resultant from explicit instructions and functions *monitor*, a conscious attendance to the accuracy of the generated utterances (see Figure1.2). The incomplete construction of the acquired system is what is believed to causes learners' resort to L1.

Figure 1.2 Operation of the monitor (Krashen, 1981, 1982).

An assertion of there being a sequence of development is, in fact, the interpretation of an apparent commonness of difficult said to be undergone by second language learners with diverse language backgrounds (see Bailey, Madden & Krashen, 1974; Dulay & Burt, 1974). In line with this, Krashen (2013) reasserts:

> Research has come up with surprising facts about the natural order. First, it is not true that simple rules are acquired early and complicated rules later. Some rules that look simple (e.g. the third person singular) are acquired late. Others that appear to linguists as complex are acquired early (Krashen, 2013, p. 02).

However, Krashen drops the assertiveness of this claim by remarking that "not every acquirer proceeds the same way, but variation among acquirers is not that extreme"(Krashen, 2013, p. 2). In fact, the natural sequence makes a shift from assuming learners' processing of language data in a highly specific order, going in line with proponents of the generative school, who perceive second language acquisition as prominently governed by internal, generative mechanisms. This explains the advocacy that "learning [formal instructions] cannot alter the order of acquisition in which students acquire language by providing explanations, drills, and exercises" (Krashen, 2013, p. 2). The presumed centrality of developmental mechanisms signals the unlikelihood of assigning a vital role to transfer in L2 learning. Within these approaches, the initial, deterministic step towards acquisition is not—either in part or whole—constrained by learners' L1 grammar, implying TL independency of L1. In other words, generative grammarians disparage the potential L1 influence has on second language learning. This influence, as Zafar (2009) notes, may not be confined to the prevalence of interference errors but may extend to underlie the order in which language is acquired. It should also be noted that the order is limited to the acquisition of grammatical morphemes. Hence, the natural order claim, in case reliable, may stand as a mere peripheral property with minimum effect on acquisition.

In krashen's paradigm, learners' L1 gets grouped under the scope of knowledge operated by the monitor. However, requirement for monitor intrusion makes it hard for learners to appropriate their use of mother tongue. During conversation, little time is available to decide whether the L1 form is more or less similar to the l2, especially that attention is diverted to the construal of meaning. Hence, monitor intrusion seems—and hence L1 deployment—prevails more in writing than in speech. However, monitor use is said to result from using first language acquisition as an "utterance generator" (see Figure1.3).

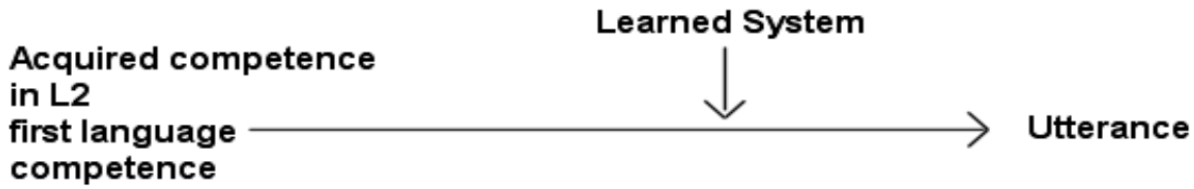


Figure 1.3 First language influence in second language performance (Krashen,1981, 1982).

Krashen contends that the first language discharges not the construal of the L2 system but is indirect in its effect: The learner resorts to L1 not as a means to participate in conversation for the end of inviting the input necessary for acquisition. As such, "interference is not the first language getting in the way of second language skills. Rather, it is the result of the performer "falling back on old knowledge when he or she has not acquired enough of the second language" Krashen (1981, p. 07). Krashen makes clear that successful L2 performance is the one resultant from exposure to the comprehensible kind of input than that emerging out of an L1-L2 similarity, for "even if the L1 rule is similar to the L2 rule…it is not clear that these rule may help the learner progress….They may not take the place of a true L2 rule in the developmental sequence" (Krashen, 1982, p. 28). The conscious monitoring of L1, Krashen writes, "will not…produce acquisition or permanent change…It will not eradicate the L1 rule even if done effectively over long periods of time (1982, p. 28). In other words, nativists perceive the unlikelihood for L2 acquisition to be altered by L1 in any great extent. Such rejection of transfer gets expressed more clearly by Felix:

> Our data on L2 acquisition of syntactic structure in a natural environment suggests that interference does not constitute a major strategy in the area..it seems necessary to me to abandon the notion of interference as a natural and inevitable phenomenon in L2 acquisition. Felix, 1980, p. 107).

3.3 Interlanguage and Transfer

While, in Lado's account, interference results in unwanted deviations, Corder (1983) treats errors as indicative of a continuing "hypothesis testing". The latter is held to allow the transition across scales leading to the construction of a system typical to the majority of language learners—*interlanguage*. Selinker (1972/2000) advances that "[even] those adults who succeeded to learn a second language so that to achieve native speaker competence have somewhat reactivated the latent language structure [or interlanguag]" (p. 169). The interlanguage concept comes to establish the legitimacy of a learner-typical language system, also referred to by Corder (1983) as "idiosyncratic dialect". In the framework of the interlanguage notion, learners' errors are perceived indicatives of progress. Indeed, there appears less consensual regarding the interlanguage concept. However, one basic agreement that sparked much enquiry is that interlanguage is variable, with a state different from one leaner to another along a variety of factors held to exert a great deal of influence on the system. The notion of variable competence offers several modes on understanding the position of transfer: when it comes into play and what language tasks it is supposed to surface in most.

Krashen confines sources of variation—or "chameleon" state to borrow Tarone's (1979) words—either to change in comprehensible input or to the interplay between the learnt and acquired system, disparaging the role of contexts. Comprehensible input, in Krashen's paradigm, positions as the driving force not only for interlanguage development, but for its dynamism across contexts. The degree to which comprehensible input is exposed to effects relative degrees of acquired competence and, as an effect, relative degrees of L1 influence.

In fact, performers are said to differ in their deployment of the monitor. Monitor *over-users* are performers heavily using consciously learnt grammar as to edit their output. These performers "may speak hesitantly, often self-correct in the middle of utterances, and are so concerned with correctness that they cannot speak with any real fluency" (Krashen, 1982, p. 19). Monitor over-users usually do not acquire enough of the second language that they rely on first language competence as an utterance generator. At the other extreme resides monitor *under-users.* Not having 'learnt' enough, under-users tend to entirely operate by a mere acquired system. Little or no concern with grammar permits monitor under-users to enjoy fluency, which follows from both speed of retrieval and occupation with message delivery. On the third way, Krashen places *optimal monitor users*. These are performers who "use the

monitor when it is appropriate and when it does not interfere with communication" (Krashen, 1982, p. 19). Krashen considers that, in the written medium, the adequate exploitation of conscious grammar allows optimal users to "produce the illusion of being native-like in their writing" (Krashen, 1982, p. 20). Truly, the monitor tenet indicates that second language learners' performance, no matter how 'native-like' it appears, merely follows from a successful exploitation of the monitor—even though non-natives hardly conceal dependency on the monitor. By the same token, it seems fair to claim that a successful performance can be the result of a thrift exploitation of the learner's L1. However, Tarone (1979, 1990) and other variationists believe that change in learners' interlanguage is constantly related to participation in several contexts:

> In the field of SLA research we have tended to err by divorcing the study of the internal development of IL [interlanguage] grammar from the study of the external social context in which the learner develops this grammar. *The social context of the learner is often viewed as unrelated to the internal cognitive processes of L2 acquisition, and so, unworthy of comment* [emphasis added] (Tarone & Liu, 1995, p, 108).

The stance aligns with Widdowson's (1983) assertion: "Language retains a state of sociolinguistic provenance" (p. 39). One might explain this by proposing that contextual adaptation becomes part of one's competence. When the learner decides to use the form in context, access is made not only to this form but to the effects characteristic of the context of its use. The factor of use would determine the nature of the form used in contexts. This illustrates how interlanguage outlook gets affected by interaction and contextual factors. Tarone (1979, 1983, 1990) explains that interlanguage variability in terms of a style shift relative to the attention paid by the user: A careful style with minimum violations is demonstrated when higher attention is paid and a vernacular style characterized by anomalies in case little attention is paid by the learner (see Figure 1.4).

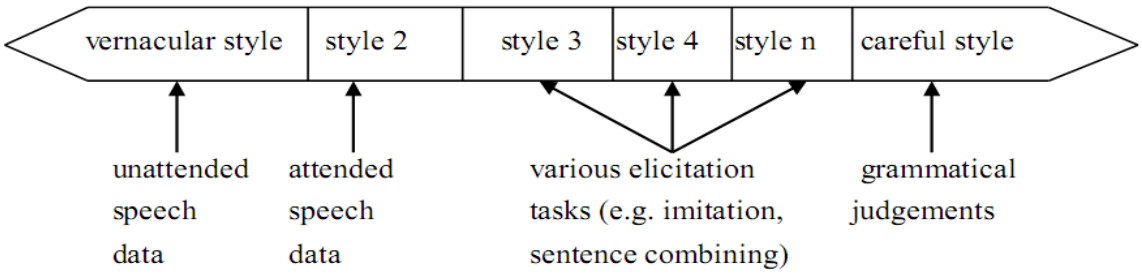


Figure 1.4 The interlanguage continiuum (Tarone, 1983, p. 53).

Here, language transfer matters in the sense that such a shift in the interlanguage system may already thrive in a learner's L1. As Ellis (1983) remarks, when a learner deploys the careful speech, "he may be able to produce not only a higher incidence of the target language forms, but also a higher incidence of L1 forms if these are associated with formal use in the L1….Language transfer is, therefore, a variable phenomenon" (Ellis, p.1985, p. 82).

Similarly, transfer might be said to override the task-related variability advanced by Bialystok (1981a, 1981b, 2001). While enriching the rationale for the acquisition-learning, distinction, Bialystok opposes assigning each unrelated functioning. This goes on the ground that explicit and implicit knowledge are concomitant, representing different entries of the same "continuum". The idea is language use being the alternate of degrees of analyzability (explicitness) and automaticity (implicitness). Figure 1.5 represents how specific language tasks relate to specific degrees of analysis and control.

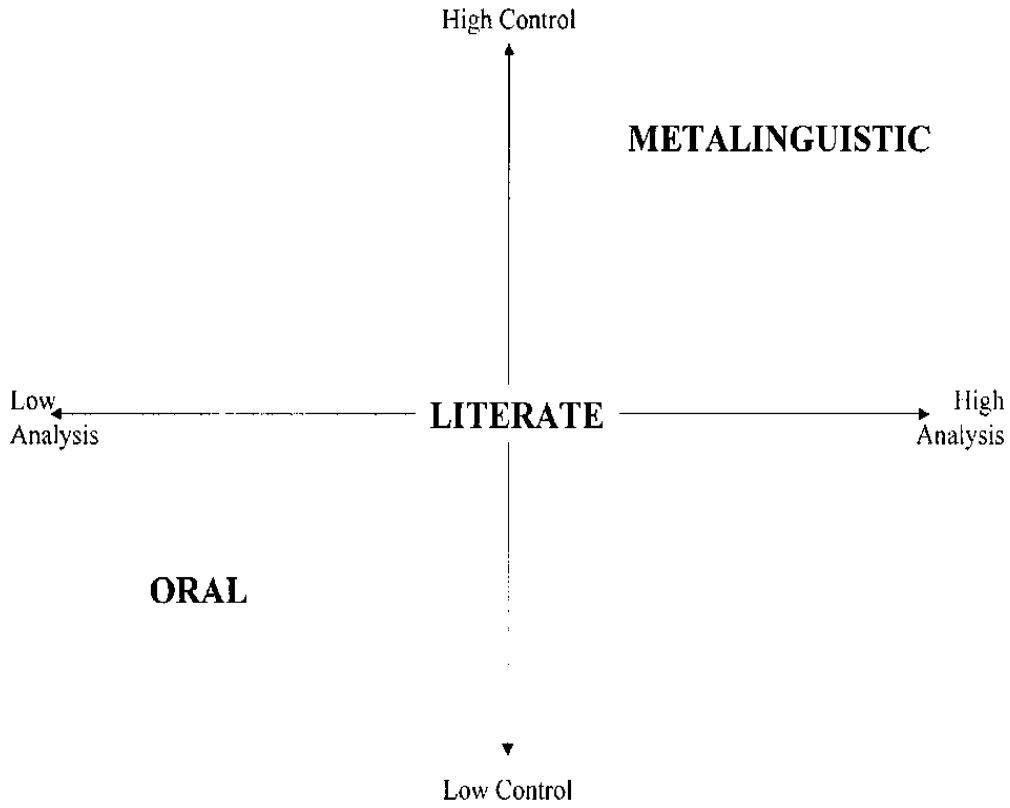


Figure1.5 Three domains of language use indicating values on analyss and control (Bialystok, 2001, p. 22).

The proposal that tasks differ in their demands for explicit and implicit knowledge is, in fact, a framework for what task L1 influence is likely to occur most. In oral communication, interference occurs at the intersection low analysis and low control, which signals a vernacular style. In metalinguistic uses of language, interference prevails due to the higher cognitive demands posed by higher degrees of control and knowledge. This standpoint follows the assumption that interference is less controlled when the L2 system is less developed (Bialystok & Martin-Rhee 2008).

3.1.1 Error Analysis

The criticism directed at the CAH aligned with the broad conception of learners' errors to provide the ontogenesis for *error analysis*, an empirical research agenda with the hallmark of providing a description of the difficulties language learners encounter. Basically, error analysts tighten what it is to be considered as an error, characterizing it as relating to competence, the abstract knowledge of language, as distinct from performance, the actual usage of language featured by variability. While the mistake is a performance fault that the learner can correct when his/her attention is drawn to it, errors "represent a lack of learner's competence, are systematic, and might be unrecognized by the learner" Moursi & Hillali (2015, p. 91). Therefore, criteria for gauging the status of deviance involve frequency and awareness. As such, it is errors, rather than mistakes, that result from the learner being driven by the L1 knowledge. The ability to correct deviations marks a major distinctive feature that sets learners apart from native speakers. In their performance, native speakers do make lapses in. for instance, subject-verb agreement (Norrish, 1983). However, "if a tape of his [the native speaker] conversation is placed back, he would be able to correct himself (Norrish, 1983, p. 10). To illustrate, let us refer to the common example of using the *to*-infinitive with the auxiliary *must* as in *I must to work hard*. Such a form is there due to some sort of analogy with already known rules like *I have to* and *I ought to*.

Sources of analogy may come not only from the rules learnt within the target language, but as well—and more intensively—from the massive first language repertoire. The intensive number of rules already available to the learner in his L1 makes a strong likelihood of intensive analogy within this type of preexisting knowledge as compared to the knowledge developed in the process of L2 learning. This renders plausible the theoretical and practical inclination on the issue of language transfer. A learner's error continues to prevail until his/her knowledge is altered. This is either by being told of the correct L2 form or until that

the L1 is contrasted with 2 rules to instill error avoidance—and that is one component of the treatment advanced and implemented in this work. As a continuity of this typology, it is useful to incorporate the *lapse* as another manifest of anomalous language behaviour. Bearing little relation to whether a form has been learnt or not, "it may be due to the lack of concentration, shortness in memory" (Norrish, 1983, p. 21). Clearly, the question that rises is how to decide on the category of errors given that the three modes are overlapping: Is a deviant structure like *this is the girl that I saw her* ascribed to carelessness or interference from Arabic relative clause system.

As an enterprise, error analysis operates within a set of identifiable standards. With regard the outlined purpose. As Norrish (1983) explains, different approaches to the investigation of learners' error are identified. In the first paradigm, a set of pre-figured assumptions about learners' errors are taken as design categories within which fall all sorts of deviant forms. The drawbacks of such an approach are, more or less, the same for any study with prefigured design. Accordingly, a presumption of errors does contaminate the sample by subsuming it under a hegemonic set of criteria under which errors are described. This would not allow for capturing the uncharted, salient features of sample. For instance, the Arabic-related transfer errors Algerian EFL learners demonstrate may not resemble those made by Jordanian EFL learners. This is partly because of diversity across the variables affecting transfer and partly because the L1 affecting both groups makes not a static entity. In the second approach of error analysis, categories mark the final destination of the study. The standard in this types of enquiries is that the material wherefrom errors are examined are representative as to reflect free, unguided performance Norrish (1983). Unlike the CA methodology, which merely anticipate errors out of comparison, error analysis investigates all sources of errors and, thus, outperforms contrastive analysis.

3.4 Cognitive Views of Language Transfer

In the 1970s and 1980s, the transfer issue was relatively abandoned by SLA scholars. Although the majority of SLA researchers diverted their attention to the investigation of cognitive processes, some scholars perceived the investigation of language transfer to remain worthwhile (see Kelleman, 1983; Odlin, 1989). These anthologies have the common move to further ponder the language transfer outside the confines of behaviourism, recasting it within a cognitive understanding. In fact, it is under cognitive measures that the genesis of transfer expanded to incorporate defining elements which are now regarded as key composites of such

discourse. The expansion involves the influence of L2 learning on the learning subsequent languages; transfer as a comprehension process in the comprehension after long being reduced in status to the mere L2 production; and learners' perception of what s transferable. Such a bird's eye view repositioned the transfer industry, not only reasserting its significance in SLA research, but also allocating it the status multilayered enterprise with a set of principles identifiable principles and research objectives that regulate institutionalizes it theoretical and empirical functioning.

3.4.1 Transfer and the L1-L2 Distance

The relative perception of the L1-L2 distance is found a factor prominently interacting with transfer. Such is motivated by the facilitative role of positive transfer results from the similarities holding between learners' L1 and TL. Ringbom (2007) qualifies the existence of partial similarities as the impetus to "at least apply partially correct assumption about cross-linguistic similarities" (p. 34). Ringborn attributes the difficulties encountered by Finnish-speaking learners to "the absence of relevant, concrete [positive] transfer leading to subsequent wrong assumptions about cross-linguistic similarities between L1 and L2" (p. 31). As such, learners are described as seeking connections between prior linguistic knowledge, which stems not necessarily from their L1 but can emerge either from previously learnt languages or from the knowledge obtained from the TL itself. Ringbom (2007) contends that reference to L1 may be quite facilitative at the early stages of L2 acquisition, but it is the knowledge attained in TL that dominates as reference in subsequent stages.

Kellerman (1983) posits that L2 learners have relative perceptions on the L1-L2 distance. A learner's perception of this distance is termed *psychotypology*. However, Kellerman shows that, generally, learners consider some aspects like idiomaticity as language-specific and, as such, non-transferable. Those forms conceived as language-neutral are said to be transferred most. Within another framework, Ringborn (2007) connects the transfer of formal properties to perceived similarity/difference relations indentified by the learner from the L2 input and used as judgment for the L1-L2 correspondence. Semantic and pragmatic transfer relates to the assumed type of the similarity/different relation, where the L1 form is held to have an L2 counterpart. Ringborn treats the varied cross-linguistic similarity /difference relations to constitute a continiuum with three entries: At one end of this continiuum stands the "zero similarity relation", where the learner perceives almost no similarity between his L1 and TL. In this case, transfer manifests as a slower rate of handling

the L2 data due to the absence of analogy. At the other extreme of the continuum Ringbom situates "similarity relation", in which the learner perceives the L2 form to have a counterpart L1 form. A successful establishment of the similarity relation, Ringbom argues, results in positive transfer. In the middle of the continuum stands "contrast relation", referring to the learner perceiving an alternate of similarities and differences, the case of an Arabic-background learner attempting to learn the grammar of English. This state supposedly leads to combination of positive and negative transfer that gets escalated into errors.

3.4.2 Transfer as a Strategy

Language transfer gets subsumed within the construct of learning strategies and treated as part of learners' strategic repertoire. El-Daly (2012) claims that transfer is a significant strategy, with the learner playing a constructive role in the whole process. In fact, transfer is qualified both as learning and communicative strategy. Insufficient L2 knowledge is held to impose on the learner the strategy of deploying L1 knowledge to solve either a learning or communicative problem. The seeds to such a treatment is Cordor (1978) stating that errors do not relate to interference as an unwanted, haphazardly made process but to a deliberately opted "borrowing strategy". Under such a premise, Corder (1978) proposes the term "intercession" to specifically refer to transfer as a strategy of communication. A similar standpoint is found—and reviewed above—in Krashen's conception of L1 as a compensatory utterance generator.

Indeed, L1 use in L2 learning gets qualified as a strategy, namely as it marks prior knowledge that can be exploited and monitored for subsequent tasks. Therefore, "a cognitive view on SLA does not preclude contribution from L1" (Ellis, 1985, p. 37). It should, yet, be asserted that, since L1 offers itself in view of greater insufficiency in L2, the transfer strategy appeals more to beginners than to advanced learners. Accordingly, Ellis (1985) maintains that learners use their previous knowledge under varying degrees of attention. In *strategic transfer*, learners allocate focal attention to the communicative problems and how it ought to be solved through the transferred knowledge. In *subsidiary transfer*, the learner gives peripheral attention to whether it is the L1 knowledge that is being used to solve the communicative problems. As to *automatic transfer*, consciousness is entirely suspended. In other words, the learner's deployment of L1 patterns is automatized, with attention wholly invested for other aspects of production.

It should be noted that the active role of the learner in terms of what and when to transfer is arguably traced to the principle of *transfer-to-somewhere* (Anderson, 1983). Central to this approach is the view that occurrence of transfer conditions the learner perceiving transferability on the basis of similarities and differences, which then prompts false generalization in TL. While the transfer-to-somewhere principle allocates the property of consciousness to transfer, Kellerman (1995) gives a counter argument embodied in the notion of *transfer-to-nowhere*, which refutes the need for perceived similarity measure for transfer to occur. This approach argues that, as behaviour, transfer stems from unconscious preconceptions which follow not from considering the state of TL but are deeply rooted in the L1-basd conceptions.

3.4.3 Conceptual Transfer

The enlargement of transfer research has allowed the investigation of insipid data and the advancements of novel insights to address the manifold manners in which the learners' L1 influences L2 learning. Odlin (1989) motivated attempts by Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) to connect transfer to the tenets of linguistic relativism. The idea is that the influence of thought on language features in the way the conceptions developed by the L1 medium strongly manipulates L2 comprehension and production. That L1 takes the attribution of one's conception embodies the argument for *conceptual transfer*. However, Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) contend that not all learners' L2 concepts are L1-based, for there exists a set of language independent concepts which are not tied to a linguistic form but develop through individual's experience. This interplay between transfer and conception brings us to elaborate on the L1 being the development of one's conception.

The validity and determinacy of conceptual transfer, which further emphasizes the inevitability of transfer, gets subsided by a psycholinguistic view of mother tongue. In this framework, L1 hosts the set of conceptions and frames that accompany its acquisition. In psycholinguistic respects, the pervasive idea is that only the human brain is language-ready: A normal child establishes a system of rules that is "wired to the brain" to allow the hierarchical construction of expressions (Saiki, 2005).The construal of that system caters for the need to signify novel ideas and functions of several kinds (see Halliday, 1990). In other words, the conceptual abstractions are filled by means of the first language which gets represented in two language-related areas: Broca's area and Wernick's area. Figure 1.6 shows the settlement of language in the brain.

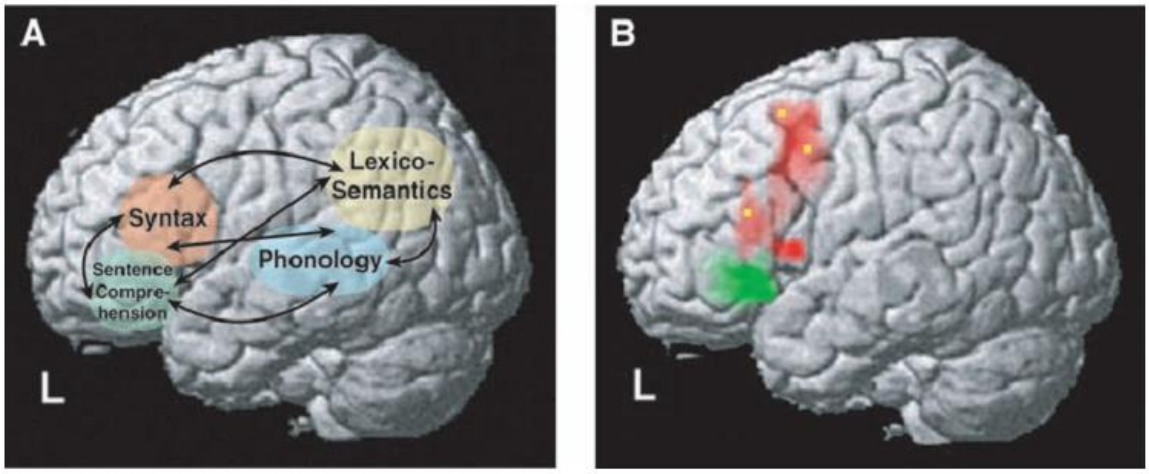


Figure 1.6 The placement of language in the brain. (Saiki, 2005, p. 817).

The Broca's area situates in the left frontal lobe of the brain and is commonly assigned the articulation and organization of speech. For this, an individual with damage at the level of Broca's area demonstrates ungrammatical speech characterized by fragmented constructions with disconnected content. The Wernick's area discharges a semantic and perceptual role embodied in the representation and distribution of meaning. This explains nonsensical speech of individuals experiencing damage at the level of Wernicka's area. Within the two areas situates the set of conceptions and frames of references developed by means of the L1 medium, making up the long-term memory that stores permanent knowledge. The latter subdivides into two complementary sets: Explicit knowledge which, for being consciously unavailable, is said to host grammar, and implicit knowledge comprising words and meaning.

As such, one's first language comes to occupy the abstraction of human language (Saiki, 2005), making not only—as some reductionist views advance—a mere semiotic system, but an organic part of the brain as well. The groundedness of the L1 system effects a kind of resentment to a being-learnt L2 system. For early bilinguals, however, the two languages acquired in the sensitive period are installed in the same areas (Bialystok et al, 2009). However, adult L2 learners rely heavily on explicit knowledge for the reception and performance of TL. Bialystok argues that control of interference for early bilinguals happens through higher cognitive efforts demonstrated in the high activity of the *executive control system* (Figure 1.7).

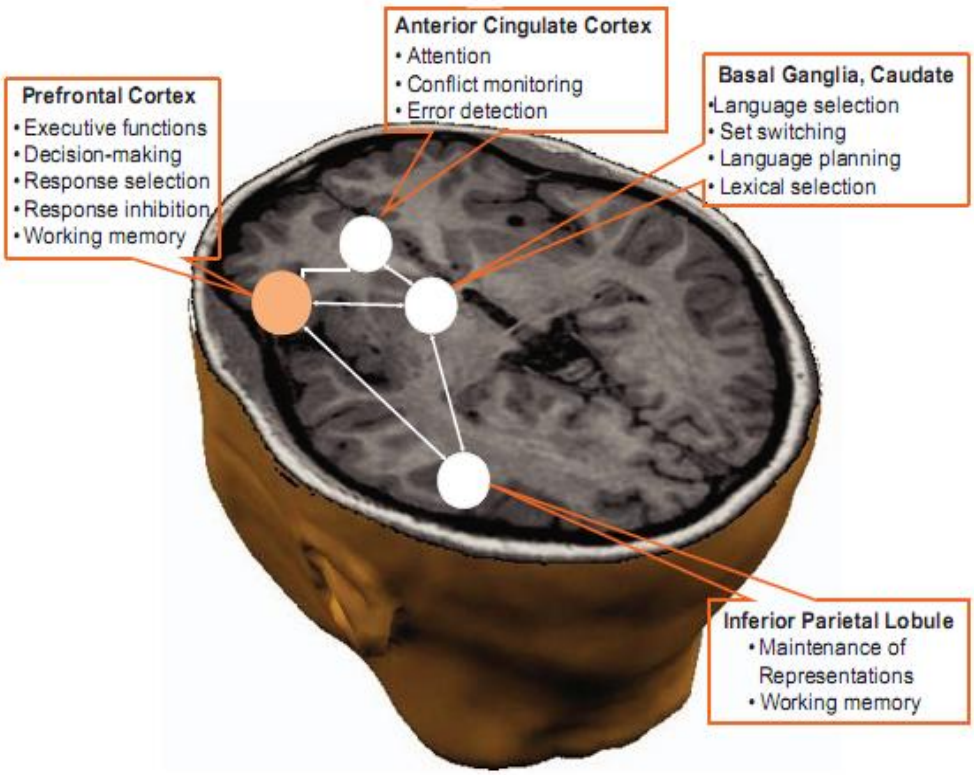


Figure 1.7 Principle brain structure involved in control of interference (Bialystok et al, 2009).

For Bialystok, this state allows for the higher activity of cortical area "involved in selecting from many competing responses" (2009, p. 108). Because of the slightly different proficiency for the two languages, activation of the cognitive control processes decreazes. In fact, the advantage of early bilinguals in terms of control of interference derives from a general cognitive difference:

> The long-term and sustained language control that is associated with bilingualism has an influence on the brain structure and function throughout the lifespan. The most dramatic function is enhanced executive control for bilinguals when performing tasks in which attentional control, conflict resolution, and set shifting are necessary. While evidence for better special skills for taxi-drivers or perceptual ability for video game players may be due to these individuals choosing these occupations and activities based on prior skills on these domains, bilinguals in most case do not choose or self-select to be bilinguals but become so by circumstance (Bialystok & Poarch, 2014, p. 101).

However, Bialystok asserts that increased proficiency in L2 minimizes L1 influence in so far it relates to attentive cognitive processing. Figure 1.8 shows the decrease in L2 processing activity. This leads us to elaborate on the relationship between transfer and L2 proficiency.

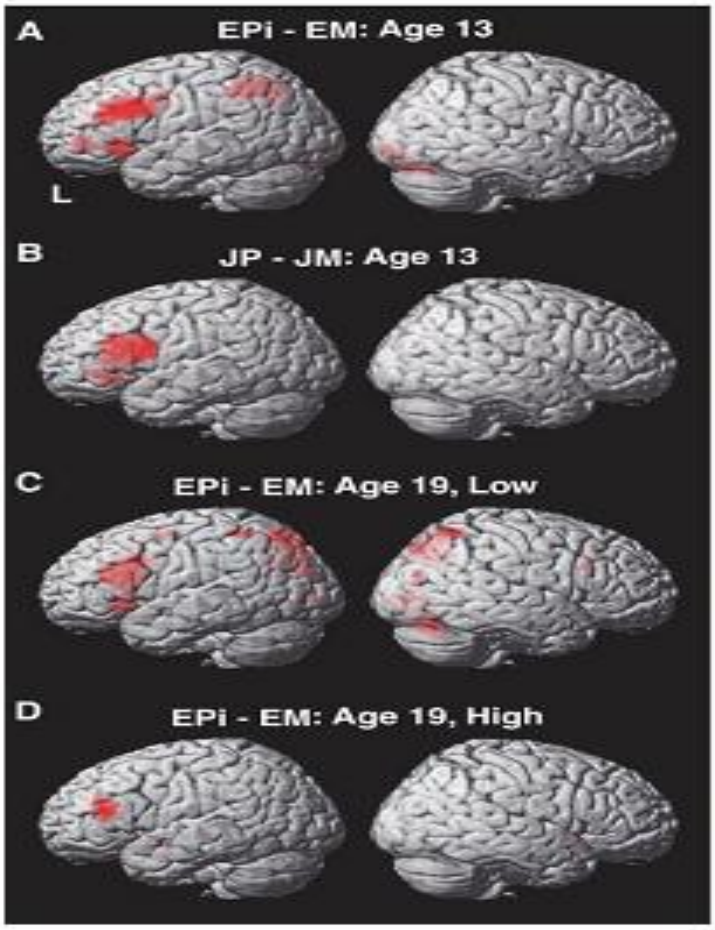


Figure1.8 Decrease in the brain activity in L2 acquisition as a result of increased proficiency (Sakai, 2005, p. 817).

3.4.4 Transfer and L2 Proficiency

In fact, literature on language transfer shows disparity over the effect of L2 knowledge, or L2 proficiency. While some scholars (Berman, 1994; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2008) conclude that transfer is common with beginners, others (Odlin, 1989; Jarvis; 2001; Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008) note that, for transfer to occur, proficiency is required. This rule is more relevant to the positive kind of transfer, where learners use the already gained TL knowledge to gauge and then work on similarities. However, Odlin (1989) states that certain types of negative transfer demand some L2 knowledge as a motif for false generalization. To illustrate, errors in the use of relative clause by Arab learners of English can only occur after

some knowledge on English relativization system gets attained (see Fakhra, 2009). Ellis (2008) positions the role of input as to explain why, at the initial stages, learners demonstrate target-like forms that are later replaced by erroneous ones before getting fully mastered. Though it seems difficult to draw a conclusion on the state of transfer-proficiency relation, the direction is that increazed proficiency minimizes transfer errors, but the fact remains that transfer errors appear persistent: "Whereas the relative frequency of transfer errors does seem to diminish steadily, the frequency of errors that transfer accounts for grows" (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 202).

In this respect, Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) comment that the contradictions previous studies report follow from looking at the issue from differing perspectives: Such studies may have investigated distinct types of transfer effect (positive transfer, negative transfer), addressed the status of L1 interference across several linguistic sub-systems (e.g., phonology, syntax, reading, etc), targeted different types of learners (e.g., advanced, beginners), or operationalized proficiency in several ways, with respect to proficiency test or in terms of years spent in the target language.

4. Transfer in the Linguistic Sub-Systems

Because the carryover of linguistic resources subsumes the whole entity of language, transfer is detected in the whole range of linguistic systems. In what follows, we elaborate on the nature of transfer in phonology and writing.

4.1 Transfer in Phonology

It seems pertinent to elaborate on the issue of phonological transfer given the recognizably specific state of transfer with regard to phonology. In fact, Lado's proposal for the comparison of sound systems does signal a denial of the saliencies characterizing phonological transfer. Truly, Lado has been considerate of the resilience of sound system as compared to the other systems of habits:

> We tend to transfer to that language our phonemes and variants, our stress and rhythm pattern, our transitions, our intonation patterns and their interaction with other phonemes….The adult speaker of one language cannot easily pronounce the sounds of another even though he has no speech impediment, and what is more startling, is that he cannot easily hear sounds other than those of his native language even though he suffers no hearing defect (Lado, 1957,p. 11).

In seeking to abound "the phenomenon of non-native speech", Moyer (2013) starts by pointing that non-nativeness features in phonology more than any other aspect of language, partly because of sensitivity to voice and partly because accent bears much symbolic value, reflecting the connection between language and social positioning: "When we speak, we convey much more than the literal meaning" (p. 12), and therefore, phonological transfer signifies much more than a concept of linguistic transfer. This is unsurprising if we look at how native speech is valued variably according to the manner in which it is expected and preconceived to sound. In fact, it is this type of transfer that remains the unrivalled proving factor for the critical period hypothesis—which advances a deadline for the acquisition of language. This explains why, while grammatical native-like competence seems attainable for L2 learners, "phonological authenticity is out of the reach for most" (Moyer 2013, p. 12), namely because of neurological constraints. Second language learners, Moyer asserts, face a difficult task of learning to perceive the L2 phonemic differences and establish a phonological system, where they have to "produce sounds and sound sequences that often contradict their native language" (p.14). The foreign sound perpetuated by transfer should not be taken to signify deficit since "no two members of the same speech community sound exactly alike" (Moyer, 2013, p.15).

Phonological transfer is not simply the transfer of articulation. Phonology rather reflects affiliation with other speech communities and social networks through the articulation of segmental features, phonemes and supra-segmental features that bear pragmatic significance. The entire of these features may be transferred to the second language. The child begins a process of construing an organic and solid foundation of mother tongue phonology in the pre-birth period, which explains the child's social and psychological groundedness in his/ her mother tongue (Moyer, 2013). The solid foundation of the mother tongue phonology constitutes a "potential source for utterances in any language learnt later on" (Moyer, 2013, p 12), and hence a potential source for interference.

More or less similar to Krashenn (1982, 2013), Moyer (2013) cautioned the "oft-repeated banality" that, due to difference in acquisitional process and mechanisms, adults l2 learners cannot reach the acquisition children achieve thanks to early exposure. In so far accessibility to the LAD is the measure for acquisition, research reveals adults' access in diverse degrees (see Birdsong, 1992; Bongaerts, Planken & Schils, 1995). Accessibility to the LAD, after all, makes not the sole explicandum to adults' possible attainment of native-like competence. This follows that 'acquisition', since equating the unconscious generation of

utterances, is available in both first and second language. These altogether might confirm the possibility for adults to 'acquire' language and further downplay the determinacy of the LAD. However, Moyer (2013) asserts that phonology is intractable.

While other language skills appear less sensitive to age, much evidence indicates 'the earlier the better' for the acquisition of a subsequent phonological system, namely as the motor-skill part of the speech apparatus, besides demanding analytical skill for its functioning, "appears subject to flexibility limits as early as 4-6 years of age" (Moyer, 2013, p. 12). The foreign accent may itself deteriorate acquisition as a result of learner's reluctance to engage in interaction, which is mandatory for the operation of semantic and pragmatic potentials, as well as for the progress in the route of acquisition as made thorough the three main functions of output: Noticing, reflection, and hypothesis testing (see Swain, 1993). The transfer of phonology takes not only the form of the target language words as being produced by one's first language sound system, but extends to encompass the transfer of prosodic features that alter the meaning of utterances in a context. As such, phonological transfer does overlap with pragmatic transfer. Adding to this, the transfer of phonology features in difficulties manipulating phonological style and variation to accommodate and exploit contextual features. For native speakers, such skills are concomitant with the acquisition of grammar and lexicon:

> As native speakers, our linguistic repertoire is typically broad enough that we adjust our speech accordingly, and express some measures of individual style at the same time. This style shifting—the ability to flexibly apply and adjust certain features for contextual effects—affirms identity and establishes communicative intents. As an example, slurring and elision can indicate carelessness, informality, or a sullen attitude, just as careful enunciation can mark formality, urgency, or threat. In addition, pitch range, speech rate, and loudness can all be adjusted to obtain a certain effect, or perlocution (Moyer, 2013, p. 13).

While apparently an effortless practice in L1, phonological variation and style shift pose serious challenges to the L2 learner, especially that many language learners learn languages within an intangible setting that hardly simulates real-life, authentic language use that implicates style shifting. It is unsurprising that such procedural knowledge is less practiced in the much constrained classroom. To acquire it, Moyer asserts, "one needs an interactive base, a social network in other words, and building up such a network is a predictably a slow process for those joining the target language community as adults" (2013, p. 14). In fact, interaction as the locus for the construal of social meaning marks a fundamental tenet of sociocultural approaches. In the same vein, degrees of social integration

not only explain variation in language behaviour but account for the fact that the same members of the speech community do not sound alike.

Another reason why phonological transfer is salient resides in the connection non-native accent has with attitudes towards language as specific accents function as data for the judgment of social position. What is more startling is that "how we talk may be the first—and the last—clue about our intelligence, whether we are trusted or feared, heard or ignored (Troutt, 2005, p. 289). This sociolnguistic reality, which echoes the social determinism of the status of language, may pose further constraints on late language learners. The non-native performance sparks fear of negative evaluation and communicative apprehension which, in turns, distract the mandatory behaviour of risk-taking either in tangible communication or in classrooms.

Moyer (2013) implies that the case against standardizing native speakerhood—whether in language pedagogy or otherwise—remains unrivalled thought cautious of there being a critical period tailor-made for the acquisition of phonology, looking at ultimate phonological attainment being "more likely a function of the quality and quantity of language experience". Hence, factors like length of stay in the target culture, consistency of contact with natives, and L2 quality input are reported to match with gains in phonological. The latter variable gets equally manipulated by socio-psychological factors, including concern with pronunciation.

4.2 Transfer in Writing

Isolating writing-transfer discussion responds to the salient features of this relation as much as it does to the thematic requirements of this work. It is essential for familiarity with content, methods and frame of interpretation to understand what impact proficiency has on transfer; what L2 writers transfer most; how transfer affects writing performance along with the features Arabic-speaking student writers demonstrate in their English writing.

Writing as usage, which implies the mechanisms underlying text construction, is held to cause L2 writers resorting to transfer. According to Odlin (1989) one of the salient features of L2 writing is L2 writers' tendency to switch back and forth between their L1 and the L2, especially when they are struggling with a problem when composing in that language (cited in Abu Radwan 2012, p. 367). Kaplan (1966) explains that native speakers have several mechanisms to convey meaning, while non-native speakers of any language usually do not

possess a complete inventory of possible alternatives. Thus, the learner's native language will determine to a large extent the compositional choices when writing in English. Hughey et al. (1983, p. 05) point that "learners learn to write after having essentially completed the acquisition of speaking". If this is the case with native speakers of a language, it will be easy for us to understand how difficult writing in English would be for second or foreign language learner". Similarly, Uzawa (1996, p. 274) claims that "the efforts of the foreign language writer are no more than concealed translation". Arguably, this difficulty stems from the fact that, as a skill, writing is cognitively demanding, calling for adequate knowledge as well as an adequate control of this latter. Figure 1.9 shows the position of writing within a continiuum of degrees of knowledge and control.

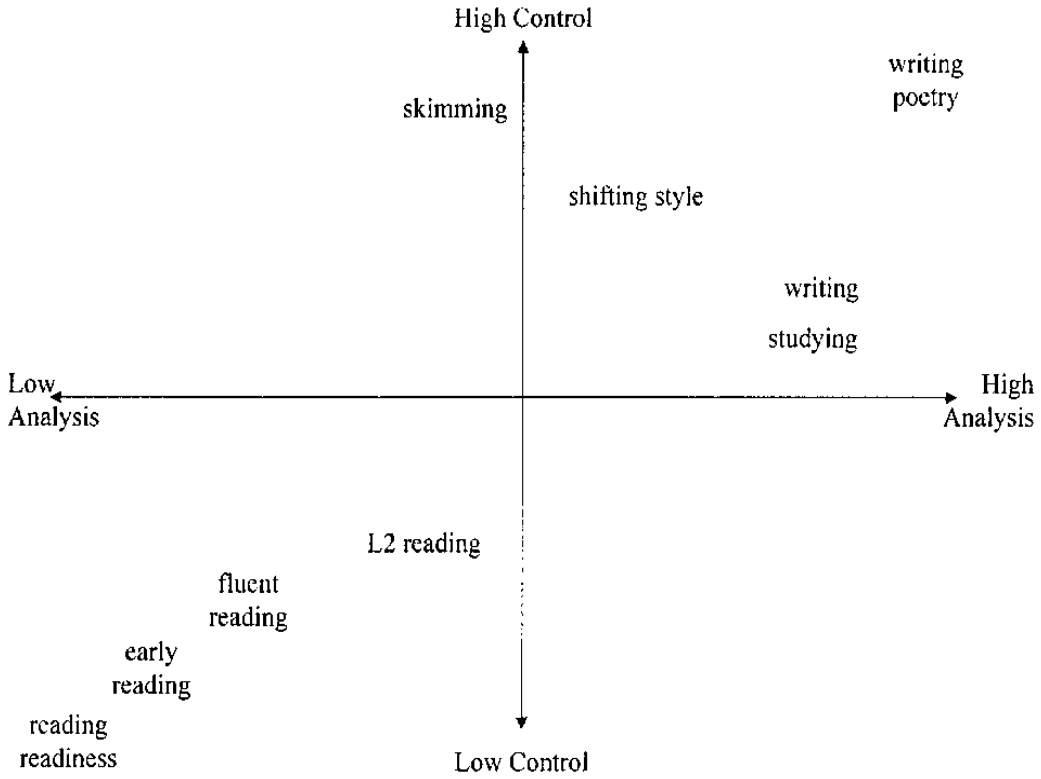


Figure1.9 Tasks included in literate uses of language indicating their demands for analysis and control (Bialystok, 2001, p. 15).

