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**The Carryover of Arabic Rhetorical Patterns into English  
Writing**  
The Case of Second Year EFL Students at Larbi Tebessi  
University

A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Letters and English Language  
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master in Language Sciences

**Candidates:**

Romayssa KAMEL

Fatma Zahra BENMERAD

**Supervisor:**

Ms Chaïma BRAHAM

**Board of Examiners**

**President:** Mrs BOUGGOFFA Bisma MA-B – Larbi Tebessi  
University

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"Two pairs of concepts are essential to understanding of Near East: the relationship between Islam and the Arabs, and the joining between the secular and the religious realms in Islam"

(Berger, 1964, p.20)

## Abstract

This dissertation seeks to investigate the phenomenon of carryover in the writing of EFL students at Larbi Tebessi University Tebessa. It aims at identifying the Arabic rhetorical patterns which interfere within English argumentative writing. It also investigates whether following the steps of the writing process, has an impact on decreasing the carryover of these patterns. Therefore, the assumptions underlying this study are, first, the inspected sample carryover the non-linearity of paragraph organization, parallel constructions, indirectness, excessive use of coordination, repetition of words and ideas, the analogical and presentational styles of argumentation, the use of Quran, Hadith, and famous Arab scholars' quotations. Second, it assumes that following the process of writing is a remedial factor. Accordingly, to test the research assumptions, a descriptive research design was done with a mixed-method approach . This study was conducted on 25 participants from second-year EFL students at Larbi Tebessi University. The participants' argumentative paragraphs, in English and Arabic, produced during the first semester exams were analyzed qualitatively through a direct content analysis. Additionally, a questionnaire was opted for to cross-validate the data obtained from the content analysis through the participants' self reports and to test the second research assumption. Thus, a correlation test was applied to relate data obtained from both research instruments. The main results of the study affirm that the carryover of all the assumed rhetorical patterns with the exception of using Quran, Hadith and famous Arab scholars' quotations. Furthermore, the participants' self-report is not consistent with their actual writing performance, which asserts that they are either unaware of the carryover phenomenon or it is fossilized. Additionally, following the process of writing was not proved to help in decreasing the carryover of Arabic rhetorical patterns into English.

*Keywords:* carryover, rhetorical patterns, writing process, Arabic

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Dedication

*I thank Allah, the Almighty of everything*

*This work is dedicated to:*

*My beloved parents, Mabrouk Benmerad and Mabrouka Guerti for*

*Their carrying and support*

*To my brother, Redouane*

*To my Dear cousin, Anfel Laghbeche for her interest and help*

*A special dedication to my best friends: Roumayssa, Ghania, Garmia,*

*Sarra, Rabiaa, Nabila, Kawter, and Nawal.*

*To all teachers who have taught me throughout my higher studies at university.*

***Fatma Zahra BENMERAD***

## Dedication

*I dedicate wholeheartedly my dissertation to Allah the Almighty who helped me to overcome all the obstacles and finish this work. Who is always responding to my wishes. Who surrounded me with care and protection and healed me from sickness.*

*I also dedicated it to my beloved parents. To my brothers Sofiane and Ziad, my sisters and to my niece Israa and my nephew Taki-Eddin and Safi-Eddin*

*To my best friend Hanan Fisseh*

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***Romayssa KAMEL***

## List of Abbreviations, Acronyms and Symbols

**ANOVA:** Analysis of Variance

**CA:** Contrastive Analysis

**CAH:** Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

**CR:** Contrastive Rhetoric

**Df:** Degree of Freedom

**EA:** Error Analysis

**EFL:** English as a Foreign Language

**ESL:** English as a Second Language

**F:** The Ratio of the Degree Freedom

**IL:** Inter- Language

**ILH:** Inter- Language Hypothesis

**L1:** First Language, or Native Language (Arabic)

**L2:** Second Language, or Foreign Language (English)

**n:** Number

**NNSs:** Non-native Speakers

**p:** Significance Level

**r<sub>pb</sub>:** Point-biserial Correlation Coefficient

**SD:** The Standard Deviation

**Sig.:** Significance Level

**SLA:** Second Language Acquisition

**SPSS:** The Statistical Package of Social Sciences

**∗:** Ungrammatical sentence/example

**$\bar{x}$ :** The Sample Mean

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## List of Phonetic Symbols

### Consonant Sounds

Symbol	Arabic Letter	Description
/ʔ/	ء	Voiceless glottal plosive
/b/	ب	Voiced bilabial plosive
/t/	ت	Voiceless alveolar plosive
/θ/	ث	Voiceless dental fricative
/dʒ/	ج	Voiced post-alveolar fricative
/ħ/	ح	Voiceless pharyngeal fricative
/x/	خ	Voiceless uvular fricative
/d/	د	Voiced alveolar plosive
/ð /	ذ	Voiced dental fricative
/r/	ر	Voiced alveolar trill
/z/	ز	Voiced alveolar fricative
/s/	س	Voiceless alveolar fricative
/ʃ/	ش	Voiceless post-alveolar fricative
/s <sup>ʕ</sup> /	ص	Voiceless emphatic alveolar fricative
/t <sup>ʕ</sup> /	ط	Voiceless emphatic alveolar plosive
/ð <sup>ʕ</sup> /	ظ	Voiced emphatic dental fricative
/ʕ/	ع	Voiced pharyngeal fricative
/ɣ/	غ	Voiced uvular fricative
/f/	ف	Voiceless labio-dental fricative
/q/	ق	Voiceless uvular plosive
/k/	ك	Voiceless velar plosive
/l/	ل	Voiced alveolar lateral approximant
/m/	م	Voiced bilabial nasal
/n/	ن	Voiced alveolar nasal
/h/	ه	Voiceless glottal fricative
/w/	و	Voiced velar approximant
/j/	ي	Voiced palatal approximant
/g/	غ	Voiced velar plosive

(Adopted from Alsaeed and Sabir, 2014)

## Vowel Sounds

<b>Symbol</b>	<b>Description</b>
/i/	Close High Front Unrounded (short)
/i:/	Close High front Unrounded (long)
/æ/	Open Low Front Unrounded (short)
/a:/	Open Low Front Unrounded (long)
/u/	Close High Back Rounded (short)
/u:/	Close High Back Rounded (long)
/ə/	Close Central Unrounded

(Adapted from Kopczynski, 1993)

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**Résumé**

**الملخص**

## **General Introduction**

### **1. Background of the Study**

In English second/foreign language learning, the problem of native language interference often arises. Silva (2008) points out in this respect that “when writing English as a foreign language, it seems to be usual that most of the time students use their first language in order to reach an effective communication in the second one” (p. 208). Thus, it is assumed that first language transfer is one of the sources of learners’ English errors. However, beyond the transfer at the level of syntax, phonology, and orthography that are the main concerns of Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, and Interlanguage. Contrastive Rhetoric gave birth to a new type of native language transfer in the second/foreign language students’ writing, which is the transfer of rhetoric patterns of the first language. Kaplan (1966), the father of this field, related writing to its given culture i.e. each culture and language owns rhetorical patterns unique to them. These patterns cover the stylistic features and organizational structures that are particular to each language and culture. Therefore, cross-cultural differences are responsible for students carrying over of native language rhetorical patterns to the target language as well.

This type of transfer was attested by Connor (1996) who argued that English as a Second Language (ESL) learners use patterns of language and stylistic conventions that they have learned in their native language and culture. She showed that ESL learners transfer involves recurring patterns of organization and rhetorical conventions reminiscent of writing in the learners’ native language. Additionally, Elchachi (2015) found that Algerian students can manipulate grammar correctly. They can write a correct sentence as well, but it is challenging for them to write cohesive and clear paragraphs, due to the difference in the rhetorical style of Arabic and English. Particularly, the rhetoric patterns that mark Arabic

include non-linearity of discourse organization, excessive use of parallel construction, coordination, indirectness of ideas, repetition, and use of Qur'an; when transferred to English, these patterns make the piece of writing non-native like.

Consequently, writing in a second/foreign language is challenging, because the writer needs to have control over many aspects, including rhetorical conventions of the target language and avoiding transfer of those of the native language. Sheir et al. (2015) claim that writing “will be more manageable if it is taken as multiple step process” (p. 2). Therefore, applying the process of writing which is mainly composed of planning, drafting, editing, and proofreading may help students to develop effective written products. Hence, following the steps of the writing process is assumed to assist in decreasing the organizational and rhetorical mistakes of English as second/foreign language students.

## **2. Statement of the Problem**

The issue of language transfer in language learning is universal, and it is attested at all the levels of language among which is writing. Thus, Algerian learners of English as a Foreign language (EFL) are not an exception; they are attached to a different culture that further complicates writing for them (Almuhailib, 2019). Their English writing is often flavored with their native language and culture which makes it non-native like. In order to address this issue, many studies have been done to examine students' grammatical, mechanical, word order, and semantic errors that are generated from first language transfer. However, most of them fall short of examining the transfer of rhetorical patterns. Thus, this study is designed to examine the written production of English as a Foreign Language students beyond the sentence level in order to identify the different rhetorical patterns that students transfer and to examine whether following the writing process helps reducing overcoming this problem.



### **3. Aim of the Study**

The aim of this study is two-fold. First, it aims at analyzing students' paragraph writing in order to identify the rhetorical conventions of Arabic writing, if any, that may interfere in EFL students English writing at Larbi Tebssi university. Second, it aims at investigating the impact of following the process of writing in decreasing the transfer of such patterns into English. The significance of the study lies in raising learners' awareness about their violations of English norms, which are due to the transfer of Arabic rhetorical conventions.

### **4. Research Questions**

The study aims at addressing the following research questions.

1. What are the Arabic rhetorical patterns that second-year EFL students at Larbi Tebessi University carryover into their EFL argumentative writing?
2. What is the effect of following the different steps of the writing process on reducing students' carryover of Arabic rhetorical conventions into their English written paragraphs?

### **5. Research Assumptions**

1. Second-year EFL students at Larbi Tebessi University carryover the following rhetorical patterns of Arabic into their English argumentative paragraphs: non-linearity, indirectness, coordination, repetition, the analogical and presentational styles of argumentation, and the use of Qur'an, Hadith, proverbs, and quotation of famous Arab scholars as arguments.
2. Following the writing process decreases the carryover of Arabic rhetorical patterns into the students' English written paragraphs.

### **6. The population and Sample of the Study**

The population of the study consists of second-year EFL students at Larbi Tebessi University in the administratively year 2019 - 2020. The population is composed of 97 students who are divided into three groups. However, only 25 participants took part in this research. The rest of students were either unable or unwilling to cooperate due to the current

situation. Second-year students were chosen to participate in this study because they are well prepared to develop well structured-paragraphs in English, given that the first-year written expression syllabus and that of the second-year first semester are devoted to paragraph writing.

## **7. Research Methodology**

The research design followed in this study is descriptive with a mixed method-approach of data analysis i.e. data is analyzed using a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. Additionally, the data collection tools that are used in this study are a content analysis of the first semester exam paragraphs of the translation course that were produced in Arabic, in addition to the English argumentative paragraphs of the first semester exam of the civilization course. Moreover, the second research instrument is a questionnaire administered to the same students to cross-validate the data obtained from content analysis.

## **8. Structure of the Dissertation**

This dissertation is basically composed of two chapters, one is theoretical and the other is practical. The theoretical chapter is divided into two sections. The first section is devoted to related literature, including language transfer phenomenon and related fields, which are Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, inter-language hypothesis, and Contrastive Rhetoric. The second section includes definitions of rhetorical patterns followed by a list of Arabic rhetorical conventions. Then, it covers the process of writing. The practical chapter includes in the first section the methodology, sampling, and research instrument. The second section includes data obtained from the content analysis of students' paragraphs and from the questionnaire, in addition to the correlation of these data. The last section covers the discussion and interpretation of these findings, in addition to, limitations, pedagogical implications, recommendations for further research, and general conclusion of the whole research.

## **Chapter One: Language Transfer and Arabic Rhetorical Patterns**

### **Introduction**

Learners of English as a Second/Foreign Language may confront various learning difficulties at all the levels and skills of language, including writing. One of these difficulties is caused by language transfer. In the 1950s and 1960s language transfer was the main concern of second language theory (Connor, 1996), particularly with the spread of Contrastive Analysis (CA) and later on Error Analysis (EA) and Interlanguage (IL) which emphasized the negative transfer of the first language (L1) to the second language (L2). These fields were mainly concerned with learners' syntactic, phonological, and orthographic errors. Kaplan (1996) introduced a new phase of language transfer which is the transfer of rhetorical conventions from the source to the target language, through the launching of contrastive rhetoric (CR) as a field that deals with ESL/EFL writing. Arab speaking students of ESL/EFL, particularly, are assumed to transfer the stylistic features and rhetorical patterns of Arabic, which is in turn governed by its respective culture, to English writing. Such as the transfer of non-linearity of paragraph organization and the use of parallel construction, indirectness and vagueness of thoughts, the use of Qur'an in argumentation, the excessive use of coordination, in addition to the repetition of ideas and words. The issue of transfer and the Arabic rhetorical patterns that are subject to transfer in writing are covered in the following two sections, respectively.

### **1.1. Section One: Preliminary Concepts and Theories of Language Transfer**

Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, Interlanguage Hypothesis, and Contrastive Rhetoric are branches of applied linguistics that attempt to provide resolutions to second/foreign language learning problems. Therefore, they have provided varied explanations of language transfer phenomenon. Pioneers of CR indicate that the rhetorical patterns of L1 may interfere within the writing of L2. Therefore, this section presents how writing was seen as

culturally specific. It also provides definitions of language transfer by different linguists. As it gives insights about different fields of SLA and applied linguistics, and how they viewed the influence of the native language on the target language.