It is worth to mention that the disparity over the connection between L2 proficiency and transfer features more with regard to writing. On one hand, proficiency is viewed as a variable affecting transfer, meaning that the more proficient student writers are the less transfer errors they made. However, several studies (see Aljomhouri 2010; Fakhra 2009; Fawzi and Hussein 2010) report that high proficiency writers switched more between L1 and

L2 than low- proficiency writers. This implies that, for composing strategies to be successfully carried over to L2, L2 learners are required to have an adequate level of proficiency in the target language. Hence, it is plausible to deduce that just as proficient writers are those avoiding negative transfer from, this label may well apply to those deploying L1 existing knowledge for positive transfer.

The intricacy of L2 writing presupposes multiple manifestations of transfer. Aside of the transfer of textual and rhetorical patterns (see Chapter 2), transfer touches on composing strategies. Learners transfer a number of other L1-based strategies including metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective strategies to L2 writing. Kobayashi and Rinneent, (2008) explain that many of the composing strategies are the same in the L1 and the L2, and thus L2 learners may be able to transfer these from their L1 to their L2 writing. For example, "learners who have already learned how to plan, develop ideas, revise and edit their writing in their L1 may use the same strategies when they are composing in their L2". (Kobayashi & Rinneent, 2008, p. 21).Working under this premise, Dwelk and Abu Al Hommos (2007) compared Jordanian students' Arabic and English essays. The analysis indicates a positive correlation between proficiency in Arabic and writing in English It should, however, be noted that such strategies are not properties of a given language per se as much as they are, more or less, the outcome of strategy training. Even native speakers of the learner's L2 do not have such strategies organic in their languages. Deficiency in the knowledge attained through the L2 seems to push learners to generate ideas and content in their L1 and to express attitudes typical of their culture through the L2 medium. The merits of transfer in L2 writing can be further extended:

> L2 writers…may make use of their L1 when planning and organizing their essays by talking to themselves in their L1 or by getting engaged in various forms of L1 private speech. The use of L1 in such cases may make the task more manageable and may consequently have beneficial effects on the learner's L2 writing product (Karim & Nassaji, 2013, p. 122).

5. Studies on Language Transfer

The above content unpacked the elusiveness of language transfer, treating it as an multifaceted entity allotted several modes of interpretation. While language transfer is arguably difficult to tighten, there are several methodological advancements for investigating the phenomenon. It appears that some transfer studies enter the enquiry with preconceived categories of errors, turning out to be investigations of degrees of a specific set of errors instead of being inquisitive about the transfer status characteristic of the sample, thereby offering limited exploratory potential. Other studies enter the enquiry with emergent transfer so

that not to contaminate group specificity and lest to set out to test a preconceived hypothesis. However, this should not be taken to mean that research into transfer has to come about with a tabula-rasa, for some pre-figuration is required as a platform. Hence, a trade-off fusing pre-established categories with room to data-based, emergent features appears a much more working research design. As such, the approach is ignorant neither of existing knowledge nor of contextual saliencies.

Contemporary studies of transfer have investigated a wide range of phenomena at varied linguistic dimensions, focusing on its role in the acquisition of syntax (see Crompton, 2011; Hashim, 1996), morphology (Koda, 2000), meaning and lexis (Rababha, 2003) and pragmatics (kwon, 2006). These studies and many others have demonstrated that non-native speakers transfer their respective language patterns to make up for their linguistic and sociolinguistic deficiency. The state of recent transfer research shows inclinations for L2 reading (Kwon, 2006; Yu, 2004) and L2 writing (Aljomhouri, 2010; Karim & Nassaji, 2013; Stapa; 2002; & Saydin, 2010). Koda (2008) complains about the shortage of data on transfer in L2 reading:

> A clear consensus of what transfer really means has yet to emerge. In the absence of a well-articulated theory, many critical questions remain untackled. Little information is actually available, for example, as to what is actually transferred, under what conditions, how transferred competences alter second language reading development, and whether transfer occurs in the same manner—and to the same degree—among learners from diverse language background. It is thus important to clarify why existing conceptualizations fail to address such vital issues. A viable theory of transfer must incorporate accurate description of what has been previously acquired and what must be learnt in a new language. Lacking such information, it is virtually impossible to conceptualize what is readily available for transfer. Howsuch availability differs among individual learners, and to what extent the transferred competences facilitate second language reading acquisition. Probing such issues demand a valid methodology of uncovering similarities and differences in learning to read experiences across languages (Koda, 2008, p. 69).

Literature on the issue in the Algerian context seems to indicate that, for students of English, the majority of transfer studies deal with transferability from standard Arabic. However, factors other than existing research legitimize expectations of transfer from standard Arabic for Algerian EFL learners. By constitutional measures, standard Arabic is the official language in Algeria together with Tamazight. However, integrating Tamazight within the diverse linguistic spectrum remains underway, in the sense that the language is still not used in many public sectors and government institution. What is more startling is the dispute over how words need to be coined so that Tamazight is representative of several regional

dialects. Aside from this undertake, there exists the issue of whether Tamazight should be written using the alphabets of Arabic, French or Tafanagh. (Ait-Hamouda, Bouyoucef, 2015).While it is true that the standardization of Tamazight marks another case of diglossia, the former can hardly be said to established a conventional and widespread secondary, institutionalized discourse. Standard Arabic has been declared an official language since post-colonial Algeria, followed by a process of 'Arabization'. The latter move, Bouagada (2015, p. 158) argues, was "akin to a deeply-rooted resentment of the language of the occupier than to a well thought-out long-term national linguistic policy". The fact, however, remains that standard Arabic dominates in the media and government institutions.

While it might be true that standard Arabic has no socializing function, this does not discredit the latter as an established cultural and linguistic repertoire, especially that Islam has made Arabic less associated with ethnic standards. The standard status of Arabic makes it one's mother tongue as secondary discourse, with the primary discourse being the Algerian Arabic vernacular. It is reasonable to predict Algerian EFL learners to transfer from Arabic regardless racial and regional standards. In effect, standard Arabic is codified and embodies the medium of instructions in schools for the majority of disciplines in higher education. Hence, students are likely to transfer the pedagogical practices into their learning of English.. These factors are the ones for which it is standard Arabic that students of English, in the Algerian context, are likely to transfer from.

Accordingly, studies conducted in the Algerian context focus on transfer from Arabic to English across a variety of features. Temme (2011) reveals the transferability of simple prepositions from Standard Arabic to English, for third year LMD students in the English Department at Mentouri University, Constantine. In the same context, Boukhaled (2010), encounters transferability of articles. Research by Benmessoud (2010) and Nemouchie (2010) indicates the transfer of connectivity and punctuation.

6. Transfer from Arabic to English

Regardless the fluctuating views on the extent to which transfer hinders L2 acquisition, transfer errors appear a deteriorating factor for Arabic-speaking EFL learners. This, besides having to do with learner-related factors, largely relates to the fact, across the whole linguistic subsystems, differences and similarities heavily alternate that assumed differences trigger avoidance of exploiting similarities. The many partial similarities mislead

learners to false-generalize (Abu Radwan, 2012). This state features most in lexis, preposition, articles, relative clause formation and, more intensively, rhetoric.

5.1 Lexical Transfer

A detailed analysis of interference of Arabic lexical system in English is illustrated in the study of Abu Nabba (2011), in which lexical errors made by Jordanian EFL Arab learners are investigated. Findings grouped the errors into four categories. The researcher provides examples of each error category:

Assumed synonymy

> They did not *improve* (change) the idea in students' brains (mind) that English is difficult.

Confusion of binary Items:

> The parents do not *learn* (teach) their children.

Collocation:

> We *made* (took) our exams in methods of teaching.

5.2 Transfer of Prepositions

Tememe (2010) analyzed samples of thirty Algerian third year students to identify likelihood of interference of prepositions from standard Arabic. Error analysis displays participants influenced by Arabic preposition system, whose application results in divergent deviance.

'In' instead of 'at'

> *In* the end of the journey.

'In' instead of 'on'

> *In* the next day, *in* my way, spring begins *in* the first of Mar, *in* time, write your name *in* the top of the paper.

'To' instead of 'in'

> When we arrived *to* Jeriko.

'*From'instead of* '*on'*

> In Britain we drive *from* the left side.

Insertion of preposition

I went *to* home happil*y*.

Tahaineh (2011) conducted the same inquiry with 162 Arab major EFL students. Findings grouped participants*'* errors into three categories: substitution, addition and omission. Errors found in this study are complementary to that found in the study of Tememe (2010).

'*From' instead of* '*of'*

In third world countries we find that millions *from* people suffer from starvation.

'On'insteadof 'in'

- *On* the world.

'*By' instead of* '*of'*

Takes care *by* himself.

'*By' instead of* '*with'*:

She cut salad *by* her hand.

'Between 'instead of '*among'*:

Before his death, the father distributed his wealth *between* his sons evenly.

Addition of 'on'

But this case cannot affect only *on* the lack in bread.

Addition of '*from'*

When you finish *from* learning.

Addition of '*of'*:

To deal with a foreigner requires knowledge *of* his mother tongue.

5.3 Transfer of Article System

Crompton (2011) enquired article system errors made by L1 Arabic speaking EFL writers. A detailed account of the commonest type of article errors is given. The researcher attributes the errors to interference of Arabic article system:

'A' for 'ø'

Everyone in that family lives in *a* harmony.

'ø' for 'a'

Money is *ø* way to ease a person's life.

‘*The’* for ‘*a’*

I believe that ***the*** personality of the person is what stands out.

Generic count nouns

These things destroy ***the*** society.

Generic plural count nouns

Some of us consider ***the*** money as the force which controls anything.

Generic singular count nouns:

They are to join ***the*** real life from the first.

Basically, the transfer of article relates to a general perception about definiteness. Crompton (2011) attributed such erroneous uses of articles to the following factor:

- In Arabic, proper nouns often carry the definite article (*we went to the India*).
- Non-elliptic use of articles in compound noun phrases (*the salt and the pepper*).
- Obligatory use of definite article in generic plural nouns (*the horses are great animals*).
- Use of the definite article with abstract nouns (*All men fear death*).
- Use of the definite article for mass nouns (*the honey is nutritious for the body*).

6.4 Transfer of Relativization

Interference of relative clause formation embodies, according to Fakhra (2009), one of the most problematic learning aspects of Arabic-speaking EFL learners. In what follows, we illustrate this phenomenon with examples from Fakhra’s (2009) analysis of relative clause use by Syrian EFL learners:

a 1.القصيدة التي قرأها الطالب

The poem that the student read it (interference).

The poem that the student read (correct form).

2.الزميل الذي داينته النقود

The colleague who I lent him money to (interference).

The colleague who I lent money to (correct form).

3. الحافلة التي كنا ننتظرها

The bus we were waiting it(interference).

The bus that we were waiting for (correct form).

4.المرأة التي قتل ابنها

The woman who her son was killed (interference).

The woman whose son was killed (correct form).

5.الفتاة التي سوزان أطول منها

The girl that Susan is taller than her (interference).

The girl that Susan is taller than (correct form).

6.5 Rhetorical Transfer

Of most relevant to the present study is the rhetorical kind of transfer which occurs as a result of the transfer of writing conventions. For the moment, we prefer to be agnostic about the rationale for rhetorical transfer as this is detailed in Chapter 2. Yet, as a step in this direction, and for the purpose of bringing the issue to the context of the study, it appears fitting to position rhetorical transfer along the continuum of linguistic transfer. In accordance with Abu Radwan (2012), the transfer of rhetoric from Arabic to English involves the following aspects:

Long Sentence

According to (Ismail, 2010), long sentence is said to be one of the most frequent features Arabic-influenced EFL writers tend to demonstrate. This feature is attributed to students tending to convey much information in one sentence. Itis worth noting that this feature is also called "loose packaging" (Aljomhouri, 2010), in the sense that the connection between successive clauses is not clear. Another reason is that, unlike English, the distinction between a clause and a sentence in Arabic is not that clear. Abu Radwan (2012) used the following passage to illustrate the feature of long sentence as transferred from Arabic:

> Labour party in Britain won the election of 1945 and the leader of the party became a prime minister, the policies that Labour party used were effective in dealing with problem of the country at that time as well as they were significant to make Britain a strong country around the world, the welfare state that the government adapted was based on the assumption that it is part of a government duty to care about the well being of its people.

Connectivity

The problems related to the use of conjunctions and connectives are of two kinds: The overuse and misuse of conjunctions. Concerning the first problem, students often double the use of conjunctions as in, for instance, *and also, and so*, which follow from Arabic و كذلك and ولذلك, respectively. The misuse of conjunctions appears in the following features.

'And' at sentence-initial (resumptive wa)

> *And* the US maintained the same policies…*and* the policies taken at that period confirms the UK-US special relations….*And* because of these intimate relations the countries signed many treaties.

No comma after connectives like 'also' , 'next', and 'finally'

> *Next* the situation called for more military interventions.

Parallel Constructions

Arabic discourse is characterized by parallel construction. Apparently, the majority of studies dealing with transfer from Arabic to English consider this feature as frequent in the list of transfer errors typical to Arabic-speaking EFL student writers. After Abu Radwan (2012) parallelism falls within three categories:

Semantic Parallelism

> Britain is quite *linked* and *associated* with the US.

Syntactic Parallelism

> *The novel is an image* for Britain at that time and the author is an example of the proponents of the same idea.

Another main feature is coordination instead of subordination. In Arabic, the additive discourse marker may have subordinating functions. Student writers tend to transfer the9 functions of Arabic *wa* into their use of the English discourse marker *and* (see Chapter 3).

In fact, learners' transfer of writing conventions may, in fact, result from merging oral traditions with written ones. What Arabic-influenced students may transfer to English writing may not necessarily be referred to as Arabic but rather a transfer of allowance for oral traditions: Mohammed and Omar (2000) explains that, while both Arabic and English share the same oral traditions, the two languages allow different amount of oral traditions in writing. Hence, it sounds plausible to say that parallel constructions and long sentence are

features characteristic of orality as much as they make ostensive features of a given language. Mohamed and Omer (2000, p.74) attribute the allowance of orality in written Arabic texts to three main factors: The influence of the Quran, the persistence of classical Arabic poetry and oratory; the vital role of oral traditions in the transmission of knowledge; and the literacy policies involved in the teaching of Arabic writing within the Arabic educational setting. Mohammed and Omar (2000, p. 58) further assert that "the educational system in the English-speaking countries centralized the teaching of functional aspects of writing as shaped by factors including genre type and audience", resulting in specifications of writing conventions different from those characterizing oral communities.

7. Conclusion

The chapter addressed the nature of and differing perceptions relating to language transfer, down to the discussion of transfer errors from Arabic. As seen, current views of transfer consider the latter as a strategy, establishing the learner's activism in the carryover of the L1-based perceptions to the performance of L2 tasks. As reviewed, this view followed a denial of L1 role in L2 which, in turns, rebelled against approaches advancing the determinacy of transfer. The fluctuating nature of language transfer does stem from a general tension characteristic of SLA. This tension does not seem problematic, nor is it as Schouten (1979) evaluates, "indicative of the immaturity of the field". More pertinently, the tension appears perfectly reasonable as it does justice to the organic complexity of language. In effect, several variables held to exert a relative degree of influence on transfer, constraining it or affecting its impact on learners' performance. These factors are of two kinds: linguistic factors, having to do with markedness and the L1-L2 distance, and non-linguistic factors, comprising learning environment, L2 exposure, and L2 input. Despite the fact that there exists massive literature on the matter of language transfer, the issue characterized by controversial theoretical accounts rather than an ironed-out appreciation of the significance of transfer as an inevitable stage—to say the least. It seems clear that the issue does not lend itself to a working definition: when it comes to what and when to transfer, the issue radiates into different directions endemic to debate.

Chapter Two: The Intercultural Rhetoric Enterprise

1. Introduction

Again, this work aims at gauging the utility of student writers being presented with findings of intercultural rhetoric (IR henceforth) in the light of their transferring from Arabic to English writing. Now that the problematic driving the study—negative transfer—is tackled comes the need for overview on the independent variable proposed as a treatment: *Intercultural rhetoric data*. Prior to being a research agenda tailor-made to inform composition teaching, IR began as ideas relevant to rhetorical transfer. Therefore, to invariably understand why IR has come to uphold the current trends, the chapter traces the development of the field, presenting its origins and reviewing the criticism that reframed its central claims and research orientations. Thereafter, arguments are laid for the pedagogical uptake of IR, namely as a way to assist in a strategic deployment of L1 resources in the L2 writing task.

2. The Intercultural Rhetoric Concept

In the first chapter, we have established that interference errors provoked the conduct of comparisons of learners' L1 and L2. Indeed, sensitivity to errors lingers despite the interlanguage argument, a sign, perhaps, for the ideological pervasiveness of the matter. Accordingly, Enkvist (1997) remarks that "learners' errors are not consequences of original sin but of living with an interlanguage somewhere between the mother tongue and the foreign language" (p. 189). Whereas the contrasts in the linguistic sub-systems dragged behind the convictions set by contrastive linguists, the central impetus for contrasts in the nature of rhetoric came from L2 composition teachers. Effectively, the foundation to intercultural rhetoric has been Robert Kaplan's advocacy of there being transfer at the level of composition, or rhetoric: "The universality of textual and discoursal patterns had been too readily assumed, just as mechanisms of cohesion and coherence were thought to be universal enough to need no attention from writing teachers" (Kaplan, 1966, p. 21).

Kaplan's argument emerged in line with contrastive analysts' strong rejection to transfer errors, yet not to merely stress further resentment of learners' L1, but—as we shall see—to voice certain concerns about languages other than English. Equally, setting the comparison of rhetoric apart was the then-novel attentiveness to L2 composition. Indeed, apart from contrastive analysis, the linguistic landscape in the 1960s was marked by an

undertake of a significant change: A shift towards concern with matters beyond the sentence, as well as emphasis on the cultural dimension of discourse, all reflected in the inclusion of text and discourse studies under the realm of linguistics after a turmoil where linguists merely set to account for syntactic allowances.

I shall, here, resist the temptation of clarifying what a comparison of rhetoric involves, partly because the rhetoric concept appears enigmatic and partly because the scope of comparison markedly differs among the two versions of intercultural rhetoric. As a first-hand account, however, in the framework of intercultural rhetoric, rhetoric concerns two major elements: First, manners in which sentences are joined and, second, patterns of paragraph organization. These elements are the essence of *cohesion* and *coherence* respectively. However, IR takes up not only to compare such mechanisms, nor does it consider comparison as the sole explicandum for its central claims:

> IR examines differences and similarities in ESL and EFL writing across languages and cultures as well as across such different contexts as education. Hence, it considers texts not merely as static products but as functional parts of dynamic cultural contexts. Although largely restricted throughout much of its first 30 years to a fairly rigid form—students' essay writing—the field today contributes to knowledge about preferred patterns of writing. Undeniably, it has had an appreciable impact on the understanding of cultural differences writing, and it has had, and will continue to have, an effect on the teaching of ESL and EFL writing (Conner, 2002, p. 93).

As such, IR marks a multifaceted research area in L2 composition teaching and learning. This property caters for the multitude of variables relevant to L2 writing, a task that implicates the totality of linguistic, cultural, cognitive and pedagogical facets, all intersecting to request a correspondingly complex framework. The above wordings do account for the thematic constituents literature on IR has been generating in that they points to concerns, criticism and developments of IR. The following content sets out to unpack the above summative claim.

3. **Early Contrastive Rhetoric**

A discourse on intercultural rhetoric invariably ought to tackle contrastive rhetoric. This is partly because the former refines the latter and partly because advancing the utility of IR seems to request demonstrating how the new approach manages to overcome the pitfalls inherent in the early model.

Erroneous transfer at the level of paragraph structuring stimulated Kaplan (1966) to advance the need for composition teachers and applied linguists to consider the accuracy of EFL learners' writing: "A fallacy in some refutes and some durations", Kaplan reports, "is one which assumes that because the student can write an adequate essay in his native language, he can necessarily write an adequate essay in a second language" (1966, p. 13).This follows that "the foreign student who mastered the syntax of English may still write a bad paragraph or a bad paper unless he masters the English logic" (1966, p. 21). Implied in this token is the pronouncement that it is difference in the nature of rhetoric—where rhetoric equates composition mechanisms—which regulates the teaching of composition. Accordingly, Kaplan further adds: "In the teaching of English as a foreign language, what does one do with the student who is proficient in the use of syntactic structure but who needs to write themes, thesis, essay examination and dissertation…This approach, the contrastive rhetoric of rhetoric is offered one possible answer to the existing need (1966, p. 21). Rhetorical structuring is, therefore, for Kaplan a goal in language teaching, one whose requirements are distinct from those demanded for grammatical competence.

In Kaplan's treatment, composition reflects and identifies with logic which "evolves out of culture" and "is affected by the nature of tastes within a given culture" (Kaplan, 1966, p.12). Kaplan explains rhetoric in written discourse as a set of assertions stuck together, making the embodiment of thought patterns. As such, the paragraph, in Kaplan's legacy, marks the manifestation of thought patterns. Here, a pattern of thought is a relational matter whose reflection goes beyond the sentence which, at its best, stands for a disconnected idea, not for a series of elements linked together. A Paragraph, being a set of sentences stuck in some ways rather marks the thought-bearing device: "It is necessary to recognize that a paragraph is an artificial thought unit used in written language to suggest a cohesion which commonly may not exist in oral languages" (Kaplan, 1966, p. 21).

Kaplan (1966) analyzed six hundred samples written by ESL students representing several language groups. Analysis shows that student writers demonstrated patterns similar to those of their language background when writing in English. The material falls within five schemes representing distinct, culture-specific modes of paragraph organization. In the Arabic language group, paragraph development is reported as featured by complex series of parallel constructions which, in English, "may be represented by reference" (Kaplan, 1966, p. 14). Another main feature highlighted by Kaplan in the Arabic group is the tendency to include details which "strike the modern English reader as archaic and awkward" and "stand in the

way of clear communication" (Kaplan, 1966, p. 15). Oriental discourse is said to display general statements about the topic, sentences "shooting off" in different directions; and sentence-like paragraphs. The subject in the latter discourse is turned around and tackled from different aspects. Russian discourse exhibits very short sentencesseparated by long ones, most of them bearing ideas irrelevant to the development of the central one.

With regard to English rhetoric, Kaplan voiced a progressist claim: "The expected sequence of thought in English is essentially Platonic-Aristetolean" (p.14). The sequence either begins with the general statement developed by a series of illustrations or presents a set of examples grouped under one general statement. Kaplan further adds that these two modes "represent the common inductive and deductive reasoning which the English reader expects to be an integral part of any formal communication" (1966, p. 14). Kaplan concludes that each language or culture has a sequence of paragraph development unique to it. To illustrate this variation Kaplan provided a set of graphical representations (see Figure 2.1).

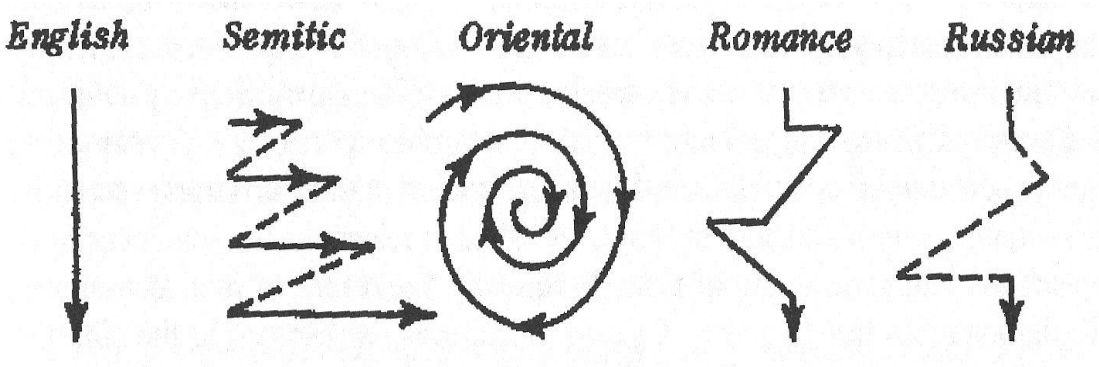


Figure 2.1 Graphical representations of paragraph developments (Kaplan, 1962, p. 25).

This centralization of Platonic rhetoric leads to suggest that Kaplan devalues the dynamics of rhetoric in the same way Plato devaluates language change. The following passage reveals Plato' conception of language diversity and change:

> The original words have before now completely buried by those who wish to dress them up, for they have added and subtracted letters for the sake of euphony and have distorted the word in every way for ornamentation ore merely in the lapse of time. I think that sort of thing is the work of those people who care nothing for truth but only for the shape of their mouth, so they keep adding to the original word until finally no human being can understand what in the world the word means (Plato, trans, p. 414 cited in Hartman, 2007, p. 21).

Later, however, Kaplan comments on the 1966 article: "I was concerned with ethos, pathos, and logos, but mainly with logos, since the presumption was that the students with whom we worked were expected to write expositions and not persuasion (2000, p. 83). This claim shows that Kaplan draws on Aristotle's handing of rhetoric. However, Kaplan looks not at rhetoric as a mode of argument construal that pertains only to persuasive writing, but as a communicative process that accommodates the audience's logo which calls upon appropriate structuring and topic progression. Appeals to reader's emotion, *pathos*, and appeal to morals, *ethos*—which constitute the entire Aristotle's rhetoric—seem of little significance in Kaplan's contrastive rhetoric.

Kaplan (1978) asserts that the topic of a discourse is the "onset of the discourse" generally located in the noun phrase of the head assertion that carries new information, "while the onset of other sentences carries old information" (p. 10). The maintenance of the topic is done through, for instance, simple repetition and synonym. But as native and non-native speakers have different syntactic alternatives at disposal, what seems maintenance of topic for a non-native speaker may turn out to be a topic shift for the native recipient. This follows that "native and non-native speakers differ in what supposition may be shared between the speaker and listener in a given communicative situation (Kaplan, 1978, p. 12).

As a way to further stress that learners' L1 overrides L2 rhetorical structuring, Kaplan (1978) compared the performance of native and non-native writers on tasks requiring the selection of focus maintaining syntactic alternatives among distracters. Results indicated the advantage of native speakers over non-native speakers. Kaplan concludes, accordingly, that knowledge of L2 syntax does not suffice in the light of the apparent need for knowledge on how topics and information flow can be appropriately manipulated in a text: "Whether non-native speakers would maintain or weaken the focus depends how much the supersentential mechanisms are shared between native and non-natives users" (Kaplan, 1978, p. 10).

4. Contrastive Rhetoric Studies

The decades pertained to traditional CR witnessed studies of cultural differences in the nature of rhetoric that might negatively affect writing in L2. The assumptions behind traditional approach to CR are (1) each language or culture has rhetorical conventions that are unique to it and (2) L2 writers transfer their own-language rhetorical preferences when writing in L2.

Following the research prototype offered by Kaplan, a relatively large number of CR studies was undertaken, either to identify rhetorical patterns or to further verify Kaplan's findings. Besides propagating contrastive rhetoric as an applied linguistics truck, "the expansion has helped the development of a more inclusive investigatory model" (Kaplan, 2001, p. 84). While the 1970s and 1980s witnessed the stretch of studies to languages other than those studied by EFL learners in the United States, Kaplan comments that "it is fortunate that the majority of CR studies have involved contrasts between English and some other languages: There are very few studies that explore the relationship between languages not involving English (2001, p. 84). However, the concentration on English seems to reflect an apparent hegemony of English as a linguistic reality, not an ethnocentric, apolitical research ideology.

In an attempt to verify Kaplan's idealization of Korean rhetoric, Kim (1996) compared the writings of American and Korean students along the placement of thesis statement in newspapers editorials written in different languages and under different conditions. Analysis shows that the majority of Korean students—whether writing in Korean or in English—do not place a thesis summary at the initial part of the article. Instrad, "they put several facts first which are not closely related to the main idea of the discourse" (Kim, 1996, p. 149). The Korean ESL student writers often locate the main idea at the end of their essays. Conversely, most of the editorials written by American students have their thesis summary at the initial part of the writing. The statement gets backed up with supporting paragraphs all turning around the central idea. Kim adds that when Americans, like Koreans, present the main thesis summary at the end of the essay, they equally put a number of facts, but these are related to the main idea. Upon this, Kim concludes that Kaplan's view of Korean discourse as turning around the topics and showing it from a variety of tangential views "seems to be true to some degree" (1996, p. 149). This tendency, Kim explains, stems from the fact that "in Korea, they usually assume the reader already knows something about the topic, they think that if writers repeat what is already clear, readers will be bored" (p.148). In the same vein, Koons (1986) remarks that "no matter how loosely paragraphs or sentences are connected, Korean readers may try to connect each paragraph or sentence to the main idea which is stated at the beginning as a title (cited in Hinds, 1990, p. 100).

Wain-chin (2007) synthesizes studies comparing the problem-solution rhetorical sequence held to characterize writing in the West, with the Chinese mode of paragraph organization commonly known as *che-cheng-zhung-he*. Representing a Chinese perspective, Wain-chin contends:

> In the West, composition instruction often tends to approach a topic from a balanced perspective, by encouraging the student to give appropriate information to support the topic from two or more points of view, to lend these views credibility and to come to a balanced conclusion or judgment. It is established that Western writers are usually instructed that readers need to be convinced of the validity of the writer's position and that the onus of persuading the reader is onthe writer" (p.138).

As an extension to Kaplan's description of "Oriental" discourse, Wain-chin sourced indirectness in Chinese rhetoric to the eight-legged essay required in China' s civil service examination. This type of essay, Connor (1996) notes, "derives from Classic Chinese books such as the Four Books and the Classics Book which convey the teaching of Confucius and the moral standards for society" (p. 37). The essay comprises eight functional parts: *poti, chengti, qijiang, qigu, xugu, zhonggu, hougu, and daji*, respectively standing for opening-up, amplification, preliminary exposition, first argument, second argument, third argument, and conclusion. Emphasis on the four-legged essay reflects its treatment as a means whereby the Chinese government sought to centralize the morals echoed in Classic books as part of a sociopolitical legacy.

Wain-chin reports that, typically, the most dominant paragraph-organizing principle is that which falls within the *qi-cheng-zhun-he* sequence. The latter comprises introduction to a topic (*qi*), elucidating of a topic (*cheng*), turning into a different viewpoint (*zhun*) and closing (*he*). Wain-chin comments that the *qi* section in Chinese leaves not a function similar to the topic sentence in English in that, while somehow relating to a general theme, this part does not necessarily operate as a theme statement. The *zhun* part "involves a change of mood, a change from factual to suppositional, a change of time, a change of viewpoint, or simply a change of tone" (Chain-chin, 2007, p. 141). The following example illustrates the transfer of four-part patterns in the English writing of Chinese students:

> [*Qi*] Human and political freedom has never existed and cannot exist without a large measure of economic freedom [*cheng*]. Those of us who have been fortunate to have been born in a free society tend to take freedom for granted, to regard it as the natural state of mankind. [*zhun*] It is not-it is rare and precious thing, most people throughout history, most people today have lived in tyranny and misery, not of

freedom and prosperity. [He] The clearest demonstration of how people value people is the way they vote with their feet when they have no other way to vote (Mo, 1982, cited in Whain-chin, 2007, p. 141).

The English problem-solution pattern comprises four major elements: *Situation*, review of literature; *Problem*, the question chosen to be addressed; *Solution*, a proposed resolution for the problem posed; *Evaluation*, a concluding part referring to what has been achieved and what needs to be done. The following is an example invented by Wain-chin to illustrate the problem-posing sequence:

I was on sentry duty	situation
I saw the enemy approaching	problem
I opened fire	solution (to the problem)
The enemy retreated	evaluation (of the solution)

Figure 2.2 The problem-posing sequence (Whain-chin, 2007, p. 141).

The sequence may get complicated by the restructured extension of a macro part into another four-part scheme. A negative evaluation of a proposed resolution may stimulate another set of sequence. Thus, within a composition different sets of problem-solution sequence may be used:

Problem
Solution
Negative → Evaluation = Problem
Solution
Negative → Evaluation = Problem
Solution
Evaluation

Figure 2.3 Extension of the problem-solution rhetorical sequence (Wain-chin, 2007, p. 145).

Wain-chin explains that this mode of rhetoric is said to derive from the academic culture thriving in the West as embodied in effective reading, 'accurate' writing, note taking and sound critical thinking. These values are shared by the community of readers and writers, and therefore position as expectations and marking criterion for effective performance, either in or outside the school. However, it should be noted that these latter are increasingly

centralized worldwide, namely for the Westernized model of 'neutrality' which seems to have been producing forms of academic universals. The result is that college and University students are measured against such values when writing either in English or in L1.

Wain-chin traces the disdainfulness of originality and logical argument in Chinese academic performance to the Confucian tradition: The teacher imparting knowledge as a dominant teaching method, which renders learning as apprenticeship. This tradition is held to dampen autonomy, self-regulation and critical appraisal. "When Chinese students come to write in English", Wain-chin remarks, "argumentative discourse may be a problem for them to construct their own ideas in order to persuade readers" (2007, p. 190). While both rhetorical patterns tend to set a ground for a problem, they differ in where to situate the problem within the discourse. Connor (2002) explains what appears to be a lack of continuity in the structuring of arguments as the "conventional Chinese reliance on appeals to history, tradition, and authority… and the frequent reference to historical and religious texts and proverb" (p. 303).

The connection between rhetoric and a given form of social and political fabric gets pertinently typified in Koch's (1983) work on "The Language of Arab Rhetoric". Koch's work can be regarded as treaties for the diversity of persuasive norms across cultures and, particularly, as an account on "the language of Arabic rhetoric". The persuasive tactic in Arabic basically involves paraphrasing and repetition of all sorts: Lexical, semantic, syntactic and morphological. These devises intersect to attain a striven-for end: Sparking an impression of comprehensiveness and intensity through making the claim linguistically present, for "the discourse has its own goal not convincing the reader through logical arguments, but instilling in the reader a sense of identification with its point of view" (Taanen, 1980, p.07). This explains why, in Arabic, cohesion is mainly additive, with subordination subsumed by coordination to create a cumulative effect. Let us consider the following example:

> The Germans were still divided among tens of states and independent small states, and the Italians were still distributed among eight political units, and the Poles divided among three powerful states, and the Yugoslavs subject to the rule of two great states (Koch, 1983, p. 50).

Indeed, the cumulative effect may occur at morphological level. Koch utilizes the following example of morphological parallelism. The sequences below share the same 'morphemes' *yu* and *awa*:

a) 1. يحدد و يخطط

yuhadido wa yukhatito (transliteration to Arabic)

He decides and plans.

2. أوائل و أواخرالوافدين

aw'ail wa *aw*akhir

The first and late comers.

Koch speaks of *reverse parallelism* as being as well part of the Arab rhetoric. In this mode, two clauses of the same structure are linked, one telling what something is and another telling what something is not. Therefore, "persuasion is a result, as much or more, the sheer number of times an idea is stated and the balanced, elaborate ways in which it is stated as it is the result of syllogistic [logical] organization". Presenting the claim as a toolkit for the construal of the argument reflects a specific perception of what role might be played by language. This figurative use of language and careful control of word choice empowers language and makes it a mode of argument of the same kind as logical argument. In fact, the tendency to create a cumulative effect explains why Arabic does not utilize subordination but intensifies the claim through coordination and additive conjunction to spark an impression of coverage and comprehensiveness.

While parallelistic discourse gets often traced to orality, Koch disdains the oft-repeated presumption that oral traditions typify illiteracy, for orality should not imply that the writing is not unplanned. As Ochs (1979, p. 73) argues, "it is hard to imagine anyone producing the sort of balanced complexity or elaborate parallelism we have seen without careful planning. One could further comment that different languages allow varying degrees of oral traditions in written discourse and that indifference between spoken and written discourse is one of the salient features of Arabic. By the same token, while this parallelism is, undeniably, a feature of artistic language, Arabic texts are not poetry but do share the features of poetic text in other cultures. While the Arabic text "certainly shares some features with text in other cultures which are labeled "poetic"…they are not poetic in an epic sense. That is, no Arab would call them poetry; they are prose" (Koch, 1983, p. 53).

Truth-established argument is, in Koch's work, referred to as *presentation*, seemingly like an argument but in fact is not. This follows that the writer assumes the reader not to be critical of it as it cannot be faulted. There are situation and societal scenes in which

presentation is likely to be the dominant assertion. Koch maintains that Arab learners of English transfer argumentation on established truth to argumentation that seeks to establish truth. Learners establish the argument through what they consider as true. The problem is that what the Arab sees as true, and thus spares efforts to prove its validity, may not be established and requires convincing argument.

Making a link between certain structures and certain social and political ideologies, Koch relates presentation as proof to societies with strict hierarchy, where truth is not an individual issue and where individuals are subverted by the hegemony of collectivism. Koch explains that if truth is less consensual, individuals have to carve out proof to convince others. Koch also concludes that the significance of the word is highly emphasized in Arab mindset, where elegant expression construes persuasion.

As a result, both cultures—Arab and American—have diverse preferences for structuring and construing persuasive messages For the Arab culture, Zaharna (1995) asserts that"emphasis is on form over function, on affect over accuracy, and image over meaning" (p. 242). This is held to follow from a pervasive, overriding distinction: Arab culture centralizes the oral modality of communication, which places higher premium on symbolism and establishes higher interpersonal relations between the speaker and listener or between and reader and writer. In the West, the presumed channel of interaction is dominantly print, often attributed to the heightened tendency to preserve and transmit knowledge material. This tendency towards capturing content imposes high concern with accuracy. Truly, most scholars tend to view Arab and American cultures as opposites. One major difference features in the degree to which meaning is made dependent on context: "Low context cultures, such as the American culture, tend to place more meaning in the language code and little meaning in the code", which renders communication "explicit [text-dependent], specific, and analytical" (Zaharna, 1995, p. 242). In high context cultures, therefore, the construal of meaning predicates on the context more than on code. This sort of communication is referred to by Halliday and Hasan (1976) as "restricted code". To get into grips with meaning under this state, the listener /reader ought to make appropriate indexation so that to bestow meaning. In this communicative mode, "it is not necessary for the speaker to be specific because details are in the context" (Zaharna, 1995, p. 243). In other words, in high context cultures, responsibility of communication falls upon the reader.

Levels of directness make another category American and Arab cultures are distinguished along. American manners are held to follow an unequivocal style attained through avoidance of unimportant details (Mohammed & Omar, 2000). Tannen (1984) attributes unequivocal structuring to American sayings like *get to the point, do not beat around the bush*, and *say what you mean.* Koch (1983) comments that "this style strives to accurately represent fact, technique, or expectation and to avoid emotional overtones and allusion" (p. 61).

The practice of labeling seems to have pushed contrastive rhetoricians to another scale of value distribution. American culture is often presented as centralizing actions and achievements, perhaps unlike other cultures as, Japanese, Arab or Chinese. The 'Doing' cultures are held to value accomplishments and measurement of achievements. Zahrana (1995) explains the property for doing to expressions like *actions speak louder than words, how are you doing?*, and *what is happening?*. Contrary to the doing culture, 'being' cultures are societies where a person's status and rank are more important than achievements. Zahran traces this distinction to the advocacy that Arabic *how are your conditions?* is equivalent to American *how are you?*

While some claims on cultural differences appear reasonable, descriptors like "reasonable" and "accurate" echo ethnocentric pronouncements. Indeed, "an ambiguous style would be more likely to conceal or bury the message" only by the measures of Western readers: These characteristics of Arabic rhetoric synchronize a community's communicative and persuasive style, which needs not to be fitting for other cultures. Directness and straightforwardness do not make neutral evaluative norms. Arabs may consider the presence of language as part of their rhetoric, but not to the degree where "a single anecdote can constitute adequate evidence for a conclusion and a personal act can embody the beliefs and ideas of an entire community" (Zaharna, 1995,p. 244). The sayings are mere idealizing claims acting upon which is not a necessity. Nor are they unique to Americans for they are arguably not lacking in other cultures. The frequent response to *how are you doing?* is hardly *I have achieved something*, but *I am not in a better mood today*, which indicates an individual's condition.

5. Critical Reactions to Contrastive Rhetoric

Invariably, CR was pedagogically saturated, meant for catering and laying corresponding treaties for issues relevant to the attainment of certain learning outcomes. Accordingly, Kaplan reasserts that the "model…was intended not as a grand theoretical pronouncement, but merely as an aid to teachers in moving to past listening/speaking…to reading/writing" (2001, p. 82). As such CR brings novelty through two advocacies: First, analysis of language ought to address discourse level analysis than the mere intra-sentential categories as practiced by the then-popular contrastive analysis and, second, that L2 writing merits ground in the ELF research scale. It is unsurprising that such proposals have now become tautologies: To us, Bleche (2013) remarks, "forty years later, this may seem obvious. Yet, when Kaplan wrote this, it was novel….People did not consider that writing could be taught. You were either born with a gift or you lacked it (p. 60).

Rhetoric, then, surfaced as a targeted goal in language education, more or less of the same kind as grammar and vocabulary. Expressing allegiance to CR, Enkvist—one of Kaplan's harshest critics—alleges: "Learning a foreign language does not only involve learning sounds, words and syntax, but also its characteristic patterns of building up discourse, telling a story and presenting and attacking an argument" (1997, p. 189). Another attraction of the approach is its ability to piece up together fields that have long existed separately, in this case applied linguistics and rhetoric, to fabric a new, quite generative area of inquiry. This fusion opens up researchable areas, namely students' persuasive writing and cultural contrasts in the nature of rhetoric.