### **1.1.1. Writing as a Cultural Phenomenon**

Writing is a demanding skill; to be competent in writing is the last language skill to acquire because the writer has to account for various aspects both at and above the sentence level. At the sentence level, attention needs to be paid to the content, format, structure, spelling and vocabulary. Beyond the sentence level, the writer needs to integrate his ideas in a cohesive and coherent manner (Rao & Durga, 2018). It was until 1966 that writing was recognized to be culture-specific because each culture and language has a discourse structure and rhetorical patterns particular to it. Therefore, cultural diversity is responsible for the differences between discourse organization and rhetorical features across languages. However, the rhetorical patterns of a native language had been observed in the writing of a second/foreign language (Kaplan, 1966). Thus, the problem of transfer (either at the level of syntax, phonology, or rhetorical conventions) was gaining much attention from the fields of second language acquisition and applied linguistics.

### **1.1.2. Language Transfer**

Language transfer is a focal issue in both applied linguistics and second language acquisition; however, it is hard to give it a consolidated definition due to the various angles from which it was viewed. The clearest way to identify it is that it is a phenomenon which occurs in the performance of a target language during or after the process of learning. In order to provide a more technical definition of the concept, the attempts of different scholars to define it are presented hereafter.

Kellerman and Sharwood (1986) defined language transfer as “the interplay between earlier and later acquired language” (p. 1). By this definition, they claim that transfer is a kind of mixture between certain aspects of an already acquired language and the target language. Additionally, Odlin (1989) saw language transfer as “the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired” (p. 27). This definition refers to the two types of transfer, positive and negative, respectively. He also indicated that transfer does not necessarily happen from the mother tongue to the target language, it can occur from any previously learned language to the target language. On the contrary, Gass (1996) provided a broad definition of the term stating that language transfer is “the use of native language (or other language) data on the acquisition of an L2 (or additional language)” (p. 321). Richards and Schmidt (2010) provide a similar definition which states that “transfer is the effect of one language on the learning of another” (p. 322).

It is worth noting that linguists’ views about language transfer had witnessed a great shift. It was firstly seen from a behavioristic view where language acquisition was perceived as a habit formation process. Therefore, transfer meant that habits of the native language interfere with those of the target language, and it was related to the degree of differences and similarities between the native and the target language. This led to the emergence of Contrastive Analysis which is preoccupied with comparing languages in terms of differences and similarities to detect the zones of transfer. According to this field, language transfer was viewed as the single source of errors in second language acquisition. Later on, Error Analysis contended that transfer is only one of the sources of errors in Second/Foreign Language Acquisition. Then transfer was viewed as one of the principals of fossilization by pioneers of Interlanguage Hypothesis (ILH). Contrastive Rhetoric has narrowed the scope of transfer to focus only on writing. It asserts that ESL students may transfer the rhetorical patterns of their

native language into English. These different theories will be outlined in detail in the following subsections.

From a terminological point of view, Ellis (1994) declares the term transfer is not adequate to refer to the issue of falling back on the native language. Therefore the term cross-linguistic influence was introduced. Additionally, in research, the neutral term carryover is used to refer to transfer issues and it is based on Brown (2007) who claims that transfer is “the carryover of previous performance or knowledge to subsequent learning” (p. 102).

### **1.1.3. Types of Language Transfer**

Despite the fact that transfer is famously divided into two types, positive and negative, Ellis (1994) asserts that “the study of transfer involves the study of errors (negative transfer), facilitations (positive transfer), avoidance of target language forms, and their over-use” (p. 341). Therefore, negative transfer is the carrying over of native language structures or rules which results in errors and irrelevant forms in the target language (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). This type of transfer happens as a result of the differences between the source and the target language. In this respect, Weinreich (1953) asserted that in the process of second language acquisition, if linguistic elements are divergent from the first language of learners the transfer will be negative and hinders learning. Terminologically, negative transfer is known also as language interference (Ellis, 1994).

On the contrary, positive transfer takes place when there are similarities between the L1 and the L2. Such similarities facilitate the learning of target language; they make “learning easier and may occur when both the native language and the target language has the same form” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, pp. 322-323). What Ellis (1994) refers to as avoidance is the underuse of structures that are difficult for learners because they are different from their native language. For example, Arab ESL learners tend to omit the preposition *for* in examples

like “pay the book”\* instead of “pay for the book”, because in Arabic, it is appropriate to say “dafaṣaa θamanaa ṭalkitaab”. Finally, the overuse or generalization of L2 rules is a common transfer phenomenon. For instance, ESL/EFL learners’ generalize the "ed" inflection of regular past tense to irregular verbs.

#### **1.1.4. Theories of Language Transfer**

Applied linguists and teaching professionals tried to reach a precise understanding of language transfer, predict the areas of influence, and how it occurs (Al-Khresheh, 2016). The following are subfields of applied linguists that were introduced to provide solutions of second language acquisition problems, and language transfer is one of them.

**1.1.4.1. Contrastive Analysis.** It is a branch of applied linguistics which is concerned with resolving problems with second language learning. According to Al-Khresheh (2016), the field was introduced by Lado (1957) who had extended it from Fries (1945) who is the founder of contrastive linguistics. CA is based on the assumption that elements of L2 that are similar to the learners’ L1 are acquired easily, whereas elements that are different from the learners’ L1 are difficult for them to acquire. The field is based on comparing two or more languages to find similarities and differences between them. Therefore, it relays on previous description of L1 and L2. This is reflected in Fisiak (1981) who defined it as “ subfield of linguists that deals with comparing two or more language system or subsystem of languages for the sake of finding the similarities and the differences between them” (p. 21). The field draws from the behaviourist assumption that first language habits can interfere with the acquisition of second language habits (Keshavarz, 2011). Behaviourists view second language learning as any type of learning that requires repetition, imitation, and reinforcement (Ellis, 1994). Contrastive analysis perceives errors of second language learning as sins that should be reduced through punishment from teachers (Keshavarz, 2011).

*1.1.4.1.1. Versions of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis.* Contrastive analysis came in three versions, strong, weak, and moderate, because its proponents had different views.

- **The Strong Version of CAH** saw the interference of the source language as “a principal barrier” to second language learning (Keshavarz, 2011). It came with strong views regarding second language learning difficulties and errors; hence it sought to identify them before the learning process. The underlying assumptions of the strong version of CA that are summarized by Lee (1968) are as follows. First, the basic reason behind the second/foreign language learning difficulties and errors is first language interference. Second, all second/foreign language learning difficulties result from the differences between L1 and L2. Third, the greater the differences between L1 and L2 are, the more severe learning difficulties are. Forth, the comparison between L1 and L2 is essential to predict learning difficulties and errors. Finally, teaching is based on comparing languages and subtracting similarities, so that teaching focuses primarily on the differences extracted by CA.

- **The Weak Version of CAH** was introduced by Wardhaugh in 1970 due to the strong version's ambitious and impracticable assumptions (Keshavarz, 2011). This version does not predict errors before they occur; rather it examines them after they have been committed by learners. It sets as a diagnostic rather than a predictive model. The weak version of CA hypothesis still acknowledges the role of first language interference in second language learning as a source of difficulties; however, it recognizes the fact that it is not the only one (Keshavarz, 2011).

- **The Moderate Version of CAH** was introduced by Oller and Ziahosseing in 1970 (Keshavarz, 2011). These researchers found that spelling errors committed by foreign learners of English whose native languages are French, Spanish, Germanic, and Slavic, which use the Roman alphabet, are much more than the spelling errors of learners whose native languages



are Chinese, Japanese, and Semitic. These findings reject the assumption of the weak and strong versions of the field which state that the differences between the L1 and the L2 lead to difficulties and negative transfer. This study showed that newly learnt aspects that are different from the L1 are easily acquired than aspects nearly similar to the L1. Therefore, a call for a moderate version neither very strong nor very weak was necessary. This version focuses on the fact that the hardest elements to acquire are sounds, meanings, and sequences of the L2 that have a slight difference from the L1, and those which are different within the target language itself (Keshavarz, 2011). For example, the slight differences in the orthographic representation of the verb “assister” and the verb “assist” in French and English, respectively, cause a great confusion to learners; also, the slight differences between American and English language varieties such as the writing of the words “realize” and “realise” is a source of difficulty.

**1.1.4.1.2. Criticism of Contractive Analysis.** The field of CA had received heavy criticism from its opponent because it attributes the errors of second/foreign language learners only to mother tongue interference. However, mother tongue interference is only one source of errors. The field neglected many other factors influencing learners’ performance like over-generalization, transfer of training (Keshavarz, 2011), psychology, and pedagogy. Additionally, some errors predicted by CA are only hypothetical. Thus, they do not really appear in learners’ performance of second/foreign language. In contrast, many other errors that are observed by teachers were not covered by CAH. In short, CA is based on the assumption that difference equals difficulty. However, this is not always true, and this was proved by the initiators of the moderated version of the hypothesis (Keshavarz, 2011).

Since contrastive analysis has failed to account for all learning difficulties, researchers introduced error analysis as an alternative.

**1.1.4.2. Error Analysis.** It is a type of linguistic analysis that is used to delimit or to interpret systematic errors that appear in learners' foreign language production because errors are no longer seen as sins, but rather as signs of progress in both first language acquisition and second language acquisition (Keshavarz, 2011). Proponents of EA believe that errors are prerequisite in any learning case. They help learners to adjust the hypotheses they made about the target language through the feedback that they receive from the environment (Keshavarz, 2011).

Additionally, EA accounts for second/foreign language learners' errors that result either from first language interference or any other sources. Its application has led to the introduction of two sources of errors. It acknowledges interlanguage errors which are caused by the carrying over of elements from the native language into the target language, and intralanguage errors which result from the influence of an element of the target language on another element (Keshavarz, 2011). For example, saying: “he is comes” instead of “he comes” based on the structure “he is coming”

Error analysis has also led to the identification of different types of errors. First, omission errors refer to the absence of an item that should be present in a sentence, For example, “she sleeping”\* instead of “she is sleeping”. Second, addition errors refer to adding unnecessary items in a sentence, such as replying to “did you go there?” by saying “we did not go there”. Here the item “there” is a mere addition. Third, misordering errors refer to the misplacement of a word in a sentence, for example, “what daddy is doing”\*. Finally, misinformation/selection errors refer to the insertion of an incorrect form of a morpheme or a structure, for example, “the dog ated the chicken”\* (Ellis, 1994).

According to Keshavarz (2011) errors analysis is based on the following three main assumptions. First, errors are regarded as a natural phenomenon. Therefore, first or second language cannot be learnt without committing errors. Second, errors are important in the

process of learning. Third, it asserts that language interference is only one of the sources of errors.

**1.1.4.2.1 Criticism of Error Analysis.** Error analysis has not succeeded in bringing a full picture of SL/FL learners' language because its pioneers have focused only on what learners do wrong. Whereby, they ignored investing correct constructions. Given that it is important to account for errors and accuracies to get a clear picture of SL/FL learners' language (Ellis, 1994; Al-khresheh, 2016). Additionally, according to Ellis (1994), EA studies were cross-sectional; they provide only a static view of SLA. Little studies tried to separate errors at various stages of development. Therefore it was not very helpful in bringing understanding of L2 acquisition over time. Al-khresheh (2016) also claims that EA was criticized for providing poor statistical inferences about learners' language. For example, avoidance was not studied by EA because it is concerned only with explicit errors i.e. when learners confront a difficulty with grammatical or syntactical structures, they try to avoid using such structure. These avoided structures are not studied by EA (Ellis, 1994; Al-khresheh, 2016)

**1.1.4.3. Interlanguage Hypothesis .** It is introduced by Selinker in 1969 to refer to a stage in second language learning where learners built a new language which is different from both the target and the native language (Al-Khresheh, 2015). This language has its own linguistic system that results from the learner's attempt to perform the L2. It is variant from both the source and the target language, but it has common features with both of them at the same time (Kashavarz, 2011).

According to Al-Khresheh (2015) during the process of second language acquisition, learners built hypotheses about L2 rules. These rules are assumed to be “mental grammars” which form the IL system. Learners keep adjusting IL rules through omitting some and adding others until they reach the full IL system. This process is known as interlanguage continuum.

However, when learners stop progressing in their L2 learning, their IL will be fossilized. Only successful learners would not fossilize because they will continue progressing to reach the complete L2 competence. It is worth noting that fossilization according to Selinker (1972) refers to “linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of particular native language will tend to keep in their IL relative to particular target language, no matter the age of the learner or amount of explanation or instruction he receives in the target language” (p. 215).

**1.1.4.4. Contrastive Rhetoric.** It is another branch of applied linguistics, which appeared as an independent field towards the 1960s. It was primarily set by Kaplan (1966) when he noticed that the writing of native English speakers differs from that of non-native speakers of English that came from different cultural backgrounds. Therefore, the field is based on the claim that language and writing are cultural phenomena to a certain degree, and rhetorical tendencies differ from one culture to another; this leads the rhetorical conventions and linguistic patterns of the native language to interfere within the writing of the target language (Connor, 2002). Additionally, Kaplan (1966) believes that logic is culture-specific. Thus, he states that “logic which is the basis of rhetoric is evolved out of culture” (p. 2). For Kaplan logic and rhetoric are interdependent and culturally bound which makes the subject to transfer.

Contrastive rhetoric, then, has emerged and progressed to examine the second language text and discourse paradigms in the writings of English as a second language learners (Hinkel, 2002). CR does not deal with syntactic issues in writing similar to error analysis, it rather moved ahead to compare discourse structure across cultures and genres (Connor, 1996). It is concerned with subjects like the contrast between reader responsible and writer responsible modes of interpretation, the organization of information in research papers and dissertations written by non-native speakers (NNSs), and the organization of paragraphs in ESL students’ essays.

Along the same line, Connor (1996) defines CR as an “area of research in second language acquisition that identifies problems in composition encountered by second-language writers and, by referring to the rhetorical strategies of the first language, attempts to explain them” (p.5 ). Similarly, According to Hinkel (2002), “contrastive rhetoric further studies the effects of NNSs first language rhetorical construction of textual frameworks on the text that NNSs produce in ESL” (p. 5). In other words, CR studies the writing of NNSs of English; particularly, the effect of their first language rhetorical convention on their writing of English. Consequently, Hinkel (2002) claims that CR provides the teaching of L2 writing with discourse paradigms on different rhetorical traditions (languages), which help in comprehending the construction of texts across different languages. This is based on Kaplan (1966) assertion that CR helps the foreign language student to shape “standards of judgment consistent with the demand made upon him” (p. 15) by the new educational system that he became a member of i.e. the foreign language student became able to judge his second language writing based on the target language conventions which CR provide him/her with. In 2002 Connor, refined her definition of CR by stating that:

Contrastive Rhetoric examines differences and similarities in ESL and EFL writing across languages and cultures as well as across such different contexts as education and commerce. Hence, it considers texts not merely as static products but as functional parts of dynamic cultural contexts. (p. 493)

This refinement shows that CR does not only investigate the linguistic and cultural differences and similarities in EFL/ESL students writing, it also examines such difference and similarities across specific genres. Besides, CR does not treat texts as finished products but rather as reflections of dynamic cultural context.

Hinkel (2005) justifies the scope of CR by asserting that it arose from the fact that language is not composed of separate syntactic structures but rather of “naturally occurring

discourse” (p. 375). CR focuses primarily on written discourse because literacy is not only the control over vocabulary and grammar; rather it is the ability of encoding and decoding discourse. Additionally, contrastive rhetoric was the first trial to explain English second language writing because the latter was neglected due to the dominance of the audio-lingual method in teaching, which focuses on teaching oral skills only (Connor, 1996).

Kaplan (1966) called for analyzing texts beyond sentence level, in which he relayed on the paragraph as a unit of text analysis rather than the sentence. His rhetoric classified discourse into four types; description, narration, argumentation, and exposition. Persuasion as a discourse was neglected by Kaplan (1966), despite the fact that it was the main component of classical rhetoric. Persuasion was replaced by argumentation, which based on rational, logical appeal, and emphasized instruction in deductive and inductive reasoning. As a result credibility and emotions as two other appeals of persuasion were neglected from the analysis and formal instruction of rhetoric for a century (Connor, 1996).

***1.1.4.4.1. The Origin and Development of Contrastive Rhetoric.*** According to Connor (2008), Kaplan in his seminal work was inspired by contrastive analysis, the notion of rhetoric, and the Sapir-Whorpean hypothesis of language relatively. The main idea of contrastive analysis is that difference equals difficulty; thus, once there is a difference, learning problems and negative transfer exist. The same idea applies in contrastive rhetoric; cultural differences lead to the transfer of the rhetorical patterns of the native language to the target language.

Additionally, Kaplan (1966) had taken the term rhetoric from Aristotle. Aristotelian rhetoric was based on five necessary elements namely, invention, memory, arrangement, style, and delivery. However, Kaplan (1966) was concerned only with the arrangement and organisation of texts. It is worthy to mention that the term rhetoric was first used by Plato (380 BC), by which he referred to the art of speaking (Kennedy, 2001), and it is derived from

the Greek term “Rhetor, rheto-rike” which refers to the act of persuading people aurally, that is why, centuries later the term was no longer used to refer to speaking (Connor, 1996).

Accordingly, Hyland (2009) defines rhetoric as the way language is used to persuade, convince, or elicit support. However, the new use of the term rhetoric includes also argumentation (Connor, 1996). Contrastive rhetoric developed as well from the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis of linguistic relativity that suggests that language controls (strong version), or influences the perception and thought (weak version) in different ways. Consequently, second language affects perception and thought. Linguistic relativity has influenced CR even though both its strong and weak versions had been harshly criticized and considered vague and improvable (Connor, 1996).

**1.2.2.4.2. Criticism of Classical Contrastive Rhetoric.** In its early years of appearance contrastive rhetoric was limited only with text organization of ESL students. Thus, it had received sharp criticism because it accounts only for the organization of finished texts, rather than how they were produced (Liebman, 1992; Connor 1996; Al-Rubaye 2015; Almu hailib 2019); in addition to neglecting variables which may affect students' written products like educational and developmental process (Connor 1996).

Kaplan has also been criticized for privileging the sample of native English speakers which do not have any cross-cultural features (Connor 1996; Almu hailib 2019). He had been also described as being ethnocentric by preferring written tradition of English over other languages written tradition, particularly when he viewed English as linear in thinking and reasoning and other languages as digressive and circular (Connor, 1996; Al-Qahtani, 2006; Al-Rubaye, 2015). Kaplan was also criticized for classifying many languages, such as Korean, Thai, and Chinese under one broad category that he called oriental. In addition to other categories, such as Semitic, Romance, Russian, and English which dismisses the

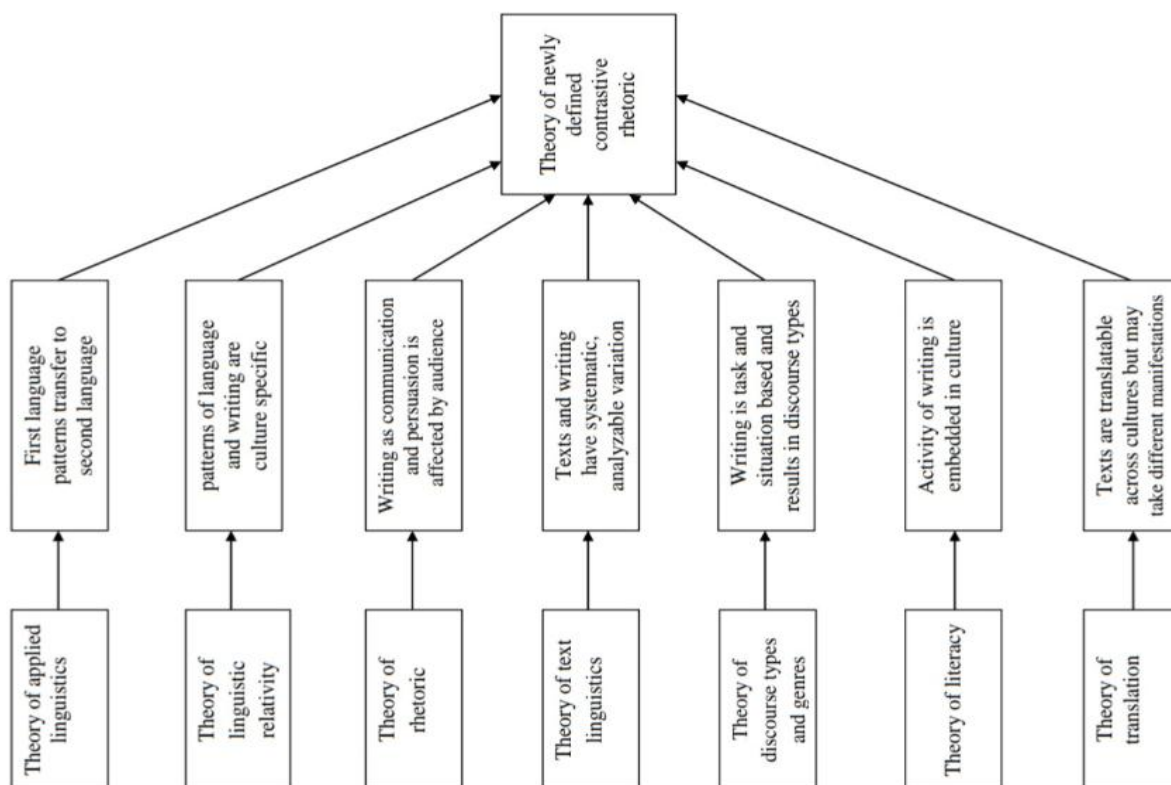
linguistic and the rhetorical differences that may exist between them (Connor, 1996; Al-Rubaye, 2015).

Finally, Kaplan also had been criticized for analyzing only students' second language writing and disregarding the analysis of their first language writing (Al-Qahtani, 2006). Pioneers of the field such as Kaplan (1966) and Connor (1996) had responded to the criticism through enlarging the discipline to include other domains, in addition to other genres like persuasion, narration, and business letters. They also became interested with other rhetorical features like reader-writer relationship (Liebman, 1992).

**1.1.4.4.3. Theories Influencing Contrastive Rhetoric.** Connor (1996) tried to make contrastive rhetoric more inclusive and interdisciplinary through taking aspects from the various theories presented in Figure 1 and explained thereafter.

**Figure 1**

*Influences on Newly Defined Contrastive Rhetoric* (Adopted from Connor, 1996, p. 9)





- **The Theory of Applied Linguistics** is primarily concerned with foreign language learners' problems; that is why, CR acknowledges the assumption that first language transfer occurs in the second language. This theory brings to CR insights about aspects linked to language acquisition and learning, interconnectedness between language skills, and levels of language proficiency (Connor, 1996).

- **The Theory of Linguistic Relativity** is one of the fundamental theories to contrastive rhetoric as it has been mentioned before. Particularly, the weak version which indicates that language influence thought, earned acceptability among linguists and psychologists. Thus, many linguists started to focus on linguistic and cultural differences as factors affecting writing (Connor, 1996).

- **The Theory of Rhetoric** is crucial in the foundation of CR. Kaplan had applied the assumptions of Aristotle rhetoric in ESL expository essays. Moreover, Connor (1996) asserts that classical rhetoric has two important influences on the development of CR. First, the contribution of different rhetoricians led to distinguishing the aims and modes of discourse. This pushed rhetoricians to revise the types of text used in cross-cultural comparisons. As result, they started analyzing narrative and persuasive students' essays alike. The second influence is the concept of audience which was stressed by all rhetoricians, starting from Aristote.

- **The Theory of Text Linguistics** is based on the description of texts cohesion, structures of texts, theme dynamics, and meta-textual features. The same procedures became used by contrastive rhetoricians to analyze texts. Even recent text linguistic analysis began to analyze texts beyond the sentence level (Connor, 1996).

- **The Theory of Discourse Types and Genres** is essential in contrastive rhetoric because it helps in establishing texts' comparability, given that CR theory and its research method are applicable to various types of texts (Connor, 1996) either academic or professional

(Hamadouch, 2015). Connor (1996) had differentiated texts according to three dimensions. The first is discourse type, which is chosen according to the aim of discourse, such as argumentative prose. The second is text type that is chosen according to the mode of discourse, such as a narrative passage in argumentative text. The third is the genre which is formed in the light of cultural and traditional requirements specific to a given purpose and task, such as a research report in biology (Connor, 1996, p. 11). Contrastive rhetoric had developed to include many other genres as well.

- **The Theory of Literacy** is at the core of CR. To achieve a comprehensive theory of contrastive rhetoric, rhetoricians need to acknowledge literacy which is defined literally by Richards & Schmidt (2010) as "the ability to read and write in a language" (p. 345). The theory of literacy is related to writing and speaking skills. It is interested with issues like reader-writer relationship and the impact of cultural background on learners writing and influence of literacy in language learning. This theory is attached CR since it is concerned with development of literacy including writing.

- **The Theory of Translation** and contrastive rhetoric stem from linguistics; "both are applied rather than theoretical" (Connor, 1996, p.117). They are concerned with first and second language, and use the same literature on language acquisition. Many concepts emerged for translation studies are inserted into CR research. Additionally, acceptability of a text for the audience is a significant issue for both translation and contrastive rhetoric (Connor, 1996).

It is worthy to note that Connor (2004) proposes the term "*intercultural rhetoric*" as a new name for CR to further enlarge the scope of the field. She states that the term intercultural rhetoric:

better reflects the dynamic nature of the area of study. Text analyses, genre analyses, and corpus analyses are necessary tools for the intercultural rhetoric researcher. Yet, we need to consider the small cultures interacting with the big national culture as we

collect, analyze, and interpret the data. Furthermore, for intercultural rhetoric to continue as a viable area of research with practical implications, it has to be mindful of the powerful interactions of oral and written discourses in message formulation in intercultural communication. (p. 302)

Intercultural rhetoric relies on text analysis, genre analysis, and corpus analysis as methodological tools to do the intercultural rhetoric studies and it also accounts for the subcultures within the national culture in the process of collecting, analyzing, and interpreting the data.

To sum up, despite the different views concerning language transfer as a learning problem inhibiting second language learning. The field of contrastive rhetoric which is interested primarily in ESL writing is based on the assumption of transfer. Contrastive rhetoric considers writing as a culturally linked activity because each language and its underlying culture is marked by specific rhetorical patterns. Students often carryover such patterns from their native language to English. In the following section, the Arabic rhetorical patterns that are subject to carryover are delineated.

## **1.2. Section Two: The Gap between Arabic and English Rhetorical Patterns & the Writing Process**

Many linguists have investigated the issue of the Arabic rhetorical patterns carryover into ESL/EFL writing; Arabs such as, Sa'adeddin (1989); Al-Khatib (1994, 2001); Fakhri (1995); Mohamed and Omer (1999); Shaikhulislami and Makhlof (2002); and Abu-Rass (2011), and non-Arabs including Johnstone (1983, 1991); Ried (1992); and Connor (1996). Their findings have shown a set of Arabic rhetorical patterns that are transferred in ESL/EFL students' writing; these are explained in this section. Additionally, going through different steps to reach an organized piece of writing may permit ESL/EFL students to avoid or reduce

the transfer of native rhetorical patterns into English writing. Thus, Harmer's (2004) writing process model is introduced in the section as well.