On the other scale, while CR sought to facilitate the learning of L2 writing, it faced serious criticism that at first-hand downplayed the assumptions behind it. Kaplan (1966, p. 20) states that "the discussion of rhetorical differences is not meant to offer any criticism of other existing paragraph developments; it is rather intended only to demonstrate that paragraph developments rather than those regarded as desirable in English do exist". Despite this assertion, scholars have been identifying serious flaws in Kaplan's treatment.

Above all, the very notion of contrastive rhetoric appears theoretically suspect, reflecting sensitivity not to 'improper' performance of learners but, apparently, to one among many possible sources of inaccurate output: A learner's mother tongue. CR seems to carve out a deterministic view of L2 writers inevitably transferring from their L1. The rhetorical preferences exhibited by L2 learners, while composing in a foreign language, may not

necessarily be the result of direct transfer of rhetorical patterns from the native language, "but can be due to other cultural dimensions such as L1 literacy practices, writing functions, writing conventions, and the frequency and distribution of different writing genres" (Ismail, 2010, p. 29).

The industry of contrastive rhetoric is, in fact, an assimilation of the theory of linguistic relativity into the framework of discourse. According to Connor (1997, p. 34), "contrastive rhetoric drew on the theory of linguistic relativity that each language imposes a worldview of its users and that different languages affect perceptions and thoughts in various ways". While many studies (see Kim, 1997; Leki 1991; Taft et al., 2011) point to the existence of rhetorical transfer, several scholars interested in CR (see Bloom, 1985; Berman 1994; Matsuta, 1997; Kubota & Lehner 2004; Ismail 2010) have criticized Kaplan's strong hypothesis that language controls thoughts and rhetoric, adopting a weaker version that considers cultural background to affect cognitive processes which, in turns, control rhetorical preferences. On Kaplan's tendency to infer though patterns, Bloom (1985) comments: "Does the fact that the Chinese lexicon includes term roughly equivalent to the English terms "suggestion", "mental processes", and "meaning" but has no term roughly equivalent to the English term "idea" imply that English speakers have an idea that Chinese do not share?" (1981, p. 07). Bloom further details:

> Accepting such a claim will lead us to absurd conclusions—the conclusion that, for instance, because English has one word *bank* meaning both river and financial institution while French has two distinct lexical items for both meanings, English speakers must think less differentially than their French counterpart. Or to the conclusion that because English uses *will* to mark the future, whereas French has a distinct set of tense markers, English speakers have a more distinct and more volitional concept of future time than the French (p. 09).

Faced with such criticism, Kaplan reconsidered that rhetorical structures make not a corresponding measure of thought patterns. In other words, manners in which paragraphs get developed followed from cultural preferences of discourse construal.

Upon these reactions, Kaplan reasserts: "I have been accused of xenophobia by various scholars, when my intention was merely to suggest that blank spaces occurred between languages at the rhetorical level as well as at the syntactic level (2001, p. 82). Yet, the 'mere' intention seems ideologically driven, to the extent that it turns out to be an agenda for—to borrow Mikhail Bakhtin's (1981) words— "fixing signification" and "reducing the

signifying practices" of other languages. Indeed, CR has lent the implication that the other languages have 'lacks', not as they reflect diverse phenomena, but for their mismatch with English rhetoric.

Other arrows targeted the ideological perspectives of CR, namely as it seems to bear a monologic approach that proclaims self-sufficiency. Kubota and Lehner (2004) assert that contrastive rhetoric has tended to construct static, homogeneous and apolitical images of the rhetorical patterns of various written languages (p.08) Indeed, many scholars (see Enkvist, 1997; Matsuda, 1997; Kubota & Lehner 2004; Xinguha, 20011) consider the dichotomies brought by traditional CR as colonialist appeals evident in the progressist treaties of English rhetoric as "linear", "logic" and "accurate". On the other scale, non-western sequences are allocated descriptors such as "digressive", "indirect" and "non-logic". Such one-sidedness manifests most in Kaplan claiming that "the rhetorical structure of English composition may be found in any good composition" and that "the patterns of paragraphs of other language are not well established" (Kaplan, 1966, p. 21). According to Purves (1988, cited in El-Daily, 2012, p. 53), when students are taught to write in one culture, enters another and do not write as do the members of the second culture, they should not be thought stupid or lacking in "higher" mental processes". Enkvist (1997, p. 191) made the same point and argued that learners' transfer does not necessarily owe to faulty logic or to a special sin in students' compositions. He alleges: "What would Anglo-American discourse look like to Semitic or Russians speakers and writers?" (1997, p. 190). The validity of such criticisms feature most in Kaplan himself confessing deviance: "It was [the article] ethnocentric because it looked at the writing of speakers of languages other than English from the perspective of English" (2000, p. 83).

At another level, Kaplan seems to have compelled a range of discourse types—which differ in their structure—under the rigid templates of "Semitic" and "Romance". Even the texts compared in Kaplan's study are not parallel as they belong not only to different typologies as narrative, argumentative but to several genres as academic essays and reports. Indeed, rhetorical choices are not static but vary and are altered by the practices of discourse communities which pose certain mode of construal. As such, choice of text might have resulted in false generalization of rhetorical features of languages. This may convey the impression that Kaplan was determined to characterize non-western rhetoric in the respective manner, as several modes rhetoric are subsumed under a single sequence said to be representative. Blecher (2014) sums up the flaws in early CR:

> Kaplan's (1966) study itself is now pointed out as a template of how not to do CR research: don't compare incommensurate texts, of different genres, by authors of different expertise, don't label, generalize, and oversimplify ethnolinguistic cultures of rhetorics, as, for instance, Oriental or Semitic, linear or non-linear; don't take an etic perspective; don't overlook the need for empirical data (p. 60).

Indeed, my aim behind reviewing the above criticism of CR stems from the tendency to present an appraisal of the theoretical framework we adopt in the study. Knowledge of the above mentioned limitations does assist in considering likelihood of deviance when it comes to make use of data from intercultural rhetoric.

6. New Directions in Contrastive Rhetoric

The groundswell of CR criticism, while effecting a devaluation of the field during the 1980s and 1990s, has been pivotal in its persistence and refined tenets. The criticism was equally motivated by the then-widened understandings in linguistics, language teaching and research methods, resulting in the branding of early CR into a more principled approach, one with considerations of variables missing in the early pronouncements. The outcome is an accomplished research enterprise with extended inquiry goals which typify newly upheld directions in linguistics and language teaching. The evolution of methods parallels the shift towards discourse-based analysis and later towards incorporating the social context of language use. Equally exerting such evolution has been the shift from the focus on individual writer to a consideration of readers' influence and expectation. Largely thanks to the work of Ulla Connor, not only did contrastive rhetoric regain theoretical respectability, but it is that the whole enterprise predicate on other genesis and gained methodism, making up a complex yet elegant research industry. Connor's calls for adjusting CR are clear in the following wordings:

> Contrastive rhetoric needs to move far beyond such binary distinctions as linear versus nonlinear discourse, Japanese prose versus Finnish prose, inductive versus deductive logic. In contrasts, it needs to describe the vast complexities of cultural, social, and educational factors affecting a writing situation. We need to understand the speaker, writer, and reader. We need to understand what went in the process of writing as well as the historical background and context that affect the writing and writer (Connor, 2002, p. 301).

Various concepts effected the systematic expansion of contrastive rhetoric into subdomains: (1) Analysis of text goes beyond sentence level; (2) rhetoric conventions are transferred across languages; (3) different languages have different patterns of discourse; (4)

EFL writers wound manifest cultural-specific writing conventions and modes of organization and topic development; and (5) writers need to be made aware of differences in composing processes. Hence "CR evolved to subvert contrastive text linguistics (comparison of discourse features across languages, the study of writing as a cultural activity comparing the processes of learning to write" (Connor, 1997, p, 77). Moreover, "no longer restricted to cross-linguistic insights supplied by contemporary applied linguistics, contrastive rhetoric now includes models of writing developed in education composition pedagogy and translation studies" (Connor, 1997, p. 07). The diagram below shows the new directions in contrastive rhetoric which, after Connor (2004), has taken the label "intercultural rhetoric":

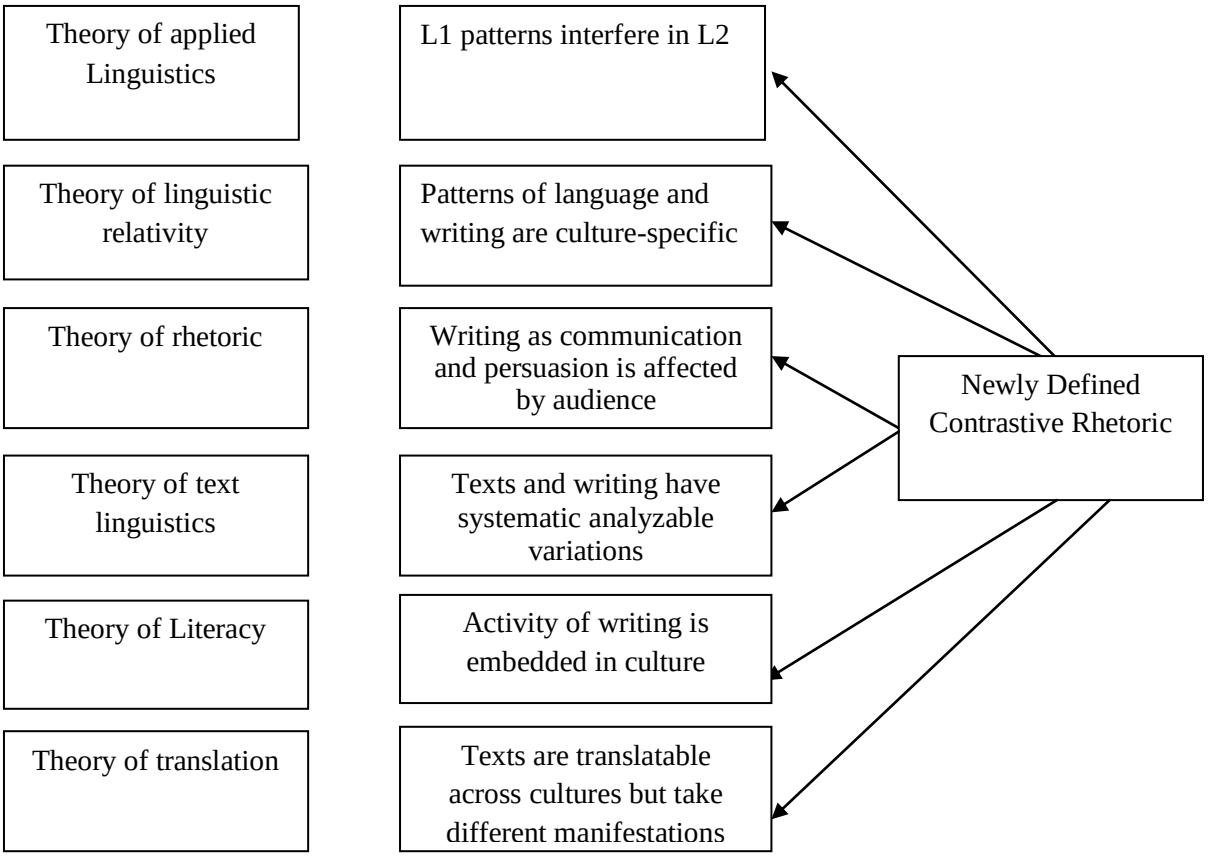


Figure 2.4 Influences on newly defined contrastive rhetoric (Adapted from Connor, 1997, p. 10).

6.1 Literacy

Literacy, here, refers to "the ethnography of communication" That is, the study of the cultural dimensions of discourse. Studies on literacy seek to examine how the dependent variable of writing comes to be manipulated by counterpart independent variables of culture background, previous instructions, and the way writing is taught in given educational settings. Above all, IR seeks to tighten which culture is relevant to students' writing and rhetorical

choices so that to embark on a comparison of underpinning variables. Instead of a mere focus on national ethnic culture, considers how and whether small and academic cultures interact with the national culture, especially that writing stands more as an institutional activity. This might follow from the fact that "in no sense could the cultural activity taking place in the educational setting be accounted for in terms of the national culture in which that educational culture appeared to be located, as has often been done in the past" (Atkinson & Ramanathan, 1995, p. 17). Upon this premise Connor (1996) considers several types of culture to be the focus of intercultural rhetoric:

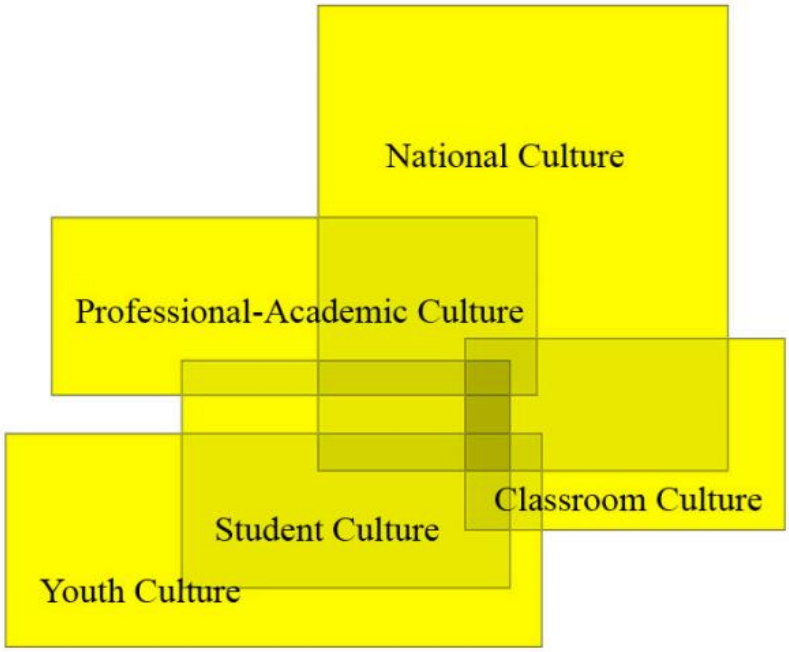


Figure 2.5 Interacting cultures in educational setting (Connor, 2006).

Intercultural rhetoricians maintain that, as way to understand students' writing, it is determinant to understand the different program culture, the culture informing writing programs. What learners of writing are assessed on seems what constitutes the objectives to be worked on in writing tasks. Different intended constructs result in different writing output across cultures. Characteristics of good writing, hence, are culturally defined phenomena relatively reflecting a community's cultural orientations through goals and objectives laid out in school programs According to Conner (1997, p. 115), "written test and the way they are used and perceived vary according to the pedagogical situations, that learners need to be informed of such differences. It is not enough to define what will be expected from students

giving them models of what we want them to produce we must also determine what these students' prior experiences are".

One distinct feature of IR is the adoption of an ethnographic approach which views text as the product of social variables. Connor (2004, p. 294) remarks that "the ethnographic approach views text as one feature of the social situation in which writing takes place.. These tenets follow from the conviction that a text is a multidimensional artifact (see Figure 4).

Figure *2.6* Fairclough's three-dimensional model of discourse.

Hence, IR investigates how this subjection manifests and what restrictions the reader exercises on the writer through setting specific expectations. In so doing, and "in addition to text analysis", "ethnographic methods use direct observation, interviews and other modes of analyzing the situational context" (Connor, 2004, p. 294). Interview methodology in intercultural rhetoric mainly sets to elicit deeply held views of what makes good writing across culture. Adding to this, "answers about similarities and differences can emerge from ethnographic observational and other qualitative studies done either simultaneously or after the textual comparison" (Connor, 2004, p. 300). Too, Intercultural rhetoric contrasts the cognitive processes underpinning both writing and text comprehension. It does so through considering the reader as an active organism shaping communicative style to meet given expectations and interpretation.

Atkinson and Ramanathan (1995) proposed moving from comparison of text to comparison of the academic and scholastic culture regulating the nature of such texts. Differences in thinking about writing largely relates to the nature of composition pedagogy which, in turns, is plotted against a divergent social practice. Ethnographic approaches, Atkinson (2000) concludes, "are the most effective approaches for examining educational

institutions from a cultural perspective". In composition research, such methods seek to uncover the "conventions for construing reality" as evident at program-level and what factors assist in the persistene of these conventions:

> Although these two differing worlds views [L1 and L2 academic cultures] may be masked by allegiance to superficially similar paradigms they are in fact the products of two distinct cultures with their own oft-contrasting norms of what academic writing is, what constitutes good academic writing, and how the latter can be better communicated in the classroom (Atkinson & Rmanathan, 1995, p. 540).

Following an ethnographic approach, Atkinson and Ramanathan (1995) undertook to account for the academic culture inherent in the writing instructions followed in US universities, in this case the University Composition Program (UCP) and the English Language Program (EPL) programs. The study purported to predict what difficulties non-native speakers will have trying to accommodate the academic norms. The motivation for this study is teachers complaining about the poor writing ability of their non-native (NNS) speakers. To this end interviews and teachers' comments were deployed to elicit the intended data.

In terms of course objectives, the UCP has as goals developing a sound writing process and enhancing critical thinking: "Observation of class sessions reveals that teachers consistently prodded students to deeply think on the topic and consider both sides of the issue….Teachers' feedback on performance reflect a foregrounding of these points (Atkinson & Ramanathan, 1995, p. 542). The following is an extract from teachers' feedback. Atkinson and Ramanathan used to show emphasis on critical thinking:

COGENCY: You should probably consider the fact that Benetton's ads are not very effective in the U.S. Further, you need to be more convincing as to how Benetton appeals to the "upper class."
SUPPORT: Provide further insight into how the company's ads are effective! Don't just describe what the ads do.
GENERAL COMMENTS AND GRADE: Good start. You need to be sure you're aware of the other side. Anticipate questions and argue for why you are right. It seems that you end up simply describing the company's goals. [Grade:] C. [WC1][4]

Figure 2.7 Teachers' feedback as elicited in Atkinson and Ramanathan (1995).

Atkinson further describes that typical to the UCP is the preparation of writing prompts or assignment. These contain "introduction to the topic, a list of reading, and a schedule for assignment completion" (p. 549). The program centralized the analytical academic essay, often termed as *issues oriented*, *thesis driven*, or *intertexual*. At the same time program administrators seem to discard "the writing of personal narrative". While the programme advocates the explicit cueing devices, there exists a conviction that "the most convincing form of persuasive/argumentative essay is not always the direct one" (Atkinson and Ramanathan, 1995, p. 551). Rhetorical structures involve deductive structuring, problem-solution, and compare and contrast sequence.

Contrasting the program culture, Atkinson and Ramanathan reports that the ELP assumes intense cultural knowledge from the part of non-natives. The UCP version of critical thinking appears to assume a cultural ecology. It is remarked that "school-based writing is frequently viewed and practiced not so much as a mode of communication or information inscription but rather as a tool for intellectual exploration, an avenue for debate and dialectic and even an instantiation of democratic principles" (p. 551). The authors further alleged that the values inherent in the programs typify understanding of cultural values, insightfulness, and thoughtfulness assumed of literate societies. Those skills are assumed to be already there in society: "Teachers teaching critical thinking de novo may be providing mainstream students with opportunities for rehearsal and refinement based on competences the latter have been acquiring all their lives (Atkinson & Ramanathan, 1995, p. 556).

More radical in the change that critical pedagogue like Kubota (2004) exerted is interest in learners' language backgrounds as a way to achieve better understanding of what might be brought to the L2 writing task. While Kaplan looks at comparisons of learners' writings with those of natives as sole data for contrastive rhetoric, Hinds (1990) arises an interest in learners' L1 as effective so that to encompass rhetorical choices learners may bring to the L2 writing task. Another apparent attraction of this approach is its potential of rendering student writers consciously aware of their L1 features.

6.2 Rhetoric

New directions in contrastive rhetoric allocate prominent importance to audience. This may be due to the development of CR in line with the shift of writing pedagogy from process to reader approach. According to Connor (1997) CR conducts cross cultural analysis of

persuasion under the different assumptions writers from different cultures bring with them. It "maintains that differences in readers' expectations are the primary reasons for cross-cultural differences in writing style, and that students should be made aware of such differences by their teachers (Connor 1997, p. 167). In effect, different perceptions of what the reader already knows determines, for instance, the way old or given information is placed: "Old information refers to what the writer thinks the reader already knows. New information refers to what the writer believes the reader does not know' (Connor, 1997, p. 18).

6.3 Genre Analysis

IR deploys genre analysis as a feeder discipline informing of a specific layer that makes up rhetoric. Genre analysis studies describe text global structure considering the rhetorical sequence which enters into the expectations of discourse. Bhatia (1993) defines genre as follows:

> A genre is a recognizable communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purposes identified and mutually understood by members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs. Most often it is highly structured and conventionalized with constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their intent positioning, form and functional value. These constraints, however, are often exploited by the expert members of the discourse community to achieve private intentions within the framework of socially recognized purposes (Bhatia, 1993, p. 13).

Moves, Connor (2002, p. 501) comments, "are semantic functional units which can be identified first because of their communicative purpose and second because of linguistic boundaries typical of the moves". Genre analysis studies take moves, or functions, to draw a functional scheme characteristic of the studied genre. The functional structure of a particular genre stands as a defining cultural element compliance with which constitutes the entire rhetoric. Bhatia (1993) describes a canonical job application moves. These include establishing credentials, offering incentives, enclosing documents, using closing tactics, soliciting response, and ending politely. The example below illustrates analysis of research article introductions as a genre:

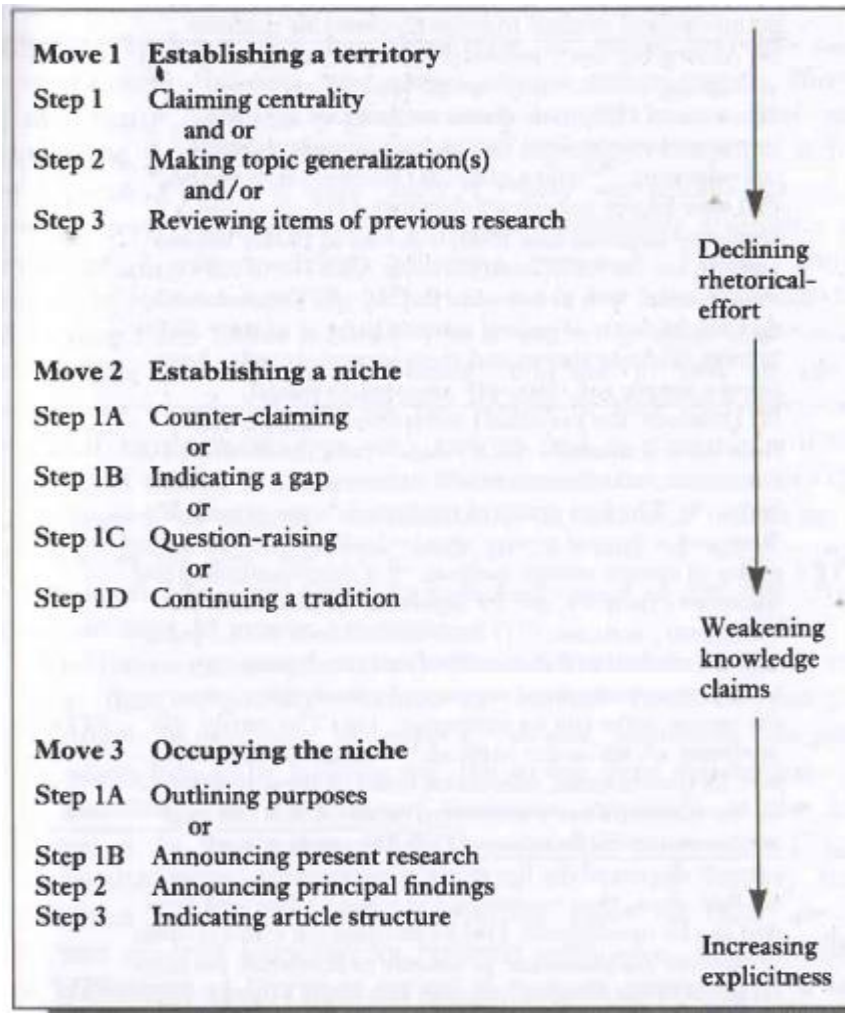


Figure 2.8 Rhetorical structure of research article introductions (Bahatia, 1993, p. 23).

. Of all the studied genres, argumentative essays seem to take the lion's share in genre analysis. Academic research papers, like essays, are a subgenre of academic discourse addressed in intercultural rhetoric research. Other IR genre analyses look at research article abstracts (see Upton & Connor, 2001). Recently, there appears to be a shift towards examining contrasts in writings for specific purposes. This negotiation of cultural differences in genres "would then be an expected part of writing for one culture seeking to communicate with members of another" (Upton & Connor, 2001, p. 341). Yet, the problem with cross-cultural comparisons of a genre is that some are culture-specific.

6.4 Text Linguistics IR Studies

Basically, "text linguistics turns to text in order to cope with features which a sentence grammar could not handle" (Bahatia,1997, p. 02). This leaves text linguists to concern intersentential relations. Text linguistics CR research maintains that different cultures have

different expectations internalized as different patterns of discourse. Thus, different languages have divergent textual mechanisms and ways of yielding discourse. The essence of text linguistics research is contrasting languages along various textual mechanisms, notably cohesion and coherence which seem the most dominant IR research: "The difference in number of research on these mechanisms and others is striking" (Conner, 1997, p. 134).

6.4.1 Cohesion

Cohesion is a text-forming organism which, with coherence, co-construes the textual metafunction of discourse, with the other dimension of analysis being the interpersonal and ideational. Textual mechanisms are basically those elements that tie sentences together to effect *textuality*, which distinguishes a text from a "non-text". As such, texture is not restricted to a sentences" but is a "supra sentence" as it is "realized and encoded through sentences" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 02):

> It [cohesion] occurs where the INTERPRETATION of some elements in the discourse are depend on others. The one PRESUPPOSES the other in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 04).

Halliday and Hasan (1976) argue that cohesion within a sentence is of peripheral impotence, for sentences are organically cohesive due to their grammatical structure, while "texture depends on something other than structure"(p. 07).The following example is suggested by Yule (2006) to demonstrate the importance of the cohesive devices in bringing text unity and meaning:

> *My father* once brought a Lincoln convertible. He did it by saving every penny he could. That car would be worth a fortune nowadays. However, he sold it to help pay for my college. Sometimes I think I'd rather have the convertible (words are by the author of this work).

This text makes sense thanks to the relations signaled by cohesive markers. The underlined items are referents: The pronoun *he* refers to *my father*, *my* stands for the speaker, while *that car* denotes the *Lincoln convertible*. We may wish to comment on other aspects of cohesion in the example. The element *however* serves relating what follows to what went before.This need for recovering the referent to resolve the identity of reference signals a dependency relation, which renders the text cohesive. The table below outlines the grammatical and lexical mechanisms establishing cohesion.

Table 2.1 The place of cohesion within Halliday` s metafunctions (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 29).

Ideational		Interpersonal	Textual		
Experiential	Logical		(structural)		(non-structural)
By rank:	All ranks:	By rank:	By rank:	Cross-rank:	
Clause: transitivity	Paratactic and hypotactic relations (condition, addition, report)	Clause: mood, modality	Clause: theme	Information unit: information distribution, information focus	**Cohesion** Reference Substitution Ellipsis Conjunction Lexical cohesion
Verbal group: tense		Verbal group: person	Verbal group: voice		
Nominal group: epithesis		Nominal group: attitude	Nominal group: deixis		
Adverbial group: circumstance		Adverbial group: comment	Adverbial group: conjunction		

5.4.1.1 Types of Cohesive Devices

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), "a devise bears the meaning of relatedness and connectivity, marking the occurrence of a pair of cohesively related items" (p.2). This relational circulation presents the text as a semantic unity which features in five manners, namely reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical items. Unity, thus, can be achieved by a set of lexicogrammatical tools "which have in common the fact that they contribute to the realization of a text cohesion" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 28).

6.4.1.1.1 Grammatical Cohesion

Reference

Reference items such as *she, he* and *this* denote other experiences. The link is that these types of items pose on the reader the need for capturing identifications in the surrounding text. In other words, "instead of being interpreted semantically in their own rights, they [reference items] make reference to something else for their interpretation (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 31).The following example illustrates reference relation:

> Behaviourists advocate that language acquisition relates to the environment. They argue that the child acquires language by means of responses to stimuli (invented example).

The reference item *they* refers back to *behaviourists*. As such, *behaviourists* is the resolution and identification of *they*. The same relation can be exerted by the other set of pronouns. These include possessive, personal and demonstrative pronouns, all having in common the property of standing for a particular entity. This type of reference is called *endophoric reference*, taking place within the text and not in the context of situation. More specifically, it is a case of *anaphoric reference*, where the referring item refers to a preceding identification, or *the antecedent*. *Cataphora*, however, takes place when the referring item denotes an entity that proceeds. In addition to endophoric reference, the identification of the referent in exophoric reference occurs, not in the text, but in the context of situation. However, Halliday and Hasan confine referential cohesion to endophoa on the ground that the reference in exophorais textually unresolved.

Substitution

Substitution functions practically the same way as reference, in the sense that it sets an anaphoric link between parts of the text through a substitute and a substituted. For Halliday and Hasan (1976), the difference between reference and substitution is that the referring item refers to an entity of meaning regardless its category whereas the substitute has the same grammatical function as the substituted:

Nominal

I really like sweet sherry but my husband prefers dry *ones* (sherry).

Clausal

Do you think WAO phones will ever catch on? I *think* so.

Verbal

She doesn't know any more than I *do* (Know).

(Hatch, 1992, p. 224)

Ellipsis

Elliptic relations involve the leaving out of words, phrases, and clauses which do necessarily have to reappear so that meaning is captured. Instances of ellipsis contribute to the cohesion of the text in the sense that they allow for re-occurrence of the same proposition without repeating the form. It is worth noting that the difference between ellipsis and substitution is that, in the latter, there is an alternative form. Elliptic uses basically take three forms:

Nominal

They are small; take *two*.(Cookies).

Verbal

Were you typing? No, I wasn't (typing).

Clausal

I don't know how to work this computer. I have to learn how (to work the computer).

(Hatch, 1992, p. 225).

Conjunction

Cohesion can be set up by certain elements that set meaning relations. A conjunctional item determines the nature of the surrounding ideas and even their structures as "they are not procedures for reaching out to the preceding or the proceeding text, but they express certain meaning which presuppose the existence of certain elements in a discourse" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 226). The table below shows the cohesive relations signaled by conjunctions.

Table 2.2 Types of conjunction relations in English (Laala, 2010).

Relationship	Examples of Logical Connectives
1.Addition/inclusion	And, furthermore, besides, also, in addition, similarly
2.Contrast	But, although, despite, yet, however, still, on the other hand, nevertheless
3.Amplification	To be more specific, thus, therefore, consists of, can be divided into
4.Exemplification	For example, such as, thus, for instance
5.Cause-effect	Because, since, thus, as a result, so that, in order to, so, consequently
6.Alternative	Or, nor, alternatively, on the other hand
7.Explanation	In other words, that is to say, I mean, namely
8.Exclusion	Instead, rather than, on the contrary
9.Temporal arrangement	Initially, when, before, after, subsequently, while, then, firstly, finally, in the first place, still, followed by, later, continued
10.Summary/ conclusion	Ultimately, in conclusion, to sum up, in short, in a word, to put it briefly, that is.

6.4.1.1.2 Lexical Cohesion

This sort of cohesion is created by the selection of vocabulary as referents to already given semantic entities in a text. The use of lexical items as a cohesive toolkit does practically take the form of either reiteration or collocation. Within the former category, the semantic entity may be re-sparked in a text by means of a synonymous item, a general noun, a hyponym, or by repeating the same word used in the preceding stretch of text.

Reiteration of Same Item

The most common form of lexical cohesion is repetition which is simply repeated words or word-phrases threading through the text. That is to say, the same item reappears as a way to refer to previous linguistic entity. Let us consider the following example:

> There was a large ***mushroom*** growing near her, about the same height as herself; and, when she had looked under it, it occurred to her that she might as well look and see what was on the top of it. She stretched herself up on tiptoe, and peeped over the edge of the ***mushroom***… (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 278).

This re-occurrence of the same lexical item creates a lexical cohesive:The term *mushroom*occurring in the last part of the example refers back to *mushroom* located the first line. In fact, Halliday and Hasan speak of two types of repetition:

Repetition by Synonyms

Re-occurrence of the same semantic entity may take the form of a synonymous or near-synonymous item assigned the re-exposition of an item situated elsewhere in a text:

a 1. Accordingly… I took leave, and turned to the ***ascent*** of the peak. The ***climb*** is perfectly easy…

2. Then quickly rose Sir Bedivere, and ran, and leaping down the ridges lightly, plunged among the bulrush beds, and clutch the sword. And lightly wheel'd and threw it. The great brand made lightnings in the splendour of the moon…

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p.178).

In example (a1), the word *climb* makes reference to *ascent* as a synonym, while in example (a2), the word *brand* is a near-synonym for *sword*.

Reiteration by General Noun

The occurrence of sense relations in a text presupposes its cohesiveness. A superordinate, or an upper-class noun, relating to its hyponyms also signals an instance of cohesionIn the following example, the item *car* in the second sentence makes reference back to *Jaguar* in the first sentence. Here, the relationship is that of a class membership in that Jaguar is, basically, a car:

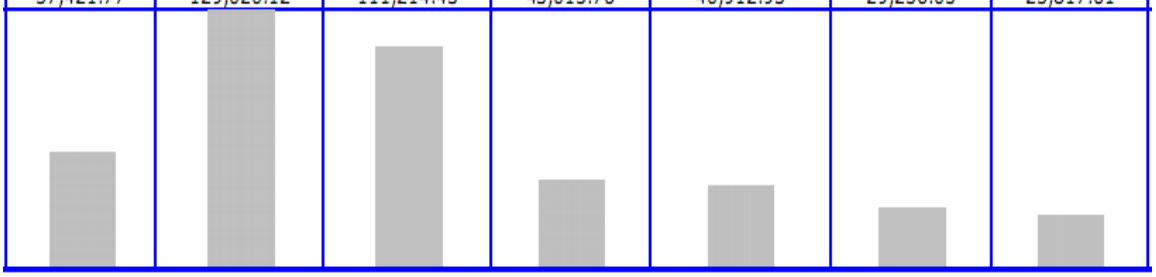
b Henry's bought himself a new Jaguar. He practically lives in the car.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p.178).

What is most interesting isthat change in the nature of cohesive devices affects textual meaning. It is worth to note that each text type or genre has a set of cohesive properties which are part of a text typology. As a matter of fact, these texts differ in the way they display texture. Relativity of cohesive markers (conjunctions, reference, substitutions, ellipsis, lexical cohesion) across writings makes an important aim in text linguistics IR research. The table below shows frequencies of referential cohesion across texts compiled in the British National Corpus. Clearly, texts differ in the amount they deploy reference to a previously occurring entity, which indicates a general variation in texture.

Table 2.3 Frequencies of pronominal reference in the British National Corpus.

ALL	SPOKEN	FICTION	MAGAZINE	NEWSPAPER	NON-ACAD	ACADEMIC
5527615	1285513	1769345	312380	428212	482584	395827
57,421.77	129,020.12	111,214.43	43,015.76	40,912.93	29,256.05	25,817.61



Azouz (2009) examines the grammatical cohesion in the English writing of 40 Algerian second year students at Constantine University. Results indicate a high frequency of conjunctional cohesion with dominance of additive conjunction, namely marked by the discourse marker *and*. Cohesion through reference positions as second majority, while the remainder of cohesive relations are poorly distributed to ellipsis and substitution. Hence text linguistics deploys Halliday's cohesion model to study the textual relations of other languages and to examine how language learners handle textual relations. Alfiqi 2000 notes to this widened applicability of the model:

> Western linguists see text linguistics as an independent theory… This theory focuses on western languages and devices [of textual linkage] that are typical to those languages. However, many, if not all devices are found and applicable to Arabic (Alfiqi, 2000, p. 115).

Alfiqi (2000) argues that the same cohesive ties mentioned by Halliday and Hassan are found in Arabic. These are reference (*al-marji'iyah*),substitution (*al-ibdaal*), ellipsis (*al-hadhf*), conjunction (*al-'atf*) and lexical cohesion(*at-tamasuk al-mu'jamy*). Other devices like ellipsis and substitution are not very frequentin Arabic texts.

6.4.2 Coherence

Coherence relates to the relations between the propositions relevant to the central theme of text. One possible understanding of coherence is that it is resultant from cohesive relations and that both cohesion and coherence "overlap in one point" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 27). However, many discourse analysts refute the identification of coherence with cohesion on the premise that a reader assumes semantic relations within a text by interpreting one sentence in the light of previous ones. Therefore, "texture, in the sense of explicit realization of semantic relations" does not seem central to the identification of texts,but "cohesion is[rather] a merea guide to coherence" (MacCarthy, 1991, p. 26).

Topical structure analyses are used to identify differences in thematic progressions across writings. Studies on coherence examine how topics (subject) repeat, shift and return to earlier topics in texts. Text linguistics provides the concept of *theme* (subject) and *rheme* (predicate) and communicative dynamism. The rheme represents the incident that happens to a subject. Taking these concepts, text linguists examine the movement of topics in building a text by attempting to work out sequences of topic development. There exist three main sequences of topical progression: Parallel, sequential, and extended parallel progression. In parallel progression, successive sentences do basically have the same topic. This constant theme is created "using repetition, synonymy, near-synonymy and pronouns" (Witte, 1983, p. 319, cited in Kim, 1996, p. 144). In sequential progression, the theme of the sentence is dynamic, changing from one sentence to another with the rheme of a sentence often becoming the theme of the succeeding one.

Extended parallel progression is a trade-off: Parallel progression is often interrupted by sequential progression. For Connor and Schneider (1990), through repetitive sparking of a topic, parallel progression helps reinforce the idea in the mind of the reader whereas sequential development assists in developing ideas. Extended parallel progression, Connor and Schneider (1990) comment, brings the restore back to the main idea and reminds the reader of important content.

In comparing thematic progression across languages, text linguists use the *t-unit* as a unit of analysis, arguing that a sentence makes not a valid, neutral basis as its requirements vary across languages. The Arabic 'sentence', or *jumla*, does notnecessarily end with a full stop. As such, *jumla* can be either a clause or a sentence by the standards of English. Connor and Schneider (1990) define a t-unit as follows:

- Any independent clause and its required modifiers.
- Any non-independent clause punctuated as a sentence.

In Kim's (1996) comparison of Korean and American students' writing, it is reported that while American students deploy parallel progression to maintain the focus of the topic, Korean students demonstrate sequential progression evident in the high number of topics in their essays.

Most relevant to the present study, analysis of thematic progression in Arabic texts would exhibit repetition of the theme in a constant manner. This, as indicated by Mahamsadjy (1988), is created by repetition and pronominal reference reference. Transfer of cohesive devices from Arabic to English, therefore, entails a violation of English patterns of thematic progression where the subject changes. An overuse of the coordinating, additive conjunction *and*, reference, and the tendency to convey information in a sentence leads to sentence length, thereby topic shift (Mahamsadjy, 1988). Adding to this, the expansion of the predicate makes it hard for readers to recover and retain the theme, posing higher cognitive demands.

6.5 Translation

Studies on translation serve CR in a wide sense. Translated texts demonstrate similarities and differences at textual level. They reveal the translation equivalence and what changes exerted to the source text so that it is adaptive to the target one. This adaptation of texts is essential for IR research as it reveals the differences and universals between texts and the culture underpinning their construction. Translation tells much about differences in

readers' expectations. This knowledge seems relevant for L2 composition teaching and learning, especially as it highlights the peculiarities learners should abide by when composing in L2.

The interdisciplinary nature of CR is lent to multiplicity of variables shaping writing. El-Daily (2012) explains that writing is a complex process that is constrained by linguistic, cognitive and cultural conditions. Cognitive demands related to purpose and audience of writing, and. linguistic and rhetorical demands of writing concern the mode of discourse. Connor (1997) claims that writers have to learn what is expected of them within their own culture. Consequently, differences in cultural expectations are an obstacle for those who are learning to write in a foreign language. In essence, the shift in the conceptual framework of CR seems a response to the process-oriented approach to composition teaching, where emphasis is placed on what stages are involved in composition than whether the product meets readers' expectation. This allows for—in the course of appraising intercultural rhetoric as a theory—allocating the properties of *consistency* and *accountability*, which gives the model more theoretical and pedagogical utility.

6.6 Corpora in Intercultural Rhetoric Studies

Intercultural rhetoric studies make use of corpus analysis as a way to refine knowledge on preferred patterns of use salient to texts types and genres within and across cultures. A corpus makes a collection of language data compiled to represent a variety of language to make under analysis. As such, a corpus-based approach to language study markedly differ from their 'rivals', not only as the former employs a set of identifiable research methods but, most importantly, as using a corpus allows for a breadth of coverage that renders possible addressing frequency–based questions. This property enables both the objective verification of introspection-based assumptions, and an ongoing reappraisal of existing descriptions.

Eventually, the intersection between the central claims of intercultural rhetoric and corpora are manifold. In text linguistics studies, frequency data show how cohesive devices and information flow vary in texts within and across languages to establish a typology of a text as defined by what features are frequent most. As such, corpora challenge exiting approaches to text typology. However, not only do corpora allow establishing text typologies, but they also permit to compare and contrast both text types and genre across culture. In translation, corpus designers offer parallel corpora, chunks of source text with their translation

in one or two languages, making it possible to highlight differences between translations and source text and to uncover cultural differences and universals.

The prominent refinement corpora have sparked in IR studies has been the provision of learners' corpora. The latter offers a sampled and representative account on the language used by learners of English. Learner corpora stand as a feeder data of intercultural rhetoric. Connor (2004) comments that these corpora "provide significant data on academic English for interlanguage contrasts, which are beneficial for research in L2" (p. 305). Figure 2.9 gives an example of a corpus informing of EFL learners' language behaviour:

Left context	Match	Right context
ace. it's a teratogen it'll just cross the placenta from the mother, bypassing diffusion to the baby	and	it'll screw it up while it's developing. it has like i said negative ef- physical and mental effects
're gonna look a- at the effects of alcohol on the developing fetus, the symptoms, uh the prevention	and	then you're gonna get, (a brief) summary at the end. uh basically feta- Fetal Alcohol Syndrome is an
cally related what happens is, is the moth- the mother will drink alcohol it induce oxidative stress	and	there'll be a bunch of free radicals those'll come they'll ha- affect the fetus so the nitric oxide'
ls of prolactin and oxytocin which are used for breast milk, um that's not good for the baby either,	and	i mean you you'd figure that you know somebody who drinks they get liver failure somebody who drinks
is affects feta- fetal blood flow. basically fetal- the fetus's blood flow is regulated by hormones	and	not, uh its brain, and what happens is ethanol it induces, it reduces the release of nitric oxide. n
nk and then she drinks while she's breast feeding, uh the alcohol can affect her levels of prolactin	and	oxytocin which are used for breast milk, um that's not good for the baby either, and i mean you you'
the physical brain matter right? so the- they_ in their brain they don't have the the ne- the nerves	and	the neurons to make these, to make to make these um, consequence i guess like, uh results you know w

Figure 2.9 Concordance for uses of and by Arabic-speaking EFL learners (The Michigan Corpus of Academic English).