### ***1.2.1. Rhetorical Patterns Defined***

Rhetorical patterns/conventions are defined by Connor (1996) as repeated patterns of discourse organization and stylistic preferences. Each language has a specific text organization and stylistic features unique to it. These cross-linguistic differences between languages can be a cause behind L2 learners' transfer of L1 text features into their L2 text productions (Fakhri 1995). In this respect, Al-khatib (2001) found that Jordanian students of English transfer the writing style of Arabic into English and depend on a language that represents the Arab cultural thought pattern that is featured by being long and indirect in their English writing. Kaplan (1966) asserted that Arabic paragraph organization is non-linear because it is heavy with parallel construction, and it is featured with the presence of coordinating conjunctions as well. Additionally, Abu-Rass (2011) claims that the Arabic style is characterized by repetition, indirectness, elaborateness, and emotive language. These different features, and others, are outlined in the following subsections and compared to their English equivalents.

### ***1.2.2. Non-linear Paragraph Organization and the Excessive Use of Parallel Construction***

**Figure 2**

*The Graphic Representation of Paragraph Organization across Different Languages*

(Adopted from Kaplan, 1966, p. 15)



In Kaplan's seminal work that initiated the field of contrastive rhetoric (1966), the term linear thought pattern was introduced correspondingly with the term non-linear thought pattern which refers to paragraph development in written discourse, these are represented graphically in Figure 2 above which reflects the paragraph organization forms of many languages including English, Semitic, Oriental, Romance, and Russian. English paragraph development particularly, which is the concern of this study, is represented in a vertical line which indicates that English writing is linear, in contrast to Semitic languages, like Arabic, which is non-linear and digressive. It is represented in a horizontal dashed (zigzag) line. Kaplan (1966) believed that each language has its internal logic, which controls the way clauses are related to each other. Logic, that is the basis of rhetoric, differs from culture to culture, and even from time to time within the same culture.

**1.2.2.1. The Linearity of English.** Kaplan had related the linearity of English thought pattern to Aristotelian syllogism because the English pattern of thought has evolved out of the Platonic-Aristotelian logic (Kaplan, 1966). Syllogism is a form of logical reasoning based on combining two logical premises to lead to one conclusion (Drid, 2015). Aristotle's famous syllogism is "all human are mortal, Socrates is human, Socrates is mortal". In simpler terms, Kaplan (1966) explains the linearity of English writing by stating that "the flow of ideas occurs in straight line from the opening sentence to the last sentence" (p. 5). Bennett (1998) describes the Western linear style as well by claiming that a point leads to another point and connections are established between them. At the end, a conclusion is explicitly stated. This linearity is thus reflected in the organization of the English paragraph. For more details about the typical English paragraph refer to heading 1.2.9, p.

**1.2.2.2. The Non-linearity of Arabic.** Arabic writing is non-linear and digressive; these features are reflected in the organization of the Arabic paragraph (refer to heading 1.2.9, p. ) and to the excessive use of parallel constructions either positive or negative (Kaplan, 1966).

Parallel constructions (or parallelism) show that two or more points are equally significant, since the writer states them in a grammatically parallel form. It occurs at the level of words, phrases, or clauses. Dickins et al. (2002) add that parallelism includes repetition of the same grammatical category and categories, either nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, or prepositions.

*1.2.2.2.1. Types of Parallel Construction.* Kaplan (1966) analyzed L2 writings of Arab speaking ESL students. He concluded that their writing is based on the following four types of parallel construction.

- **Synonymous Parallelism** is “balancing the thought and phrasing of the first part of statement by the second part” (Kaplan, 1966, p. 7). The two parts are most of the time connected by “and”. For example, “His descendants will be mightily in the land **and** the generation of the upright will be blessed”. This type of parallelism is known as canonical parallelism as well. Some researchers consider it as an oral phenomenon such as (Ong 1982 as cited in Johnstone, 1991), whereas, others do not regard it as being particular to oral performances since there are oral poems that do not include parallelism, and it is found as well in the written Chinese prose (Johnstone, 1991).
- **Synthetic Parallelism** involves continuing the idea of the first part in the second part. The two parts are linked by conjunctive adverbs which could be stated or implied. For example, “Because he inclined his ear to me, (therefore) I will call on him as long as I live” (Kaplan, 1966).
- **Antithetic Parallelism** shows that the idea declared in the first part is “emphasized by the expression of a contrasting idea in the second part. The contrast is expressed not only in thought but often in phrasing” (Kaplan, 1966, p. 7). For example, “For the Lord knows the way of the righteous **but** the way of the wicked shall perish”.
- **Climatic Parallelism** is different and artistic because “the idea of a passage is not completed until the very end of passage. This form is similar to the modern periodic

sentence in which the subject is postponed to the very end of the sentence” (Kaplan, 1966, p. 7). For example, “Give unto the Lord, O ye sons of the mightily, give unto the Lord Glory and strength”. This kind of parallel construction can be found in single sentences and often can be the core of a paragraph in Arabic writing. Climatic parallelism makes ESL Arabic students’ writing awkward (Kaplan, 1966).

Johnstone (1991) states that parallelism involves repetition because linguistic parallel structures have a “common structural frame” (p. 33) within which some elements may differ in form, but they still have close relationship with one another. These elements can be “phonological, morphological, register, synonyms, or antonyms; metaphorical versions of one another” (p. 33). She also explained the use of parallelism firstly used in the ancient Hebrew poetry. As such, verses in Semitic oral tradition were developed around “conventional fixed pairs of words” (p. 21), each pair occurs in a structurally identical setting. The following is an example of a translated verse from Hebrew poetry; “found it upon the seas, ... And establish it upon the floods”(Johnstone, 1991).

Connor (1996) provides another reason behind the use of parallel constructions in Arabic rhetoric which is the influence of the Qur’an that was written in Classical Arabic. The following is an example of an antithetic parallel construction in Qur’an:

**“Then the companions of the rich hand; How happy are the companions of the right hand! And the companions of the left hand; How wretched are the companions of the left hand.”** (Waqi’ah, Verse 10).

*1.2.2.2.1. Criticism of Kaplan Claim.* Connor (1996) criticizes Kaplan (1966) for considering all English writing as following a linear organizational pattern. For Kaplan a writing pattern (linear) reflects the thinking pattern (linear) which is not feasible to Connor. Believing in this means that Chinese writing is circular; therefore, Chinese should think in circles.

Arabic researchers were defensive about their native writing; therefore they explained that not all Arabic writing is non-linear and attributed the non-linearity of ESL/EFL students writing to other factors. In this regard, Sa'adeddin (1989) claims that linearity exists in Arabic scientific and formal prose since the eleventh century, and he had related non-linearity of writing to the type of text development itself. He had distinguished two types of text development; aural and visual. In the aural text, the message is delivered aurally; therefore, the text would contain aural traits, such as repetition, overemphasis, loose packaging of information, lack of cohesion, and simplicity of thematic structure. However, the visual text is developed to be read; in the words of Sa'adeddin (1989), it is “meat for the eye” (p. 38). It is featured by an adequate balance of content and expressions, linearity, complicated thematic structure, in addition to “elaborate organization in terms of sentences, paragraphs, and discourse” (p. 38).

It is obvious that the non-native English texts which are based on aural norms should be rejected by native English receivers because the ideal English text is a “linearly-developed, logically coherent, and syntactically cohesive unit of sense” (Sa'adeddin, 1989, p. 39). Sa'adeddin (1989) further claims that non-linearity exists only in aural texts like students presentation in the classroom, but visual texts, like students exam papers, would not contain such features. Shaikhulislami and Makhlof (2002) support this idea by claiming that Arabic ESL/EFL would write in a linear manner when the given time is sufficient.

### ***1.2.3. Indirectness***

According to Fakhri (1994), Arabic is a reader-responsible language. Writers are not preoccupied with explaining their intended meaning. It is the readers' mission to extract the meaning of texts. Therefore, their ideas tend to be indirect and ambiguous. Arab ESL/EFL learners are assumed to transfer this habit into English writing. However, indirectness and ambiguity are not tolerated in English, because English is a writer-responsible language.



English writers are required to be clear in the presentation of ideas i.e. they are more careful in considering the audience.

Kaplan (1966) explains the indirectness of non English writings by stating that:

The development of paragraphs may be said to be turning and turning in a widening gyre, the circles or gyres turn around the subject and show it from variety of tangential views, but the subject is never looked at directly. Things are developed in terms of what they are not, rather than in terms of what they are. (p. 10)

Depending on Kaplan's (1966) view, indirectness is stating different ideas related to the main subject, but the subject itself is not clearly stated, it is up to the reader to decipher the those ideas in order to understand the main subject. Sa'addedin (1989) and Zaharna (1995) support this idea by asserting that the indirectness in Arabic writing is due to the overemphasis on words at the expense of their meaning which leads to the vagueness of thoughts as represented in Hinkel's model (Appendix A).

Zaharna (1995) sought other justification for the indirectness and ambiguity of Arabic style. She claims that it is a reflection of favoring rich emotions; contrary to the American style of communication which favors clarity and directness. This style is suitable for presenting facts, expectations, and techniques because it avoids emotional appeals and suggestive allusions. Additionally, Zaharna (1995) has related indirectness of writing to culture through distinguishing high-context and low-context cultures. In the high-context culture meaning is expressed more in the context rather than through words. However, in the low-context culture, the meaning is embedded in words more than the context. Therefore, communication is indirect and ambiguous in the first, and it is direct and precise in the second. For example, it is common of high-context cultures to explain the importance of friendship through telling a story about friends' help, however, in low context cultures, it is more common to state a list of the advantages of friendship directly. The Arabic culture is

high-context, and the American culture is low-context. Therefore, Arab speakers or writers turn around the target point and expect the audience to understand the spoken or the written message.

**1.2.3.1. Hinkel's Model of Indirectness.** Hinkel (1997) attributes the indirectness and vagueness in second language writing of non-native speakers (NNSs) of English to the use of indirectness markers, which are not used in the same way by natives. Hinkel (1997) assumed that NNSs writing would be considered vague and insufficiently clear by English native speakers if it does not obey conventions of essay and textual movement from point to point in English. Hinkel (1997) argued that indirectness devices should be avoided because the aim is to create accurate, precise, explicit ideas, and supported assumptions. For him, clarity and explicitness is prerequisite in academic writing. The later had divided indirectness markers into rhetorical devices, disclaimers and denials, vagueness and ambiguity, hedges and hedging devices, point of view distancing, downtoners, diminutives, discourse particles, demonstratives, indefinite pronouns and determiners, conditional tenses, and passive voice. For a detailed and exemplified representation of these markers consult Appendix A.

#### ***1.2.4. The Excessive Use of Coordination***

Coordination is the act of relating two ideas of equal importance. On the contrary, subordination links two ideas where one is less important than the other. Coordination connects two dependent clauses using one of the coordination conjunctions for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so. However, subordination connects two independent clauses through transitional phrases, semicolon, subordinating conjunctions or relative pronouns (Kent State University, n.d.).

Empirically, Ostler (1987) compared English essays written by Saudi Arabian students and ten paragraphs chosen randomly from English books. She concluded that the Saudi Arabian students' essays contained long sentence and excessive use of coordination in

contrast to English paragraphs which include low rate of subordinates. Similarly, Ried (1992) analyzed the writings of Arabic, Spanish, Chinese, and English native speakers. He found that Arabic speaking writers use more personal pronouns and coordinating conjunctions and less subordinate conjunctions in contrast to English writers. More specifically, Beaugrand et al. (1992) argued that Arab speaking writers use the connective “waa” (and) frequently. They related the preference of using such connective to the oral tradition of Arabic language. They claim that students of English whose first language is Arabic tend to overuse “and” as a connector because they are not certain about the use of other English connectors such as moreover, besides, and however among others.

Another comparative study of coordination and subordination in Arabic short stories and English tradition was done by Mohamed and Omer (1999) who showed that Arabic short stories contain a high rate of coordination, while the English translation contains a high rate of subordination. Similarly, Connor (1996) compared English and Arabic in terms of subordination and coordination. She found that in English writing, subordination is favored in various cases and it is used to combine sentences. However, coordination is favored in Arabic. Therefore, words like “and”, “but” and “so” are used frequently by Arabic ESL learners. Kaplan (1966) declared that Arabic writers use coordinating conjunctions to relate sentences and even paragraphs.

### ***1.2.5. The Use of Qur’anic Verses***

Many researchers found that Arab speaking students of English are strongly influenced by the Holy Qur’an that is why they use it as a support to their claims and opinions in their Arabic writing and even English. Abu-Rass (2011) figure out that writers often use Qur’an, the saying of the prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him), or quotations of famous Islamic scholars to strengthen their claims. In (2011), she asserted that Arabic speaking students of English depend on Qur’anic Verses to convince the reader. Likewise, Al-Khatib (1994)

argued that Arab students use "Qur'anic Verses, traditions, proverbs, and wisdoms" (p. 168) for emotive persuasion. Qur'an is used to support arguments and to involve the audience emotionally through arousing their fear, sympathy, like, and dislike. It is worthy to say that if Muslim students of English transfer this habit into their English argumentative writing, they may be assumed as mixing between argumentation and persuasion; for the difference between the two (refer to heading 1.2.7, page. ) below.