The blending of IR with corpus linguistics seems to have given the industry a sense of plausibility as far as claims about choice and preferred patterns of use are concerned. In other words, corpus linguistics is machinery for differentiating preferred, dominant from idiosyncratic linguistic features by means of frequency-based data.

6.7 Comparability

Unlike traditional CR, IR studies have come with a more refined treatment of comparison. In each contrastive study, Connor and Moreno (2005) assert ,there has to be a *tritium comparationis*, a variable defined among compared entities which do more or less share the same platform, "since it is only against a background of sameness that differences

are significant" (James 1980, p. 169). Comparison studies, Connor recommends, should clearly explicate the baseline for comparison. The need for neutral criteria reacted to studies prototyping a language-specific baseline, resulting in an ethnocentric approach wherein the specificities of one language are subverted and subsumed by a hegemony posed by the preferences of another:

> Without a conscious culture of how one culture is different from another, there is a tendency to see the differences of one culture through the prism of another. This is how the phenomenon of ethnocentricism occurs. When ethnocentricism occurs, cultural differences are no longer neutral, but negative (Zaharna, 1995, p. 242).

The text under comparisons ought to share a common platform so that they are amenable to comparison. Hence, "in contrastive rhetoric the concept of tertium comparationis or common platform of comparison is important at all levels of research" (Connor & Moreno, 2005, p. 153). This demand appears higher "given that cross-cultural analysis requires large-scale textual comparison, which provides reliable and representative insights on similarities and differences (Connor & Moreno, 2005, p. 154). In this line, Hyland (2003) asserts: "We do, however, need to examine what is conventional and typical in the behaviour of skilled writers as they construct the meaning potential of their texts, constrained by the sense of reader's expectations (p.136). For that reason intercultural rhetoricians stress the need for a common ground in the compilation of parallel corpora which set out to inform of differences and similarities by means of frequency-data. Connor and Moreno (2005) work out a set of "similarity criteria" for the design of comparable corpora:

Table 2.4 Similarity constraints established for the design of Spanish-English comparable corpus of research articles (Connor & Moreno, 2008, p. 163).

Tertium comparationis	Value of prototypical feature perceived as a constant across the two corpora	N of texts in each independent corpus
Text form	Scientific exposition	36
Genre	Research article	36
Mode	Written language	36
Participants • Writers • Targeted readers	• Researchers, professors and professionals in business and economics • Researchers, professors, advanced students, top executives, politicians	36
Situational variety Dialectal variety	Formal Standard	36
Tone	Serious	36
Channel	Graphical substance	36
Format features • Length • Intertextuality • Visual features	2.000-16.000 words of core text Reference to other texts, Graphs, tables, drawings, footnotes, appendixes, typographical distinctions to indicate sections	36
Point of view	Objective	36
Global communicative event	Sharing results from research	36
Setting	An office, a library, etc.	36
General purpose of communication	Writer's viewpoint: To persuade the readers to share the writers viewpoint Reader's viewpoint: To improve one's knowledge about a given field of research	36
Global rhetorical strategy	Demonstrating a theory Discussing the advantages of: • applying a given model • a given business practice Analyzing the reasons for a given situation Proving the accuracy of a prediction Evaluating the solution given to a situation	36
Overall subject-matter or topic Academic discipline	Business and Economics • Marketing-management • Economics-finance	36 18 18
Level of expertise	Expert writers	36
Textual unit of analysis	Complete texts	36
Global superstructure	• Introduction-Procedure-Discussion More variable superstructures: • Problem-Analysis-Solution; • Situation-Explanation; • Situation-Analysis-Forecast; • Problem-solution-Evaluation.	11 25
Predominant text types (Depending on the focus of each section in the superstructure of the article)	Argumentation; Exposition; Description.	36

7. Appraising Intercultural Rhetoric

It should be noted the apparent overstatement on pitfalls in Kaplan's treatment as evident in a disdain of the model's attractions. It is evident that reactions against Kaplan have taken a rather extremist, abhominal position, branding the model into a mere statement on, and labels of different cultures. Connor (2006) complains that "opponents of contrastive rhetoric tend to ignore these development in their fixation of the 1966 article" and that "scholars such as Pennycook and Kubota refer to contrastive rhetoric as if it has been frozen at the stage of Kaplan's (1966) article" (p. 14). One serious outcome of this has been a denial of the many attractions inherent in today's intercultural rhetoric. While it is true that, for instance, as Li (2004) puts it, "Chinese does not necessarily have to be with a Western rhetoric in mind" (p.25), it makes not a colonialist mentality to have a Western rhetoric in mind when composing within Western tradition. The dichotomies surfaced in CR are not necessarily attempts to spark a colonialist mentality. Writing as a construct in pedagogy involves the adoption of a state of mind. However, it seems that the improvement and methodism brought by Connor and some other proponents of intercultural rhetoric can hardly decentre the connotation early contrastive rhetoric has tripled. One might further comment that the interdisciplinarity of intercultural rhetoric leaves the enterprise with crumbling boundaries.

As a construct relevant to second language acquisition, intercultural rhetoric seems attractive. The meta-theory driving intercultural rhetoric yielded an elegant model wherein each stratum gets lined up with another, reflecting a deepened understanding of writing. Above all, the model sets out to decentre the reductionist view towards composition, upholding a widened conception reflected in a set of research methods incorporated to inform of the many variables exerting a deal on L2 writing: The broader understanding of cross-cultural writing; the use of ethnographic approaches; the incorporation of corpus methodology; the upholding of a dynamic definition of culture; etc. Despite the evident refinement of contrastive rhetoric, some proposals, I would say, distort the genesis of CR. The hybridity of rhetoric dislodge the enterprise from some essential central claims that triggered early CR. The rhetoric that early CR concerns bears cultural markedness deeply rooted in the practices of communities. What supports this is the commonality of students' rhetorical transfer either in the Algerian context or otherwise. Patterns of thought—where patters imply a regularity ironed out by a mass—identifies with cultures as collective fabrications rather than individualized, idiosyncratic styles:

> Our experiences in our own and other societies keep reminding us that some understandings are widely shared among members of a social group, surprisingly resistant to change in the mind of individuals, broadly applicable across different contexts of their lives, powerfully motivating source of their actions, and remarkably stable over succeeding generations" (Stratuss & Quinn, 1997, p. 03).

IR lays out a sound argument for the utility of constructing upon L1 by drawing upon already mastered patterns as a way to position and adapt oneself to the textual mechanism of the target language. Indeed, the connection between two or more languages in a class, with a reflection on their use and functioning, allows a certain kind of dialogism which, in turns, permits locating one's language behaviour by some sort of analogy and comparison. It is this awareness that helps preventing a presumption of similarity of discourse as it provides the impetus for considering how another language operates. The outcome seems a conviction that discourse patterns, reader's expectation, and the roles ascribed to language are relative across cultures. On this, Davies (2004) comments:

> Raising students consciousness is commonly viewed as one of the most goals in L2 composition in L2 instruction, because it is thought that by raising students' awareness of the rhetorical traditions of both their native language and the target language, they will be able to identify cross-cultural differences, thereby making an easier transition to the rhetorical preferences of the target language (p. 83).

Kaplan recommended that "contrastive rhetoric must be taught in the same way contrastive grammar is presently taught" (1978, p. 406). Contrastive rhetoric researchers (Kaplan 1966; Connor 1997; Matsuda, 1997) suggest several pedagogic tips to raise students' awareness of target language rhetorical patterns. These involve rendering students aware of transfer errors, making cultural difference in composing conventions clear, raising awareness of readers' expectations, and clarifying how shift in translation is made, meaning the changes exerted in the source text so that equivalence in translation is attained.

Many studies (see Kubota 2004; Petric 2006; Xingha 2011) advanced the pedagogic effectiveness of both CR and IR, namely the advantage of raising students' intercultural awareness through the provision of contrastive data. Apparently, there appears a dearth in studies exploiting the findings laid by intercultural rhetoricians. Some studies like Taft et al (2011) used the label "contrastive rhetoric" to denote a specific branch of IR. The majority of treaties on IR are stuck on the discourse analysis functioning of the enterprise.With regard to Arabic, recent accounts merely synthesize the differences between Arabic and English,

without attempting to empirically verify the effect of incorporating such knowledge into the classroom. This latter proposal seems to cease at recommendations:

> In general, Arabic and English speakers seem to use different organizational patterns and writing styles. Knowledge of these patterns and styles can be very beneficial to Arab students learning English. At the same time those involved in teaching English to Arabic-speaking students, should be familiar with these organizational patterns, for this awareness can potentially lead them to a better understanding of the problems their students encounter. Once rhetorical and organizational differences are pointed out, they should be put to use prescriptively in the classroom. **"***Presenting the findings of contrastive rhetoric in a pedagogical context can lead to enlightenment of learners about their writing in English* (Leki, 1991)". Awareness of rhetorical patterns thus might have some pedagogical value as it might translate into ability to use this knowledge in actual writing situations (Abu Radwan, 2012, p. 391).

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, none of the studies adopts, and sets out to gauge the uptake of Connor's IR model as to design a treatment manipulated on a variable of some sort. In Hamadouch's (2015) design, only the text linguistics stratum is followed. A treatment as such is hardly reflective of the epistemology IR operates within, resulting in mismatch between the instruction and expected performance of participants. An adaptation of Connor's (1996) model would rather highlight the culture behind this difference in rhetorical features, emphasize rhetorical errors, and provide samples of translation so that students recognize rhetorical equivalence. It is worth to note that Hamadouch (2015) qualifies the use of fixed expressions as an instance of rhetorical transfer. This practice violates the nature of rhetorical transfer, which deals with the carryover of composition mechanisms.

8. Conclusion

This chapter ventured on a discussion of intercultural rhetoric as it is the theoretical foundation informing the design of the treatment used in the present study. All-embracing of the above discussion is IR marking an approach to composition pedagogy with identifiable principles and understanding of L2 composition, jointly fabricated by the merits and pitfalls inherent in early CR. IR witnessed a shift in its conceptual framework, and hence in its research orientations. Apparently, the history of IR is littered with unstable status, moving from the prescriptivism evident in Kaplan's treaties into a methodist, goal-oriented enterprise purpose-built for obtaining insights on rhetorical differences. IR acts upon widened convictions of the variables relevant to L2 writing, reflected in a set of methods and feeder disciplines incorporated. Such a state was regulated by criticism of the CR being confined in transferability of rhetorical patterns, thereby concerned with identifying rhetorical instances of

L1 interference learners bring with them. Equally pushing the fabric of IR has been the constantly refined accounts for discourse and interaction. As such, IR stretched into sub-domains, each with a unique contribution to composition research. The data of the feeder disciplines warrant incorporation in L2 composition instruction, namely for the awareness-raising advantage they supply. This thorough elaboration on research methods relevant to IR establishes the ground for the set of methodological decisions of the current study.

Chapter Three: Design of the Treatment

1. Introduction

The chapter demonstrates how the treatment of the study is designed. As stated, the treatment consists of manipulation of Arabic-English intercultural rhetoric data. Because a design that adheres to the tenets and research principles of IR does not seem available within the literature, the researcher undertook the process of collecting and organizing data from a number of studies which fall within the research orientations outlined in Connor's model.

2. Principles of Design

Findings of the research methods governing IR represent a treatment used as an action research in the study. Yet, the course is not idealized to synchronize IR as much as it made to cater for the specifications of the study, namely the transfer errors students have demonstrated in the pre-study analysis of students' essays. Hence, four factors guided the search for, the selection and organization of content: The type and frequency of errors identified in the pre-study analysis; the similarities and differences between English and Arabic writing as found in the literature; compliance with Connor's (1996) intercultural rhetoric model; and the need to ensure co-completion in the content. Table 3.1 shows the consistency of the treatment with Connor's (1996) model of intercultural rhetoric.

Table 3.1 Treatment design in line with Connor's (1996) model.

Research domains in IR	Corresponding Data
Theory of language transfer	Negotiation of rhetorical transfer from Arabic to English
Theory of literacy (ethnography of writing)	Cultural dimensions of cohesion in Arabic and English
Theory of text linguistics	Comparison of Arabic and English cohesive devices Comparison of connectivity in Arabic and English
Theory of translation	Techniques for translating long sentence from Arabic to English Translating lexical cohesion from Arabic to English

3. Objectives of the Treatment

The treatment aims to provide instructions on Arabic-English intercultural rhetoric. Specifically, it purports to raise participants' awareness of the followings:

- Aspects of negative rhetorical, textual transfer from Arabic to English.
- The rhetorical similarities and differences between Arabic and English.
- The cultural factors underlying contrasts in textual mechanisms across both languages.
- How existing Arabic textual habits are adapted through specified translation techniques.

Aside from the above objectives, the treatment is meant to represent a course in intercultural rhetoric whose pedagogic uptake is evaluated by composition teachers and those familiar at assessing students' extended-passage tasks. In what follows, a selection and presentation of content is laid out.

4. Text Linguistics Content

The treatment reports findings of cross-linguistic text linguistic studies with the aim of clarifying to participants the textual patterns characteristic of Arabic and English. Specifically, the content under this realm of IR mainly concerns how English and Arabic generally differ in the use of cohesive devises (reference, substitution, conjunctions and lexical cohesion). This follows from the fact that transfer of cohesive devises is evident both in the literature and in the pre-study analysis of students' essays. The following features of Arabic and English are based on statistical data of a study done by Mehnni (2010):

- Arabic tends to avoid ellipsis.
- Substitution is a marginal phenomenon in Arabic.
- Arabic tends to use a higher proportion of pronouns than English.
- English displays more use of cohesive synonymy that does English.
- Arabic displays more lexical string repetition than English.
- Arabic displays more repetition of clause structure than English.
- Arabic deploys more use of multifunctional connectors.

Specifically, students' use of Arabic conjunction system in English writing motivated much emphasis on data on differences in conjunction use. Accordingly, the paper intends to raise the awareness of students and writing teachers of how conjunction use in Arabic is similar to or different from that of English. In doing so, a synthesis is made of work by Aljomhouri (2010). Hence, the references of examples and comments are made to this source. The sentences below show the inter-clausal uses of the

conjunctions *and* and *but*. Besides joining words and phrases, English *and* and *but* serve to conjoin clauses within sentences:

a 1. She bought eggs and cheese.

2. The boys like to play at home and in the garden.

3. The mother was fixing dinner, and the daughter was ironing the clothes.

4. The student worked hard but he could not make it through college.

(Aljomhouri, 2010)

It is made clear to participants that Arabic *wa* and *laakin* exhibit similar characteristics, but their use is not restricted to joining clauses, as *jumla* can be ether a clause or sentence in English. The examples below show the uses of *wa* (و) and *laakinna* (لكن) unshared by *but* and *an*d:

a. 1. ألقينا نظرة على الجرائد وقد تصدر المنتخب الوطني أغلب العناو ين

We took a look at the newspapers and the national team dominated the headlines.

2. أنا أعفيك اليوم من القراءة لكن سآخذ منك عهدا

I will excuse you today from reciting, but I want you to make a vow to me (unlike لكن, but needs to be preceded by a comma)

3. هنا اشتد غضب الشيخ ولكن على سيدنا لا على الصبي

There the old man became increasingly angry, but with the school teacher, not with the boy.

It was explained that while Arabic rarely use a comma to separate two clauses joined by *laakin*, English tends to separate two independent clauses with a comma.

So is another conjunction students seem to have problems with. In English, it serves linking two independent clauses.

b 1. He was ill, *so* he could not come to class.

2. *So* Jane was not talkative as a normal schoolgirl is expected to be.

Arabic *haakada* and *lidaalika* are more often used with *wa* regardless whether they introduce a clause or a sentence:

2. ولهذا كان علينا أن لانتخذ قرارا كهذا

And so we should not have taken such a decision(interference)

Also, Next and Finally

Also, next and *finally* share the characteristics of being sentence-initial and, optionally, embedded within the first part of the sentence. When sentence-initial, they are usually followed by a comma:

c. 1. Also, no solution could be found for the problem.

2. Next, we got to a small cottage.

3. Finally, the wind died down.

4. Many other officials were also informed about the subject.

5. We next got to a small cottage.

6. The wind finally died down.

Arabic *aidan* (أيضا) , *ba9da daalika* (بعد ذلك) and *akhiimn* (أخيرا) do not differ much from their English correspondents. They can be used both sentence-initially and medially. Wc notice, however, that the Arabic 'particles' are preceded by the conjunction *wa* when sentence-initial.. Moreover, the Arabic connectives are not commonly followed by a comma when sentence-initial.

d 1.

و أيضا لم يتم التوصل إلى حل

Also, no solution could be found for the problem.

And also no solution could be found (interference).

2.

و بعد ذلك وصلنا إلى كوت سمو

Next, we got to a small cottage.

And next we got to a small cottage.

3.

وأخيرا هدأ الريح

Finally, the winds died down.

And finally the wind died down (interference).

4.

لم يتم أيضا التوصل إلى حل للمشكلة

No solution could *also* be found for the problem (formal correspondence).

5.

وصلنا بعد ذلك إللى كوتاج سمول

We next got to a small cottage.

6.

و هدأت أخيرا الرياح

The winds finally died down.

Arabic-speaking learners of English are expected to often use *and* before *also, next* and *finally* and to forego the comma after them when they are sentence-initial.

Remaining Connectives

The remaining connectives differ markedly from the linking devices already discussed. When used to link two independent clauses, a semicolon usually precedes, and a comma must follow them as illustrated in the examples below:

e 1. The man crossed the bridge, then, he decided to wash his feet in the river.

2. The old man was lonely, moreover, he was mistreated by his neighbors.

3. The advisor was tolerant, however, he refused to let the student go unpunished.

The examples below show the uses of the above connectives at sentence-initial

f 1. Then, the officer began to torture the captives.

2. Moreover, the man was unable to get in touch with the police.

3. However, the ingenious proposal could not be implemented.

4. The officer, then, began to torture the captives.

5. The man, moreover, was unable to get in touch with the police.

6. The ingenious proposal could not, however, be implemented.

Arabic correspondents of these transitional devices differ in several respects. First, they are not commonly followed by a comma. Second, they are preceded by a comma or period. When embedded within the first part of the sentence, they are no set off by comma.

g 1قطع الرجل الجسر ثم قرر أن يغسل قدميه في النهر

The man crossed the bridge, then, he decided to wash his feet in the river.

2. كان الرجل العجوز وحيدا، علاوة على ذلك كان جيرانه يسيئون إليه

The old man was lonely. Moreover, he was mistreated by his neighbors.

3. وكان مع ذلك رجلا خلوقا

He was, however, a well-mannered man.

Of all the conjunctions, students seemed to have trouble most with the uses of the conjunction *and* which is presumed to function as same as the Arabic particle *wa*. On this basis, the researcher decided to instruct on the functions of Arabic *wa* that are unshared by English *and*, with the aim of getting students to know when and when not to base on Arabic. The synthesis is made of work by Mahamsadjy (1988) and Aljomhouri (2010).

And at sentence-initial

كان سليمان الحبيب يمشي في الشارع و كانت يداه في جيبه، وحين توقف قليلا ليشعل سيجارة، دنا منه رجلان وطلبا منه بطاقة الهوية، واقتاده الرجلان إلى مفر شرطة قريب و أدخلاه في غرفته ،و كان يجلس فيها رجل له شارب أسود، وقال سليمان لنفسه:

Suleiman El Habib was once walking along the street with his hands in his pockets, when he stopped for a while to light up a cigarette…He became confused when to …They gave him back his identity card. The two men led him to a nearby police station where they sent him into room…in which a man with black mustaches was sitting. Suleiman said to himself:

The translation is meant to demonstrate that, unlike Arabic, English does not use and to resume or to signal topic continuity: The original Arabic text displays ten occurrence of *wa*, while the English equivalence displays no *and* at all.

Adverbial wa

واليوم فإن الجزائر تبني نفسها في إطار اختياراتها الإستراتيجية وهي لواعية أنها تقدم مساهمتها الكافية في تحرير العالم العربي و تجديده

Today Algeria is building herself in the light of her socialist choice.

Wa to introduce an adverbial clause of manner:

دخل سعيد و هو يضحك

Said came in smiling.

Adversative wa

جار وتفعل كالغريب

You are a neighbour, yet you act like a stranger.

Parallel Constructions in Arabic

Arguably, parallel construction marks an ostensive feature of Arabic rhetoric. In the pre-study content analysis, students displayed high frequency of this feature, showing use of repetitions of words, phrases, and syntactic structure. With the aim of getting students avoid parallel constructions, the treatment includes instructions on the uses and functions of parallelism in Arabic. This is expected to get participants realize that this feature is typical of Arabic, and hence to find alternatives to express the functions parallelism serve in Arabic. The following demonstration is adapted from Mahamsadjy (1988)

Syntactic Parallelism

a 1

إن الشعب الجزائري شعب مسلم و إن الإسلام هو دين الدولة

The Algerian people are Muslims and Islam is the religion of the country.

2.

Algeria who managed to preserve her personality during the colonial domination andresist despite the foreign expansionism would not fear herself from the shakes of colonialism had she not struggled a continual struggle until she gained her sovereignty and ***the Algerian revolution which continued***after the war of liberation which started in 1945 is a great achievement for the nation and a glorious moment in her history.

It is explained here that parallel construction serves accumulation of information, where similarity of structure indicates similarity of meaning.The writer wants to say that the war of independence is similar to the economic revolution.

a 3.

إن الشعب الجزائري مرتبط بالعالم العربي وهو جزء لا يتجزأ و لا ينفصل عنه

The Algerian people are *linked* to the Arab world and are they are an *integral* part of it.

4.

إن الشعب الجزائري أمة و الأمة ليست تجمعا شعبيا أ وخليطا من أجناس متنافرة، إن الأمة هي الشعب باعتباره كيانا تاريخيا يقوم في حياته اليومية و إطاراته الإقليمية بعمل واع.

Algeria is a nation and a*nation is not a collection* of ethnic groups or a mixture of conflicting groups. But the nation is the people themselves in the sense that they are a historical entity.

Repetition of Lexical Strings

b 1.

إن جميع محاولات الاستعمار لإنكار وجود **الأمة الجزائرية** و تأبيد سيطرتة قد اصطدمت بصمود ومقاومة هذه الأمة التي انصهرت منذ قرون، وقد استطاعت **الأمة الجزائرية** بفضل تضحيات مليون ونصف المليون من الشهداء من انتزاع اعتراف العالم بها و تكريس وجودها

> All the colonial attempts to deny the existence of the*Algerian nation*crashed with the persistence of this nation which emerged centuries ago and **the** *Algerian nation*could thanks to the sacrifice of more than half a million martyrs to eradicate the recognition of the world and endure its existence.

While written Arabic tends to make extensive use of parallel constructions, written English tends to avoid parallel construction through the use of reference, substitutions and ellipsis.

5. **Literacy Content**

Instruction on the culure undelying the culture caters from the assumption that rhetorical transfer stems from transfer of specific ideologies and perception relevant to appropiate communicative preferences. These preferences also follow from assumption about readers' expectation writers' responsibilities. This Kowledge is expected to act as categories and general underliers for participants when composing in English. The Arabic-speaking community and the English counterpart are contrasted in terms of the following cultural dimension: Oralized vs. literal, collectivist vs. individualist, low contact vs. high-contact, low-context vs. high-context and reader-responsible vs. writer-responsible. Based on the work of Mohammed and Omar (2000), the following categories are provided as general, overriding scripts responsible for rhetorical differences.

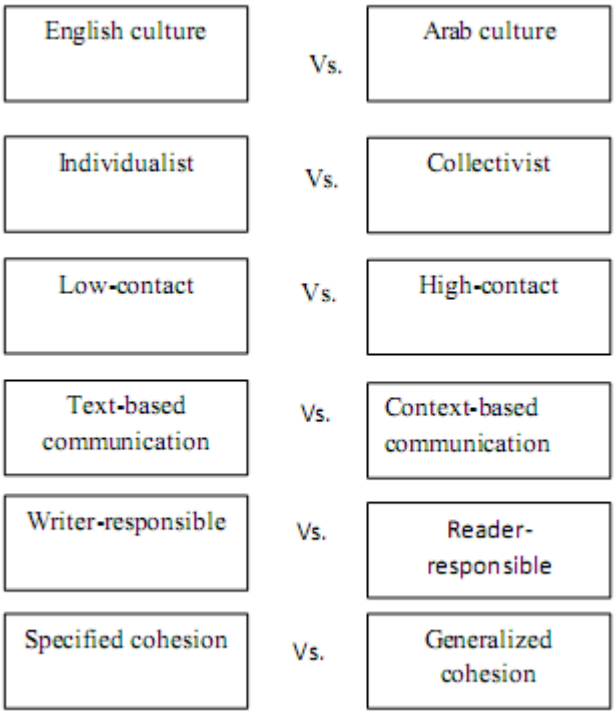


Figure 3.1 Textual preferences of collectivist and individualist cultures. Adapted from Mohamed and Omar (2000).

So that participants refer to difference in culture when composing, it is necessary for the researcher to raise their awareness about the fact that there are general notions responsible for given rhetorical choices. This emphasis is followed by an explanation of the notions above and how they implicate textual, rhetorical decisions.

Individualist vs. Collectivist

In the English culture, there is a low level of physical and psychological closeness among individuals (low-contact). Therefore, information tends to be explicitly stated with careful use of discourse organizers rather than relying on contextual clues (text-based). In this sense, the success of communication is largely dependent on the writer (writer-responsible). The difference between the two cultures along these dimensions is motivated by the fact that 'possession' is related to the group in the Arab culture while it is related to the individual in the English one. In fact, the notion of collective ownership is so dominant in the Arab culture to the extent that generic expressions are not only used to refer to entities shared by people interactants.

The treatment, then, shows how the rhetorical features derived from the individualist/collectivist dichotomy.

Context vs. Text-based Cohesion

Because of dependency on context and "collective intuition", Arabic uses a pronoun as a cohesive device even if it has more than one possible antecedent. English, on the other hand, has a much rigid pronominal reference. The context-based nature of Arabic can be further illustrated by the following example:

… and he (1) approached the place; The Nubian doorman noticed him (2), and he (3) stood up, smiling, welcoming his arrival, while his (4) eyes and white teeth gleamed on his (5) black face, and he (6) started going up the marble stairs slowly (Mohamed & Omar, 2002).

It is emphasized that, in English, if the writer assumes likelihood of confusion, what the pronoun stands for is often verbally repeated. Making reference to the general individualist/collectivist contrast, Mohamed and Omar positions another rhetorical difference between Arabic and English:

Generalized vs. Specified Cohesion

This cohesive contrast has to do with the level of specificity of generic reference. While Arab culture is featured by collectivism, English deploys a high proportion of possessive pronouns, for ownership in the English culture is individualist and communicatively specified.

The example below illustrates difference in the degree of specificity between Arabic and English:

Arabic

كان يضع يديّ على العين

He was putting his hand on the eye.

English

He was putting his hand on his eyes.

Subsequently, the oral/literal contrast is introduced as another overriding notion of more specific rhetorical differences.

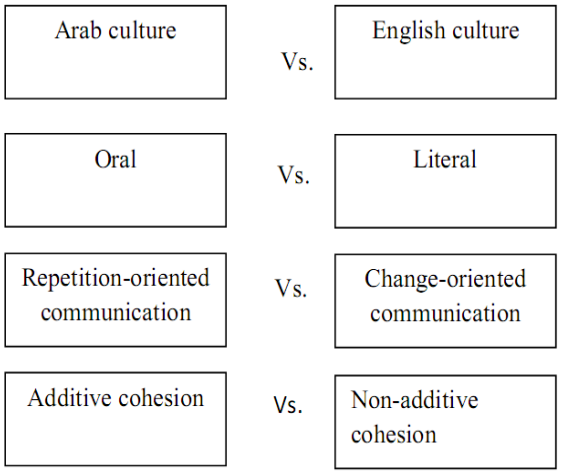


Figure 3.2 Textual preferences of oral and literal cultures. Adapted from Mohamed and Omar (2000).

The following analysis is meant to get participants understand the salient communicative features of literal cultures, and to realize the rhetorical requirement of literal societies. Participants were advised to consider these as guidelines when composing in English so that the textual features relevant to oral traditions—mainly repetition and frequent coordination—are avoided.

Oralized vs. Literal

Oralized Arab culture produces repetition-oriented, additive, and context-based cohesion, while the literal English culture produces changed-oriented, non-additive and text-based cohesion. This cultural difference presupposes the following communicative divergence:

- Because information retrieval in Arab oralized cultures is memory-bound, information tends to be packaged in memory-aiding forms characterized by a high proportion of parallelism. In contrast, the memory-free communication context prevalent in literate societies is marked by a greater degree of phonological, lexical and syntactic variation.
- Propositional development is predominantly additive in the Arab culture while it is mainly subordinative in literate counterparts.
- Communication is largely context-based in oral cultures, while it is predominantly text-based (text-sensitive) in literate cultures. This is due to the great measure of

distance between discourse participants in literate societies. Communication is mainly aggregative in oral cultures.

The Teaching of Writing

The teaching of writing is firmly anchored in the imitation of the oral style embodied in theses texts through constant repetition and memorization. It is, therefore, natural that Arab writers produce written texts in which they emulate the oral style they learnt at schools.

(Mohamed & Omar, 2000).

6. Translation Content

The treatment uses translation to draw students to reflect on the similarities and differences between English and Arabic text. More important, the translations are meant to demonstrate how the English equivalence of Arabic texts is devised and carved out on the basis of choices available in the ST. In other words, this part of the treatment aims at providing participants with principled basis whereby existing textual choices are adapted to English.

Long Sentence Translation from Arabic to English

Knowledge on shift in the translation of 'long sentence' from Arabic to English is meant to get participants to avoid long sentences when writing in English. The following passages are taken from qualitative analysis undertaken by Mehenni (2010). The examples are cases of correct and deviant translation.

تعتبر الزراعة القاعدة الأساسية للبناء الاقتصادي، فهي التي توفر الحاجات الغائية و الاستهلاكية للأفراد وهي التي تمد الصناعات بالجزء الغالب من الخدمات اللازمة لها وهي فوق كل ذلك تحدد معاملاتها مع العالم الخارجي للبناء الاقتصادي.

Agriculture represents the fundamental basis for economic construction. It provides the nutritional needs for people. In addition to this, it supplies the industries with most of their services. Above all, it determines the rate of treatments outside.

The researcher notes to the strategy deployed in the above English translation: Starting a new sentence with a connective instead of extending a sentence with coordination or with a clause that might be translated into a sentence. The two *jumals* beginning with وهي are translated into new sentences. From here, the researcher led participants to deduce the rule

whereby long sentence is avoided since intensity of coordination and commas are what allow the extension of a sentence.

يمكن أن تقسم برمجيات الحاسوب إلى نوعين عريضين: برمجيات الأنظمة و برمجيات التطبيقات، أما الأول فكثيرا ما يشار له باسم الأنظمة فحسب، وعندما تدخل هذه الأنظمة في الذاكرة الداخلية فإنها توجه للقيام بمهام مختلفة، وأما الثاني فإنه غالبا ما يتم التزود به جنبا إلى جنب مع الجهاز الرئيسي من المصدر الذي يزودنا بالأنظمة.

Computer is said to be divided into two main programs: the software and the hardware. The software is considered as the system only. When those programs enter the inside memory, they direct the computer to operate different programs. The second is the hardware, usually available in the central units from the providing source of system.

To further consolidate understanding of equivalence at this level, participants were asked to reflect on the difference between the two translations below. While the first translation maintains a long sentence, the second deploys shift to reduce sentence length.

منذ لايقل عن ثلاثةٍ آلاف سنة زحف التوارق علئ الصحراء الكبرى واستوطنوها، لم تكن صحراء اليوم هي صحراء الأمس،لقد كانت تتوفر على مناطق كثيرة تكسوها الخضر و وفرة المياه والمراعي، لكن مع تغير المناخ جفت مناطق المياه وزالت الأراضي الخضراء الرعوية وحل محلها الرمال و الصخور.

3000 years ago, Twereg lived in the big desert, today’s desert is not yesterday’s one, t had a lot of green places and lots of water, but with the change of climate , water is gone, green lands disappear, it was replaced by rocks and sands.

Since more than 3000 years ago, Twareg crip on the vast desert and lived in it. The desert of today was not the one of yesterday. It was full of areas covered by plants and water. But by the climate change, water dried and green lands became desert.

The examples show that, while Arabic uses successive *jumals* separated either by and or by a comma. English considers these former as sentences which end with a full stop. Participants were informed that linking *jumla* can be translated either as a clause or a sentence in English. It is also emphasized that instead of using and or a comma to separate sentences, it is better to start a new sentence. Participants were drawn to realize that, because of the need for explicitness in English, the linking clauses and sentences with and or with a comma render ideas unconnected by the standards of the English reader.

Translating Lexical Cohesion

Instructions on how lexical cohesion is translated cater for the high frequency of same-item and semantic repetition instead of reference and substitution in the writing of students in the pre-study analysis. Examples of how repetition in Arabic is translated are expected to help participants properly decide when and when not to repeat. It sounds, however, more fitting to familiarize participants with the notion of lexical cohesion as a way to instill understanding of textual mechanisms. The following synthesis is made to explain the notion of lexical cohesion. The comments are taken from a literature review made by Laala (2010).

Lexical Cohesion and Textual Equivalence

> Lexical relations are pivotal for the construal of a text: "Grammatical cohesion, displayed by any piece of discourse, will not form a text unless this is matched by cohesive patterning of a lexical kind" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 292).Lexical cohesion is the outcome of chains of related words that allow the continuity of meaning. Not only do lexical patterns occur between pairs of words, but over a series of related words formulating the topical unit of a text. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). There exists a distance relation between such words in the chain created, where the words co-occur within a given pattern. In other words, lexical relations provide a clue for the identification of discourse from the flow of information.
>
> Ahmed (2010) asserts that lexical cohesion was overrepresented in the English translation of Arabic texts as made by Arabic-speaking translation students. The learners are found to prefer lexical cohesion over referential linkage, shifting most of the grammatical ties such as pronouns and demonstratives, into lexical terms in the target language. In other words, the learners tend to repeat the same lexical elements than referring to them by other grammatical terms (Blum-Kulka 1986, p.19).
>
> (Laala, 2010)

Baker (1992) points out that English prefers to represent the reference by means of a pronoun while Portuguese and Arabic prefer lexical repetition. Baker provides an example that represents the difference between languages in terms of the use of cohesive devices. The example is taken from a document explaining arbitration at the International Centre for Arbitration in Cairo (1988):

ST: إذا انقضى ثلاثون يوما من تاريخ تسلم احد الطرفين اقتراحا قدم وفقا للفقرة الأولى دون أن يتفق الطرفان على تعين المحكم الواحد تولت تعيينه سلطة التعيين التي اتفق الطرفان على تسميتها. فإذا لم يكن الطرفان قد اتفقا على تسمية سلطة تعيين أو إذا امتنعت السلطة التي اتفقا على تسميتها من تعيين محكم أو لم تتمكن من إتمام تعيينه خلال ستين يوما من تاريخ تسلم الطلب الذي قدمه لها احد الطرفين في هذا الشأن جاز لكل من الطرفين في هذا الشأن أن يطلب من الأمين العام لمحكمة التحكيم الدائمة تسمية سلطة تعيين.

TT: If thirty days elapse from the date on which either party received a proposal-submitted according to the first item without the two parties agreeing on appointing one arbitrator, the authority nominal by the two parties undertaken to appoint the arbitrator. If the parties had not agreed on nominating such authority, or if the nominated authority declines to appoint an arbitrator or is unable to nominate one within sixty days of its receipt of either party's request to that effect, both parties may ask the Secretary-General of the Permanent Arbitration Court to nominate an appointing authority.

The Arabic version shows different lexical repetition items such as 'الطرفين' (الطرفان) which occur six times, 'تعين' four times,'تعيينسلطة' three times. Baker explains that, unlike Arabic, English generally strives to reduce ambiguity when referring to participants. Whenever ambiguity arises in reference, lexical repetition is mostly used.

(Laala, 2010)

Assessing Shift in the Translation of Lexical Cohesion

The following passages aim at familiarizing participants with notion of shift in translation. Familiarity with such a concept is expected to instill the idea of adapting one' prior competences to meet expectations of some sort:

According to Blum-Kulka, (1986), translation shifts are those changes exerted on the source texts so that to establish a TL equivalence. Such shifts are two kinds: Level shits and category shit. Under the former, the ST text in a given ST level has equivalence at another different level. The second category subdivides into four kinds of shifts: Class, unit, structure and system shifts. In class shift, the ST item in a class, say adjective, has a verb class equivalence in the target text. The structure kind of shift involves change along the grammatical structure; a subject-verb-object sequence in English gets often represented in Arabic as verb-subject-object. System shifts operate by selecting an item in the TL non-correspondent to that in the ST. It is worth adding that shifts may involve addition and omission of lexical units.

(Laala, 2010).

The followings are assessments of translation of lexical cohesion from Arabic to English presented by Laala (2010). In the qualitative analysis of respondents' translation, the researcher provides selected translation followed by comments on their accuracy as a way to establish ideal translation of lexical relations from Arabic to English:

1) **ST:** الثقة بالنفس **عنصر** من العناصر الأساسية في تكوين الشخصية الناجحة
TT: self-confidence is **one** of the fundamental elements in building a successful personality.

2) **ST:** فالصبر على الفشل **مظهر** من مظاهر الثقة بالنفس .
TT: Patience upon failure is **one** of the aspects of self-confidence...

3) **ST:** فمتى ضعفت **إرادة الإنسان** أصبح اتكاليا لا يجرؤ على القيام **بأعمال مفيدة**.
TT: whenever **one's will** is weakened, he become reliant and cannot do **anything positive.**

4) **ST:** إنها تجعل **الإنسان** مؤمنا بقدرته الخلاقة مستثمرا مواهبه .
TT: it makes **one** believe in his creative capacities and invest his talent.

5) **ST:** ولكننا نقصد الاستقلال الشخصي في تقرير الأعمال التي يتوقف عليها **مستقبل الإنسان** ونجاحه .
TT: But we mean self-independence in deciding about the works that **one's** future and success depends on.

6) **ST:** والثقة بالنفس تجدد قوى **الإنسان** المعنوية بعد الفشل الذي قد يصيبه كما يجدد الغذاء قوته الجسدية .
TT: self-confidence renews **one's** spiritual capacities after failure, as food renews his physical capacities after exhausted work.

In the above examples, the lexical cohesive terms **عنصر** in (1), **مظهر**in (2), **إرادة الإنسان** in (3) **الإنسان**in (4), **مستقبل الإنسان** in (5), and **قوى الإنسان**in (6) are translated into English by the pronoun **one**. In (1) and (2) the sentence required the students to shift these ties into grammatical ones. This is because they could not translate them by the same lexical term. For example, they could not produce such a sentence: 'Self-confidence is an element of the fundamental elements (yet, some students did). This can be considered as improper translation even though the same source text lexical cohesive elements are preserved in the target language. However, in the case of the translation of the lexical tie **أعمال** in (3), the students were not obliged to render it as **anything**. They could have translated it as **works** in which they preserve the same item and meaning.

In (1) both Arabic **فشل** and **اتكالهم** are translated into verbs **fail** and **rely** instead of **failure** and **reliance**, respectively. Here, this shift is the result of change in the structure of the sentence. It is successful to translate the nouns above into verbs, since this affects neither source text meaning nor cohesion.

Shift in Explicitness

After Blum-kulka(1986), English employs more cohesive devices than Arabic, which signals the relations in texts implicitly. In translation from Arabic to English cohesive devices are added to explicate the link.

(Laala, 2010)

7. Conclusion

From a text linguistics perspective, the treatment set to cater for students' transfer of cohesive devices from Arabic to English. Hence, contrasts in the use of grammatical and lexical cohesion were much emphasized. The high frequency of conjunctional transfer in the pre-study test necessitates instruction on how Arabic and English differ in the use of conjunction. Similarly, instruction on the functions and translations of parallelism and English *'and'* were included as students seem to presume absolute similarity.

Chapter Four: Methodology

1. Introduction

The preceding chapters discharged the setting of ground for the research project through elaboration on the problematic embodied in transfer from Arabic to English, and on the nature of the treatment proposed. This chapter pertains to the methodology upheld for the empirical testing of the formulated hypothesis. To expose the premises driving methodological pronouncements, the chapter is not only made descriptive, reporting the conduct of the study, but decisions at a number of counts are laid out. Hence, the chapter initially advocates a mixed-methods paradigm as a fitting epistemology. Thereafter, a detailed description of the research design is made, covering procedures of selecting sample form a population, instruments selection, and procedures for data gathering. A review of data collection is conjoined with how these were sifted, summarized and synthesized so as to arrive at the results and conclusions of the research. It is explained how the methodology advanced is expected to generate data enough to satisfy aims of the study. This Methodology chapter is finalized by a discussion of how the researcher complies with ethical standards in the course of conducting the study.

2. Epistemology of the Study

The conduct of the current study operates within a paradigm-mixing epistemology. The multifaceted measure of worth in the study seems to demand far than a monomethodic approach, where either a qualitative or quantitative method is employed. As such, the research design involves not operation within a positivist or interpretative epistemology but a deployment of both worldviews to maximize potential benefits. For this fusion not to be unjustified or idiosyncratic, it is decided that the study follows the established principles of mixed-methods research. In what follows, it would be argued that the current study fits the epistemological stance of mixed-methods research.