### ***1.2.6. The Use of Repetition***

Repetition is defined by Shnnaq and Fargal (1999, p. 36 as cited in Najjar, 2015) as a “phenomenon which refers to using more words than necessary to express a concept”. According to Dickins et al. (2002), Arabs make excessive use of repetition of synonymous words, such as “مستمرة و متواصلة” “mustamirraa waa mutawaas’ilaa” (continuing and continues manner)\* or near synonymous, such as “الإستقصاء و التحليل” “’I?istiqs’aa?uu waa ?atahliiluu” (investigation and analysis); these repetitions are avoided in English. These examples fall within what Dickins et al. (2002) call semantic repetition; it involves nouns, verbs, adjectives, or phrases. It can be syndetic, where the two items are related with the connective “waa” (and), or asyndetic, where the connective is absent. Johnstone (1983) asserts that Arabic texts contain a high number of repetitions including lexical couplets like “الوهم والخيال” “’Iwahmuu wau ?alxajaluu” (illusion and imagination). There are also other types of repetitions that are represented below.

**1.2.6.1. Types of Repetition.** Repetition can be treated under two broad categories; the repetition of words and phrases, and the repetition of ideas.

**1.2.6.1.1. Repetition of Words and Phrases.** In addition to semantic repetition, Dickins et al. (2002) added two other types, the first of which is morphological repetition. It is of three subtypes; pattern, root, and suffix repetitions.

- **Pattern repetition** is the repetition of the same pattern in two or more words in the same phrase or sentence. For example, the repetition of the pattern “فعليل” “faʕiil” in “البيت القديم” “ʔalbajtuu ʔalqadiimuu ʔalkabiiruu” (The big old house). The repeated words can be synonyms or near-synonyms, such as “جماليات أنيقات” “zamiilaatun ʔaniikaatun” (pretty and elegant), or semantically related word which belong to the same semantic field, such as “أكرم وألطف” “ʔakramuu waa ʔaltafuu” (The most generous and the kindest).
- **Root repetition** is the repetition of the “same morphological root in two or more words in close proximity within a text” (Dickins et al., 2002, p. 103). For example, “شرب شرابا” “jaraba jaraaban” (he drunk a drink)\* such repetition is not tolerated in English; the English version is (he had a drink).
- **Suffix repetition** is the “repetition of the same suffix at the end of words in close proximity” (Dickins et al., 2002, p. 108). For example, “ارض النبؤات و الرسالات و الخرافات” “ʔarɔ uu ʔanubuʔaatii wa ʔarrisalaatii waa ʔalxurafaatii” (The land of prophecies, Devine messages, and superstitions).

The second type of words and phrases repetition presented by Dickins et al. (2002) is lexical repetition that is of two subtypes.

- **Lexical item repetition** which is called as well word repetition. It is the repetition of a single word in a sentence or a text. For example, “للصبر حدود. فلا تستسلم للتدهور بلا حدود” “lisʕsʕabrii huduud falaa tastaslim littadahwuri bilaa huduud” (There are limits to my patience. But there is no end to a slippery slope) (Najjar, 2015).
- **Phrase repetition** is the repetition of a certain phrase in a single piece of writing. For example, “قتل في مالطا فتحي الشقاقي، و بعد أيام أعتيل اسحاق رابين، و بعد أيام انفجرت شحنة ناسفة” “qutilaa fii maltʕaa fathii ʔalʕaqaqii waa baʕda ajjaamin uytiilaa ishaaq rabiin waa baʕda ajjaamin infazarat juhnatun naasifaa” (Fathi al-shaqaqi was killed in Malta. Couple of

days later, Yitzhak Rabin was murdered, mere days after this, and a charge of Dynamite was exploded)\*.

**1.2.6.1.2. Repetition of Ideas.** It is indicated by Johnstone (1983) who conducted a study about Arabic rhetoric. She found that Arab speaking writers make their claims linguistically present by repeating, paraphrasing, and clothing them for the sake of convincing the readers. During her research about Arabic persuasive language, Johnstone had received a call which was a turning point that pushed her to shed the light on repetition in the Arabic rhetoric. The call was from a researcher whose research was related to hers. At the beginning of the conversation, the researcher introduced himself and explained how Johnstone's name was given to him, in addition to how his research was related to hers. Before she had answered him he had repeated his story. Even at the end of the conversation, he repeated the same story in other words. Johnstone (1983) considered the use of repetition by Arab speakers a strategy of persuasion and call it "presentation".

Similarly, Abu-Rass (2011) in her study on cultural transfer in Arab Muslim students' writing in English found that students write "long and expanded English sentences with repetition of content and form" (p. 209) for the sake of persuasion. Students tend to use many synonyms in one sentence for stressing an idea. Likewise, Connor (1996) argues that Arabic argumentative texts use repetition as an argumentative strategy at three levels; the morphological level, word level, and chunks (phrases, clauses, and larger discourse sequences). Feghali (1997) also argued that Arab writers use "repeated words, phrases and rhythms to persuade, rather than the quasi logical" (p. 361) style of western logic. This style is further explained in the subsequent subsection.

Johnstone (1991) concludes that repetition plays significant textual and rhetorical roles in the Arabic language and culture since it provides textual cohesion and stylistic functions (Dickins et al., 2002), and is used for aesthetic reasons as well.

### 1.2.7. *The Arabic and English Style of Argumentation*

On the one hand, Native English writers do not rely on emotional appeals to convince the reader as it has previously been noted. They often use the quasi-logical style in order to make an argument. In this style claims are supported by reasons and data (Connor, 1996). It is about following the principles of formal logic expressed with markers, such as therefore, hence, thus, as shown in Table 1.

**Table 1**

*The Quasi-logic and Analogy Strategies* (Adapted from Johnstone, 1989)

	<b>Quasilogic</b>	<b>Analogy</b>
<b>distinguish- ing model</b>	<b>model from formal logic; convincing</b>	<b>model from narrative; teaching</b>
<b>linguistic correlates</b>	<b>use of "logical con- nectives": <u>thus</u>, <u>hence</u>, <u>therefore</u> . . .</b>	<b>formulaic language: "You know what they say"; "That reminds me"</b>
		<b>"the words of the ancestors"; proverbs</b>
	<b>subordination; integration</b>	<b>chronology; timeless past ("once upon a time"); involvement</b>

Johnstone (1989) states that "persuaders in quasi-logical mode create the rhetorical impression that their arguments are logically inconvertible. The goal of quasi-logical persuasion is to convince, to make it impossible for an audience using its power of rationality not to accept the arguer's conclusion" (p.145). On the other hand, Arab writers argue through

the use of the analogical style (Table 1) which is about presenting a claim and trying to convince the addresser by stating a story. Johnstone (1989) believes that persuasion in Arabic is not achieved through logic and reasoning rather through presentation (repetition) of words.

According to Drid (2016), presentation is linked to the way claims are expressed rather than the proposition itself. Johnstone (1987) justifies the use of repetition by stating that “presentation makes things believable because it forms them into the effective field of the hearer and keeps them there” (p. 90). By these words, she indirectly stresses the importance of the emotional appeal in Arabic. Drid (2016) supports this idea by claiming that presentation primarily build upon the addresser’s word choice which emotionally involves the addressee and establish a presence. In 2015 he declared that presentational style is about “believing something as a result of feeling. Therefore, absolute truth does not exist, and there are no obvious rights or wrong to be revealed” (p. 86).

In short, native English writers argue through presenting conclusions strengthened by reasons and illustration, whereas, Arabic students of English often argue through claims supported by the Holy Qur’an, the sayings of prophet Mohammed peace be upon him, proverbs, ancestors’ sayings, by stating stories, or words that involve the readers emotionally (Table 1).

**1.2.7.1. The Difference between Argumentation and Persuasion.** Since the term persuasion was coupled with Arabic and argumentation was coupled with English in the previous comparison between the styles of the two languages, it is necessary to look into the terminological difference between the two. According to Al-Khatib (1994), persuasion is a strategy used by the speaker or the writer to shift from one attitude or behavior to another by depending on emotion. He concluded that persuasion can be attained by appealing to the audience’s emotion, and the trustworthiness of the writer or the speaker. However, argumentation according to Zarefsky (2001) is “the study of reason-giving used by people to



justify their beliefs and values and to influence the thought and action of others. Its central concern is with the rationality or reasonableness of claims put forward in discourse” (p. 33). Argumentation is thus based on providing reasons to justify a claim. In short, Argumentation is about using logic and reasoning to convince the other to accept a given claim, which is true of English. However, persuasion is about using emotional appeals to convince the other which is true of Arabic. Nadell et al. (2009) summarizes the difference between the two by stating that:

Using a clear thinking and logic, the writer tries to convince readers of the soundness of a particular opinion on a controversial issue. If, while trying to convince, the writer uses emotional language and dramatic appeals to readers’ concerns, belief, and values, then the piece is called persuasion (p. 455).

Empirically, a typical contrastive rhetorical study on Arabic is that conducted by Ostler (1987). She believes that Arabic and English writing did not develop in the same way. According to her English used to have oral features like any other oral language. However, with the flourishing of print, English societies become literate. Therefore, oral traits vanished from English at the beginning of the 20th century. She had attributed the preference of using oral features in Arabic writing to the fact that Arabs are strongly tied to classical Arabic, the language of the Holy Qur’an, which was established before literacy. Arab linguists such as Sa’addedin (1989) believed that these oral traits are used to establish specific rhetorical purposes. Repetition for instance is used as a strategy of argumentation. Ferguson (1959) claimed as well that diglossia in Arabic societies is the reason behind the use oral features in students writing.

### ***1.2.8. The Typical Structure of English and Arabic Paragraphs***

Since contrastive rhetoric involves analysis above the sentence level and takes the paragraph as its unit of analysis. It is necessary to look at the structure of the paragraphs of the

L1 and L2 under investigation. A paragraph is a set of related sentences that discuss one idea. It can be as long as ten or more sentences. A good paragraph always consists of three major parts, which are the topic sentence, the supporting sentences, and the concluding sentence. The former being, the main idea of the topic; it is often introduced in the first sentence which serves as a thesis statement in an essay writing. However, English paragraphs may also start with a set of examples that are related at the end by a single sentence which is the topic sentence. These two types of paragraph developments represent the deductive and inductive reasoning, respectively. A topic sentence should consist of two elements: the topic of the paragraph or the subject of the paragraph, and the controlling idea in which the topic is discussed in a specific way to show the reader how the writer can limit his /her topic. It is followed by a set of subdivisions which are called supporting sentences. They develop the main idea of the topic by explaining, defining, describing, giving facts, and evidence. They should be clear and relevant to the topic, and each one is backed with examples and illustration i.e. the central idea is related to all other ideas in the whole passage (Kaplan, 1966). Finally, the concluding sentence is the last statement of the paragraph in which the writer gives a summary to emphasize the main idea of the paragraph. This description of the English paragraph is summarized in Kaplan (1966) who states that it:

begins with a general statement of its content, and then carefully develops that statement by a long series of rather specific illustrations. While it is discursive, the paragraph is never digressive. There is nothing in this paragraph does not belong here; nothing that does not contribute significantly to the central idea (p. 6)

The last idea in Kaplan' (1966) quotation applies to Arabic paragraphs as it is shown later.

Similarly to the English paragraph, according to Al-Khani (2017), the Arabic paragraph should discuss one idea, be marked by cohesion, moves from general to specific, or sometimes from specific to general, and contains three major components. However, the

paragraph theme is almost never presented at the beginning of the paragraph; it is rather presented explicitly or implicitly within the paragraph (Fareh, 1988). The theme of an Arabic paragraph “might be developed via a series of explanatory themes conjoined with each other by conjunctions such as wa ‘and’ thuma ‘and then’” (Fareh, 1988, p. 232). Abu-Ali (1993) argues that coordination conjunctions are markers of logical relation in most of the Arabic writing. This asserts again the excessive use of coordination in Arabic.

Contrary to the English paragraph, in Arabic, the theme is further explained through additive propositions that are not directly linked to the preceding ones. This justifies Kaplan’s (1966) claim of non-linearity. As regards the length of the paragraph; it is related to the simplicity or the complexity of the main idea (Al-Khani, 2017). Thus, if the main idea is complex, which needs a thorough explanation, the paragraph will be long and more propositions are made. Overall, Abu-Ali (1993) claims that the Arabic paragraph is found to be lengthier and containing more propositions than the English paragraph.

### ***1.2.9. The Process of Writing***

According to Pour-Mohammadi (2012), writing is not a set of linked words and isolated sentences rather it is a cluster of grammatically and coherently well formed sentences. Therefore, a long time is required to sharpen the writing skills; it requires instruction and practice. The writer needs to manipulate and manage his cognitive abilities and the constraints that prevent him/her from producing an effective piece. Therefore, techniques, such as the process of writing, are prerequisite.

Richards and Schmidt (2010) state that the writing process involves “the strategies, procedures and decision-making employed by writers as they write” (pp. 640.641). Writing is viewed as the result of a complex process of planning, drafting, reviewing, and revising and some approaches to the teaching of first and second language writing teach students to use

these processes. Pour-Mohammadi (2012) found that the writing process, regardless of the writer's language proficiency, helps improve their writing through revisions and responses.

Harmer (2004) shows that there are four major elements in the writing process which are explained as follows.

**1.2.9.1. Planning.** This stage is also called prewriting which is a way of identifying ideas and thoughts before starting to write a draft. In the pre-writing stage, learners need to organize those ideas without taking into consideration grammatical mistakes. This stage helps the learners to generate ideas by different ways, like brainstorming, outlining, topic analysis, and free writing (Harmer, 2004).

**1.2.9.2. Drafting.** According to Harmer (2004), the initial version of a piece of writing is known as draft. The writer might begin writing without paying attention to grammar, spelling, and vocabulary because this version receives various modifications, when the writer proceeds to reach the step of editing. Additionally, the writer may pass through several drafts before s/he reaches an appropriate copy for submission.