Basically, the ontology pervasive of mixed-methods epistemology research is a pragmatist combination of two polarizing views: The first treats entities in the world as produced by human thoughts, and hence the escalation of this view is an interpretative, qualitative research, where “a focus is placed on how the research respondents view the world and reach issues in question” (Oliver, 2008, p. 23). Second, opposite to the first, there exists the view that humans are subject to more impinging factors that a general understanding of behaviour is preferable over the quest for idiosyncrasies. The latter stance takes the positivist

form of inquiry which centralizes the identification of regularities and commonalities (Dorynei, 2007). The trade-off between the positivist and interpretative epistemology produces the in-between tenets characteristics of mixed-methods research. It should, however, be noted that the mixing of paradigms, as Dorynei (2007, p. 166) points out, "does not cancel out potential insights" possibly resultant from the costs of this collision. According to Dorynei (2007) and Oliver (2008), the deployment of dual methods of scrutiny is expected to offer the following merits:

- *To achieve fuller and thick understanding of the phenomena under investigation*. As qualitative and quantitative research target divergent, often opposite concerns in the data, mixing two paradigms supplies a wide range of fruitful insights, making it possible to achieve accountability. In the current study, this collision offers a number of strategies to look at the variations and commonalities in reactions to the treatment during and after manipulation. A broader scope of the study would allow results to be relatively conclusive. The study combines the predetermined and emergent design at several levels: The identified features of rhetorical transfer from Arabic to English; the implementation of research instruments; and the specification of conceptual categories for analysis. In this way, one method provides concepts and organizing principles by which the other method operates. The interlock of two methods is expected to offer wider insights into the effect of providing students ith data from Arabic-English IR studies.

- *Corroborating findings through triangulation.* To further ensure the validity of the current study, multiple research instruments are used to obtain validating data. While the use of two methods do not necessarily yield complementary results, divergent results are illuminating. As Dorynei puts it, "researchers may utilize mixed-methods to generate discrepancies and paradoxes" (2007, p. 166). However, when these results are validated, this arrival at the same conclusion using different research instrument increazes reliability of hypothesis testing. The present research validates test results resorting to data from interview and think-aloud technique, all to better gauge the effectiveness of the treatment. This goes instead of restricting the judgment of worth to a single instrument. In this study, the effectiveness of the course is allocated multiple manifests in order not to confine the test of a hypothesis in, say, pre-post test comparison. This multifaceted quest stems from two main convictions:

First, the likelihood for a single instrument—no matter how adequately selected and implemented—to act as the sole demonstration of the treatment's effect. Second, the differing research tools are assigned the elicitation of further data, rather than merely used as validations.

- *Appealing to different research audience*. 0ne further rationale behind operating by the tenets of mixed-methods approach is "to reach audiences who are not sympathetic to one of the approaches if applied alone" (Dirynei, 2007, p. 164). The ability for a mixed-methods research to appeal to divergent research traditions is expected to multiply the elements readers—possibly highly familiar with one tradition than the other—can fit in. The attraction, here, as Dorynei further alleges, is that "this is not simply a case of validation through triangulation…but rather generating an overall level of trustworthiness for the researcher" (Dorynei, 2007, p.166).

3. Methodological Principles of the Study

The current study leans to the tenets of mixed-methods research. Upholding this line of scrutiny entails taking a number of convictions reflecting the fusion of paradigms. Therefore, the following inquiry principles underlie the different phases of the study:

- Hypothesis of the study is not entirely pre-configurated but generated and advocated in the course of implementing the study. As such, results of the work may not only decide on the hypothesis but might gauge the process of hypothesis generation itself.
- The research design is both organic and strategic. Sampling, data collection and data analysis are informed by emergent and pre-existing concepts. While the researcher enters the study with pre-existing concepts, different strategies and adds-on are incorporated to go along with saliencies, rather than subverting the behaviour of participants by categories identified in other research. This eclectic design follows from combining the need for both appealing to commonalities and to saliencies.
- Analysis tends to stem partly from a fixed sum of data collected and partly from the emergent, evolving and interactive data.

- Treating validity checks as further data: “The best way of handling such validity checks is to treat them as further data that can contribute to the overall validity argument after proper interpretation” (Dorynei, 2007,p. 61).
- The validity of mixed-methods research lies in the way methods are combine to arrive at certain conclusions. However, the collision of paradigms has repercussions on the nature of quality criteria. Representativeness and generalizability are arrived at not by addressing a large sample size from the population—as extreme quantitative research may suggest—but through asking respondents about the extent to which their case applies to others: “A useful strategy to evaluate generalizability is to include in the qualitative account the participant’s own judgment about the generalizability of the targeted issue (Dorynei, 2007, p. 59). Here, the unlikelihood for generalizability makes not a limitation of the study but rather emphasizes the specific features of the phenomenon under scrutiny. Similarly, the thick description of phenomenon—a crucial validity criterion in qualitative research—is arrived at through quantitative mechanisms. Mixing methods suggests a consensus between size of sample and size of data.

Sourcing the research design in mixed-methods research offers a principled basis for the methodological stance of the study, making the researcher’s choices—whether organic or strategic—more justifiable. The following content makes clear how mixed-methods research is typified in the variant methodological decisions taken for the conduct of the present research.

4. Population and Sampling

The study elicited data from two sets of participants, each providing data in divergent yet illuminating ways, offering multiple dimensions for measure. Besides testing the hypothesis via manipulating the treatment variable on student writers, the effectiveness of the course manifests in feedback from teachers. These latter are sampled as informants assigned to offer evaluative data. At whole, the study elicits data from 26 participants affiliated with the Department of English at Mostaganem University, Algeria. The sample is composed of 20 first-year Master students and six teachers.

Teachers were selected as participants to provide feedback on the treatment designed. In this category, the sampling process was ongoing and evolving. It was intended that

feedback is to be elicited from composition teachers only. The researcher, later, realized that other teachers using extended-passage as an assessment tool may well provide useful insights that increase the range of variation in the data scope of analysis. As a result, composition teachers, either with a current or previous experience, makes four of the six teachers addressed.

In choosing participants for the study, the researcher largely follows convinience-based criterion for sampling. As general characteristics for sampling, the study is conducted with students enrolled in diverse Master's programs at the Department of English, University of Mostaganem. The sample participants studied English composition for their first, second and third year. Adding to this, most of their exams and assignments are essay-based, which makes them suitable for the experiment and the test. Such practice is believed to maximally abound findings to the function of the treatment factor in that rhetorical transfer from Arabic is less attributed to factors other than the researcher's variable. At the same time, a positive effect of the treatment—either in terms of participants' performance or attitudes—would largely stem from the presentation of data from intercultural rhetoric. This allows the researcher to test the mere variable of instructions in intercultural rhetoric. Ensuring these characteristics is meant to establish certain homogeneity. It is not, however, presumed that the treatment variable is the sole difference between individual participants. The interference of other variables related to sample composition is considered when analyzing the data.

In selecting participants from the stratum of first-year Master students, two main sampling procedures were adopted: Convenience-based sampling and purposive sampling. Convenience-based sampling was used to ensure willingness to participate, geographical proximity, and availability at certain time. As a way to pursue the convenience-based sampling, snow ball sampling operated, where participant were frequently asked to select others to participate. The attraction of choosing the researcher's friends and their closest featured in the easiness with which participants interacted with each other and with the researcher over their engagement in the study. Otherwise, more impeding obstacles would have possibly risen with a different set of participants. Upholding purposive sampling, the researcher selects participants believed to provide potential insights important for the study. Some participants within the experimental group were selected on the assumption that they would provide significant data relevant to the research. This, while bearing an element of subjectivity typical of qualitative inquiry, does serve the enrichment of the study, for it ensures *informativity*: "The purposive sampling may seek to identify people who, because of

their experience and contacts, have special insights into the research question" (Oliver, 2004, p. 95).

Size of the sample follows from the mixing of world views upheld throughout the study. Generally with non-probability sampling typical of interpretative perspective, the size of the sample is relatively small, for investigation allows the generation of large-scale, insipid data. Conversely, a quantitative approach would seek to ensure a large sample size.

5. The Research Design

In fact, this type of study requires a crosschecking of information. In this sense, triangulation is both methodological and investigatory. It is used to collect complementary data to crosscheck findings of each tool. This follows the likelihood of having the outcomes of the proposed variable attained by variables other than the researcher's. To investigate likelihood of causal relation between the treatment, a pre-post test comparison is joined with data from think-aloud technique and non-directive interview. At another level, feedback was elicited from teachers on the treatment manipulated as a way to further inquire about the utility of the course from a different dimension. Adding to this, the multitude of instruments stems from the tendency to see several manifestations for the impact of the treatment (see Figure 4.1).

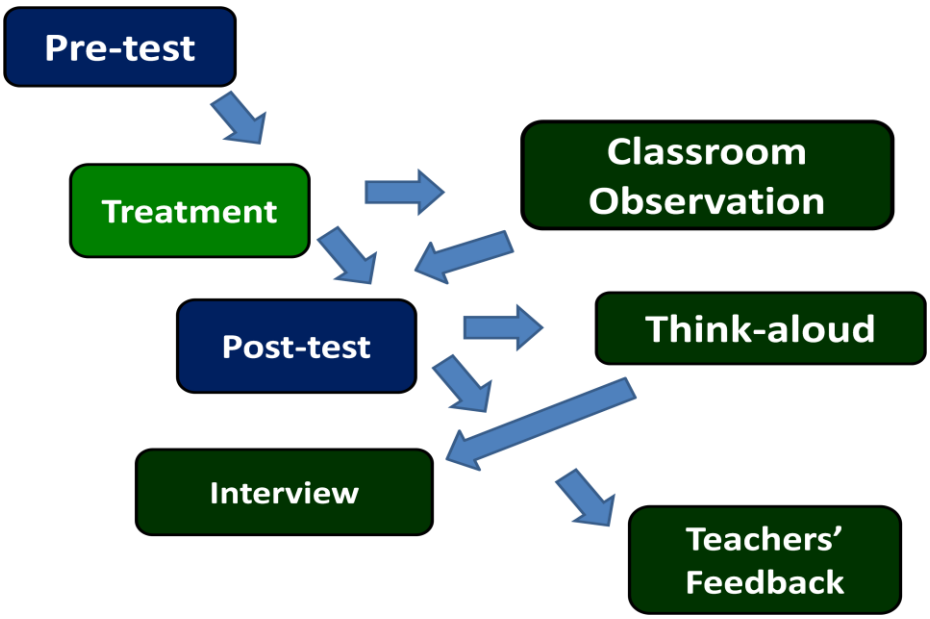


Figure 4.1 Scheme of the Study.

5.1 The Pre- test

A written test was administered with participants in both groups at the outset of the 2015-2016 academic season. Students were asked to write an argumentative essay on the following question: *Can a native speaker be an adequate goal in language learning? Justify your answer*. This mode is said to be the most transfer errors are demonstrated in (Aljomhouri, 2010). The topic was selected because of the potential it might have to provoke students' writing, which might stimulate them to resort to their native language rhetorical patterns. The participants were given the same format and were instructed not to exceed a given space so that their writing could be maximally comparable. They were not given any time limits to finish writing the essay in order to avoid putting them under any pressure. It is worth noting that conditions of the test were not the same for all participants: While some were tested in classrooms, others took the test in the campus, either in the library or in the researcher's room.

5.2 Manipulating the Treatment

As clearly shown in Chapter 3, the treatment consists of a course in Arabic-English intercultural rhetoric wherein research findings are presented in an instructional manner. The unavailability of a packaged course pushed the researcher to undertake the task of collecting and designing the latter. The course sets to impart the following set of knowledge:

- Contrastive studies of English and Arabic conjunctions.
- Contrastive studies of English and Arabic cohesive devices.
- Cultural attributes to contrasts in the uses of cohesive devices.
- Long sentence translation techniques from Arabic to English.
- Functions of parallelism and the Arabic discourse marker *wa.*
- Shift in translation of lexical cohesion from Arabic to English.

Three weeks before the first session, participants were given the course handouts for review and preparation. The course was delivered within almost 13 hours distributed along eight sessions. In class, the tendency was that the researcher asks participants to read and comment on the content. At the beginning of each class the researcher assesses previous knowledge for consolidation. The actual class presentation was more detailed. Students were

often asked on their attitudes on the bits of knowledge presented as a way to assess whether this would be of value when they compose in English. More often, questions were given by the researcher to assess participants' awareness of content (errors, textual differences and readers' expectations).

5.3 The Discussion Method

Because of noticeable insightfulness of discussion with participants, the researcher—upholding the role of a teacher in class—considered discussion with the participants as data for the study. In fact, it was until the near end of the course that we decided to systematize the class discussion into a research tool, for it brought useful insights to the study. This stance follows from the interpretative advocacy for an evolving process of collecting data and incorporating emergent insights into the analysis. Accordingly, the method was meant to satisfy the need for considering the participants' real-time interaction with the knowledge base being presented. The data considered are the participants' responses to the researcher asking about peripheral details. Indeed, the data assembled from discussion served the study in various manners. As Carr (2011) puts it: "Discussion engages unplanned interaction and consideration of both verbal and nonverbal data" (p.154).

5.4 The Post-test

After having the treatment manipulated, a post-test was administered with the EXP group. It is worth to note the reluctance on whether the same question is repeated in the post test, namely as the practice effect would possible have rendered the task less generating in the post-test. However; writing on the same topic would more legibly highlight the effect of the experiment, as it makes it easy for the researcher to identify improvement in expressing more or less the sane ideas.

Indeed, it was impossible to maintain the same test conditions prevalent in the pre-test. Four participants were tested altogether in the English department while the rest (six participants) were tested individually in the campus under different conditions and at different time. The pre- and post-test data were analyzed quantitatively, namely for description, prediction, generalization and inferences. Because of the limited homogeneity of participants in both groups, the performance of the treatment group was not compared only to the pre-test scores but to the additional test scores for the control group as a way of limiting the decisiveness of one comparison: "It is inevitable that subjects change in the course of the experiment between repeated administration of questionnaire/test due to the passage of time per se" (Dorynei,

2007, p. 53). The multitude of baselines for comparison offers a test-retest reliability and considers the interference of other variables The written performance was compared for the frequency of the targeted features below, with semantic parallelism being an emergent feature:

Table 4.1 Targeted features used in the test.

Targeted Features of Rhetorical Transfer	**Code**
Functions of Arabic *Wa*	FWA.
Connectivity	CVT.
Semantic parallelis	SMP.
Syntactic parallelism	STP.
Same-item repetition	SIT.
Long sentence	LS

It appears that transfer studies enter the enquiry with preconceived categories of errors, which turns out to be an investigation of degrees of set of errors. This casts some doubt on their representativeness of the phenomena, limiting the exploratory potential of transfer studies. A more appealing strategy, one that reflects the fusion of methods, is to allow room for emergent transfer so that not to contaminate group specificity and lest to set out to test a preconceived hypothesis. At the same time, a tabula-rasa approach would show disconcern with existing knowledge. Hence, in the present study, the transfer errors expected of participants are both preconceived and emergent in the test. The full list of targeted features was not set until analysis of transfer errors in the pre-test for both the CTR and EXP groups.

5.5 The Think-Aloud Technique

Comparison of performance to assess the impact of the treatment does not seem to suffice for a fuller testing of the hypothesis. This is due to the unlikelihood of predicting, with full accuracy, what effect the treatment would have on the EXP group participants. Adding to this, the performance of participants does not necessarily reflect the knowledge possibly obtained. Hence, more validation of the post-test results was made through asking the participants to provide verbal retrospections when they compose for the post-test. This method provides insights on whether error avoidance, if possible, is motivated by the

treatment. Indeed, "verbal reports such as those from think-aloud data are reliable source for information about thought processes (Charters, 2003, p.27).

5.6 The Non-directive Interview

A non-directive interview was conducted with the EXP group participants four day after the elicitation of introspective data. The instrument aims at a deeper exploration of the effect of the instructions on the participants' approach of writing and L1 competences. Another reason for which the interview was implemented is validating data from think-aloud. According to Charters (2003, p.37), "researchers need to be aware that even thinking aloud, which makes inner speech external, cannot reveal deeper thought processes in their true complexity because they have to be simplified into words". Precisely because thought does not have its automatic counterpart in words suggests that a follow-up interview may also allow the participants to "validate" the researchers' interpretation of their think-aloud utterances. In non-directive interviewing, questions are not pre-planned, and the interviewer listens and does not take the lead. The interviewee has the objectives of the research in mind and is aware of what to cover in the interview. The interviewer role is to check on unclear points and to rephrase the answers. As such, the turn-taking sequence of the interview, hence, is characterized by the participants dominating the exchange and expanding on both the researcher's initial question. This interview type was adopted for it offers the least controlled and structured data collection compared to other types of interview that could equally have been selected. Leaving the interview with open or unclear boundaries has the attraction of obtaining uncharted insights, which gives room to data which can refute the hypothesis.

Most participants were approached separately in two sessions. Because of unfamiliarity with this tool, the researcher decided to go beyond a one-shot interview. At the same time, data from the first session were also valued. The insightfulness of the second session, however, pushed to consider the first as ice-breaking. Interview data are analyzed by the parameters of grounded theory, namely through generating concepts and categories from the segments provided by participants.

5.7 Teachers' Feedback

. Other than the part of the students, gauging the worthiness of treatment seems to require the opinions of teachers as they might be well-informed of students' writing problems and status. Feedback on the treatment was elicited from seven teachers composed of three

composition teachers and three others assumed to be experienced with the use of extended-passage tasks. Apart from being asked to evaluate the utility of the content, teachers were given room to provide further insights. Teachers were asked to evaluate the course and give arguments for their claims. However, they were not instructed to follow a specific pattern. Such unconstrained elicitation follows from two main convictions: Writing teachers are better positioned to gauge the uptake of the course. Second, the unconstrained elicitation would prevent leading teachers to a desired appreciation of the course and allow room for insights that may refute the hypothesis. The researcher stressed the need for this feedback to be written, on the conviction that written feedback would impose on teachers the need for more carefulness and attentiveness. For some teachers, however, it was only possible to obtain an oral feedback that the researcher transcribed and paraphrased. Teachers approved the passages as being representative of their feedback.

Feedback data are analyzed by establishing concepts and categories. The emergent categories are checked in the remainder of the data as they became the organizing system of analysis. Attention is given to differences and variation within and across text so that to see where teachers may differ in their views. Adding to the search for commonalities in the data, peculiar insights are highlighted and checked. While the categories in the data are emergent, it was necessary to approach the data with predetermined categories of effectiveness as it is the pre-configurated ordering category. Because of this trade-off between pre-determined and emergent categories, the segments are not sorted out according to the existing category but kept as they are for checks of interpretive validity.

1. **Field of the Study**

Basically, the project was implemented in two main locations: The campus where the researcher resides and the Department of English. The researcher's preference for the campus as a location was motivated by a number of counts. It was not certain that rooms in the department would be available, with the administrative staff hardly ensuring rooms for the running of official study schedule. Within the daily timing service of the university, it was not possible to find slots where participants can meet, and this affected sampling process. Both the test and the course were given in the campus library. It was, however, expected that differences in test and treatment conditions might have affected the results obtained.

7. The Ethical Aspect of the Study

Above all, the researcher has ensured the informants' consent before they agree on their role within the research. In doing so, it was only after explaining to members of the population what is expected of them that their agreement was checked. Informing the participants was made through short discussions. It was made clear that being a participate in this study entails writing two essays, reading handouts, and sitting for a course. It should be noted that the researcher has been largely persuasive, propagating the experiment and arguing for the utility of the course under design.

It was not feasible to set out explaining all aspects of the research, partly because of time constrains and partly because a detailed account would spark an impression of a burdening work, which would have threatened approval. Avoidance of such an account on complexity of the research would have been possibly mistaken for difficulty.

In the course of conducting the study, compliment with ethical standards was ensured in several respects, especially the need for sensitivity to the status of participants as students The researcher ought to alter the time and load of the experiment to meet participants' willingness and desire which decreazed namely as we proceeded further in the treatment. Even though participants agreed to attend on regular basis, and to read the handouts, the researcher did not to point to absences and carelessness about the course by some participants. Nor did the researcher remind participants of their responsibilities. In line with this expected mismatch, the researcher resorted to some adds-on strategies, ones that might have affected the effectiveness of the experiment and consistency of measurement.

As a full-time student, the researcher had much of the working week devoted to reading for and writing the thesis. Such a task began almost six months before the supervisor's official approval of the research topic. Within this timeline, the process of reading and writing the literature review was suspended for engagements in publishing articles and giving conference presentations as part of the doctoral program. However, a more rigorous engagement with writing was made until after the accomplishment of tutorials by the end of December 2016. What suspended the writing process most was the search for relevant literature to design the course. The latter task consumed much time, especially that no model for adaptation was found within the scale of available literature.

8. Conclusion

The above content addressed the methodology of primary data. It was established that the study follows the stance of mixed-methods research due to the multifaceted nature of the phenomenon under scrutiny. In fact, which data collection method to use depends upon the research goals as well as the disadvantages of each research tool. The written performance of the EXP group participants, measured against markers of Arabic rhetoric, was compared to that of a CTR group. Merely testing participants does not seem to account for reliable insights fairly addressing the research question. Therfore, lest to have causal correlation fallaciously assumed, resorts were sought to data from think-aloud and a non-directive interview. Feedback from teachers was elicited to better evaluate the treatment.

Chapter Five: Results and Interpretation

1. Introduction

The chapter presents and interprets the data generated as a result of implementing of research design. Initially, a pre-post test comparison is laid out with an interpretation of frequencies for the targeted features within and across groups. The qualitative analysis of introspective data is used to verify test results and assess the causativeness of the treatment variable. From the class discussion, a set of concepts and categories is derived, offering while-experiment data which exploit the insightfulness of interaction with participants to inform of the effect of the treatment when manipulated. To better understand this effect on individual participants, the researcher interprets each participant's extract on its own. The data assembled from teachers are grouped under categories, and extracts are presented to illustrate, explain, and support category choice. Throughout the analysis, data are crosschecked and validated for deeper understanding of the phenomena under scrutiny. The chapter ends with limitations of the study, where identifiable weaknesses in the work are recognized.

2. Test Results

As clearly indicated in the previous chapter, participants in both groups were tested before and after the manipulation of the treatment for a comparison of occurrences of targeted features. In what follows, we present a close examination of test results. This begins by conducting a measure of central tendency of the targeted features. Then, individual scores and deviations are discussed. Table 5.1 reports the means of frequency and improvement displayed by participants within both groups along the two phases of the test.

Table 5.1 Average occurrence of targeted features by test.

Test	*M*
Pre-test (CRT group)	20
Post-test (CTR group)	26
Pre-test (EXP group)	22
Post-test (EXP group)	11

Note.The average of features per each test is the sum of frequencies (*f*) divided by the number of scores or participants (*x*). $M = \frac{\Sigma f}{\Sigma x}$. (see Table 5.3, 5.4 & 5.5 for values).

Clearly from the table, participants in both groups demonstrated use of the targeted features in varying degrees. Such a state validates expectations of transfer from Arabic in the writings of participants. Adding to encountering the categories pre-defined in this study, the category of semantic parallelism is incorporated to the list as an emergent feature. Below are illustrations of the features as used by participants.

Semantic parallelism

> The native speaker does not sound *reasonable* and *realistic* as a goal in teaching….The native speaker goal is not *appropriate* and does not *correspond* to language teaching (CTR group, P7).
>
> However, phonological awareness remains *hard* and *difficult* to achieve (EXP group, P2).

Syntactic parallelism

> The speaker who makes lots of faults when speaking and the speaker who uses a lot of errors can improve…The teacher who often corrects mistakes may embarrass learners (EXP group, P3).
>
> Native speakers have the advantage of the environment and nonnative speakers have the advantage in classroom (EXP group, P2).

Long sentence

This feature is marked for occurrence by instances of possible shortening. For instance, in the example below we encounter two instances of long sentence. The full stop indicates where the sentence should be cut.

> The environment makes it easy for learning languages, and the learner who exposed at early stage to language can easily acquire the sound and the phonology of the language he is learning, and this latter becomes very difficult do learn at a later age and that is why many adults can not hide the effect of their mother tongue when they speak (EXP group, P6).

Connectivity

> *And so* this does not prevent us from reaching more or less the same degree of natives (CTR group, P3).
>
> The native speaker acquires language (comma needed) but a non-native learner deploys cognitive skills to think and reflect about the grammar of the language (EXP group, P9).

Functions of"wa"

> And he knows well about his own culture (EXP group, P8).
>
> The learner enters the classroom and he does not know a big deal about the culture of the language (CTR group: P7).

In the pre-test, the frequency mean of features by the EXP group (*M*=22) is slightly higher than that of the CTR group (*M*=20). This situation embodies a real test for the researcher's hypothesis: The need for the treatment is bound with participants in the EXP group revealing a frequency lower than that of the CTR group after manipulation. Otherwise, a frequency higher or similar to that of the CTR group would suggest the likelihood of attaining the same outcome without the need for the treatment, which partially invalidates the hypothesis.

The case is inverted in the post-test. The EXP group mean (*M*=11) is two times lower than that scored by the CTR participants (*M*=26). Compared to their performance in the pre-test, the EXP group participants demonstrated an in-double reduction in features use given the first value (*M*=22). Hence, features frequency dropped compared to multiple baselines: the CRT pre-test, the EXP pre-test, and the CTR post-test. In other words, the EXP group participants improved both in relation to their performance and to that of the CTR group participants on two phases. Such a state initially suggests the causativeness of the treatment variable: Because of initial group differences—difference in variable as embodied in the reception of the treatment for one group and not for another—reduction in the use of targeted features in relation to three baselines may largely stem from the manipulation of the treatment. This gives support to the hypothesis subsiding the effectiveness of data from intercultural rhetoric research, which takes the form of abundance of negative rhetorical transfer. However, we need to validate the presumed cause-effect relationship. Before this, there is a need to consider the possible variation in test result, either in terms of features freauency or participants' use of these features. One main reason for this is to avoid sweeping generalizations about representativeness of the mean to feature type and to individual scores respectively. Table 5.2 below shows the average deviation of the six features from their mean in each test.

Table 5.2 Mean and standard deviation of targeted features representing rhetorical transfer.

Test	Mean	*SD*
Pre-test (CTR group)	20	6
Post-test (CTR group)	22	6
Pre-test (EXP group)	26	9
Post-test (EXP group)	11	2

For the CTR group, the same level of deviation is maintained in both tests (*SD*=6). In other words, the features occurred with almost the same level of variation, where the number of each feature in the pre-test is relatively the same in the post-test (see Figures 1&2).

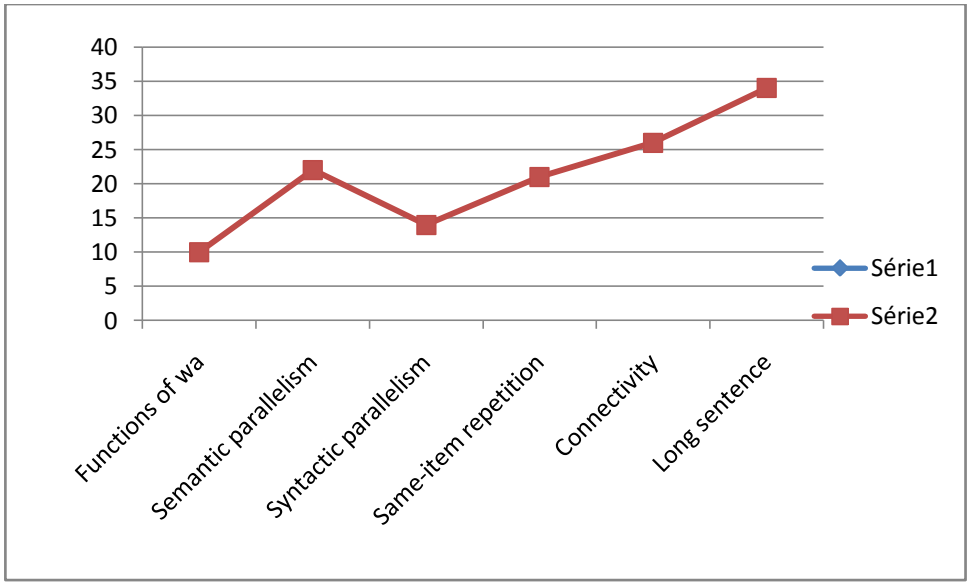


Figure 5.1 Distribution of features in the pre-test (CTR group).

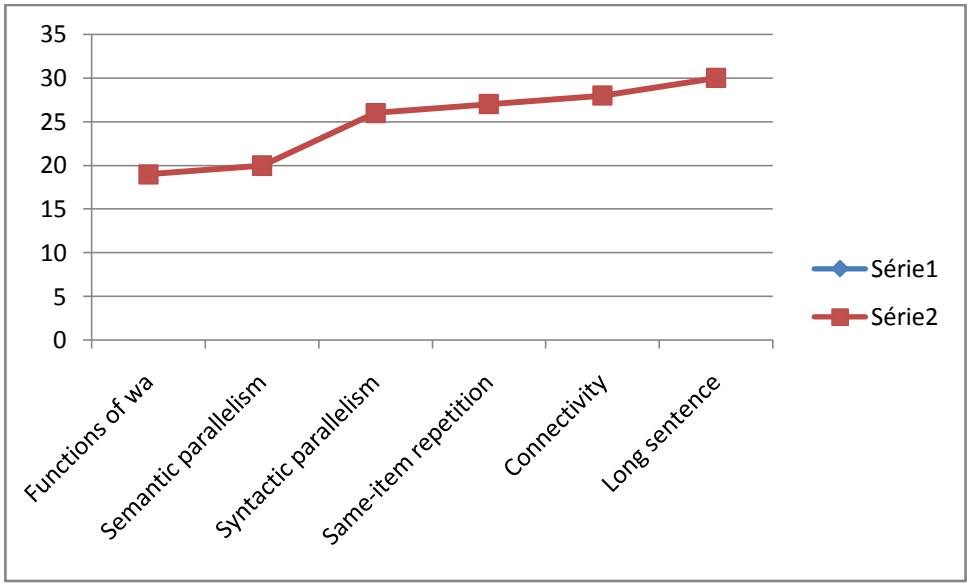


Figure 5.2 Distribution of features in the post-test (EXP group).

Long sentence, connectivity and same-item repetition have relatively the same position of occurrence. The same situation relatively applies to the category of semantic parallelism. Major differences occurred at the level of syntactic parallelism and functions of *wa*, where both features saw a major increase in the post-test.

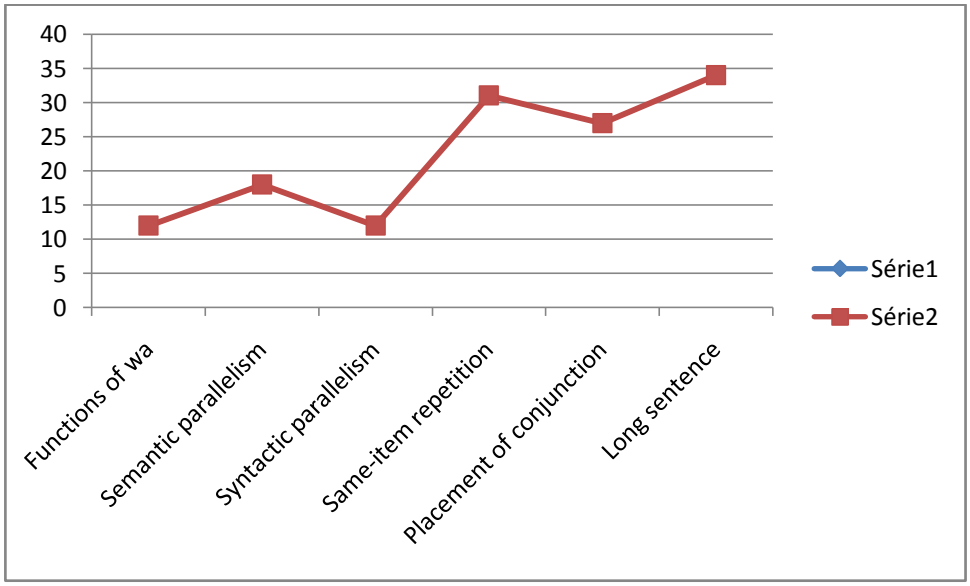


Figure 5.3 Distribution of features in the pre-test (EXP group).

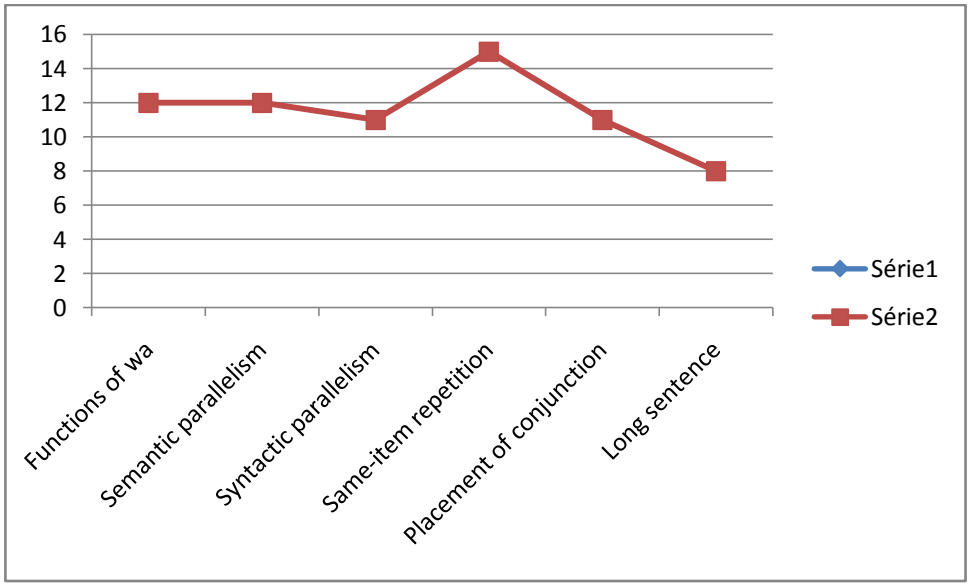


Figure 5.4 Distribution of features in the post-test (EXP group).

The pre- and post-test for the EXP group displayed considerable difference in the distribution of features around the mean. In the post test, the average deviation dramatically dropped from (*SD*=9) to (*SD*=2), implying a relatively homogeneous treatment of the targeted features by participants. The latter state may correspond to a common reduction in participants' use of Arab rhetoric in the post-test.

Clearly from the figures, the features which effected higher average in the pre-test are the same which caused the decrease in frequencies for the post-test. Indeed, these are features which were given relatively higher attention by participants of the treatment, namely as they used to be problematic for them. The inversion of case may have followed from the treatment variable, especially that, in class, participants gave more concern to the same features improvement took place most in.

Apart from the influence of the treatment, the heterogeneous occurrence of features might equally be the outcome of addressing multiple constructs within one test. As Carr (2011) puts it, "the unequal demonstration of multiple constructs is reasonable in a test" (Carr; 2011, p. 127). Difference in the use of targeted features may stem from participants' occupation with certain features over others. Now we need to examine how individual participants differed in their use of targeted features. Table 2 below shows the individual scores and the average deviation of group scores from the mean in each test.

Table 5.3 Total feature score by participant per test and average deviation of individual score from the mean.

EXP group	Pre-test	Post-test	CTR group	Pre-test	Post-test
1	19	9	1		1
2	10	6	2		2
3	15	8	3		3
4	13	8	4		4
5	10	6	5		5
6	10	5	6		5
7	14	5	7		5
8	15	7	8		7
9	11	5	9		5
10	17	8	10		8
Total	134	67	Total		44
M	13.4	6.9	*M*	12	15.8
SD	2.6	1.32	*SD*	3.16	2

For the CTR group, the average deviation of participants' use of features in the pre-test is (*SD*=3.16), which indicates that each sum of individual score relatively approximates the average occurrence of all features as divided by the number of participants (*M*= 12). In the post test, the CTR group participants show less deviation from the mean (*SD*= 2). The average mean, thus, is largely representative of individual deployment of Arabic rhetoric as represented by the targeted features. Similarly, reduction in the use of targeted features in the post-test for the EXP group co-occurred with a counterpart reduction in deviation from the mean (from 2.6 to 1.3). Such a state denotes relative homogeneity in the performance of participants in both tests as variation among testees was not found. The figures below (4, 5, 6& 7) visualize the homogeneity in deviation from the average.

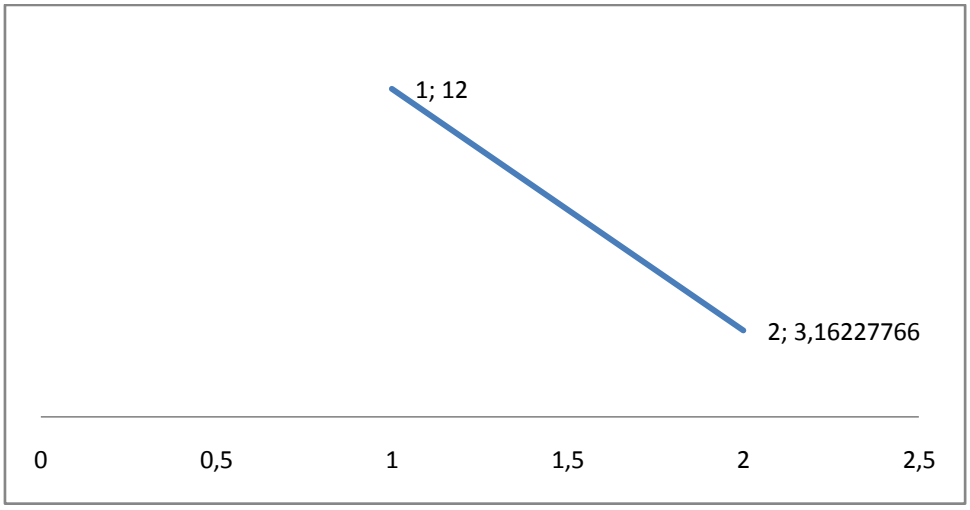


Figure 5.5 Deviation of individual scores from the normal distribution in the pre-test (CTR group).

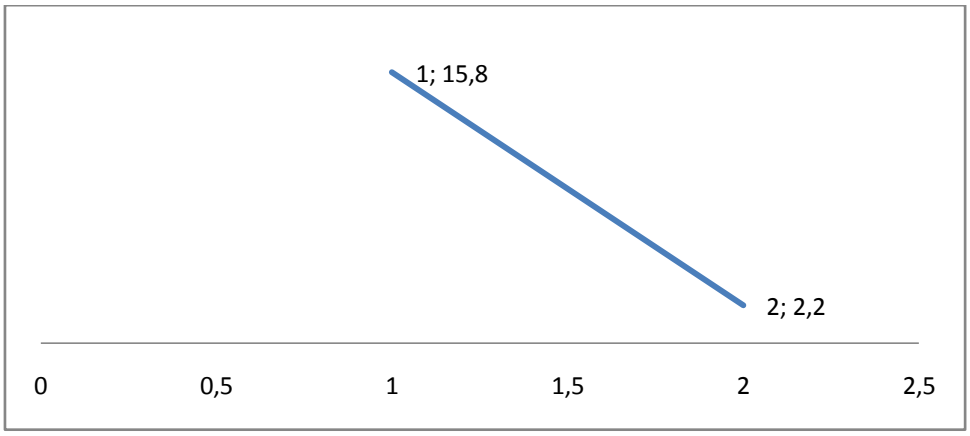


Figure5.6 Deviation of individual scores from the normal distribution in the pre-test.

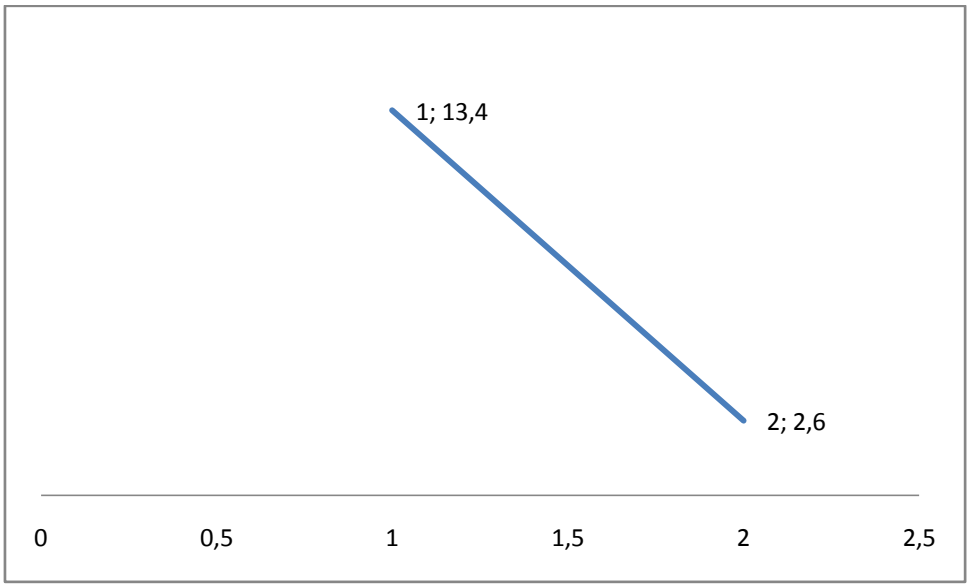


Figure 5.7 Deviation of individual scores from the normal distribution in the pre-test (EXP group).

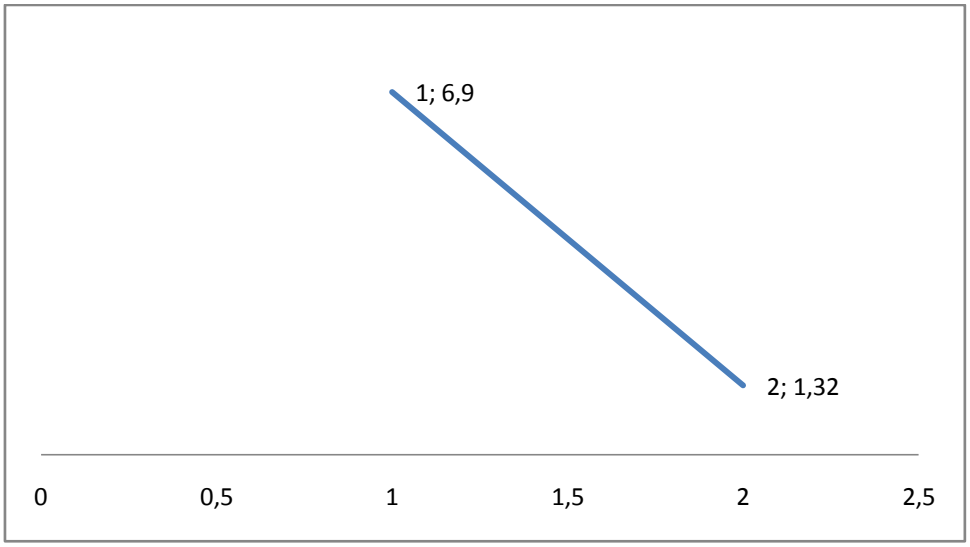


Figure 5.8 Deviation of individual scores from the normal distribution in the pre-test (EXP group).

The approximate deviations of individual scores point to homogeneous performance among participants. Thus, general claims made on the basis of the normal distribution are fairly representative of individual performance. This denotes two major facts about the performance of the EXP participants: First, that improvement or otherwise touches almost on all participants and, second, that these latter have possibly benefited from the manipulation of the treatment. The table below shows the improvement made by both groups.

Table 5.4 Individual scores and improvement for the CTR group.

	Participants																			
Features	**1**		**2**		**3**		**4**		**5**		**6**		**7**		**8**		**9**		**10**	
	Pre	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**
Functions of *Wa*	**2**	**3**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**2**	**0**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**2**	**1**	**2**	**0**	**2**	**0**	**2**	**2**	**2**
Semantic parallelism	**2**	**2**	**0**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**4**	**2**	**1**	**0**	**2**	**2**	**3**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**3**	**3**	**3**
Syntactic parallelism	**2**	**2**	**1**	**4**	**1**	**2**	**1**	**2**	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**1**	**3**	**2**	**3**	**2**	**3**	**0**	**3**
Same-item repetition	**2**	**4**	**3**	**3**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**3**	**1**	**2**	**1**	**3**	**3**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**2**	**1**
Arabic use of conjunction	**7**	**3**	**1**	**4**	**5**	**3**	**1**	**3**	**2**	**2**	**1**	**3**	**1**	**3**	**1**	**3**	**3**	**3**	**3**	**1**
Long sentence	**2**	**5**	**2**	**3**	**2**	**4**	**5**	**3**	**3**	**3**	**2**	**4**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**4**	**2**	**4**	**4**	**5**

Improvement

Generally, improvement represents 20% of the total instances. Although some participants (for instance P1) showed reduction in the use of the targeted features, almost all the CTR group participants either display the same or higher frequency in the post-test. We notice that Participant 1 and 3 made significant contribution to the mean of *connectivity* in the pre-test drafts. Another interesting remark is that long sentence embodies a major problem for almost all the participants in the CTR. As for the heterogeneous property of occurrence of targeted features, a plausible resort is conformity with kellerman (1983), who claims that learners have relative perceptions of what is transferable. Almost all participants have each of the features in the post-test increased in the post-test. The considerable use of the targeted features in both phases may be lent to participants' deficiency in terms of variables other than the treatment proposed. This presumption would be either confirmed or refuted by testing intercultural rhetoric data as an advanced variable. Now let us consider the case with the EXP group.

Table 5.5 Individual scores and improvement for the EXP group.

	Participants																			
Features	**1**		**2**		**3**		**4**		**5**		**6**		**7**		**8**		**9**		**10**	
	Pre	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**
Functions of Wa	**3**	**1**	**0**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**1**	**3**	**1**	**0**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**3**	**1**
Semantic parallelism	**2**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**2**	**2**	**1**	**1**	**2**	**1**	**2**	**1**	**3**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**3**	**2**
Syntactic parallelism	**2**	**2**	**0**	**2**	**1**	**1**	**2**	**2**	**1**	**2**	**2**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**2**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**1**
Same-item repetition	**4**	**2**	**4**	**2**	**2**	**1**	**3**	**1**	**2**	**0**	**3**	**2**	**4**	**2**	**3**	**2**	**3**	**2**	**3**	**1**
Connectivity	**5**	**1**	**2**	**1**	**6**	**2**	**2**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**3**	**1**	**3**	**0**	**3**	**2**
Long sentence	**3**	**1**	**3**	**0**	**3**	**1**	**4**	**1**	**5**	**1**	**2**	**0**	**3**	**0**	**4**	**2**	**2**	**1**	**5**	**1**

Improvement

Just as Participants 1 and 3 heightened the mean for Arabic conjunctions in the pre-test, they did reverse the situation by having scored higher improvement mean. Almost all the participants in the EXP group managed to avoid repeating the same item. A possible attribution for that is the researcher's emphasis on repetition as an ostensive marker of Arabic rhetoric. Adding to this, tips for avoiding repetition were thoroughly explained in the course

of the treatment, namely as the researcher found high volume of repeated words in the pre-test.

Noticeably, each participant improved particularly on one of the features. P1 and P10 improved most at the level of long sentence. Many participants (1, 3 8 & 9) improved equally at almost all levels. However, Participant 2, while improving on three categories, displayed higher frequency of functions of *wa*, same-item repetition, and syntactic parallelism. Participants 1 and 3 improved in connectivity more than in other features. For Participant 10, improvement occurs more at the level of long sentence.

Generally, none of the participants has focal attribution of the decease or increase in the mean for both tests. We still need to answer the following question: Is the decrease in the frequencies lent to the manipulation of the treatment? Results from validating instruments inform this question.

3. **Results from the Class Discussion**

Classroom discussion was implemented to gain thorough understanding of the participants as receiving the treatment. Each time in class, participants were asked whether they already know the material presented or whether they tend to display given errors. Three main categories emerged from the class discussion: The participants' unfamiliarity with content, their assuming similarity of discourse, and their having relative perceptions of what is transferable.

Considerable portion of the content the participants were being provided with seemed new to them. As category, unfamiliarity with content was initially presumed as participants frequently asked how, for instance, comparison of languages may be relevant when composing in English. This conviction was later tested over the course of the treatment through frequent elicitation of attitudes about the content imparted. Answers like *I did not know that*, *we did not study this* emphasized the selected category. However, questions like *did you know that?* were not overused for fear of deviating from the essence of the course and lest to confuse the participants Some more active participants reasserted unfamiliarity with the content by asking confirmatory questions like *Is this Arabic?*, *Is this an error?*, and *Is this something we shouldn't do?* This situation stems from the effect of previous writing instructions where students are used at learning to write without reference to a language other than English. In effect, the reference to Arabic for appropriating performance in English was

unfamiliar for participants. Although translation is incorporated in their programme, they failed to transcend the relevance of translation knowledge and ,confining it to assigned translation task It can, hence, be fairly claimed that participants used to see translation and L2 writing as separate activities.

Discussion data revealed that student participants assume similarity of discourse, namely as negative rhetorical transfer from Arabic was not often valued as erroneous or problematic. Effectively, when asked to comment on erroneous English translation of Arabic, all the participants who provided comments did not treat these as interference. The same behaviour prevailed when participants were asked to compare deviant and correct translation. When the researcher explained differences and made clear that resorts to Arabic may result in deviant performance, many participants gave comments like the following: *So in Arabic we use 'and' like this but in English we should not*. This assumption stems from students not considering, when asked, transfer errors as erroneous. Implied in this category is participants' unawareness of the negative effect possibly resultant from transfer. This state gave more legitimacy to the treatment proposed, which centralizes raising student's awareness of the language transfer phenomenon, rhetorical differences, and errors resulting from dissimilarities between the respective languages.

Relativity in perceptions of what is transferable is another important insight identified in the discussion. Effectively, the participants seem to vary in terms of the level at which they distinguish between Arabic and English. In their comments on errors, participants tried to contribute by bringing in what they know about errors resulting from Arabic. Interestingly, none of the participants tried to back up or illustrate rhetorical transfer. This suggests that, on this type of transfer in particular, participants were hardly attentive, considering the textual dissimilarities. This situation may stem from learners' perceptions of language distance (see Chapter 1). This seems a rationale for the participants' differing use of targeted features.

4. Results from the Think-aloud Technique

While being tested, participants provided introspective data by reporting how they think for the task. Besides crosschecking test results, think-aloud utterances function as new data, assessing whether improvement is attributed to the treatment variable. According to Charles (2003), "qualitative analyses of think-aloud data allows a clearer picture of the variability of individual experiences" (p.44). In what follows, utterances are divided into communicative units grouped under concepts and categories.

Cultural awareness

The verbal reports signal a tendency towards comparing and contrasting culture in the course of completing the test. Participants used cultural knowledge to guide their choices and to single out how they should write:

> I am thinking of effect of culture and what how I should behave. There are norms for each culture. Here I should avoid expressing ideas just in one sentence that is Arabic. I have to put a full stop instead of and. The sentence needs to be short. I need to make it English (P 1).
>
> Because it is writer-responsible, I need to mention it here. It should not be implicit (P6).

The above extracts typify awareness of the cultural dimension of texts. Participants used cultural knowledge to relate textual functioning to underlying cultural aspect. It is worth to note that participants could manage to guide their writing by relevant cultural knowledge. However, the fact remains that concern with cultural issues resulted in over-controlling the task, which may have deteriorated the performance of participants as they were torn between writing and retrieving cultural knowledge. This retrieval frequently interrupted composition as student used cultural knowledge not before starting to compose but to reflect on what they wrote so that to make necessary changes. Hence, resorts to cultural knowledge functioned as an editor during the whole writing process.

Exploiting Translation Techniques

When writing, participants employed insights from translation to reach adequate performance. In so doing, they inserted shifts to their texts, seemingly before and after jotting down sentences. However, the making of shifts occurred most after the participants started to write, which gives the impression that the first attempt is treated as a source texts to which changes should be made. The following extracts illustrate participants' resort to translation:

> Here I have to replace and with conjunctions. Now I can translate well. It was not good **(**P2**).**
>
> Here I have to replace and with a full stop, appropriate word to make it shorter (P 4).
>
> I put a full stop instead of comma. In Arabic I can express it this way. I do not have to have the same structure joined with and. This is Arabic. Here because I should not use two conjunctions, only one is enough (P10).

Resort to translation follows from two established conviction: First that writing and translation activity are analogous acts and, second, that translation can be effective aid to the task of foreign language writing. This awareness seems to have been triggered by the emphasis made on the link between translation and writing. Translation seems to have assisted in ascribing textual saliencies and adapting existing manners of writing. Knowledge about shifts seems to have enabled the participants to transform generated texts and sentences to desirable output. Here, an assumption relevant to the translation-writing connection offers itself: Knowing how to translate is to allow the same level of expressiveness in one's mother tongue to prevail when writing in a target language.

Selectivity

The verbal reports indicate participants' selectivity as they completed the test. This is evident in their reports of carefulness about choice. This category implies that the treatment triggered considering a number of possibilities and choosing the most appropriate one:

> For the moment I am thinking about what I should not include from Arabic. I used to use a lot of and here for instance….I do not select repeating the word *learner* (P 7).

> I am trying to choose the right thing. If I have to repeat or not (P9).

The tendency to filter for the correct use typifies understanding of saliencies and commonalities of texts, which the treatment seeks to trigger through drawing peculiarities from comparisons of the two languages in respect. Selectivity when performing the task suggests heightened concern with writing properly, in the sense that participants reported carefulness about making the right choice. This category gains more plausibility as participants showed awareness of the impact and function of a particular choice:

> I should not make it very long. It may have different interpretations (P6).

> No here I should not repeat *language*. This is awkward in English. I should not try to make the same word appear again and again (p7).

Conscious Involvement

Closely related to the previous category, participants reported their involvement and consciousness when writing for the test. The verbal reports show attentiveness to written performance as reflected in conscious monitoring:

It makes me think more about how I am writing (P 3).

I am thinking about how I should write (P 9).

I am careful about writing in a correct way (p 2).

I feel more aware now…I think more deep, it is good (P8).

Apparently, the treatment has instilled in the participants the need to seek appropriateness in writing. Concepts like interference and violation of reader's expectation may have resulted in more rigorous performance when handling writing tasks. By extension, the treatment seems to have resulted in allocating more importance to writing as a skill.

Consideration of Reader

The verbal reports denote attention to the writer-reader relationship and how this alters the way a text should be written. Participants demonstrated this awareness by relating specific choices to the expectations of readers and writers alike:

> I try not to repeat because they the Arab writer thinks that he has to repeat think that they need to repeat and that. Here I should not put it because as you said. And I should not start always with the same subject (P 4).
>
> For example here I do not have to repeat the word native speaker because it is not new information….Arab writers repeat because they think the reader will take it is as new information, in English it is not so (P 5).

The extracts above reflect understanding of the importance of meeting readers' expectation when writing. Participants monitored their writing via what the reader anticipates. This sensitivity to reader results from the contrast made in the treatment between reader's expectations. This latter move allowed for more concern for the impact of writing on the recipient, whom participants have come to perceive as a significant variable to cater for.

Contrasting Languages

Contrasting Arabic and English makes another category relatively dominant in the verbal reports. Participants employed this strategy to tighten constituents of English writing and to guard themselves against interference:

> I have written this but I just remembered. In Arabic it is acceptable to use this form but in English it is not, so I have to omit this. I have as it is mentioned in the handout (P8).

> Unlike English, instead of using *and* to express the relationship I have to use the right connector (P9).
>
> In Arabic I can express it this way. I do not have to have the same structure joined with *and*. This is Arabic (P10).

Differentiating the two languages occurred thanks to the emphasis on contrasts made through the treatment, namely as participants borrowed insights from the handouts and from the researcher's explanation of differences and similarities to report their understanding. This is a clear indicative that the performance of students in the prost-test was regulated by what they retained from the treatment:

While all participants display deployment of the treatment variable, they place different emphasis on different aspects dealt with in the experiment. Participants 1 and 5 showed emphasis on the cultural differences which underlie differences in textual mechanisms. In particular Participants 2, 4 and 10 demonstrated use of translation techniques to make appropriate shift. Partiipants 3, 6 and 7 appeared more selective in their choices as they demonstrate awareness of how they should write and when to rely on Arabic. Closely related to the latter category, Participants 8 and 9 reported more distinctions between Arabic and English. Both participants used contrasts as underlying principles throughout the task.

This variation indicates that participants benefited from the treatment in diverse ways. For instance Participant 10 reported more concern with shortening sentence, which corresponds to their improvement along this category. Accordingly, the same subject frequently asked for clarification on this point during the manipulation of the treatment. Such heterogeneity might be explained by the presumption that each participant used to have a specific problem whose solution was offered by the treatment. It could also be suggested that participants could grasp or retain different material from the treatment.

Above all, the verbal reports confirm the idea of transfer: Participants indicated relative resort to Arabic when composing in English. However, it should be emphasized that such a resort to Arabic may have possibly been imposed by the content of the treatment, which seeks to instill consideration of mother tongue Another interesting remark about introspective data is the participants occupation with the treatment in terms of one or two feature which they, possibly, used to find a problem with. This seems to validate test results where participants showed a tendency towards improving considerably in one or two features. This, in turns, initially supports the assumption that improvement in the post-test is lent to the

treatment variable. Results from other research tools would further verify this claim and assess the effectiveness of the course using other measures.

5. Results from the Non-directive Interview

The aim behind using the interview is to draw the respondents to inform of the impact of the treatment on their writing. It is worth reminding that this type of interviewing requires the mere researcher informing the interviewee of the purpose of the interview. Hence, as participants frequently paused, the researcher prompted more data by asking participants to continue reporting the effect the treatment possibly had on them. Rather than grouping insights from data into categories, analysis tends to explore the impact of the treatment on individual participants. Hence, each participant's extract is interpreted on its own so that to account for individual experiences in taking the treatment designed. When relevant, interview data are interpreted in the light of data from other research instruments.

Participant 1 talked about avoidance and selectivity as an effect of the treatment. The latter seems to have have effected a more general consideration of appropriateness and quest for accuracy. It is this state of mind that seems behind this participants' improvement almost at all levels.

> I used to use lots of *and* but after taking the lessons you gave us I started avoiding the words and replacing them. There are some words that we should exclude. Expressions that sound to me just like Arabic expression I try to replace them by English.

Participant 2 related his experience with the treatment to his previous knowledge about the similarities and differences. The knowledge base provided him with other insights on the issue. Interestingly, the subject pointed out that the knowledge is complementary as a variable enhancing L2 writing performance, namely as it makes explicit what students should not demonstrate in their writings:

> I used to rely on reading and get my style from books and novels. But it is not enough. It changed completely my mind. I thought I was doing well but, now I am more aware of the errors because I had this tendency.

In the same vein, Participant 3 emphasized the awareness raising property of the course. Additionally, he implied that the course helped treating his presumption of discourse universality. The same comments can be made on the interview with Participant 5, who centralized error avoidance as effect exerted by the treatment:

> The lesson was so helpful. I think few students know this information. It is like it makes me awake. I did not know that it is Arabic. In fact all what I used to be doing is mistakes and mistakes (P3).

> I learnt to use *and*, and I learnt the bad effects of translation. I also learnt to avoid Arabic…repetition to use the appropriate transitions instead of *and* in Arabic is different from English. There are specific functions of *and*. I am aware of the mistakes (P5).

Participant 4 particularly made an interesting remark about the contribution the treatment has in his writing. According to him, the knowledge supplied the means whereby he can invest, by contrast, his existing competences:

> Now I am free because I can use what I know since I am aware of how to make Arabic English. I am free and I can write more ….It was a point of weakness. You provided us with guidance and good impact on my way of writing.

The above extract shows the participant's investment of translation technique to transform Arabic-generated texts into English composition. This potential, as implied, allows the participant to write more, given the availability of mechanisms whereby existing textual knowledge are adapted.

Participant 6 emphasized the primacy of learning how to avoid Arabic in the process of learning to write. The subject added that before the treatment, he did not use to know how to express certain functions in English:

> I learnt to avoid translating from Arabic. I learnt the exact use of conjunctions. The first thing we should learn. How to avoid Arabic must be the first thing. It is good for production.

Participant 7 pointed to the change he undertook in handling the task of writing. The treatment, accordingly, made it possible to express functions participants know how to express in Arabic:

> I think it is good to know how we should think when we write. Before that I used jut to write like that. I thought it is the same. I used to think that it is enough if I know how to say the Arabic word in my mind in English.

Participant 8 acknowledged that he used to assume universality of discourse prior to receiving the treatment. The same participant raised the issue of acceptability. For him, the knowledge base provides guidance for what is acceptable.

> I knew that not everything is acceptable. There are things we are allowed to use and others we are not allowed to use. Arabic is quite different from English. Now I can write well. I free myself from Arabic.

In fact, intercultural rhetoric to boost acceptability goes in line with Leki's (1991) conclusion. Leki remarks that "the property of contrastive rhetoric is that it consolidates writers' perceptions of what is acceptable as style" (p. 21).

Participant 9 claims that the course helped to differentiate between two languages. This implied that this participant presumes the correctness of transferred L1-based performance. This state can be attributed to fact that learners tend to perceive their existing communicative resources as universal and logic (Petric, 2005). As seen in Chapter 1, this stance is reinforced by a "similarity measure" where partial similarities get generalized as larger, absolute likenesses:

> It was very helpful. The lessons made me aware that things are different in writing. I learnt how to use *and* and that if you use the same structure and join them with and it is not going to serve persuasion because English is different from Arabic.

Participant 10 referred to his awareness of reader's expectation. This property is considered fundamental in the new directions contrastive rhetoric took (see Chapter 2).

> I learnt the correct use of *and*. It is not like Arabic. In general, it helps me to know more the impact of my writing on the reader and how he may interpret the message I am trying to make.

An interesting remark about the interviews is some participants informing of changes whose performance demonstration did not appear in the test. In fact, the unsystematic feature of the non-directive interview, while allowed useful insights to be gathered, resulted in an uncontrolled flow of data. In general, results from the interview embodied attitudinal insights which indicated positive attitudes held towards the treatment and reasserted the causativeness of the treatment variable.

6. **Results from Teachers' Feedback**

In what follows, we present teachers' comments on the course designed. As mentioned earlier, teachers were resorted to for they are assumed to be a valuable source of information in relation to the study. The qualitative analysis yielded several notions: Feedback on the course gave the following categories which we set as organizing principles within which data fall:

Interference as a Problem

In the extracts examined, interference is pointed out as major hindrance to students writing well. Teachers validated the content of the treatment in so far it lays out a number of transfer errors. These latter are indicated by teachers as often recurrent in students' writing:

> I used to see these mistakes in my students…I think this is the main problem (T1).
>
> Interference of Arabic is one of my biggest problems that I could not make my students get rid of (T2).
>
> I used to find a full paragraph without a full stop (T3).

The above extracts imply a statement that the content of the treatment matches what teachers experience in that it reasserts writing problems they often encounter in students' papers. This matching of the treatment emphasizes its utility and relevance.

Utility of the Course

All teachers advanced and presumed the utility of the treatment designed for the current study. They argued that it makes explicit what students should and should not include in their texts. Accordingly, the treatment is qualified to fill the gap of unclear boundaries when it comes to errors and differences:

> Because they use it, you cannot ignore it. It provides examples. It is not enough to say "oh no" or "do not put and" they need to be shown examples like these.They need this material because it raises their awareness (T1).
>
> They should know this is a mistake why it is a mistake and why they should avoid it (T2).
>
> They need it and I do stress on this because one of the conditions of English to avoid thinking in Arabic. We need to show the students how to translate appropriately. I think reference to the mother tongue is unavoidable (T3).
>
> It is really valid because when it comes to English it is very different because students are enslaved by Arabic. It is effective and because they have to feel it. It should not be unconscious...It helps them to write in. English more, I mean it is good to show the equivalence because they think it is the same (T1).
>
> My point is that it is crucial for students to be familiar with such things. This does not only help to avoid some aspects in their texts but to takefrom what they know (T6).

The rationale teachers gave to advance the utility of the course is manifold. A related notion is that the material proposed assists in making student writers uphold discourse specifications. The course is ascribed the potential of raising the awareness of student writers of the transfer phenomena per se and, by extension, of errors resultant from interference of Arabic when composing in English. In so doing, the treatment proposed to caters for factors influencing L2 writing performance Teachers' advocacy makes a logical continuity to their consideration of interference as a major obscurity to their students.

Readiness to Incorporate the Treatment of the Study

Some teachers in particular claimed their readiness to incorporate the treatment designed for the present study, either in their instructions about L2 writing or as feedback on students' extended products:

> I am totally with the idea that we deliver this knowledge in our writing courses (T1).
>
> The handout on cultural contrasts is very informative. I am thinking to use it or to ask my student to give an oral presentation on these issues (T3).

Ignorance of Communicative Differences

While the errors exposed through the course are validated, teachers showed ignorance that these are sourced to interference from Arabic. This confirms Kaplan's earliest observation which gave rise to contrastive and, then, intercultural rhetoric, Teachers tend to assume universality of discourse. The following claims reassert such a claim:

> I used to see these mistakes in my students but I did not know that it is Arabic (T1),
>
> However, teachers need to know that before. Personally, I did not know that some of the incorrect uses have to do with Arabic (T6).

The above state possibly confirms that writing language teachers may, on their parts assume universality of discourse, therefore making few distinctions between what is typical to Arabic and English. In fact, such ignorance of differences from the part of teachers may largely stem from a lack of clear understanding of what languages my influence the choice of students and how:

> I found these errors with my students. I think this is the main problem (T1).
>
> It is fundamental because they think in Arabic and that they are not natives, even if they write… It is innate they just translate word by word they cannot escape Arabic (T2).

Generalizability

As established in the Chapter 4, a sample-based assessment of representativeness of results makes not an aim in the current study: It does not seem valid to generalize findings from conveniently and purposively chosen sample to a larger population which is hardly representative. Additionally, the mixing of paradigms here legitimizes considering emergent insights about generalizability. It is inferred from teachers' feedback that the need for the treatment can be generalized to a larger sample. The following remarks invoke this assumption:

> I used to see these mistakes in my students…I think this is the main problem (T1).
>
> If I have a group of 60, let us say that only seven who can avoid overloading their papers with Arabic (T3).

It could be inferred from the feedback that the treatment may be relevant to a larger population of students learning to write in the Algerian context. Teachers' remarks are understood to concern not only the sample of the current study but an extended number of students.

Generalizability, in this sense, identifies not with applicability of findings to a larger population, for it is unrealistic to expect the same experiences and categories to apply to another set of participants. The study is generalizable in terms of the need for the treatment, which may be experienced and reported in diverse ways. This depends on a multitude of factors: The level of participants; their reaction to the treatment; choice of material; choice of targeted features; manners of assessing the impact of the treatment; and the researcher's engagement with the study and interpretation of findings.

The fact remains that each of the teachers has a way in which to express allegiance by capitalizing on a given aspect over another. Teacher 2 particularly claimed compatibility of the knowledge proposed with students' thinking. That is, since students are interpreters, they need to know how to interpret appropriately. These insights are validated by data from think-aloud protocols. The usefulness of students being made aware of how transfer from Arabic may affect their writing seems central. A further insight by the same teacher is that even students' correct English is largely the result of positive transfer. This matches with the fact that the "efforts of language learners when they write are but concealed translation" (Uwza, 1996, p, 274). The following extract illustrates the focus of Teacher 2:

> It is fundamental because they think in Arabic and that they are not natives, even if they write. They interpret, they need this because it fits them. They should know that this is Arabic and this is English… It is innate, they just translate word by word. They cannot escape Arabic…They should know this is a mistake and why it is a mistake and why they should avoid it… they just translate word by word.

Teacher 3 explains that the knowledge presented allows students to uphold the specifications of English writing especially with reference to a language they are most likely to confuse the latter with. According to her, the problem of students is that they are unaware of the cultural barriers between their L1 and English:

> They need it. I do stress on this because one of the conditions of English is to avoid thinking in Arabic. I used to find a full paragraph without a full stop. If you know the culture you know how to interpret because language is embedded in culture. The handout about cultural contrasts is very informative on how they adapt their culture because communication is considerations of cultural guidelines….We need to show the students how to translate appropriately. I think reference to the mother tongue is unavoidable.

Teacher 4 points to the validity of the course designed. For her, the course is one solution to the problem of Arabic interference as it makes explicit errors and differences students are unconscious about:

> I teach first-year students but they are not as to blame as Master students. It is really valid because when it comes to English it is very different Students are enslaved by Arabic. It is effective and because they have to feel it. It should not be unconscious.

Teacher 5, besides clearly correlating discourse interference with communicative problems, stressed the need for integrating the material in writing module. This shows predisposition to consider data from intercultural rhetoric studies:

> Textual interference between students' target language and their mother tongue may cause unwanted performance, which sometimes, leads to communication problems.

Teacher 6 referred to the general validity of incorporating insights from translation in the teaching of L2 writing. This act, as implied, has the attraction of clarifying specifications and universals:

> It [the course] also uses samples of translated texts to indicate when not to rely on Arabic. This does not only help to avoid some aspects in their texts but to take from what they know.

Implied in teachers' feedback is that students' correct English, while thought of the outcome of understanding of particularities, is largely a case of positive transfer from Arabic. This denotes that the latter Arabic makes a referring point for students. The notion has conformity with Uzwa (1996), who claims that "successful performance in the foreign language is mainly due to sameness between that language and the learner' L1" (p. 275). This is, in fact, an indicator of the need for the treatment. In fact, teachers have validated all the preconceptions underpinning the conduct of the study.

Seemingly, the impressions and insights held by teachers signal alignment for the course designed. In other words, teachers qualify the content as valid and as important to impart to students learning to write in their context. The course is assigned a number of attractions such as raising awareness of transfer error and providing students with mechanism whereby they avoid errors and exploit their existing knowledge.

Results lent support to the hypothesis which advanced the effectiveness of presenting intercultural rhetoric data to students' learning to compose in English in the Algerian context. These data concern the English-Arabic pair of languages, for—as pre-studied and encountered in the current research—students demonstrate ostensive markers of Arabic rhetoric. Such a support features in several respects: The decrease in the use of the targeted features for the EXP group's post-treatment test as compared to three baselines of performance; the causativeness of the treatment variable as evident in introspective data; the emphasis of course impact on participants as demonstrated through interview data, and the allegiance teachers expressed to the course, either implicitly, where a number of attractions are allocated, or explicitly, as teachers advocate the need for the course. Besides fostering the reliability of the results of the study, the multifaceted support of the hypothesize grant conclusiveness to the conclusion drawn.

2. Limitations of the Study

Results revealed validation of the hypothesis tested in this study. Introducing instructions in intercultural rhetoric proved to be effective in a number of ways. Yet, sampling, procedural and methodological decisions may challenge the assumptions behind that judgment. The following limitations of the study are identified.

The primary limitation relates to the validity of the research project in relation to existing literature. In fact, the knowledge base proposed in the study may have some of its components addressed in translation modules students may have as part of their syllabus. Yet, this module seems to be for its own sake, while, in our approach, translation is a bridge tip to writing competence. Informal talks with translation teachers suggest that rhetorical equivalence does not seem to receive enough attention.

It should be noted that the participants' desire to meet certain expectation has been partly pervasive. The content of the experiment as well as participants awareness of the scheme of the study has given signs for wanted results. Hence, the participants, who often seemed sympathetic, may have offered data to satisfy the researcher's consent.

Sampling might have affected reliability of the results. At the start, the number of participants was 24. Later, we could ensure but 10 participants in the EXP group. This led to consider only ten students in the CTR group. Indeed, it was difficult for the researcher to find a common time for gathering all the participants at once without interference with their study time that some sessions were held in a campus library. Many of the participants could not afford to attend the sessions at their appointed time, and hence the researcher had to reteach the materials to absentees several times. Another limitation in view of the sample is that of gender: Recent studies on transfer (see Stapa, 2011) reveal that female learners transfer more than males. Clearly, this variable has not been considered in our sampling. It is worth noting that having the participants alleged that they read extensively may not have been reliable information revenue.

Limitations also featured in the manipulation of the treatment as well. Effectively, the participants seemed to need more consolidation of the material. This follows that, frequently, most of them could not remember the material presented in class and when interviewed. The time between the manipulation of the treatment and the implementation of the research instrument is large enough to cast some doubt over reliability of the results. As for content, the course would have been more representative of development in intercultural rhetoric in case a corpus was used to support claims about preferred patterns. While corpus evidence was used to verify assertions about English rhetoric, this was not done comparatively with Arabic. One main challenge to this was that corpora which represent the English used by Arabic-speaking users, like the Michigan Corpus of Academic Written English, do not provide

comparable corpus of academic English used by native speakers. This made it hard to back up all the claims about rhetorical differences with frequency-based information.

Further downsides appear in the way the research instruments were implemented. For the test, it could be because of multiplicity of targeted features that the participants did or did not use certain features in their writing. Accordingly, the participants could have grasped materials rather than the ones tested. That the CTR group demonstrated an in-double- use of the targeted features may cast doubt over the construct validity of the test. Moreover, the fact of test conditions not being the same may have affected reliability of the results, following that "test conditions need to be identical for both phases of the experimental research" (Carr, 2011, p. 151).

The class discussion should have been more systematic than the way it has been conducted. As for the think-aloud technique, it was demanding for the researcher to render participants aware of what they have to do. Reporting thoughts while performing a task was unfamiliar that the need for prior practice was necessary. It was necessary for the researcher to ask some probing questions. The researcher's non-involvement in how the task should be processed is more defensible than directions which prompt particular processes. Concerning the interview, the respondents did not have the same stimulus. The interviewees may not have known what the point is. Thus, the researcher may not have collected data purely relevant to the purpose of the study. As Carr (2011) concludes, the drawbacks of the non-directive interview is that there are no directions to adhere to.

Another limitation relates to the likelihood of inconsistency of the course designed with the systematic model of IR. Actually, the course designed lacks presentation of findings of contrastive studies of relativization, reading process and thematic progression. Though we made the participants aware of some contrasts in the writing pedagogy of Arabic and English, this element should have been more informative. This non-accountability of the course designed is due to time constrains, in the sense that the process of course designed coincided with the conduction of the study.

Limitations of the study lie in the sample being not representative, the treatment requiring more consolidation, and the research tools lacking accurate implementation. However, the above mentioned limitations, while casting some doubts, do not downplay the hypothesis governing this work.

8. Conclusion

The chapter presented and discussed the data resultant from the conduct of the research design. Findings confirm the effectiveness of the course designed, and hence gave support to the hypothesis tested throughout the present study The while-experiment data gathered from the class discussion legitimized the empirical move, namely as participants showed unfamiliarity with the material negotiated. This rendered the idea that the participants need the treatment more worthy of testing. In effect, comparison of test results showed that the EXP group participants used less negative rhetorical transfer as compared to three baselines: Their performance in the pre-treatment test and the performance of the CTR group in both tests. Accordingly, think-aloud data related such improvement to the manipulation of the treatment. Qualitative analysis of think-aloud utterances and the non-directive interviewing not only indicated causal correlation between the treatment and test results, but displayed the positive effects of the treatment. Feedback from the teachers consulted in the study did grant more plausibility to the tested hypothesis given the credits presumed of the course. While a number of limitations arise, these do not seem to discredit the effectiveness of incorporating intercultural rhetoric data in the teaching of L2 writing.

Chapter Six: Implications and Further Research

1. Introduction

Establishing the relevance of the present work, this chapter examines the implications and recommendations pertinent to the theory and practice making up the study. Because the implications of the study are likewise multi-layered, and to fully address the stretch of the study across several modes of decision making, it is taken to categorize the applications along the four components said to construe the language pedagogy enterprise: The ideological, ideational, operational, and managerial component. The other part recommends further research, advancing a rationale for enquiries with direct and indirect relatedness to the work. In so doing, the researcher exploits the analytic and empirical data to identify sound and context-sensitive ideas for research.

Before we venture on a discussion of what implication this work puts forth, we need to address the very basic premise. Indeed, this work predicated upon two major advocacies: The centrality of mother tongue in SLA and the writing-translation analogy. This hypothesis was tested through examining the effect of IR on rhetorical, compositional transfer. Hence, the study recommends certain understandings relevant to practitioners, applied linguists, researchers, and other constituents of the language teaching industry.

2. Components of Language Teaching

Findings of the study do pose repercussions on multiple components of language pedagogy. To invariably define and locate these recommendations, we project the data obtained on the established four components of language pedagogy. After Prabhu (1995), the enterprise of language education operates in four interlocking dimensions, each discharging a particular role in its construal. The ideational components relates to the conception of language competence with the practices of teaching. It involves "a conceptualization of what it is it that enables a person to use a language and how he/she develops that ability" (Prabhu 1995, p. 59). An ideation of second language would also indicate what variables significantly enhance or impede learning. In so functioning, the ideational component derives from theories of first and second language acquisition. The followings are examples of what it is to set an ideation of language learning:

> It is possible to think of a language as a large set of words and variously sized expressions, more or less rigidly constructed. It is also possible to think of a learner's mind receiving, perhaps repeatedly, a steadily increasing number of these expressions, and storing them such that they are generally available for recall at will, given appropriate stimulus. One can also think of different people achieving different degrees of accuracy or efficiency in storing and recalling words, or of the same person successfully achieving higher levels of accuracy, thus accounting for learners' errors and learning progress….An alternative conception of language competence is that it is rule governed, no58t a reproduction of stored expressions or habitual actions (Prabhu, 1995, p. 58).

Embodying the practical manifestation of the ideational component, the operational component relates to the pedagogical action relatively derived from the respective ideation. However, "it does not embrace all those pedagogical decisions called for in teaching but only those that relate to, and interact with, the ideational component" (Prahbu, 1995, p. 59). One example is explicit attention to grammar rules said to be leading to a mental representation of these rules. The managerial component is about decisions governing the planning and conduct of teaching. These involve specifications at different levels (Prabhu, 1995).

2.1 Ideological Implications

In terms of the ideological component, thinking L1 use in L2 learning would not be granted fitting ground without the very ideological inclination to students' mother tongue. Primarily, if we accept the constructivist nature of learning, then we would not deny the utility of L1 use in L2 learning. In this study, this utility featured in the very issue of transfer and in the effectiveness of the treatment which makes use of students' L1 in various manners (transfer errors, translation, contrasting texts and cultures, negotiating students' L1 in the classroom, etc). Though undeniably valuable, its practice has been being subsumed by the apparent hegemony of an English-only ELT industry, which Phillpson (1992) explicates as "the implicit and explicit values, beliefs, purposes, and activities which characterize the ELT profession" (p.73). Philipson explains that these values further stress the dominance of English through propagating the monolingual ELT enterprise, carving out a fallacy that an English-only approach is most effective and fashionable. This discourse falls under the scope of the construct of linguistic imperialism:

> Speakers of dominant languages, such as English or French, tend to see the expanded use of their languages as unproblematic. Terminology such as "language spread" or "language death contribute to a mythology of these social changes being attributable to agent-less natural forces (Philipson, 1992, p. 239).

The maintenance suggests the discard of students' L1 both in theory and practice, on the presumption that previously learnt languages hinder the acquisition of new ones as they constitute an irrelevant system. Philipson also adds that this fallacy lines up with a wide-ranging resentment of teachers with knowledge on student's mother tongue.

While the case against students' L1 is said to crystallize in the 1960s, a much more popular pronouncement lies in Krashen's monitor model. Krashen asserts that the mechanisms governing are developmental, reflecting a process of progression through stages and errors. Hence, L2 and L1 acquisition are held to follow the same natural path, reflected in a sequence of acquisition demonstrated in first and second language acquisition.

The attainment of such a state, Krashen argues, conditions the provision of a suitable input: A comprehensible input which contains a proposition embedded in a structure succeeding that the learner knows (i+1). Thus, Krashen advances the provision of i+1 under low filter to be the guiding principle of L2 learning and teaching. The popularity and 'soundedness' of this claim effected abundance of L1 in L2 classes, sparking more impressions of irrelevance and needlessness. As a result of this continuous discard, the practice and theory of language teaching has been being characterized by resentfulness to mother tongue in a language classroom.

In alignment with advocacies of Philipson (1992), and other pioneering critical applied linguists such as Penycook (1995), this work expresses allegiance to construction upon L1 as a way to teach and learn L2.That L1 use in the classroom has been being approached with diffidence marks the ideological pervasiveness of ELT, as pitfalls may arise from an only English industry as well. Students' mother tongue embodies a linguistic and conceptual platform. Such a continuously empowered epistemology has been so rooted in the minds of practitioners and strikingly resilient to change despite proposals highlighting its attraction (Cook, 2011). One major result is teachers' resentfulness of students' mother tongue despite sound pedagogic proposals. Accordingly, an L1-based lapse or mistake happens with other sources of deviance towards a refined state of interlanguage. Besides reflecting unawareness, the not–thinking-in-Arabic formula bears a discard of one's available resources because of the prestige value presumed of non-local capital. Now how can thinking in Arabic be avoided while this language is the very mechanism whereby our conception develops? Doesn't mother tongue offer parallels, analogies and frames of reference that assist in stepping into the target language? How can learners avoid thinking in Arabic while they

know not how thinking in English looks like? Why is it that Arabic is to be avoided while it is, paradoxically, a component of the schemata students are often asked and directed to activate?

In our study, the data suggest that it is reference to Arabic that assisted participants in disentangling the rhetoric of English, especially that resort to Arabic per se has been reported—by students and teachers alike—to be an efficient composing strategy. As indicated in the data, negotiating contrast and errors, with illustrations, led to awareness and more regulation in task fulfillment. The quest for the effect of our treatment involved scrutinizing the beliefs and attitudes of teachers and students towards L1 use, a stratum of research apparently neglected in this body of literature. Feedback and interview data implicated strong allegiance for the treatment. This lines up with findings of large-scale studies reporting greater preference for L1 use. Irrespective of how groundswell the case against L1 use in the classroom, the learner's existing competences need to be exploited.

2.2 Ideational Implications

We have to start with certain banalities: The learner's learning course witnesses an alternate of correct and incorrect uses. These incorrect uses are not to be forgotten faults, for they can tell how much of the target language the learner knows as opposed to what is actually done. This premise is evident in Swain's output hypothesis:

A deviance in Krashen's conception of resources for acquisition resides in the disregard of output, or "practicing", in the process. Swain (1995) writes: "It has been argued that output is nothing more than a sign for the acquisition that has taken place, and that it serves no useful role in second language acquisition except as self-input" (p. 125). The output hypothesis (see Swain, 1993, 1995) suggests that producing language enhances fluency. This "seems not controversial, particularly if it is not confused with the adage that practice makes perfect" (Swain, 1995, p. 125). It is hypothesized that output fosters the angle of accuracy in language acquisition through the activation of noticing, meaning that in producing language, learners notice and perhaps inspect the functioning of both their output and themselves as they generate it. This implies that a conscious knowledge of the language—whose sources Krashen confines in the input found in formal instruction—may stem from the activity of producing. Adding to this, output, particularly erroneous one, signals that the learner has formulated a hypothesis identified with a particular stage of interlanguage development. It is my contention that learners, in producing language, intend to display their state in the language for possible

feedback more that the intention to use language for communication. The validity of Swain's criticism features as Krashen—in a 'revision' of the model—argues :

> When we are about to say something in another language, the sentence directly pops to our mind, thanks to our subconsciously acquired competence. Then just before we produce the sentence, just before we say it, we scan it internally, inspect it, and use our consciously learned competence to correct errors. Sometimes we realize that something we say is incorrect and we self-correct using our conscious Monitor [emphasis added] (Krashen, 2013, p. 2).

Swain (1993) states that producing a language allows learners to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing. It follows from this that Krashen's advocacy for the emergence of speaking may lack accuracy, since production requires a process of syntacticalization which, Krashen himself qualifies as not involved in comprehension, and therefore not prevalent in 'acquisition'. The demand for the shift to syntactic processing features more in Chaudron's (1985) distinction of *preliminary intake*, the mechanisms used for converting input into stored data and *final intake*, wherein stored data are organized into linguistic units. In other words, it is plausible to advocate that output assists in such a shift. Later, however, Krashen denies output any potential for acquisition:

> According to the Comprehension Hypothesis, we acquire language by input, and not by output. Thus, more output, more speaking will not result in more acquisition. If you speak French to yourself out loud every morning, while driving to work, your French will not improve. Rather, the ability to speak is the result of acquisition, not the cause (Krashen, 2013, p. 03).

However, teachers and students alike are likely to consider errors as signs for failure. It is this stereotype that, I would say, leave learners to drag behind the fallacy that L1 is a mere source of deviant forms, where the learner becomes diffident to initiate based on mother tongue. My experience in teaching oral skills suggests that learners feel ashamed of getting 'enslaved' by mother tongue, even if the transferred knowledge assists in the correct production of the target language.

However, there exists the possibility of attention being diverted to errors more than to other equally significant aspect of teaching and of language. I shall say that emphasis on errors would yield an unwanted consciousness and over-monitoring of performance, halting the automatization of output by leaving learners occupied with accuracy. Yet, this should not be taken to mean that errors are to be tolerated.

As an ideation of learning the data reassert the centrality of transfer. Whether negative or positive, this latter suggests that mother tongue is a vital factor implicated the act of learning, and hence warrants correspondingly significant theoretical and practical catering Clearly, presuming universality of discourse makes a major obstacle to mastery of adequate rhetorical performance.