**1.2.9.3. Editing (reflecting and revising).** Harmer (2004) stated that writers should check at this stage the selection of certain words and sentences, grammar mistakes, sentence structure, repetition, clarity, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, citation and document format, and the style of writing. They need to focus mainly on making the content clear for readers and follow the conventions and the rules of standard written English.

**1.2.9.4. The Final Version.** It is the last step of the writing process. Harmer (2004) claims that writers can correct and proofread their grammatical errors to ameliorate their style and clarity in their final copy. In other words, writers need to reread and check their writing for the last time in order to make additions, omissions, and substitutions of some ideas so that the reader can understand the messages.

Additionally, if the writer follow these steps, they are more likely to overcome transfer issues due to planning, drafting, editing, and proofreading their compositions.

## **Conclusion**

Rhetorical conventions vary from one language to another and from culture to another. Therefore, learners may mix between the rhetorical features of the native language and the target language. Arabic language is characterized by nonlinearity of paragraph development which is built upon parallel construction (Kaplan, 1966), indirectness of thought (Zaharna, 1995), frequent use of coordination (Ried, 1992), repetition of ideas (Abu-Rass, 2011), and word repetition and phrase repetition (Johnstone, 1983). Many researchers claim that these rhetorical features are carried over to students writing of English. These aspects are tested in the following chapter.

## **Chapter two: Methodology, Data Analysis, and Discussion**

### **Introduction**

This chapter represents the practical part of this study; it puts the reported literature review into practice. It contains three sections. The first section starts with the research design, the description of the participants, and the data gathering instruments which are a direct content analysis and a questionnaire. The second section presents the data obtained from the direct content analysis of both English argumentative paragraphs and Arabic paragraphs, respectively, that are analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. It also presents the data obtained from the designed questionnaire. The third section is devoted for the discussion of these data in the light of the research questions and assumptions.

### **2.1. Section One: Research Design and Methodology**

This section describes the research design, the research instruments, the population from which the sample was taken, in addition to, the sample of the study. It also proclaims the

reasons behind the selection of the sample. Additionally, the aims and the procedures of data gathering tools are set out.

### ***2.1.1. Research Design and Sampling***

This study follows a descriptive research design with quantitative and qualitative methods of data analysis. A descriptive study is defined as a trial to systematically describe a “situation, problem, phenomenon, service or program, or provide information about living conditions of a community or describe attitudes toward an issue” (Kumar, 2011, p. 10). This research is designed to systematically describe the phenomenon of the carryover of the rhetorical patterns of the native language (Arabic) into the target language (English) in the writings of EFL learners, through following the patterns that are previously indicated in the literature as being the most subject to carryover.

Additionally, the mixed-method approach is used to provide reliable data about this phenomenon. It is defined by Johnson et al. (2007) as a type of research which “combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration” (p.123). Similarly, O’Leary (2017) asserts the advantages of the mixed-method approach because it offers a larger view through adding depth and insights to numerical data, and adding accuracy to words through the inclusion of numbers and statistics. These lead to making results more generalizable. O’Leary (2017) further states that it prevents the limitations and bias of each single approach, and it permits methodological multiplicity and openness to various data collection instruments.

As regards the choice of a sampling technique, Kumar (2011) mentions that the way to avoid bias in researches is randomization. However, random assignment was not available in this research due to the extraneous factors that occurred in this academic year, namely the Covid-19 pandemics and quarantine. Therefore, the sampling technique used in this research

is non-probability sampling and the strategy used is convenience sampling. It is opted for because participants were chosen based on their availability and willingness to take part in the research since the only way to contact participants was online.

### ***2.1.2. Population and Sample***

Second-year students of English at Larbi Tebessi University which constitute three groups in the academic year 2019/2020 were chosen to be the population of this study. The reason behind targeting this population is that, first language transfer, in this research the transfer of Arabic rhetorical patterns, is natural with beginners but gradually decreased with developed stages of learning (Ellis, 1994), unless these patterns are fossilized in the target language production. Therefore, it is assumed that second-year EFL students do transfer Arabic rhetorical patterns to their English writing. The study was intended to cover the whole population, however, only 25 students formed the sample of the study among which 21 students are females and four are males because they were the only accessible and cooperative ones.

### ***2.1.3. Research Instruments***

The study makes use of two research instruments which are explained as follows.

**2.1.3.1. Content Analysis.** To elicit data from the allocated sample of the study, content analysis is opted for. It is used to answer the first research question which is about Arabic rhetorical patterns that second-year EFL students transfer in their English writing. It is defined by Hsieh and Shannon (2005) as a “research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of the text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or pattern” (p. 1278). This instrument is selected because it aims at providing information and comprehension of the phenomenon under investigation through classifying and identifying the rhetorical patterns that students transfer in their writing.

Hyland (2003) highlights the significance of analyzing texts by stating that it “help[s] to identify the features of effective writing in different genres or among different groups of users and perhaps the influences that contribute to these features” (p. 260). Furthermore, Drid (2015) claims that to investigate a silent feature of a discourse, it is necessary to contextualize it in larger chunks of language. Therefore, we assume that analyzing participants’ writing is the most appropriate way to identify the Arabic rhetorical features in EFL students’ English writing.

According to Hsieh & Shannon (2005), qualitative content analysis has three types. The first is conventional; the categories of investigation are drawn from the text itself not from preexisting theoretical perspectives. The second is summative content analysis which is about counting the frequency of given words and expressions. The last type, which is used in this research, is direct content analysis. It is used when researchers seek to validate or extend a theory or research. The primary coding scheme is set from a theory or previous research. If new categories not mentioned in the coding are found in text, new coding category will be created for them. Thus, the data analysis of this research starts from already established rhetorical patterns categories that are already reported in previous studies, and if new ones are discovered in the sample’s production, they will be added.

**2.1.3.1.1. Description of the Instrument.** Direct content analysis is used in this study to analyze two sets of paragraphs produced by second-year EFL students at Larbi Tebessi University during the first semester exam of two courses. The first set of paragraphs belong to the civilization course. They were argumentative, explaining the instruction “it is better for a country to have good roads, public orders, central heating and hot baths than to be free”. In addition to the second set of paragraphs produced in the translation exam. They were about “اللغة وعاء الثقافة والترجمة ناقلة لها” “?alluyaatuu wi?a?uu ?a?aqaafatii waa ?atarzamatuu naaqilatun lahaa”.



**2.1.3.1.2. Aim of the Instrument.** Direct content analysis is opted for to analyze the participants' exam papers in order to identify whether they transfer the Arabic rhetorical conventions into English writing. Particularly, it aims at counting the frequency of the Arabic rhetorical patterns found in the participants' English paragraph. Additionally, the same analysis is followed with the Arabic paragraphs in order to detect whether the same rhetoric patterns exist in the participants' Arabic writing in order to make sure that their existence in the English paragraphs is truly a matter of transfer. Additionally, analyzing the Arabic paragraphs is due to overcoming the deficiency of applying a contrastive rhetorical analysis only to the students' foreign language writing and ignoring their Arabic writing (as it has been previously reported in the criticism of the classical contrastive rhetoric, heading 1.2.2.4.2, page.)

**2.1.3.1.3. Procedures.** In order to apply a proper direct content analysis, the procedures proposed by Hsieh & Shannon (2005) are used as follows;

- 1.** Depending on the already reported Arabic rhetorical patterns that are transferred to English in previous research, the researchers have prepared a list of the patterns that are likely to be found in the sample's paragraphs.
- 2.** The different categories found in previous research are defined in detail in the literature review and they are summarized in Appendix A with the model of analysis followed for each category.
- 3.** All the paragraphs were read and the Arabic rhetorical patterns that are set in the first step were highlighted.
- 4.** Normally in this step, if a new category that is not mentioned in the primary list is found, it gets identified as a new category. Two new categories, which do not exist in the originally followed model, were identified in the analysis of indirectness in the Arabic paragraphs. They are metaphor and simile.

5. A statistical representation of the findings is provided.
6. A decision needs to be made over whether the new findings refute the existing literature, refine, or enrich it. This step is applied in the discussion of the findings.

**2.1.3.2. The Students' Questionnaire.** A questionnaire is defined by Kumar (2011) as a "written list of questions, the answers to which are recorded by respondents" (p. 145). Additionally, according to O'Leary (2017), a questionnaire involves asking "a range of individuals the same questions related to their characteristics, attitudes, how they live and their opinions" ( p. 207). This instrument is used due to its various advantages. It allows for a huge number of responses that are representative of a large population and which remain confidential and anonymous. It also generates on the one hand standardized, quantifiable and empirical data, and qualitative data through the use of open ended questions on the other (O'Leary, 2017).

**2.1.3.2.1. Aim of the Instrument.** This questionnaire is designed to investigate two aspects. First, it seeks to cross validate the data obtained from the content analysis, through verifying whether the learners' actual written productions reflect their self-reports (in the questionnaire). Because if what they report is different from what they actually do in reality, it means that learners are not aware of their mistakes. Second, it seeks to answer the second research question of whether following the appropriate process of writing helps in reducing the carryover of Arabic rhetorical patterns into EFL students' writing.

**2.1.3.2.2. Description of the Instrument.** The questionnaire contains (15) questions which are divided into two sections entitled argumentative writing and the writing process. In this respect some of the questions are yes/no questions and they require explanation, others are multiple choice questions, and others follow a 5 point frequency Likert Scale (Appendix B).

It is worthy to note that the first question asks the respondents to give their first and family names' initials which can help later in matching between the exam sheets of each participant with his/her answer of the questionnaire. Thus, this question is not included in the analysis.

• **Section One: Argumentative Writing**

This section contains 11 questions (2 - 12). Question 2 asks the participants to give a definition of argumentative writing where they have to reply according to their point of view. The third is a yes/no question which is about whether Arabic argumentative paragraph/ essay differs from the English one according to them. Question 4 is also a yes/no question about whether they find English argumentative paragraph/essay writing a hard task. The fifth question is a multiple choice question about the difficulties that the respondents face when they are writing; they can provide extra difficulties which were not listed as well. The question number (6) is a 5 point Likert scale containing 11 items about the respondents' opinions with regard to some practices that may characterize their English argumentative writing. In question 7 respondents are asked yes/no question of whether they find the quality of their take-home assignments better than the exam paragraphs. Then, in question 8, they are asked to explain the choices they made in the previous question. The significance of the questions (7 and 8) is to investigate whether the amount of time that is given to follow all the writing process steps can affect second-year students writing quality, which is assumed to reduce their carryover of Arabic rhetorical patterns into English writing. Question 9 is a yes/no question, where respondents are asked if they found the quality of their writing with a topic of their choice better than writing about a predetermined topic. In the following question (10), they are asked to explain the choice they made. Similarly to the previous two questions, respondents are asked in questions (11 and 12) to provide yes/no responses to whether they

judge their argumentative paragraphs as native-like. Then, they are asked to explain their choices.

### • **Section Two: The Writing Process**

This last section of the questionnaire contains three questions (13 - 15). The first question (13) targets the frequency of applying the writing process when the respondents are assigned to write an argumentative paragraph/ essay in exams. Then in question 14, they were asked to explain the choices that they have made. The last question (15) is devoted to the language that respondents use in the process of brainstorming thoughts, where the choices are Arabic, English, French, or Arabic dialects.

**2.1.3.2.3. Procedure.** The questionnaire was administered online due to the quarantine. It was published on August, 8<sup>th</sup>, 2020 at 9 a.m on a Facebook page which gathers all second-year EFL students at Larbi Tebessi University. The questionnaire was not piloted due to the small number of students who agreed to take part in the current research. However, because the questionnaire was published online, it was easy for participant to contact us for any ambiguity. We in turn were present to explain. Although, only one participant confronted difficulty with comprehending question 11, particularly she asked about the term "native-like" whether it meant English native-like or Arabic native-like. Then, the explanation of this question in particular was published along with the questionnaire.

## **2.2. Section Two: Data Analysis**

This section is devoted to the analysis of the obtained data of the current study. The data obtained from both research instruments are analyzed separately, then they are correlated. The content analysis is analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively, and the questionnaire is analyzed only quantitatively.

### **2.2.1. The Content Analysis**

The data obtained from the direct content analysis of both participants' paragraphs are presented below. The analysis of the English paragraph leads to the identification of Arabic rhetorical patterns that are carried over to English. However, the analysis of the Arabic paragraphs is attempted in order to overcome the criticism of the classical rhetorical analysis as dealing only with the participants' second/foreign language productions and ignoring their writing in the first language. The analysis is used qualitative techniques because it extracts all the Arabic rhetorical patterns in the participants' compositions along with examples, and it is quantitative as well since it quantifies the occurrence of these patterns through frequencies and percentages.

### **2.2.1.1. The Analysis of the English Paragraphs**

**2.2.1.1.1. Non-linearity.** It is the first Arabic rhetorical pattern whose carryover to English is examined. It is investigated relying on Kaplan's (1966) claim that Arabic writing is marked with the use of parallel constructions which signals its non-linearity. Kaplan's (1966) model Appendix A, Table A1 is used for analysis. Additionally, non-linearity is analyzed according to paragraph organization; again the model is presented in Appendix A, Table A2.

- **The Use of Parallel Constructions**

The carryover of the four types of parallel constructions was traced.

**Table 2**

*The Overall Frequency of Parallel Constructions in the English Paragraphs*

<b>Type of Parallelism</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Synonymous Parallelism</b>	23	92%
<b>Synthetic Parallelism</b>	03	12%
<b>Antithetic Parallelism</b>	06	24%
<b>Climatic Parallelism</b>	03	12%

The direct content analysis of the participants' English paragraphs showed that parallel constructions are excessively used. Out of the 25 paragraphs, at least one type of parallelism

was used in 23 paragraphs, (the only exceptions are paragraph 21 and 22) as it is shown in Table C1 (Appendix C).