Transfer relatively underlies L2 learning and use. Whether students transfer relates to the L1-L2 differences or to the partial difference which leads learners to perceive and extend their repertoires. Other factors include the similarity measure perception, extensive reading, L2 proficiency, and the perceived L1-L2 distance (*psychotypology*). While there are supports for an L1-independent conception of L2 learning, the prevalence of interference errors reasserts a relative transfer-L2 learning connection. While this takes different forms across theories of language and learning in general. a more plausible view is to regard L1 as a factor—among many others—helping the construal of interlanguage. The transfer of one's mother tongue can take the form of established manners of shifting the style between the formal and the informal in learners' L1, resulting in similar perception about when and how to shift style according to context and encounters.

2.3 Managerial and Operational Implications

Insights from the study have bearings on assessment policies, specifically in terms of the identification of construct definitions. This is namely as whether performance or curricula-related tests draw on transfer theories and research. Avoidance of transfer errors, I shall say, makes a significant construct definition of language performance. Hence, it would be fitting to consider transfer errors in assessment and to set out to see whether testees differentiate between their mother tongue and the target language.

The ability for students to differentiate positive from negative transfer offers itself an important indicative of mastery. Possibly, translation may be used as a way to foster understanding of similarities and differences. Transfer errors may be used as distracters in multiple-choice questions, or testees may be asked to spot errors from relatively extendedg passages containing interference errors. The incorporation of components would increaze the reliability of tests as they reflect the performance of testees in the light of interference. Transfer errors or erroneous translation can be made as distracters to key answers in different test formats. Alternatively, testees may be asked to spot errors from extended passages or to translate to and from their mother tongue.

Adaptation to the rhetoric of the target language makes one indicative of students' competence, and hence positions as a goal in language education more or less of the same kind as grammar and vocabulary. As reviewed in Chapter 2, expressing allegiance to CR, Enkvist—one of Kaplan's harshest critics—alleges: "Learning a foreign language does not only involve learning sounds, words and syntax, but also its characteristic patterns of building up discourse, telling a story and presenting and attacking an argument" (1997, p. 189). Another attraction of the approach is its ability to piece up together fields that have long existed separately, in this case applied linguistics and rhetoric, to construe a new, quite generative area of enquiry. Such fusion opens up researchable areas, namely students' persuasive writing and cultural contrasts in the nature of rhetoric. Hence assessment policies should allocate relative scale to rhetoric and find ways of incorporating its manifestations in rubrics and bench marking. Generally, students should be made aware of the need to acquire the rhetoric of the target language.

Rather than assessing knowledge of translation techniques as the standard apparently goes in, testing the ability to devise equivalence would further exploit translation for the L2 learning. This intended construct would impose on students' acquaintance with communicative norms of the source and target language, since translating a text requires and implicates intercultural competence. By the same token, the learner attempting to use the target language basically undergoes the same intercultural experience, with the mother tongue relatively embodying a source text. Hence a translation test purports not only to assess translation for its own sake but functions to tell how much of the target language the learner knows, what transfer errors are demonstrated, and whether different aspects are differentiated. All this is evident in the adaptations and changes, or shifts, the learner—performing the role of the translator—brings to the source text. This treatment of the source text reveals what is changed or preserved and, by extension, the extent to which the peculiarities of the target language are known.

Closely related to assessment is the way in which decisions about feedback are made, The fact that transfer is inevitable suggests considering this kind of errors when giving feedback on learners' performance. Supposedly, feedback on transfer errors may come either implicit or explicit. When implicit—and this goes more with advanced learners-it is expected to enhance students to autonomously explore further errors and find out other similarities and differences. Imparting this knowledge could be in a form of information-oriented feedback. It

is recommended that negotiation of errors follows tasks and assignment, for, when being at the outset of instruction, it may dampen risk taking, which is essential for language learning.

Efficient language education practices largely tie up with thorough understanding of the conditions for language competence: How languages are learnt; what process are involved in language learning; what variables exert a deal of influence on the rate and route of learning; and how these variables enhance or impede the attainment of a specifically underlined expectations. The apparent centrality of the transfer variable poses the need for acquaintance with the transfer-SLA relationship. In fact, literature does suggest that transfer makes a much more decisive variable, one that overrides the operation and involvement of learning styles and strategies.

Another implication drawn from the insights above could be that language assessment itself may not be a reliable notion. Not only could language tests be imperfect or contain few measurement errors. Due to the dynamism of language and the multiplicity of variables underlying its state, there emerges great likelihood of measurement inconsistency. This follows that the situation in which testees are tested could not be real, nor could they be representative of the implicit, authentic and automatic performance. In fact, language tests scores seem to inform of an artificial, controlled situation given the psychological irrational requirement.

Many pedagogic proposals have been made regarding learners' errors, but one that is of paramount significance to the perception of learners making—and not committing—errors is that errors are a necessary part of learning, markers of guesses and hypoprocess of hypothesis testing learners. A main difference between the L1 speaker and the L2 learner, Norrish (1983) asserts, "is that the learner already knows another language" (p. 10). The very prevalence of errors, thus, comes to indicate that learning is present, with the learner actively formulating hypothesis out of preconceived rules and creatively exploiting their preexisting competences by some sort of application and analogy. Such conception imposes important repercussions not only on practitioners, who seem to be cut by having both accuracy and communicative ability, but also by text book designers who can minimize the tension. This application does not exclude the role of the learner with regard to errors. Resentment of errors, hence, reflects unawareness of the process of learning.

An error being necessary for learning presupposes a corresponding treatment. When making errors, learners are better looked at as initiating the act of learning, attempting to construct utterances in order to communicate in the being-acquired system. As concern with errors halts production and result in over-concern with accuracy, deviant performance has to be somewhat tolerated so that to solicit production and relieve learners of the pressure of assessment. Adding to this, reflections on the learner's state of errors will render pertinent decisions on the kind of reinforcement and remedy needed, especially that learners' error repertoire is unpredictable, and hence pre-planned decisions on remedy may not be on sound basis.

3. Further Research

Both reading for, and conducting this research raised curiosity about issues with varying directness to the present work. The transfer concept suggests that the language learner enters with preconception immune to change by instruction. By the same token, factors like gender, personality and self-esteem may equally exert a relative influence on learners' L2 output. How these factors affect learning makes pertinent proposals for research. In what follows, I display assumptions about the connection between those variables and L2, which may stimulate verifying or interventional studies.

A salient feature of language is its unlikelihood to be defined in terms of multiple frames of reference. Language, instead, implicates almost indefinite dynamism that lies in the totality of cognitive, social, psychological and neurological variables. Accordingly, to say that language education has to be treated the same way as other domains is to deny the specifications featuring language. This stems from the fact that the pedagogy governing particular subject might not be adequate for language education. In what follows, we seek to construct a framework of the factors shaping learners' language performance by drawing a link between those factors and the construct definitions of language. Because our study was partially motivated by the transfer-SLA connection, it is worth giving a stimulating overview on how SLA gets connected with factors other than mother tongue.

Gender Effect

Intensity of activity in the language-related areas with females implies their linguistic advantage over males (Xia, 2013). Indeed, to say that activity is higher within lobes of word

sound, word meaning and spelling is to acknowledge predisposition for faster semantic representation, thereby for higher listening and listening skills.

By extension, not only does difference in gender signal discrepancy in language ability, it does rather present diversity in ways of responding to modality of assessment: while females achieve better when tested on the same sensory they have been presented the information with, males are said to perform well when tested on a modality reversing the information has come within (Xia, 2013).

The ability to relieve foreign language anxiety represents one way in which correlation between language use and gender occurs. What this really means is that just as anxiety stems from the pressure of having to perform several cognitive tasks at once, and occupation with self-perception, it is this multi-tasks property that females are characterized by most.

The multi-task property allows females to adopt the *parallel mode* of information processing, where both comprehension and production occurs simultaneously. On the other scale, the absence of this property for males forces them to resort to *serial mode* when encountering comprehension tasks (Xia, 2013). This mode suggests utterances having to be processed in a sequential manner, with one having to complete one stage before moving to another, which poses comprehension difficulties given speed of speech. Irrespective of multi-task property, females tend to demonstrate self-control at stress time. This justifies why females take risks while males struggle with stuttering.

Researchers may wish to validate the above assumptions through examining—either descriptively or experimentally—correlations between gender issues and language learning. Findings would have interesting repercussions on the four concepts and conducts of the language teaching enterprise.

Memory Effect

Deficient language ability may originate mainly from limitations on memory capacity. This simply follows that the mechanisms underlying language processing and production are memory-related (Baddeley, 2003).

Initially, what seems to define language ability as memory capacity most is the property of integrating parts into wholes. The latter mechanism assists in identifying the meaning of multi-words utterances by relating the meaning of early parts of speech to later

ones for a unit of thought. Limitation on working memory entails difficulties abstracting main ideas as this requests giving one all-embracing concepts to details. Then, inability to integrate ideas is said to pose difficulties identifying what referring pronouns stand for in solving reading or listening tasks (Baddeley, 2003).

Permanent memory, on the other scale, does contain the set of stored lexicon and transform the input into *intake*, an individual's static linguistic repertoire. In this sense, it is limitation in permanent memory that explains learners failing to capture utterances they have repeatedly encountered. It seems worth noting that language tasks assuming availability of previous content could be unreliable, for what may appear as linguistic deficiency might be matters of recalling experiences (Baddeley, 2003)).

Self-esteem Effect

It is my contention that no behaviour implicates self-esteem as does speaking in a foreign language. In fact, handling language tasks requires risk-taking and initiation, all prerequisite to the attainment of adequate performance, thereby raising students' confidence.

Another way in which self-esteem matters is the link it has with creativity which, in turns, governs the spontaneous language performance (Rubio, 2007). Learners with lower self-esteem tend to resort to memorization as compensatory strategy, for they do not see themselves able to create and regenerate utterances. It seems worthy to note to the possible misinterpretation that low self-esteem, while being a psychological state, may be looked at as indicative of poor language performance.

Personality Effect

Given likelihood of correlation between personality and the type of language written or spoken, an assessment of, for instance, speaking may not be a measure of ability as much as it is a measure of extrovert personality. This follows that the latter seems strictly associated with speaking (Sharp, 2008). Extrovert learners, on the other ground, are said and noticed to assume transferability of speech into writing, meaning the possible inadequacy of written tasks (Hyland, 2003).

The manner in which personality status poses limitations on assessment is not confined in considering the latter at the time of making decisions about learners. More disconcern with the issue is assumed in the prevailing practices, where teachers tend to allocate marks to construct-irrelevant component. The inadequacy lies in the learners losing or

getting grades for personality position. At another level, that participation is allocated a grade may threaten consistency of measurement in so far the construct is language ability. This follows that participation may not be as natural and real-time as the domain in which participation is considered may not be relevant.

There are fundamental differences between teaching language and teaching a subject such as geography, to the extent that this legitimizes calling for a corresponding pedagogic platform. Language is not a set of facts to be learnt, but a medium of expression that ties up with internal and external factors. One of the salient features of language as a subject is that the performance does not stem from instruction, for learners´ performance appears immune to regulation by instruction. Hence, the tactic of testing what is taught does not seem to cope with the features of language education. It is pertinent to advance that failure to learn results from, among many things, subsuming language education under the same rules and expectations the pedagogy of other subjects is governed by. The figure below shows the factors uniquely implicated in language learning.

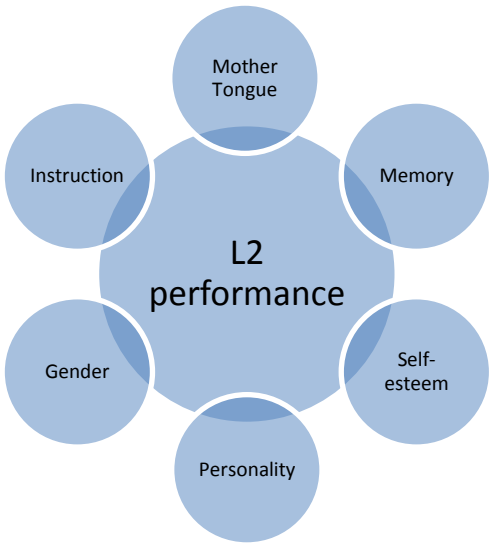


Figure 6.1 Factors affecting L2 performance (source: original).

In the light of the above insights, it might be plausible to challenge the assumption that language, like many other entities in education, is altered by instructions. The specifications of language, yet, make the latter warrant pedagogic peculiarities Main of these is the unlikelihood of correlation between teaching and learning outcome, which rather stems from the much more determiners mentioned above. In other words, instructions may not exert the same influence on the targeted features, therefore, should not be assumed as a variable with

reference to which language performance is manipulated. This, as seen, follows that it is the status of gender, personality and memory capacity that exert a great deal of influence on the patterns which could be under assessment. This view downplays assumptions of tests having to contain what has been taught, for the type of learning instilled by instructions presents an artificial, intangible environment that may not involve, for instance, memory reinforcement or a raising of learners' self-esteem. The result, therefore, is an unnecessary relation between learning outcomes and instructions.

As the standard went in the present research, an examination of how these variables relate to ELT seems insightful. In part, this may be done descriptively, where the correlation between existing variables is scrutinized. Examples may include investigating the effect of gender on a definable aspect of language performance; the link between personality trait and given linguistic preferences or errors. This kind of research would help understand how SLA is largely governed by factors other than instruction, unless this latter incorporates ways of catering for these variables. Alternatively, such research can be done experimentally, where the researcher manipulates a treatment bearing the independent variable. To illustrate, tips for enhancing working memory used as a treatment for a definable language performance.

3.1 Composition Research

L 2 composition remains a fertile area of research, one that offers varied opportunities for feasible scrutiny so that to further illuminate the teaching and learning of L2 writing. Arguably, because speaking legitimately consumes the attention of researchers and language teachers, there exists a limited pedagogic interest reflected in L2 research being largely influenced by L1-based enquiry. This denies L2 writing peculiarities that could benefit L2 student writers who may face different challenges. Hence, it remains valid and empirically sound to conduct L2 composition research, especially the kind which properly looks at the issues emergent from learning to write in a second language, focusing on issues such as factors impeding learners' composition capacity, assessment of writing competence, students´ attitudes towards writing as a skill, and the relationship between written output and other variables. Possibly, researchers may set to investigate individual differences in writing, an issue granted little attention in L2 composition research. These would, first, bring into focus the skill of writing as no-less important indicative of mastery and, second, direct pedagogic decisions.

3.2 Transfer Research

The controversies characterizing language transfer pertinently entails rigorous investigation that seeks to tighten the perspectives implicated in the transfer-SLA interplay. These involve how transfer affects interlanguage construction, when students transfer most, whether similarities difficulties, how the deeply rooted L1 system interacts with the being learnt system, and what transfer errors are characteristic of a group of learners with definable profile. As for language transfer, it seems insightful to deeply investigate and elaborate on transfer as a significant SLA variable, addressing the issues implicated in the notion and putting the significance of these under empirical investigation.

Accordingly, while the present work involves an attempted to inform of the transfer state of rhetorical errors for Algerian EFL learners, this was not done on sound basis. The lack of precision—either in terms of the nature of errors or in terms of their ranking—stems from the very limited size of data which can hardly compile a representative corpus. Therefore, more rigorous, dedicated work is required to account for the erroneous behaviour typical of Algerian EFL learners who, presumably, differ in kind. In doing so, a larger corpus needs to be compiled, representing the English writing of Algerian students. This would allow for pertinent identification for error types and frequencies. Adding to this, concordancing software would make it possible to illustrate and support claims on language use. All this would be of greater benefit to the language teaching industry at large: Teachers may predict what difficulties would be encountered by students, and textbooks may carve out ways providing reinforcement and remedy for problematic encounters.

3.3 Intercultural Rhetoric Research

By definition, IR makes a research enterprise with identifiable goals and methods. As clearly outlined in Chapter 2, IR incorporates insights from feeder areas of research to understand and help the teaching of L2 composition. The expansion of the field follows from developments in linguistics and language teaching, all leading to a refined view of factors implicated in L2 writing. This understanding gets escalated into tenets governing research orientations, each meant for a unique contribution. However, unlike traditional CR, which examines contrasts in textual mechanism, IR is a relatively new area of research.

3.3.1 Ethnography of Texts

Among the many possible factors held to shape the text end-product, ethnographic research seems pertinent in highlighting the social impinging on text construction. The established norm within ethnographic epistemology is that text is a social entity. Within this particular understanding, researchers may operate to expose how texts are socially stratified and what factors are involved in this stratification. In so doing, researchers may use ethnographic methods. Connor (2004) suggests that the "answers about similarities and differences can emerge from ethnographic, observational and other qualitative studies, done either simultaneously or after the textual comparison" (p. 300).

Research may be put forth to examine the academic culture of schools, which embodies a way in which the social stratification of a text can take place. Schools—whether public or private—come to typify cultures that are important source to how writers compose their texts. The connection between school and writing stems from the fact that the former is an institutional activity, embodying a learner's secondary discourse, with the primary discourse being the local, socializing medium. Therefore, research into the academic culture of schools, programs, and universities would tell of what attainments students are expected to reach. In Chapter 2 we have reviewed how the *chi-cheng-zhang-he* sequence originates in the academic culture of China. Another example is the connection made between the problem-solution sequence and the academic culture thriving in the West as characterized by emphasis on writing accurately, note taking and sound critical thinking. As seen, these academic scripts relate to a more general socio-cultural mentality where, as Wain-chin (2007) explains, Confucian traditions make a factor behind the disdainfulness of originality in China. As shown in Koch (1983), correlations might be drawn between given preferences and established social and historical norms, between parallelism and the persistence of orality in Arab culture, between writers' expectation and the kind of argumentation, and between an absence of scrutiny and a hierarchical society.

Possibly following these modes of correlating entities, research on academic culture can produce illuminating results. Such a kind of research would look at how the academic culture regulates pedagogic decision and the nature of instruction, teachers' expectation, learner's performance, and modes of assessment. At the same time, the latter elements might in themselves be used as data for understanding a school's academic culture. Advancing a methodology for the conduct of this research, Atkinson (2000) concludes that "ethnographic

methods are the most effective approaches for examining educational institutions from a cultural perspective". Therefore, as research methods, researchers may employ ethnographic research approach, which suggests the use of interviews and observation.

To illustrate how data inform of academic culture, let us mention the case of Atkinson and Ramanathan's (1995) study, where teacher's feedback is elicited to study the academic culture underlying two writing. Below is a sample of the data elicited in that study.

COGENCY: You should probably consider the fact that Benetton's ads are not very effective in the U.S. Further, you need to be more convincing as to how Benetton appeals to the "upper class."
SUPPORT: Provide further insight into how the company's ads are effective! Don't just describe what the ads do.
GENERAL COMMENTS AND GRADE: Good start. You need to be sure you're aware of the other side. Anticipate questions and argue for why you are right. It seems that you end up simply describing the company's goals. [Grade:] C. [WC1][4]

Figure 6.2 Investigating academic culture through teachers' feedback (Atkinson & Ramanathan, 1995).

From the above data Atkinson and Ramanathan concluded that, in terms of course objectives, the CUP centralizes developing a sound writing process and fostering critical thinking. On another scale, "observation of class sessions reveals that teachers consistently prodded students to deeply think on the topic and consider both sides of the issue…Teachers' feedback on performance reflects a foregrounding of these points (p. 542). Equally grounded in the dada is the fact that there exists a conviction that "the most convincing form of persuasive/argumentative essay is not always the direct one" (Atkinson & Ramanathan, 1995, p. 551).

The inherent values, the two authors further analyzed, originate in insightfulness and thoughtfulness assumed of literate societies. These skills are assumed to be already there in a society. Therefore, it is held that "teachers teaching critical thinking de novo may be providing mainstream students with opportunities for rehearsal and refinement based on competences the latter have been acquiring all their lives Atkinson and Ramanathan (1995, p 556).

Atkinson and Ramanathan further went to infer how writing is perceived within the community in which the examined programes operate. They posit that the program culture reflects a more general understanding of writing as a skill. The latter is said to be "viewed and practiced not so much as a mode of communication or information inscription, but rather as a tool for intellectual exploration, an avenue for debate and dialectic and even an instantiation of democratic principles" (p. 551).

The same methodology can more or less be used to uncover the oft-implicit academic culture thriving in schools, universities and programmes. Potentially, ethnographic research would expose the expectations of teachers and educationalist. At the same time, this research would examine the consistency between underlined objectives and their execution, thereby informing of the extent to which teachers stick, or are supposed to stick to certain objectives, It would also explicate how writing—and perhaps other language skills—implicates culture. In other words; literacy research would refine perceptions of making a proper connection between language and culture by establishing which cultural scripts are relevant to the teaching of language (see Figure 6.3).

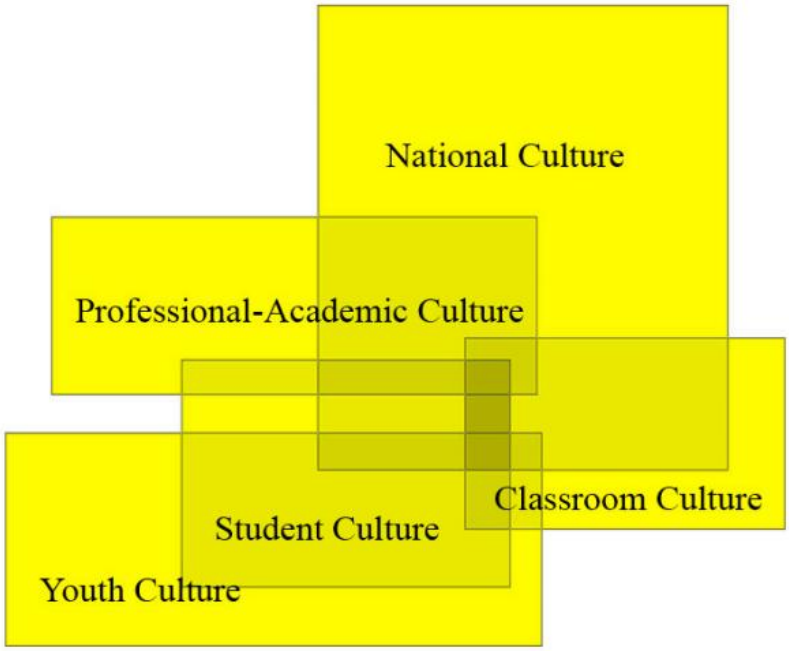


Figure 6.3 Interacting cultures in educational setting (Connor, 2005).

It is fundamental to understand whether and to what extent the academic culture takes from other forms of culture. This meta-cultural analysis would help relating schools to social parameters, and hence raise the awareness of the links between society and education in

general, thereby meeting the IR principle of tightening which culture is relevant to students' performance.

Specifically, research may be put forth to investigate variations in constituents of good writing. Difference in intended outcomes poses diverse writing output across cultures. Hence, properties of good writing are culturally defined standards, relatively reflecting a community's cultural orientations escalated into objectives in school programs Accordingly, Conner (1997, p. 115) states that "it is not enough to define what will be expected from students giving them models of what we want them to produce we must also determine what these students' prior experiences are". For more systematicity, principles of grounded theory seem fitting as to come out with general principles from concepts in thedata (terms, interviews, observation and feedback).

An investigation into a school's culture would show the very likelihood for a given school to deliberately operate within specific academic wants, or the extent to which the school lends—and chooses to lend--itself to a defining academic culture.

While data like teacher's feedback and students' performance display heterogeneity—as a result of diverse conditions and convictions—surely this data display regularities which allows claims on common behaviour to be made. Where regularities are lacking in the data, such a state would have to be reported as characteristic of school, and the task of tracing these irregularities would offer itself as a scrutiny.

3.3.2 Verifying Kaplan's Claims

The criticism placed on some of Kaplan's claims and methodology urges the need for further verification and reappraisal. Though having been around half a century ago, Kaplan's idealization still exerts a great deal of influence on CR studies and on ways of looking at rhetorical differences. Arguably, Kaplan's model has been regulating the preconceptions with which researchers enter cross-cultural comparisons of compositions. One way in which Kaplan's work gets verified is to target comparable data, ensuring homogeneity for writers and comparing essays belonging to the same genre or text type, thus allocating more validity to the conclusions drawn. In an attempt to verify Kaplan's idealization of Korean rhetoric, Kim (1996) compares how Korean and Americans place the thesis in editorials, thus testing rhetorical differences across the same genre. The same methodology can be used to further test what Kaplan (1966) claims about paragraph organizations in other languages.

As argued in Chapter 2, CR research should not be centralist in nature, dominantly comparing other languages to English, but should rather diversify the language pairs under scrutiny so that to strike a balance in focus. On this, Kaplan asserts: "It is unfortunate that the majority of CR studies have involved contrasts between English and some other languages; there are very few studies that explore the relationship between languages not involving English (2001, p. 84). Possibly, researchers may choose to compare one language to more within a single study. The multiplicity of baselines would crosscheck initial claims made on the basis of comparing one language to only one. Hence, having several models of communication at hand would help to establish the specific and shared across languages.

In the course of conducting CR research, researchers should guard themselves against bias accounts, resultant either from deterministic views or from adopting language-specific standards for analysis. In the latter case, there resides the possible deviance that the preferences of one language get subsumed by the saliencies of another. In other words, the comparison would end up showing to what extent one language is cognate with another, thus denying the former peculiarities.

3.3.3 Contrastive Analysis

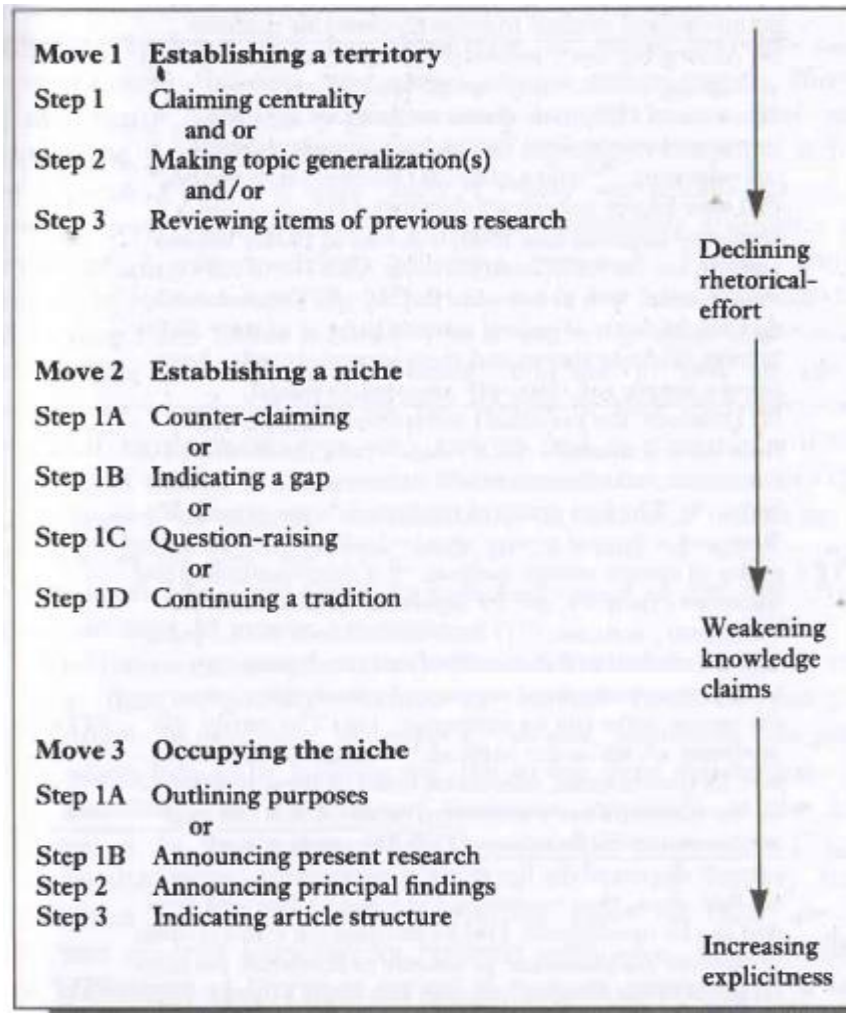
The predictive potential of CA studies has been questioned. However, the approach still retains relevance not only to understand transfer—a perspective reducing the attraction of CA studies—and pinpoint errors but to highlight the diverse functioning of languages. These studies may come in different forms: Comparisons of the language learner's native language and the target language: comparisons of the L1 performance of both learners and native speakers; and comparison of learners' L2 performance with that of native speakers of the target language. While each of these research forms offers certain contribution to a particular understanding, a more refined research idea is to conduct the three types of comparisons and compare findings, either to understand variations or to increase the reliability of the study by ensuring multi-dimensional comparison. Within this generality, CA studies may involve cross-cultural comparisons of text types, (e.g., narrative, persuasive) or genres (academic texts, writing for specific purposes). To avoid measuring one language within the light of another, researchers may avoid language-specific as categories for analysis. Another possible strategy is entering the comparison with emergent feature design.

3.3.4 Contrastive Pragmatics

Particularly in the Algerian research database, there appears to be a lack of research into contrasts in speech act realization, creation of conversational implicature, and conversational routines. Besides telling of similarities and differences at these levels of language performance, these studies would illuminate, I would say, the neglected area of pragmatic transfer, especially that layers of pragmatics are tied with cultural variation. Therefore, negative pragmatic transfer seems, to say the least, as problematic as rhetorical, compositional transfer.

3.3.5 Analyzing Arabic Genre

Analysis of genre involves establishing identifiable sequence of moves. The identification of these sequences would determine whether and to what extent a given genre has its own move features or whether genres across cultures share the same practices and same way of organizing ideas. Connor (2002, p. 501) defines moves as "semantic functional units which can be identified, first, because of their communicative purpose and, second, because of linguistic boundaries typical of the moves". Hence, genre analysis studies take moves, or functional units, to draw with functional scheme typical of the studied genre. The functional structure of a particular genre stands as a defining cultural element constituting the entire rhetoric. Bahitia (1993) studies the moves of a commercial job application. The generic structure of the latter was found to comprise establishing credentials, offering incentives, enclosing documents, using closing tactics, soliciting response, and ending politely. The example below illustrates analysis of research article introductions as a genre. As examplified from the work of Bahatia (1992) in Chapter 2, the moves of research article introduction comprise the following sequences:



a

Figure 6.4 Moves and steps in research article introductions (Bahatia, 1992).

However, little work is done to investigate the sequences and moves typical of Arabic genre (academic papers, letters, etc.). Such research would open up understanding of contrasts in terms of sequencing moves and steps across languages, and therefore would raise the awareness of teachers and students of the similarities and differences at this layer of rhetoric. It should here be emphasized that the transfer of genre structure is an overlooked area of research compared to studies on grammatical and lexical transfer. Thus research may be specifically designed to account for students' transfer of steps and moves in a particular genre they are often evaluated on. The latter may include a sub-genre of the general academic genre provided that a corresponding genre in students' mother tongue is established. In the majority of masters' thesis examination I attended, examiners complain about the manner in which candidates write the abstract, the introduction or the conclusion. Hence, these latter genres seem to call for investigation, either in terms of their features in the target language or in terms of negative transfer student may demonstrate.

3.3.6 Using the Corpus

Corpus analysis allows for precised and objective claims on preferred patterns of use and for differentiating idiosyncratic and frequent language behaviour characteristic of a given language genre or text type. In other words, the corpus helps founding the typology of language varieties. Adding to this, the concordance option helps illustrate and further highlight the items under search. Below is a screenshot of the Webcorpus, which represents the variety of web language in many languages.

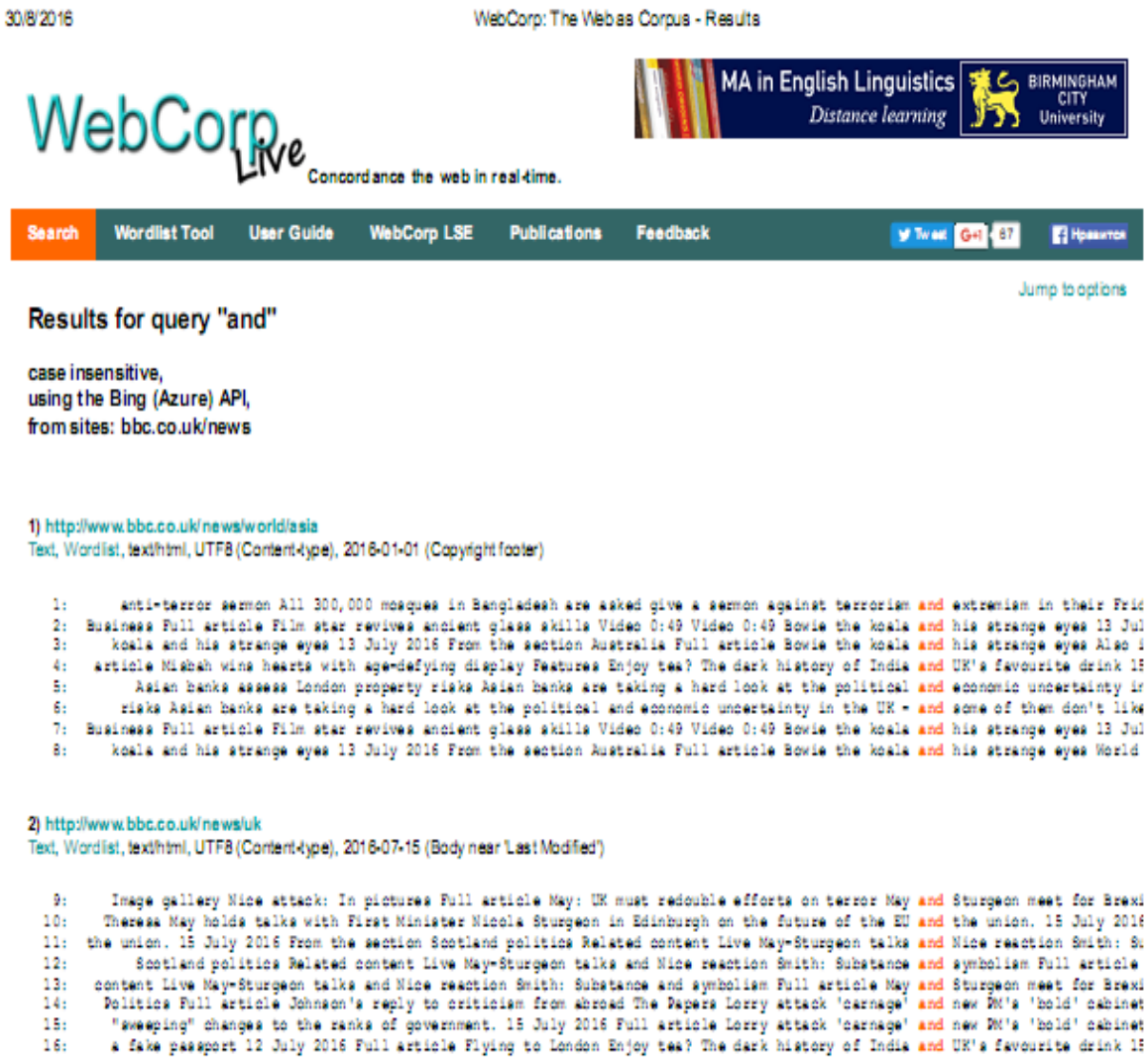


Figure 6.5 Concordancing in the WebCorpus.

To invariably account for the preferred patterns of a group of learners with identifiable features, researchers may compile their own corpus that is typical of the sample under study. How and what to compile will depend on what information about learner's language researchers seek to gather, and on the type of analysis needed (semantic, syntactic and

phonological analysis). The type of analysis wanted would dictate what software to use as the latter differ in their research options and sorting format. Wordsmith Tool can be an effective software for compiling, analyzing, and sorting data (see Figure 6.6).

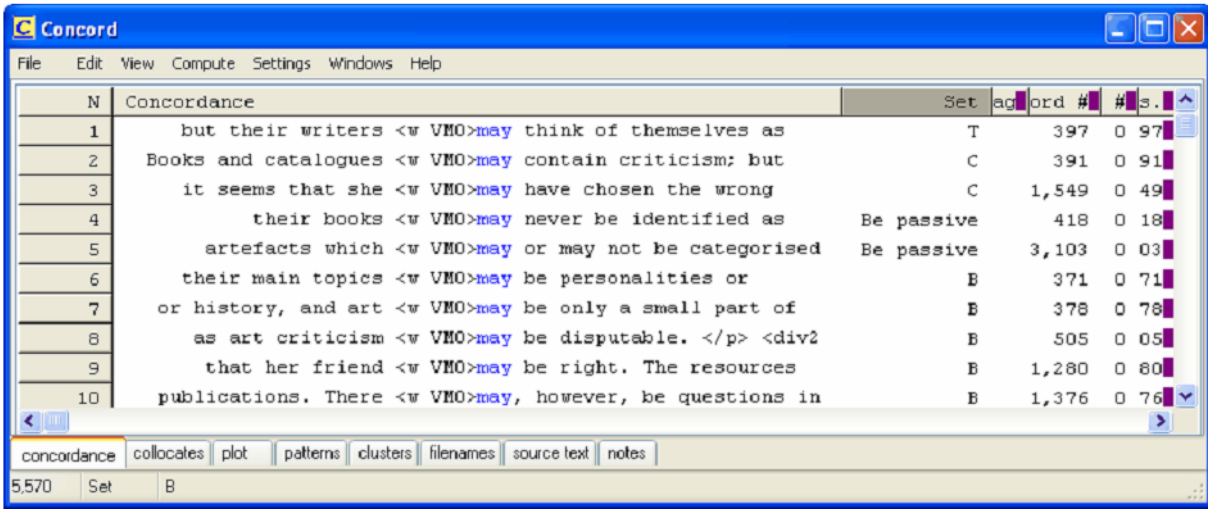


Figure 6.6 Concordancing in Wordsmith Tools.

As a way to investigate how language segments are translated, translation corpora offer a flexible access and operation of collection of texts and their translation. These types of corpora are designed specifically to give samples of translation. An example of translation corpus that can be used by researchers interested in Arabic-English translation includes The Corpus of Arabic and English Texts (CAET),

Figure 6.7 Translation corpora: Web interface of the Corpus of Arabic and English Texts.

To effectively compare languages on specific features, parallel corpora offer texts in two or more languages with comparable size. This would allow for sound claims on the nature and frequency of features along specific languages. Useful parallel corpora include the OPI corpus, which gathers texts across different languages with relatively the same genre and size (see Figure 6.8).

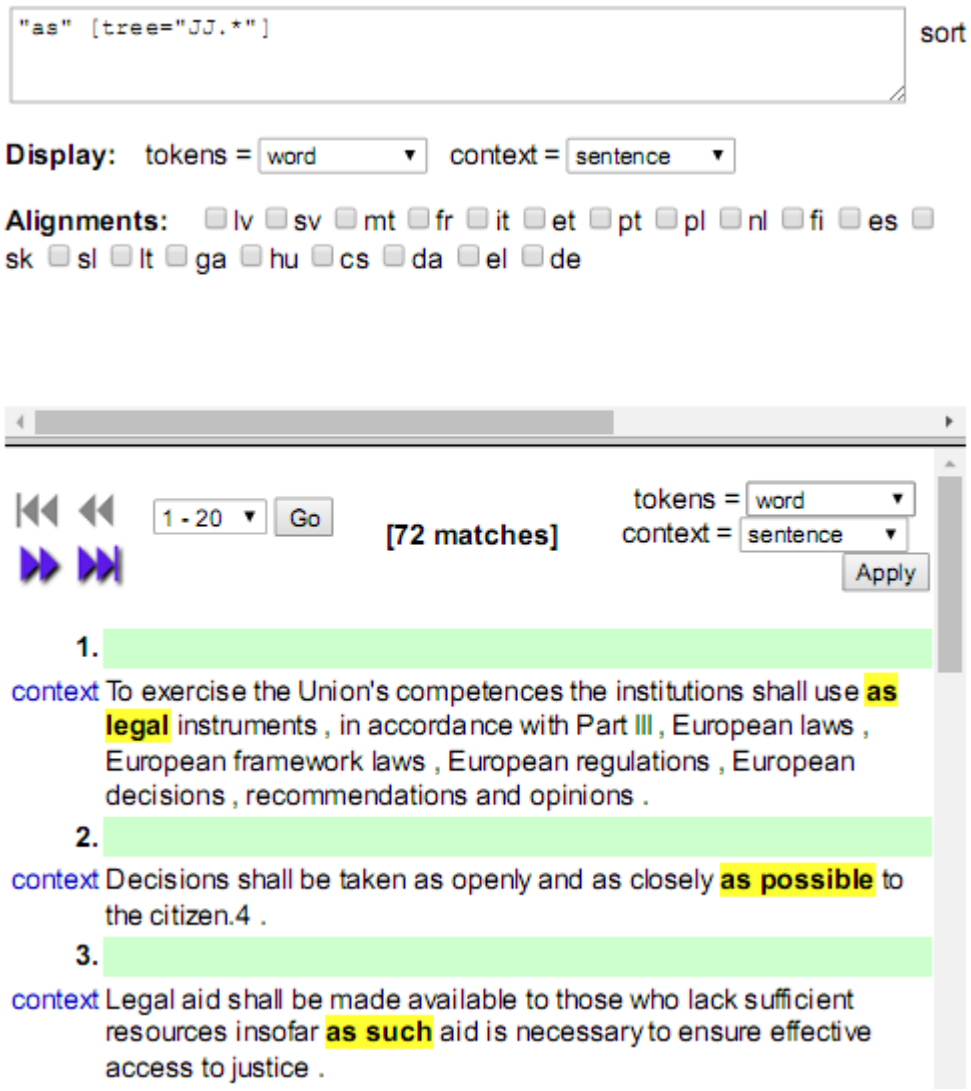


Figure 6.8 Search in the Open Parallel Corpora.

3.3.7 Research into Students' L1

While Kaplan looks at comparisons of learners' writings with those of natives as the sole data of contrastive rhetoric, Hinds (1990) arises an interest in learners' L1 as an effective way to cater for rhetorical choices learners may bring to the L2 writing task. Another apparent attraction of this approach is its potential of rendering student writers consciously aware of their L1 features.

As a way to understand students' L1—and this makes a component in IR research—existing corpora on representing students' L1 are fertile data for this practice. Because these come in different varieties, researchers would have to compile a corpus representing the variety relevant to what they want to understand about learners'L1. To examine the syntactic and lexical features Arabic-speaking EFL learners may be influenced by, researchers may

consult existing corpora like the International Arabic Corpus (IAC.) Data from the ICA caters for the Arabic written and spoken in different parts of the Arab world (see Figure 6.9). Hence, results show what is common as preferences among diverse contexts in which Arabic is used.

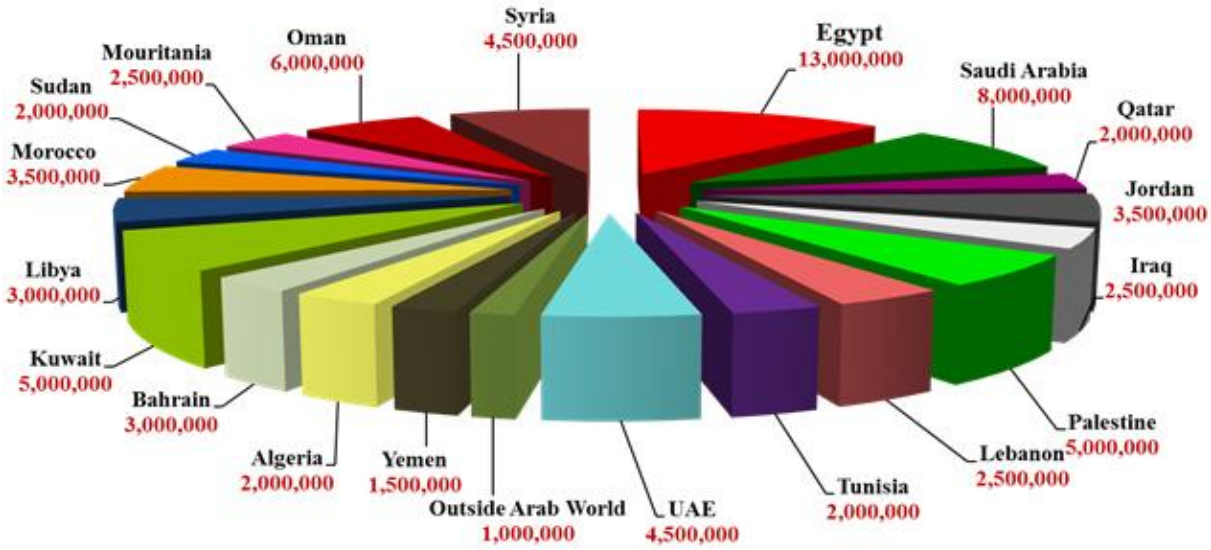


Figure 6.9 Distribution of data for the International Corpus of Arabic per region.

For better insights on the English characteristic of its learners, useful corpora include the International Learner Corpora and the Corpus of English as a Lingua Franca. At the same time, data from learner corpora might be used to examine One way in which learners mother tongue gets understood is to see how this latter is used by its learners. Accordingly, to cater for the features of Arabic-speaking EFL learners, the Arabic Learner Corpora might be searched to cater for the status of Arabic when used by learners from other language backgrounds. Results from analyzing such a corpus help further differentiate between native and non-native Arabic (see Figure 6.10).

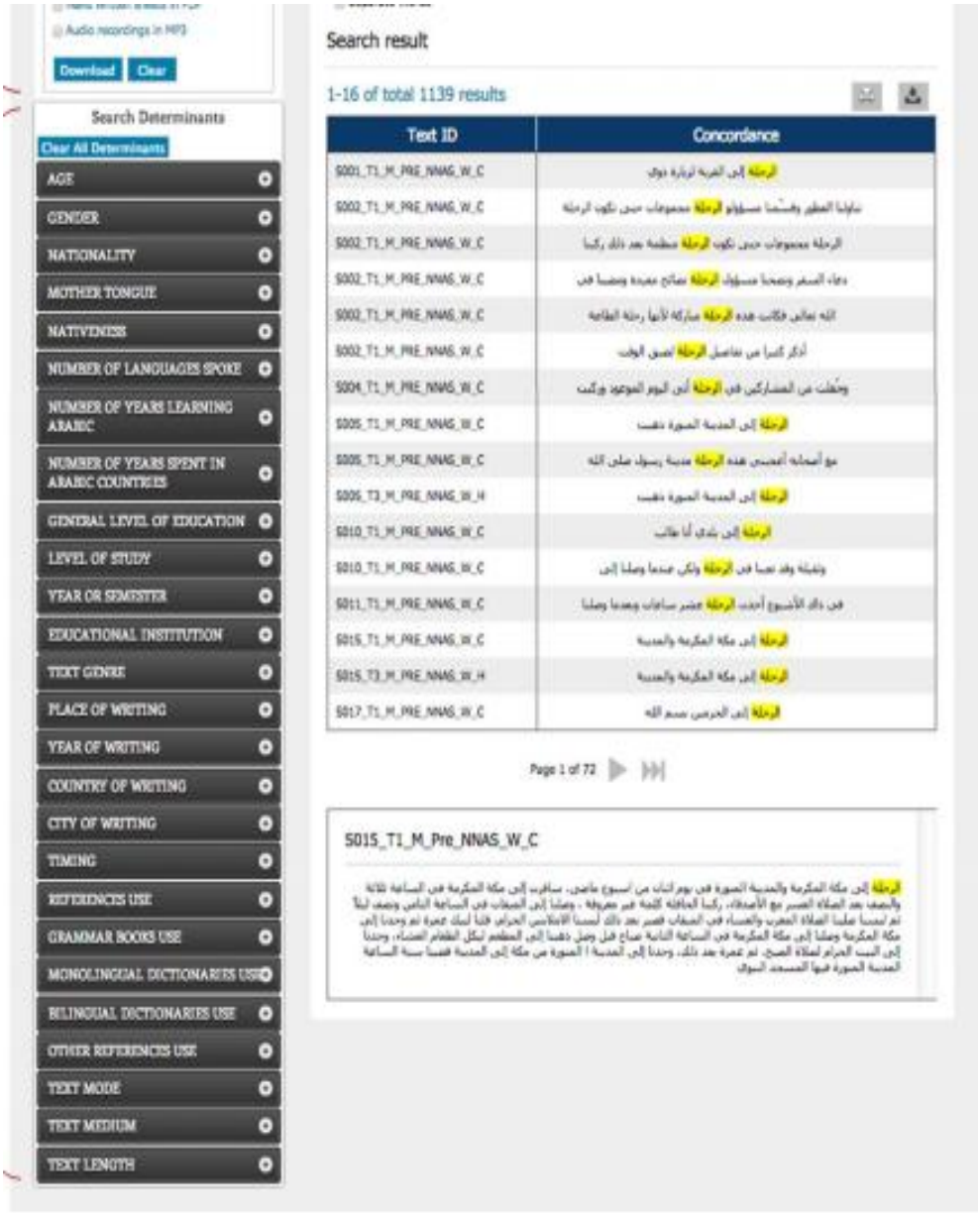


Figure 6.10 Search page for the International Arabic Learner Corpus.

Researchers may wish to investigate the characteristics of Quranic Arabic and the extent to which this latter features in students' standard Arabic as a mother tongue. This would clarify to what extent claims about Quranic Arabic, which is a static variety, can apply to students' Arabic. For this objective, the Quranic Arabic Corpus might be consulted (see Figure 6.11).

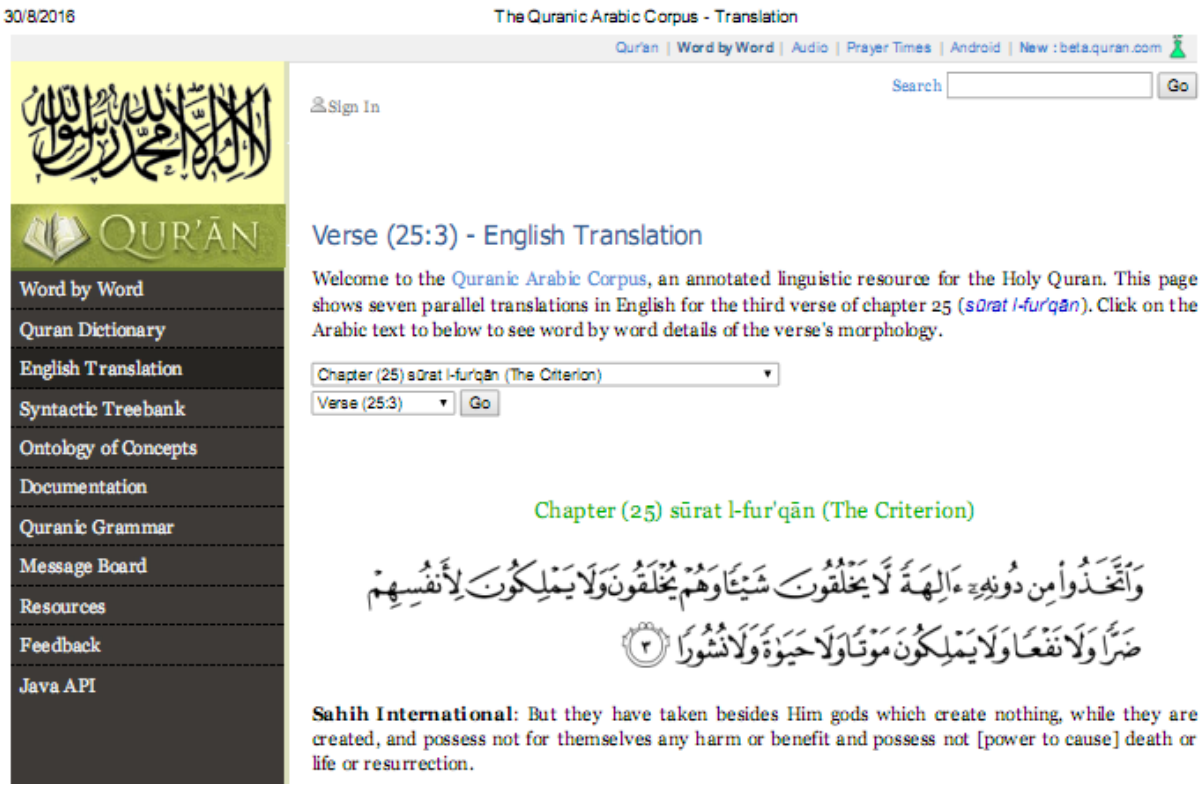


Figure *6.11* Web interface of the Quranic Arabic Corpus.

3.4 Using Mixed-method Research

The avenue of mixing paradigms has proven to be efficient, with an exploratory potential allowing deepened understanding of the phenomena. The data obtained together makes a multifaceted and variant dataset. Therefore, the same research epistemology may be upheld to comprehensively answer questions relevant to applied linguistics. Language and its learning are complex matters hardly lending to a single research ideology. In upholding mixed -methods research, researchers tailor their design and their fusion of paradigms in accordance with the intended enquiry. Essentially, what is worthy to enquire of and consider is not entirely pre-planned but often emergent in the course of scrutiny. The fact, however, remains that some research questions lend themselves either to positivist or interpretative epistemology.

Research questions are better made amenable to investigation through two ways or in a way that combines both approaches. For instance, at the same time qualitative data may be analyzed using grounded theory, researchers may conduct a initiative analysis of qualitative data. What is more important is avoidance of restricting the enquiry to a paradigm-specific

quality criterion. The more the quality criteria the better the phenomenon is understood and the wider the audience becomes.

3.5 Using Think-aloud Protocols

Introspective data has proven to be illuminating, allowing for very deep, insipid data. While there are recognizable limitations to this research instrument, these can be reduced by ensuring effective implementation of the instrument.

Alternatively, introspective data can be validated and crosschecked by interviewing data, either to see whether the transcripts are representatives of participants´ thoughts or to check whether the interview matches the insights in introspective data. It is fitting to suggest not to regard introspective data as representative of thoughts, namely as whether the participants' words reliably go along with thoughts patterns. It is safer to look at introspection as a type of self-report instrument as participants immediately report and comment on their experience. It is this immediacy of report that grants introspective data reliability. While it is true that the instruction *what are you thinking?* is relatively vague, the exploratory benefits can be said to emerge from the openness of reporting. The latter may well inform of how students perceive the task and its fulfillment, what strategies are implemented in task performance, and how and whether a given variable impacts participants' experience.

3.6 Replicability of the Study

I would say that this study does not lend itself to a test of reliability through replication, not because the hypothesis is firmly confirmed, but for reliability check requires the homogeneity of circumstances. In this study the researcher's sensitivity and subjectivity along the phases of the project was dominant, making it unrealistic to test whether the same experience occurs in another study, especially that much of the data are respondents' personal account. If the replication is to be done, researchers may re-explore the correlation between the variables as specific to a different context of study.

Conclusion

As an ideation of language learning, the work emphasized the centrality of language transfer and transfer-based errors as a pivotal component of the rate and route of learning. Therefore, errors in general should be viewed as indicatives of learning as they escalate the process of hypothesis formulation and testing by the learner. Additionally, rhetorical competence needs attentiveness as compared to other competences commonly emphasized.

This is possibly done through assessing and giving feedback on rhetorical performance. Essentially, it is here recommended to consider the treatment designed in the study, and to carve out ways to incorporate the instruction to students. The researcher recommends research that falls within the ingredients of intercultural rhetoric as a way to understand students' L1 and how it differs from or resembles the language under learning.

General Conclusion

An advocated translation-L2 writing analogy along with an apparent disparity over what minimizes transfer errors prompted the conduct of this empirical enquiry. The aim was to explore the effect of presenting data from intercultural on the rhetorical transfer of Arabic-speaking EFL students. The data comprise a knowledge base that sought to inform of transfer errors, the rhetorical preferences of Arabic and English, the culture underlying Arabic and English divergent rhetorical manners, and the translation tactics needed for establishing textual equivalence.

Informing the research question called for the construal of a treatment representative of Arabic-English intercultural rhetoric data which were manipulated on an experimental group composed of 10 first-year masters' degree students studying in the Department of English at Mostaganem University. The post-test performance of these latter along markers of Arabic rhetoric were compared to their performance in the pre-test and to the pre-post test performance of a control group. The causativeness of the treatment variable was verified mainly through introspective data. Interview data were elicited to consider the attitudinal effect of the treatment. At another level, resorts were made to teachers experienced with the used of extended-passage tests. The aim was a teacher-based evaluation of the treatment through the elicitation of feedback.

Results from the different research tools combined to support the hypothesis that Arabic-speaking EFL student writers need to be presented with data from the research enterprise of intercultural rhetoric. As shown in Chapter 6, the frequency of features (long sentence, semantic parallelism, Arabic connectivity, syntactic parallelism, and same-item repetition) dropped in the EXP group's post-test as compared to three baselines of comparison. The participants' verbal introspection indicated that students made use of the treatment when handling the writing task. Interview responses reveal categories indicating the positive impact of the treatment on participants' writing. This involved increased consciousness and consideration of the reader, understanding of textual preferences across languages, thrift use of L1 existing competences to choose appropriate L2 pattern, and the use of translation techniques to adapt Arabic to English rhetoric. Data from the class discussion gave further reasons for the need of the treatment in view of students' unfamiliarity with much of the content being presented and discussed. On their parts, teachers expressed relative allegiance to the treatment, with much emphasis on the inevitability of transfer and the

awareness raising role. The multi-dimensional support allowed the conclusiveness of the result that data from intercultural rhetoric are needed for students learning to compose in English.

The work does have impinging on the language teaching industry at large. First and foremost, the quest for effective language learning tactic calls for the discard of ideological inclination to one understanding or conception at the expense of another. Mother tongue use in L2 teaching should be considered and constantly reappraised, for, if we accept the constructivist nature of learning, we would not deny the relative relevance and utility of reference to students' mother tongue when making decisions.

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Appendix A

1. A literary work does not come in a vacuum but gets underlined by certain felicity conditions in the same way a speech act does.

2. "it is this being drawn into a different contextual reality, being absorbed into a different order of things that...is the essence of aesthetic experience" (Widdowson, 2001, p. 163).

3.

Answer:

Topic number: 3

Most of the writers write to treat phenomena or solve a problem or support an idea or an ideology according to their context in order to influence the readers by their thoughts and ideas. Charles Dickenss through his novel "Hard Times" shows the negative aspects of an industrial society at that time.

Turning to the novel, Dickenss criticized society

was the only source of happiness.

The character of cissy jobling a young girl lives in gradgrin's home, he is also there teacher gradgrin as the main realistic character in the novel he believes only in facts, Dickens depicts cissi job as the product of a realistic materialistic Society.

In this literary piece of work, the writer gives an important side to the context by describing the city the plot has been done in. an idustrial city, and the time also with was the period that witnessed the indusrial revolution these factors that influences the reader is taken from the living reality.

finaly we can say that hard times as a realistic novel the writer possitioning of many factors in order to send his messages, and treating the problemes that he saw in Society and individuals.

1. A literary work does not come in a vacuum but gets underlined by certain felicity conditions in the same way a speech act does.

2. "it is this being drawn into a different contextual reality, being absorbed into a different order of things that...is the essence of aesthetic experience" (Widdowson, 2001, p. 163).

Answer:

Topic number: 01

The creation of an effective literary work according to pragmatic literary studies, is essentially based on certain theoretical conditions. In fact, here certain approaches that are connected with an appropriate interpretation of a literary text. Reader-oriented approach is basically woven into the purpose of textual interpretation. Then, text-bound approach has to deal with text features & text effects, while, author-oriental approach is generated to juxtapose author's life and biography with his/her literary text. Thus, each of these felicity

literary interpretation creates different expectations. The concept of literary vacuum is one among these creative expectations that is filled by reader's own knowledge, and expected references in order to understand the context of the literary text. So, in this case the reader becomes the subject of the author. Therefore, through reader's referential vacuum, upon which the interaction between the reader and the text depends, reader's interest and aesthetic fulfilment can be created.

However, in the text-bound approach the text is an object and automatons with its identifiable features. Through the process of reading text features affect readings by producing mental and internal effects on the reader. In-depth, there is a best example of the novel "The Old Man and the Sea", which associates text features with text effects. According to critical perspective, this literary text tends to evoke the biblical and epic images and that the portrayal of the essential character evokes the image of Christ." (Dixon, p.09). Analytically speaking, these images are the effect of this text, because they are inner in the reader's mind.

Besides, the author-oriented approach is originated to juxtapose the author's facts and events with that of the literary text in order to make a reference to his/her statements. Once there is a relationship between the aspects of a literary text and the aspects of the author, a literary interpretation can be produced within

Appendix B

Handout 1

Comparison of Arabic and English Conjunction Use

A synthesis of a study made by Aljomhouri (2010)

The handout presents findings of contrastive studies comparing Arabic and English conjunction use.The sentences below show the inter-clausal uses of the conjunctions *and* and *but*. Besides joining words and phrases, English *and* and *but* serve to conjoin clauses within sentences:

a 1. She bought eggs and cheese.

2. The boys like to play at home and in the garden.

3. The mother was fixing dinner, and the daughter was ironing the clothes.

4. The student worked hard but he could not make it through college.

(Aljomhouri, 2010)

Arabic *wa*and *laakin* exhibit similar characteristics but their use is not restricted to joining clauses as jumla can be ether a clause or sentence in English. The examples below show the uses of wa (و) and laakinna (لكن) unshared by *but* and *and*:

b. 1. ألقينا نظرة على الجرائد وقد تصدر المنتخب الوطني أغلب العناو ين

We took a look at the newspapers and the national team dominated the headlines.

1. أنا أعفيك اليوم من القراءة لكن سآخذ منك عهدا

I will excuse you today from reciting, but I want you to make a vow to me (unlike لكن, but needs to be preceded by a comma)

3. هنا اشتد غضب الشيخ ولكن على سيدنا لاعلى الصبي

There the old man became increasingly angry, but with the school teacher, not with the boy,

The uses of 'so'

b 1. He was ill, so he could not come to class.

2. So Jane was not talkative as a normal schoolgirl is expected to be.

Arabic *haaka* and*lidaalika* are more often are often used with wa regardless of whether they introduce a clause or a sentence:

2. ولهذا كان علينا أن لا نتخذ قرارا كهذا

And so we should not have taken such a decision.

Also, Next and Finally

Also, next, and *finally* share the characteristic of both being sentence-initial and, optionally, embedded within the first part of the sentence. When sentence-initial, they are usually followed by a comma

c. 1. Also, no solution could be found for the problem.

2. Next, we got to a small cottage.

3. Finally, the wind died down.

4. Many other officials were also informed about the subject.

5. We next got to a small cottage.

6. The wind finally died down.

Arabic *aidan* (أيضا) , *ba9da daalika* (بعد ذلك) and *akhiimn* (أخيرا) do not differ much from their English correspondents. They can be used both sentence-initially and medially. Wc notice, however, that the Arabic 'particles' are preceded by the conjunction *wa* when sentence-initial.. Moreover, the Arabic connectives are not commonly followed by a comma when sentence-initial.

d 1.

و أيضا لم يتم التوصل إلى حل

Also, no solution could be found for the problem.

And also no solution could be found (interference).

2.

و بعد ذلك وصلنا إلى كوت سمو

Next, we got to a small cottage.

And next we got to a small cottage

3.

وأخيرا هدأ الريح

Finally, the winds died down

And finally the wind died down (interference).

4.

لم يتم أيضا التوصل إلى حل للمشكلة

No solution could also be found for the problem(formal correspondence).

5.

وصلنا بعد ذلك إللى كوتاج سمول

We next got to a small cottage

6.

و أخيرا هدأت الرياح

The winds finally died down

Arabic-speaking learners of English are expected to often use *and* before *also, next* and *finally* and to forego the comma after them when they are sentence-initial.

Remaining Connectives

The remaining connectives in (1) above, i.e., *then, in addition, moreover, pirther-more, therefore, in spite of that, however, nevertheless, meanwhile,* and *on the other hand* differ markedly

from the linking devices already discussed. When used to link two independent clauses, a semicolon must precede and a comma must follow them, as illustrated in the examples below:

e. 1. The man crossed the bridge; then, he decided to wash his feet in the river.

2. The old man was lonely; moreover, he was mistreated by his neighbors.

3. The advisor was tolerant; however, he refused to let the student go unpunished.

The examples below show the uses of the above connectives at sentence-initial:

f 1. Then, the officer began to torture the captives.

2. Moreover, the man was unable to get in touch with the police.

3. However, the ingenious proposal could not be implemented.

4. The officer, then, began to torture the captives.

5. The man, moreover, was unable to get in touch with the police.

6. The ingenious proposal could not, however, be implemented.

Arabic correspondents of these transitional devices differ in several respects. First, they are not commonly followed by a comma. Second, they are preceded by a comma or period. When embedded within the first part of the sentence, they are not set off by comma:

g. 1قطع الرجل الجسر ثم قرر أن يغسل قدميه في النهر

The man crossed the bridge. Then, he decided to wash his feet in the river.

2. كان الرجل العجوز وحيدا، علاوة على ذلك كان جيرانه يسيئون إليه

The old man was lonely. Moreover, he was mistreated by his neighbors.

3. وكان مع ذلك رجلا خلوقا

He was, however, a well-mannered man.

Handout 2

Cultural Dimensions of Cohesive Devices i Arabic and English

Adapted from Mohammed and Omar (2000)

In this section, the Arabic-speaking community and the English counterpart are contrasted in terms of the following cultural dimension: oralized vs. literal; collectivist vs. individualist; low contact vs.high-contact; low-context vs. high-context; reader-responsible vs. writer-responsible. Based on the work of Mohammed and Omar (2000), the following categories are provided as general, overriding scripts responsible for rhetorical differences.

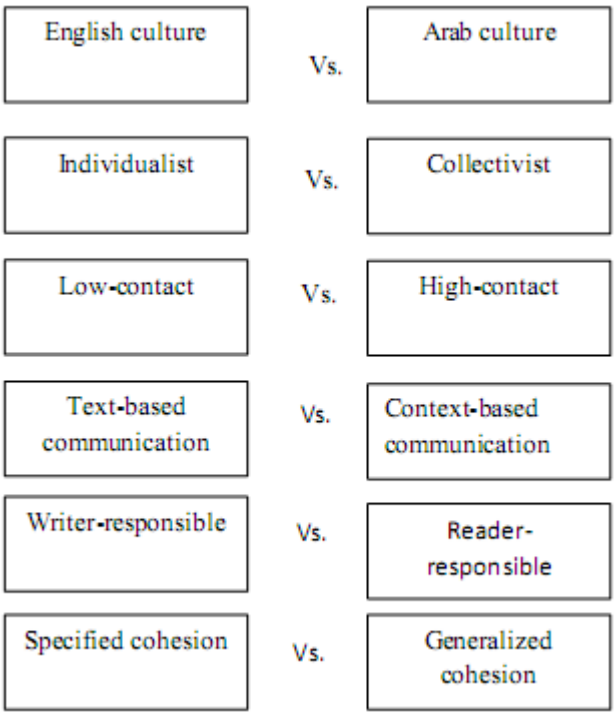

Figure 1. Textual preferences of collectivist and individualist cultures. Adapted from Mohamed and Omar (2000).

Individualist vs. Collectivist

In the English culture, there is a low level of physical and psychological closeness among individuals (low-contact).Therefore, information tends to be explicitly stated with careful use of discourse organizers rather than relying on contextual clues (text-based). In this sense, the success of communication is largely dependent on the writer (writer-responsible). The difference between the two cultures along these dimensions

is motivated by the fact that ‘possession’ is related to the group in the Arab culturewhile it is related to the individual in the English one. In fact, the notion of collective ownership is so dominant in the Arab culture to the extent that generic expressions are not only used to refer to entities shared by people interactants

Context vs. Text-based Cohesion

Because of dependency on context and “collective intuition”, Arabic uses a pronoun as a cohesive device even if it has more than one possible antecedent. English, on the other hand, has a much rigid pronominal reference

The context-based nature of Arabic can be further illuastrated by the following example:

… and he (1) approached the place; The Nubian doorman noticed him(2), and he (3) stood up, smiling, welcoming his arrival, while his (4) eyes and white teeth gleamed on his (5)black face, and he (6) started going up the marble stairs slowly(Mohamed and Omar, 2002).

Generalized vs. Specified Cohesion

This cohesive contrasthas to do with the level of specificity of generic reference.While Arab culture is featured by collectivism, in English deploys a high proportion of possessive pronouns, for ownership in the English culture is individualist and communicatively specified.

The example below illustrates difference in the degree of specificity between Arabic and English:

Arabic

كان يضع يده على العين

He was putting his hand on the eye.

English

He was putting his hand on his eyes.

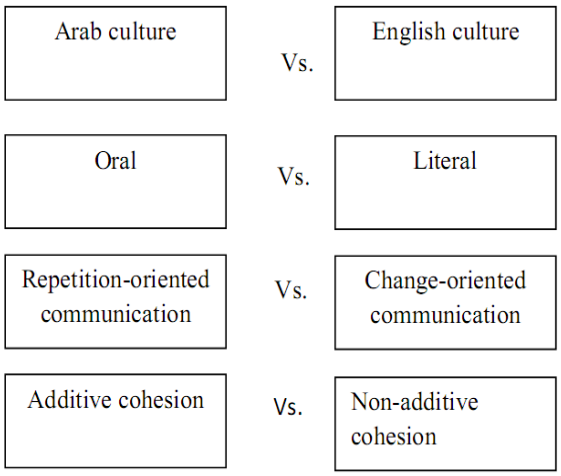

*Figure 2.*Textual preferences of oral and literal cultures. Adapted from Mohamed and Omar (2000).

Oralized vs. Literal

Oralized Arab culture produces repetition-oriented, additive, and context-based cohesion, while the literal English culture produces changed-oriented, non-additive and text-based cohesion. This cultural difference presupposes the following communicative divergence:

- Because information retrieval in Arab oralized cultures is memory-bound, information tends to be packaged in memory-aiding forms characterized by a high proportion of parallelism. In contrast, the memory-free communication context prevalent in literate societies is marked by a greater degree of phonological, lexical, and syntactic variation.
- propositional development is predominantly additive in the Arab culture while it is mainly subordinative in literate counterparts.
- Communication is largely context-based in oral cultures, while it is predominantly text-based (text-sensitive) in literate cultures. This is due to the great measure of distance between discourse participants in literate societies. Communication is mainly aggregative in oral cultures.

The Teaching of Writing

The teaching of writing is firmly anchored in the imitation of the oral style embodied in theses texts through constant repetition and memorization. It is, therefore, natural

that Arab writers produce written texts in which they emulate the oral style they learnt at schools.

(Mohamed & Omar, 2000).

Handout 3

Functions of *Wa* and Parallel Construction in Arabic

The handout demonstrates the functions and uses of two main features characteristic of Arabic rhetoric: parallelism and the conjunction *wa*. The synthesis is made of work by Mahamsadjy (1988) and Aljomhouri (2010). First, we begin by examining the functions of Arabic *wa*that are unshared by English and Then, we move to illustrate parallel construction and demonstrate what function this latter serves in Arabic.

1. **Functions of *wa***

And at sentence-initial

كان سليمان الحبيب يمشي في الشارع و كانت يداه في جيبه، وحين توقف قليلا ليشعل سيجارة، دنا منه رجلان وطلبا منه بطاقة الهوية، واقتاده الرجلان إلى مفر شرطة قريب و أدخلاه في غرفته ،و كان يجلس فيها رجل له شارب أسود، وقال سليمان لنفسه:

> Suleiman El Habib was once walking along the street with his hands in his pockets, when he stopped for a while to light up a cigarette…He became confused when to …They gave him back his identity card. The two men led him to a nearby police station where they sent him into room…in which a man with black mustaches was sitting. Suleiman said to himself:

The translation is meant to demonstrate that, unlike Arabic, English does not use and to resume or to signal topic continuity: The original Arabic displays ten occurrence of *wa*, while the English equivalence displays no *and* at all.

Adverbial wa

واليوم فإن الجزائر تبني نفسها في إطار اختياراتها الإستراتيجية وهي لواعية أنها تقدم مساهمتها الكافية في تحرير العالم العربي و تجديده

> Today Algeria is building herself in the light of her socialist choice.

Wa to introduce an adverbial clause of manner:

> دخل سعيد و هو يضحك
>
> Said came in smiling.

Adversative wa

جار وتفعل كالغريب

You are a neighbour, yet you act like a stranger.

2. **Parallel Construction**

Syntactic Parallelism

a 1.

إن الشعب الجزائري شعب مسلم و إن الإسلام هو دين الدولة

The Algerian people are Muslims and Islam is the religion of the country.

a. 2.

Algeria who managed to preserve her personality during the colonial domination andresist despite the foreign expansionism would not fear herself from the shakes of colonialism had she not struggled a continual struggle until she gained her sovereignty and ***the Algerian revolution which continued***after the war of liberation which started in 1945 is a great achievement for the nation and a glorious moment in her history.

It is explained here that parallel construction serves accumulation of information, where similarity of structure indicates similarity of meaning.The writer wants to say that the war of independence is similar to the economic revolution.

a 3.

إن الشعب الجزائري مرتبط بالعالم العربي وهو جزء لا يتجزأ و لا ينفصل عنه.

The Algerian people are *linked* to the Arab world and are they are an *integral* part of it.

a 4.

إن الشعب الجزائري أمة و الأمة ليست تجمعا شعبيا أ وخليطا من أجناس متنافرة، إن الأمة هي الشعب باعتباره كيانا تاريخيا يقوم في حياته اليومية و إطاراته الإقليمية بعمل واع.

> *Algeria is a nation* and a*nation is not a collection* of ethnic groups or a mixture of conflicting groups. But the nation is the people themselves in the sense that they are a historical entity.

Repetition of Lexical Strings

b 1.

إن جميع محاولات الاستعمار لإنكار وجود **الأمة الجزائرية** و تأبيد سيطرتة قد اصطدمت بصمود ومقاومة هذه الأمة التي انصهرت منذ قرون، وقد استطاعت **الأمة الجزائرية** بفضل تضحيات مليون ونصف المليون من الشهداء من انتزاع اعتراف العالم بها و تكريس وجودها.

> All the colonial attempts to deny the existence of the*Algerian nation*crashed with the persistence of this nation which emerged centuries ago and **the** *Algerian nation*could thanks to the sacrifice of more than half a million martyrs to eradicate the recognition of the world and endure its existence.

While written Arabic tends to make extensive use of parallel constructions, written English tends to avoid parallel construction through the use of reference, substitutions and ellipsis.

Handout 4

Translation of Lexical Cohesion from Arabic to English

The handout demonstrates techniques used to adapt Arabic lexical cohesion to English textual norms. The following synthesis is made to explain the notion of lexical cohesion. The comments are taken from a literature review made by Laala (2010).

1. Lexical Cohesion and Textual Equivalence

Lexical relations are pivotal for the construal of a text: "Grammatical cohesion, displayed by any piece of discourse, will not form a text unless this is matched by cohesive patterning of a lexical kind" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 292).Lexical cohesion is the outcome of chains of related words that allow the continuity of meaning. Not only do lexical patterns occur between pairs of words but over a series of related words formulating the topical unit of a text. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976)There exists a distance relation between such words in the chain created, where the words co-occur within a given pattern. In other words, lexical relations provide a clue for the identification of discourse themefor the flow of information. Ahmed (2010) asserts that lexical cohesion was overrepresented in the English translation of Arabic texts as made by Arabic-speaking translation students. The learners are found to prefer lexical cohesion over referential linkage, shifting most of the grammatical ties such as pronouns and demonstratives, into lexical terms in the target language. In other words, the learners tend to repeat the same lexical elements than referring to them by other grammatical terms (Blum-Kulka 1986, p.19).

(Laala, 2010)

Baker (1992) points out that English prefers to represent the reference by means of a pronoun while Portuguese and Arabic prefer lexical repetition. Baker provides an example that represents the difference between languages in terms of the use of cohesive devices. The example is taken from a document explaining arbitration at the International Centre for Arbitration in Cairo (1988):

ST: إذا انقضى ثلاثون يوما من تاريخ تسلم احد الطرفين اقتراحا قدم وفقا للفقرة الأولى دون أن يتفق الطرفان على تعين المحكم الواحد تولت تعيينه سلطة التعيين التي اتفق الطرفان على تسميتها. فإذا لم يكن الطرفان قد اتفقا على تسمية سلطة تعيين أو إذا امتنعت السلطة التي اتفقا على تسميتها من تعيين محكم أو لم تتمكن من إتمام تعيينه خلال ستين يوما من تاريخ تسلم الطلب الذي قدمه لها احد الطرفين في هذا الشأن جاز لكل من الطرفين في هذا الشأن أن يطلب من الأمين العام لمحكمة التحكيم الدائمة تسمية سلطة تعيين.

TT: If thirty days elapse from the date on which either party received a proposal-submitted according to the first item without the two parties agreeing on appointing one arbitrator, the authority nominal by the two parties undertaken to appoint the arbitrator. If the parties had not agreed on nominating such authority, or if the nominated authority declines to appoint an arbitrator or is unable to nominate one within sixty days of its receipt of either party's request to that effect, both parties may ask the Secretary-General of the Permanent Arbitration Court to nominate an appointing authority.

The Arabic version shows different lexical repetition items such as 'الطرفين' (الطرفان) which occur six times, 'تعين' four times,'تعيينسلطة' three times. Baker explains that, unlike Arabic, English generally strives to reduce ambiguity when referring to participants. Whenever ambiguity arises in reference, lexical repetition is mostly used.

(Laala, 2010)

2. Assessing Shift in the Translation of Lexical Cohesion

Translation Shift

The following passages aim at familiarizing participants with notion of shift in translation. Familiarity with such a concept is expected to instill the idea of adapting one' prior competences to meet expectations of some sort:

According to Blum-Kulka, (1986) Translation shifts are those changes exerted on the source texts so that to establish a TL equivalence. Such shifts are two kinds: Level shits and category shit. Under the former, the ST text in a given ST level has equivalence at another different level. The second category subdivides into four kinds of shifts: Class, unit, structure and system shifts. In class shift, the ST item in a class, say adjective, has a verb class equivalence in the target text. The structure kind of shift involves change along the grammatical structure, a subject-verb-object sequence in English gets often represented in Arabic as verb-subject-object. System shifts operate by selecting an item in the TL non-correspondent to that in the ST. It is worth adding that shifts may involve addition and omission of lexical units.

(Laala, 2010, p. 03).

The followings are assessments of translation of lexical cohesion from Arabic to English presented by Laala (2010). In the qualitative analysis of respondents' translation, the researcher provides selected translation followed by comments on their accuracy as a way to establish ideal translation of lexical relations from Arabic to English:

1) **ST:** الثقة بالنفس **عنصر** من العناصر الأساسية في تكوين الشخصية الناجحة
TT: self-confidence is **one** of the fundamental elements in building a successful personality.

2) **ST:** فالصبر على الفشل **مظهر** من مظاهر الثقة بالنفس .
TT: Patience upon failure is **one** of the aspects of self-confidence...

3) **ST:** فمتى ضعفت **إرادة الإنسان** أصبح اتكاليا لا يجرؤ على القيام **بأعمال مفيدة**.
TT: whenever **one's will** is weakened, he become reliant and cannot do **anything positive.**

4) **ST:** إنها تجعل **الإنسان** مؤمنا بقدرته الخلاقة مستثمرا مواهبه .
TT: it makes **one** believe in his creative capacities and invest his talent.

5) **ST:** ولكننا نقصد الاستقلال الشخصي في تقرير الأعمال التي يتوقف عليها **مستقبل الإنسان** ونجاحه .
TT: But we mean self-independence in deciding about the works that **one's** future and success depends on.

6) **ST:** والثقة بالنفس تجدد قوى الإنسان المعنوية بعد الفشل الذي قد يصيبه كما يجدد الغذاء قوته الجسدية .
TT: self-confidence renews **one's** spiritual capacities after failure, as food renews his physical capacities after exhausted work.

In the above examples, the lexical cohesive terms **عنصر** in (1), **مظهر** in (2), **إرادة الإنسان** in (3) **الإنسان** in (4), **مستقبل الإنسان** in (5), **قوى الإنسان** in (6) are translated into English by the pronoun **one**. In (1) and (2) the sentence required the students to shift these ties into grammatical ones. This is because they could not translate them by the same lexical term. For example, the could not produce such a sentence: 'Self-confidence is an element of the fundamental elements (yet, some students did). This can be considered as improper translation even though the same source text lexical cohesive elements are preserved in the target language. However, in the case of the translation of the lexical tie **أعمال** in (3), the students were not obliged to render it as **anything**. They could have translated it as **works** in which they preserve the same item and meaning.

In (1) both Arabic **فشل** and **اتكالهم** are translated into verbs **fail** and **rely** instead of **failure** and **reliance**, respectively. Here, this shift is the result of change in the structure

of the sentence. It is successful to translate the nouns above into verbs, since this affects neither source text meaning nor cohesion.

Shift in Explicitness

After Blum-kulka (1986), English employs more cohesive devices than Arabic, which signals the relations in texts implicitly. In translation from Arabic to English cohesive devices are added to explicate the link.

Handout 5

Translation of long sentence from Arabic to English

The handout presents techniques for translating long sentence from Arabic to English. The following passages are taken from qualitative analysis undertaken by Mehenni (2010). The examples are cases of correct and deviant translation.

تعتبر الزراعة القاعدة الأساسية للبناء الاقتصادي، فهي التي توفر الحاجات الغائية و الاستهلاكية للأفراد وهي التي تمد الصناعات بالجزء الغالب من الخدمات اللازمة لها وهي فوق كل ذلك تحدد معاملاتها مع العالم الخارجي للبناء الاقتصادي.

Agriculture represents the fundamental basis for economic construction. It provides the nutritional needs for people.In addition, it supplies the industries with most of their services. Above all, it determines the rate of treatments outside.

يمكن أن تقسم برمجيات الحاسوب إلى نوعين عريضين: برمجيات الأنظمة و برمجيات التطبيقات، أما الأول فكثيرا ما يشار له باسم الأنظمة فحسب، وعندما تدخل هذه الأنظمة في الذاكرة الداخلية فإنها توجه للقيام بمهام مختلفة، وأما الثاني فإنه غالبا ما يتم التزود به جنبا إلى جنب مع الجهاز الرئيسي من المصدر الذي يزودنا بالأنظمة.

Computer is said to be divided into two main programs: the software and the hardware. tHe software is considered as the system only. When those programs enter the inside memory, they direct the computer to operate different programs. The second is the hardware, usually available in the central units from the providing source of system.

To further consolidate understanding of equivalence at this level, participants are asked to reflect on the difference between the two translations below. While the first translation maintains a long sentence, the second deploys shift to reduce sentence length.

منذ لايقل عن ثلاثةٍ آلاف سنة زحف التوارق علئ الصحراء الكبرى واستوطنوها، لم تكن صحراء اليوم هي صحراء الأمس،لقد كانت تتوفر على مناطق كثيرة تكسوها الخضر و وفرة المياه والمراعي، لكن مع تغير المناخ جفت مناطق المياه وزالت الأراضي الخضراء الرعوية وحل محلها الرمال و الصخور.

3000 years ago, Twereg lived in the big desert, today’s desert is not yesterday’s one, t had a lot of green places and lots of water, but with the change of climate , water is gone, green lands disappear, it was replaced by rocks and sands.

Since more than 3000 years ago, Twareg crip on the vast desert and lived in it. The desert of today was not the one of yesterday. It was full of areas covered by plants and water. But by the climate change, water dried and green lands became desert.

ملخص:

إن من أهم بوادر نوعية التعبير الكتابي لدى متعلمي اللغات تجنب تراكيب نصية تخص اللغة الأولى أو أي لغة قد يلجئ إليها المتعلم، وتتجلى هذه الظاهرة في إجماع على تبيان أسلوبية النص العربي في كتابات طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية.

عنيت هذه الأطروحة بالتحقيق في أثر تلقين استثمار معارف اللغة الأولى على كيفية إنشاء الطلبة للنص باللغة الإنجليزية، ويتضمن تلقين هذا الاستثمار تحديد مظاهر تداخل النص العربي في النص الإنجليزي و الميزات النصية في اللغتين وأبعادها الثقافية بالإضافة إلى تقنيات ترجمة النص العربي إلى الإنجليزي. وقد اعتبرت هذه المعلومات افتراضا جزءا من مكونات الكفاءة في التواصل الكتابي.

استوفى التحقيق في المسألة الخوض في دراسة تجريبية أجريت على عينة من طلاب السنه الأ ولى ماستر في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة عبد الحميد ابن باديس ، و أسفرت نتائج البحث عن براهين إحصائية ووصفية داعمة للفرضية ، حيث تم إسناد نتائج الاختبار التي أفرزت انخفاضا معتبرا في نسبة الخصائص المستهدفة إلى التجربة، و هذا بالنظر إلى نتائج تقنية التفكير الجهوري و المقابلة، كما أظهرت التحاليل استخدام الطلبة أساليب الترجمة في تكييف معارف تواصلية مسبقة. و في الأخير تقدم الأطروحة العديد من التوصيات البيداغوجية تخص تلقين التعبير الكتابي في اللغة الانجليزية.