Additionally, Table 2 illustrates the frequency of each type of parallelism across the 25 paragraphs. Out of the 25 productions, synonymous parallelism is used in 23 paragraphs which constitute 92% of the sample. Examples of this type of parallelism are as follows:

**Example 1:** “**even** the economy is low, **even** we are not the best”

**Example 2:** “England went through **so many** wars, against **so many** rivals and enemies”

**Example 3:** “He has to engage **for his** country **and for his** people by **presenting** services and **respecting** human rights”

**Example 4:** “A **country without** public order is a **country without** freedom”. In all these examples the same structure is followed.

Moreover, 24% (6 paragraphs) of the total contain antithetic parallelism, such as:

**Example 5:** “**Good conditions cannot provide freedom** but **freedom can provide good living conditions**”. In this example, two contrasting ideas are linked with “but”.

Finally, synthetic and climatic parallelism are used in only three paragraphs (12%). An example of synthetic parallelism would be:

**Example 6:** “**When a country colonizes another one**, it will impose its religion and culture. What makes **the colonized country lacks its principals**”. The idea at the beginning is continued at the end of the example

As for the climatic parallelism, it is present in the following example:

**Example 7:** “**The real freedom is not the absence of invaders**, to be free is not to belong to any country in the economic side or financial or cultural side. The strong country should have a strong economic, a strong army, and a well financial situation. Whenever the country has good roads, public order, central heating, and hot paths. **Freedom is something conditional.**”

**It (country) cannot be invaded as long as it has a strong power**". Here, the idea is completed only after a long passage.

- **The Paragraph Organization**

**Table 3**

*The Overall Frequency of the Elements of the Paragraph*

<b>Elements of the Paragraph</b>		<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Topic Sentence</b>	<b>Relevant</b>	19	76%
	<b>Irrelevant</b>	06	24%
<b>Supporting Sentences</b>	<b>Illustrations</b>	10	40%
	<b>Thorough explanation</b>	25	100%
	<b>No Supporting Sentence</b>	01	4%
<b>Concluding Sentence</b>	<b>Relevant</b>	08	32%
	<b>Personal view as a Concluding Sentence</b>	07	28%
	<b>No concluding sentence</b>	10	40%

The content analysis of participants' exam papers showed that 76% of the sample has written relevant topic sentences for their paragraphs. However, the rest of the sample (24%) has produced irrelevant topic sentences. An example of a relevant topic sentence is shown below.

**Example 8:** "Good living conditions are so important for any country to be an appropriate place for settlement".

As far as the supporting sentences are concerned, all the participants (100%) have used thorough explanation to expand the supporting sentences. Additionally, 10% among them have backed their supporting sentences as well with illustrations. The following example illustrates a supporting sentence that is in the form of a thorough explanation.

**Example 9:** “It is better for country to have its own republic, and to be like this, there are many things should include in their own republic, like roads to travel and working and should have public order. It means should have its own right to making decisions”.

As regards the concluding sentences, 32% of the participants close their paragraphs by relevant concluding sentences that summarize the main idea of the piece of writing i.e. they are native-like such as;

**Example 10:** “Loosing freedom is the prize of civilization”.

Additionally, 28% of them finished the paragraphs by personal views, like:

**Example 11:** “I'm against the occupation even if it is different because the colonizer think about his own sake”.

The rest of the sample, which is a majority (40%), did not write concluding sentences. For the detailed analysis of the paragraphs consult Table C2 (Appendix C).

**2.2.1.1.2. Indirectness.** The second Arabic rhetorical pattern that is carried over to the participants' English writing is indirectness. It is analyzed following Hinkel (1997) model (Table A3, Appendix A).

**Table 4**

*The Overall Frequency of Indirectness Markers in the English Paragraphs*

<b>Indirectness Markers</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Rhetorical Question and Tags</b>	01	4%
<b>Disclaimers and Denials</b>	08	32%
<b>Vagueness and Ambiguity</b>	16	64%
<b>Hedges and Hedging Devices</b>	10	40%
<b>Point of View Distancing</b>	15	60%
<b>Downtoners</b>	00	00%
<b>Diminutive</b>	01	4%
<b>Discourse Particles</b>	03	12%
<b>Demonstratives</b>	11	44%
<b>Indefinite Pronouns and Determiners</b>	11	44%
<b>Passive Voice</b>	00	00%
<b>Conditional Tenses</b>	03	12%



Table 4 shows that vagueness and ambiguity are the most used indirectness markers by the participants with a percentage of 68%. They use markers, such as:

**Example 12:** “good”, “better”, “many”, “much”, “sometime”, “low”, “all”, “so on”, “whatever he desires”, and “thing”.

The next common indirectness marker in the participants have used is point of view distancing (60%) which is indicated with expressions like:

**Example 13:** “I well agree”.

Then, indefinite pronouns and demonstratives were used with a percentage of 44% each.

**Example 14:** “everything” is an indefinite pronoun and “that” is a demonstrative.

These indirectness markers are followed by hedges and hedging devices in frequency, they are used in 40% of the paragraphs, such as:

**Example 15:** “may be”, “more”, and “most”.

Then disclaimers and denials were used in 32% of the paragraphs, such as:

**Example 16:** “not free” and “not be”

Then discourse particles and conditional sentences were used with a percentage of 12%, such as:

**Example 17:** “well” and “now” which are discourse particles and “if there is no freedom, it will be revolution and civil war” which is a conditional sentence.

Rhetorical question and diminutives are used only once each as it is shown in the following example.

**Example 18:** “but the question is if the people need the conquest?”, this is a rhetorical question, and “a few” is a diminutive.

Finally, passive voice and downtoners are not used at all. Overall, Table C3 in Appendix C, which contains a detailed analysis of these indirectness markers in each paragraph, assert the carryover of indirectness from Arabic to English writing since 92% (23)

of the participants have used the categories set by Hinkle (1997). While, only 8% (2) of them did not use such markers. It should be noted that, the paragraphs that do not contain the markers are very short; they are composed of 4 and 9 clauses. The analysis affirms that the longer paragraphs are, the more indirectness markers they contain.

**2.2.1.1.3. The Excessive Use of Coordination.** This is the third Arabic rhetorical pattern that is investigated, which is extremely used in Arabic. It is analysed according to the model presented in Table A4, Appendix A.

**Table 5**

*The Overall Frequency of Coordination and Subordination in the English Paragraphs*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>The Use of Coordination</b>	23	92%
<b>The Use of Subordination</b>	22	88%

Table 5 shows the use of coordination and subordination in the participants' paragraphs. 23 (92%) paragraphs out of 25 contain coordinated clauses, such as:

**Example 19:** “**and** they are somehow meaningless without freedom”, and “**but** freedom can provide good living conditions”.

Additionally, 22 (88%) paragraphs contain subordinated clauses, such as:

**Example 20:** “**since** a country without freedom has no free policies.”

This analysis shows that almost all paragraphs contain both coordination and subordination. However, close scrutiny of the paragraphs shows that the frequency of coordination in each paragraph is more than the frequency of subordination in the same paragraph in 10 paragraphs (namely paragraph 5, 6, 13, 14, 15, 20, 21, 22, 23, and 25), subordination is more than coordination in 7 paragraphs (namely paragraphs 2, 7, 8, 17, 18, 19, and 24), the frequency of both is equal in 7 paragraphs (namely 1, 3, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 16), and both types are absent in one paragraph which is number 4. All these details are shown in Table C4 (Appendix C).

**2.2.1.1.4. Repetition.** The fourth examined Arabic rhetorical pattern that is carried over to English is repetition. It is analyzed following Dickens et al. (2002) model which is presented in Table A6, Appendix A.

**Table 6**

*The Overall Frequency of Repetitions in the English Paragraphs*

Type of Repetition		Frequency	Percentage
Words and Phrases Repetition	Semantic Repetition	12	48%
	Lexical Repetition	25	100%
	Morphological Repetition	06	24%
Ideas Repetition		13	52%

As shown in Table 6, all types of repetition were frequent in the participants' paragraphs. Lexical repetition was used in all paragraphs (100%), such as:

**Example 21:** The word “country” is repeated 10 times, “colonization” six times, and “freedom” seven times in the same paragraph. Furthermore, the word “controlling” was repeated twice in the same sentence, which is “the system of **controlling** a country is dependent to who is **controlling** and how they control it”.

Additionally, 52% of them made use of ideas repetition. For example,

**Example 22:** This sentence “in my opinion freedom is the corner stone for any country” was repeated at the end of the paragraph as “freedom is the basis and corner stone for a place to called country”. Similarly, the sentence “freedom is about getting needs or desires” is paraphrased in the same paragraph as “a countries' freedom grants its people whatever it desires”.

Furthermore, 48% of the participants have used semantic repetition, like:

**Example 23:** “fought and revolt”, “democracy and freedom” and “government and system”.

Finally, 24% of sample has used morphological repetition, such as:

**Example 24:** “achieve” and “achievement”.

For the detailed analysis of each paragraph in terms of repetition refer to Table C5, Appendix C.

**2.2.1.1.5. Argumentation Style.** The fifth aspect that is analyzed is the argumentation style. The paragraphs are analyzed using Toulmin’s (1958) model (Table A7, Appendix A). This model identifies three major elements that should be present in a typical English argument, thus the more students drift away from applying it, the more their English paragraphs are influence by Arabic.

**Table 7**

*The Overall Frequency of Applying the Elements of an Argument in the English Paragraph*

Elements of the Argument		Frequency	Percentage
Claim		22	88%
Warrant		05	20%
Data	Quasi-logical Style	04	16%
	Analogical Style	02	8%
	Presentational style	18	72%
	None	06	24%

The content analysis indicates that all the elements of the argument are present with varying frequencies. The claim was present in the productions of 22 participants which constitute 88% of the sample i.e. the vast majority have presented a claim. However, the warrant was present only in 5 (20%) productions.

When it comes to data, the participants have used a variety of ideas to support the claim. This element in particular is crucial in determining whether carryover exists or not. Only 16% of the productions use the quasi-logic style (i.e. they contain statistics and facts) to support their claims, such as:

**Example 25:** “rebellions need hot baths and hard work without giving up like India, Canada, who succeeded to get their independence”. This type of data is native-like.

Additionally, 8% of the participants relayed on the analogical style (presenting stories) to strengthen their claims, which is a style that is typical of Arabic paragraphs.

**Example 26:** “it is true that having good roads, public order, and central heating is essential. Like the case of Britain and Roman invasion. The Roman lived peaceful in there, and they rebuilt and fought back at some stages. After the Roman left Britain. It is true that living conditions and social life went terrible as Winston Churchill once said. But at last they broke free, and Britain started its journey to be what it is today”.

However, unsurprisingly, 72% of the participants depend on the presentational style which is typical of Arabic argumentation. It is based on personal beliefs which come as a result of feelings, such as:

**Example 27:** “all people that was invaded need freedom more than another thing in the world because freedom means life”.

It is worthy to note that 5 participants have used two different styles in the same paragraph, which are number 1, 6, 13, 20, and 21 as it is shown in Table C6 (Appendix C).

### **2.2.1.2. The Analysis of the Arabic Paragraphs.**

**2.2.1.2.1. The Use of Parallelism.** The excessive use of parallel construction is a typical Arabic rhetorical pattern. Following Kaplan’s (1966) model (Table A1, Appendix A), the sample paragraphs are analyzed.

**Table 8**

*The Overall Frequency of Parallel Constructions in the Arabic Paragraphs*

<b>Type of Parallelism</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Synonymous Parallelism</b>	09	36%
<b>Synthetic Parallelism</b>	15	60%
<b>Antithetic Parallelism</b>	07	28%
<b>Climatic Parallelism</b>	22	88%

This rhetorical pattern is clearly reflected in all the paragraphs; each paragraph contains at least one type of parallelism as it is shown in Table D1 (Appendix D). Overall, Table 8 shows that synonymous parallelism is used in 36% of the paragraphs; such as:

**Example 28:** “ʔattaʕbiir ʕan ʔalmuṣṭʕalaḥaat ʔaw tafsiiir ʔalmafaahiim”  
“التعبير عن المصطلحات أو تفسير المفاهيم”  
(The-expression of terminology or the interpretation of concepts)\*

Additionally, synthetic parallelism is used in 60% of the paragraphs, such as:

**Example 29:** “ʔattarʕamaa tanqul ʔalluyaa waa bittaalii fahijaa tanqul ajdan aḥḥaqaafaa ʔalmurtaḥitaa biḥ aalika ʔalbalad”  
“الترجمة تنقل اللغة وبالتالي فهي تنقل أيضا الثقافة المرتبطة بذلك البلد”  
(Translation conveys the language. Therefore, it also conveys the culture which is associated with that country)\*.

Antithetic parallelism is frequent as well; it is used in 28% of the paragraphs, like:

**Example 30:** “ʔaxd maahuwaa naafiʕ waa tarkuu maahuwaa muḥ ʕiir”  
“أخذ ما هو نافع وترك ما هو مضر”  
(Take what is beneficial and leave what is harmful)\*.

Finally, climatic parallelism is the most frequent in the samples’ productions with a percentage of 88%; examples of which are shown in example (31).

**Example 31:** “ʔalluyatuu wiʕaaʔuu ʔaḥḥaqaafatii waa ʔattarʕamatuu naaʕiilatuu lahaa ʔaj anna ʔalluyataa hijja ʕibaaratun ʕan maʕmuuʕat muṣṭʕalaḥaatiin maʕhuunatin biʔabʕaadin ḥaqaafijatin waa haḥ ʕaarijjatin, haʕḥuu anna **likulli muʕtamafin luyatun xaasatun bihi tuʕabituu ʕan ḥaqaafatihii waa haḥ ʕaaratihii**”  
“اللغة وعاء الثقافة والترجمة ناقلة لها أي أن اللغة هي عبارة عن مجموعة مصطلحات مشحونة بأبعاد ثقافية وحضارية، حيث أن لكل مجتمع لغة خاصة به تعبر عن ثقافته وحضارته.”  
(Language is the container of culture and translation is its carrier which means that language is a set of terms charged with cultural and civilization dimensions as each society has its own language that expresses its own culture and civilization)\*.

**2.2.1.2.2. Indirectness of Ideas.** According to many researchers and rhetoricians (Shouby, 1952; Zaharna, 1995, Hinkle, 1997; Abu-Ras, 2011), Arabic writing is marked by indirectness and ambiguity. Applying the translated version of Hinkle's (1997) model of indirectness (Table A4, Appendix A) in the content Analysis of participants' Arabic writing emphasizes this claim.

**Table 9**

*The Frequency of Indirectness Markers in the Arabic Paragraphs*

Indirectness Markers	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Rhetorical Question and Tags</b> ( <i>ʔalʔasʔila ʔibalaayijja</i> ) (الأسئلة البلاغية)	00	00%
<b>Disclaimers and Denials</b> ( <i>ʔattanasʕul waa ʔannafj</i> ) (التنصل و النفي)	12	48%
<b>Vagueness and Ambiguity</b> ( <i>ʔalyumuud waa ʔalʔiltibaas</i> ) (الغموض والإلتباس)	25	100%
<b>Hedges and Hedging Devices</b> ( <i>ʔadawaat ʔattaḥawutʕ</i> ) (أدوات التحوط)	06	24%
<b>Point of View Distancing</b> ( <i>ʔabʕaad wiḡhat ʔannaḍ ʕar</i> ) (أبعاد وجهة النظر)	01	04%
<b>Downtoners</b> ( <i>ʔattaʕaabiiir ʔalʔiḥtiraaizijaa</i> ) (التعابير الإحترازية)	02	08%
<b>Diminutive</b> ( <i>mufradaat ʔatasʕyiir</i> ) (مفردات التصغير)	00	00%
<b>Discourse Particles</b> ( <i>ʔalʕanaasʕir ʔalmutaʕaliqaa bilxitʕaab</i> ) (العناصر المتعلقة بالخطاب)	01	04%
<b>Demonstratives</b> ( <i>ʔadawaat ʔalʔiʕaara</i> ) (أدوات الإشارة)	23	92%
<b>Indefinite Pronouns and Determiners</b> ( <i>ʔaḍ ḍ amaaʔiru waa ʔalmuḥadidaat</i> ) (الضمائر و المحددات)	11	44%
<b>Passive Voice</b> ( <i>ʔalmabnii lilmaḡhuul</i> ) (المبنى للمجهول)	02	08%
<b>Conditional Tenses</b> ( <i>ʔaʕʕumal ʔaʕartiʕjjaa</i> ) (الجملة الشرطية)	02	08%

As shown in Table 9 most of the indirectness markers are found in participants' paragraphs. Whereby, all (100%) the participants made use of vagueness and ambiguity markers in an excessive way, such as in paragraphs (6, 8, 13, 14, 21, and 22) as it is shown in Table D2, Appendix D.

**Example 32:** “kul”, “siddatuu”, “?alfadiid min”, and “?alkaθiir min”

“كل”	“عدة”	“العديد من”	“الكثير من”
(All	many)	(lots of)	(lots of)

92% of the participants also make heavy use of demonstratives, such as in paragraphs (2, 7, 8, and 15); most of the demonstratives used are shown below:

**Example 33:** “haδ aa”, “haδ ihi”, and “δ alika”

“هذا”	“هذه”	“ذلك”
(This	this	that)

A good portion of the participants (48%) use disclaimers and denials, examples of which are below.

**Example 34:** “laa tuuzad” and “laa juqaal”

“لا توجد”	“لا يقال”
(Not found)	(not said)*

Participants make use of indefinite pronouns and determiners with a percentage of 44%, such as:

**Example 35:** “?ajjuu”, “?ajjaq faj?”, “?ajjuu faxs”

“أي”	“أي شيء”	“أي شخص”
(Any)	(Anything)	(Anybody)

24% of the participants had used hedges and hedging devices (ʔdawaatu ʔtaħawut<sup>6</sup>), as show in the example below:

**Example 36:** “?akθaruu min” and “muʕδ ‘am”

“أكثر من”	“معظم”
(More)	(Most)

Participants made use of downtoners, passive voice, and conditional sentences with percentage of 8% in paragraphs (6 and 17), (4 and 6), and (2 and 13) respectively. The following examples are of downtoners, passive voice, and conditional sentences, respectively.



**Example 37:** “faqat”, “wuzida min qibbal” and “kamaa kiila”, and

“فقط” “وجد من قبل” “كما قيل”

(Only) (was founded by) (as it has been said)

“ʔið aa ʔaradtaa ʔattaʕarufaa ʕalaa ʕaqaafatin maa limuʕtamaʕin muʕajjan”

“إذا أردت التعرف على ثقافة ما لمجتمع معين”

(If you want to learn about a specific culture of a given community)

Point of view distancing and discourse particles are used with a percentage of 4% each.

They are used once in the paragraphs (20 and 10), respectively.

**Example 38:** “ʔinana naʕtaqidu” is a marker of point of view distancing.

“أنا نعتقد”

(We are thinking)\*

“haalijan” is a discourse marker.

“حاليا”

(Currently)

## Table 10

*The Frequency of Metaphor and Simile in the Arabic Paragraphs*

	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Metaphor</b>	20	80%
<b>Simile</b>	07	28%

The indirectness and implicitness of ideas are signaled as well in the participants’ productions with the use of figurative language. As it is shown in Table 10, 20 participants have used metaphors and 7 participants have used simile. For a detailed analysis of this figures of speech refer to Table D3, Appendix D.

**Example 39:** Metaphor is used in “ʔalluyatuu wiʕaaʔuu ʔa00aqaafa”

“اللغة وعاء الثقافة”

(Language is the container of culture)\*

“ʔalluyatuu mirʔaatuu ʔaʃʃuʃuub”

“اللغة مرآة الشعوب”

(Language is the mirror of peoples)\*

Simile is used in “ʔinna ʔattarʒamaa kalwasiitʕ ʔannaqil lihaaʔ ahii ʔaʔʔaqaafaat”

“إن الترجمة كالوسيط الناقل لهذه الثقافات”

(Translation is like the medium carrier for these cultures)\*.

**2.2.1.2.3. Coordinating Conjunctions.** In Arabic coordinating conjunctions are used for connecting both words and sentences. The analysis of coordination in the Arabic paragraphs relies on the model presented in Table A7, Appendix C, which seeks to quantify the use of the common Arabic coordinating conjunction in the participants’ paragraphs. The detailed analysis of the frequency of the use of coordination conjunctions is presented in Table D4, Appendix D.

**Table 11**

*The Overall Frequency of Coordinating Conjunctions in the Arabic Paragraphs*

The Types of Coordinating Conjunctions	Frequency	Percentage
“waa”	21	84%
“faa”	25	100%
“aw”	10	40%
“ʔumma”	01	04%

From the results in Table 11, it is deduced that all the compositions (100%) contain the coordinating conjunction “faa”, such as:

**Example 40:** “ʔammaa ʔattarʒamaa **faa** tuʃtabaruu ka naaqilin li haatihii ʔaʔʔaqaafaat”

“أما الترجمة فتعتبر كناقل لهاته الثقافة”

(As for translation, it is considered as a carrier of this culture).

“ʔalluyatuu wiʃaaʔuu ʔaʔʔaqaafaat **faa** ʔalluyaa tuʃtabaruu basʕmatuu ʔaʔʔaqaafaat”

“اللغة وعاء الثقافة فاللغة تعتبر بصمة الثقافة”

(Language is the container of culture, the language is considered imprint of the culture)\*.

(21) participants have used the coordinating conjunction “waa” to connect ideas and phrases, such as:

**Example 41:** “tuʔxað ʕuu tilkaa ʔaθθaqaafaa lituqajjidaa sʕijaayatahaa biluyatin uxraa **waa** bið aalikaa takunuu qad að ʕaafat ʕunsuran zadiidan **waa** hað aa jaʕnii ʔanna ʔaθθaqaafaa tatazasaduu fii loyatin muʕajanna”  
 “تأخذ تلك الثقافة لتقيدها صياغتها بلغة أخرى وبذلك تكون قد أضافت عنصرا جديدا وهذا يعني أن الثقافة  
 تتجسد في لغة معينة  
 (That culture is taken to restrict its formulation in another language. Therefore, it has added a new element and this means that the culture is embodied in a specific language)\*.

In addition, ten participants have used the coordinating conjunction “aw” in examples such as:

**Example 42:** “taqumuu ʔalluyatuu bihið ʕii kulli maa juxtaraʕuu **aw** juktaʕaf”  
 “تقوم اللغة بحفظ كل ما يخترع أو يكتشف”  
 (The language preserves everything that is invented or discovered)\*.

Finally, only one paragraph contained the coordinating conjunction “θumma”. For the detailed analysis of the paragraphs, consult Table D6, Appendix D.

**2.2.1.2.4. Repetition.** Dickins et al. (2002) state that Arabic writing is marked by the heavy use of all types of repetition, and this is what was found in the participants paragraphs as it is shown in detail in Table D5, Appendix D. The analysis follows the model in Table A6, Appendix A.

**Table 12**

*The Overall Frequency of Repetitions in the Arabic Paragraphs*

Type of Repetition		Frequency	Percentage
Words and Phrases Repetition	Semantic Repetition	21	84%
	Lexical Repetition	11	44%
	Morphological Repetition	25	100%
Ideas Repetition		25	100%

From the results presented Table 12, it is noticed that all the compositions contain morphological repetition and ideas repetition, with 100% each.

**Example 42:** Root repetition: “zuz? laa jatazaza?”

“جزء لا يتجزأ”

(part and parcel)

“muxtalifan kulaa ?alixtilaaf”

“مختلف كل الاختلاف”

(Different all the difference)\*.

As for the repetition of ideas, it was present as well in all the participants’ paragraphs, an example of which is shown below:

**Example 43:** “tuftabaruu ?alluyatuu wi?aa? ?aθθaqaafaa fahumaa kaa zuz?ajn laa

janfasilaan ?an ba?δ ?ihimaa bil?iδ ?aafaa ilaa ?anna ?alluyaa hijjaa ?attazasud  
?almalmus liθθaqaafaa waa”

“تعتبر اللغة وعاء الثقافة فهما كجزئين لا ينفصلان عن بعضهما بالإضافة إلى أن اللغة هي التجسد  
”الملموس للثقافة”

(Language is considered the carrier of culture as they are two inseparable parts from each other in addition to that; language is the tangible embodiment of culture).

Semantic repetition is very frequent as well; it is used in 84% of the compositions.

Examples of this type are shown below.

**Example 44:** “jubajjin waa juwaδ ?δ ?ih

”يبين ويوضح”

(Shows and explains)

“s?ahiihan waa saliiiman”

”صحيحا وسليما”

(Correct and right)\*

Finally, 44% of the paragraphs contain lexical repetition as it is shown below.

**Example 45:** “ʔalluyatuu hijjaa ʔisruu ʔaqaafaa waa ttarʔamatuu hijja ʔalʔisr ʔannaqil lahaa”  
 “اللغة هي جسر الثقافة والترجمة هي الجسر الناقل لها”  
 (Language is the bridge of culture and translation is the bridge to it)\*.

**2.2.1.2.5. Argumentation Style.** Applying Toulmin’s (1958) model (Table A7, Appendix A) enables for determining the different elements that the respondents use to present an argument and, most importantly, the argumentation style that they use.

**Table 13**

*Overall Frequency of Applying the Elements of an Argument in the Arabic Paragraph*

Elements of the Argument		Frequency	Percentage
Claim		25	100%
Warrant		23	92 %
Data	Facts and statistics	14	56%
	Analogical Style	4	16%
	Presentational style	15	60%
	None	3	12%

As shown in Table 13, all elements of the argument are present in the participants' Arabic paragraph. The claim was present in all the exam sheets of the participants (n = 25, 100%). However, the warrant was presented in (n = 23, 92%) productions. When it comes to data, the participants have used different kinds of ideas to support their claim. (n = 15, 60%) of the paragraphs depend on the presentational style which involves the emotions of the reader as a result of their feelings. This style is typical of Arabic writing. An example of which is shown below:

**Example 46:** “tuʔtabaruu ʔalluyatuu waa ʔaʔaqaafaa min ʔaham ʔalmukawinaat ʔalʔasaasijjaa lihuwijat ʔaffuʔuub waa ttaʔaruf ʔalaa ʔaqaafat ʔalyajr”  
 “تعتبر اللغة والثقافة من أهم المكونات الأساسية لهوية الشعوب والتعرف على ثقافة الغير”  
 (Language and culture is considered among the main components of people’s identity and knowing others’ culture)\*

Meanwhile, 12% of participants did not relay through using data.

Only 56% of participants have used statistics and facts to support their claims, such as:

**Example 46:** “lawla intifjar ?lloya fii moxtalif ?rad ‘i ?ldawla ?l?abasiya lima wogida tat’war  
?aqa?i wa lima istat’afo naqal wa targamat ?idat kotoub wa ha? ‘arat wa ?aqa?at  
oxra ka ?lha? ‘arat ?ljonaniya wa ?lfarisija wa li ha? a somija ?l?as‘ar ?l?abasi  
b?l?as‘ar ?l? ahabii li?nfitahihi ?ala ?lha? ‘arat wa ?l?aqa?at ?an t‘ariq  
?lloya

was ?ltargama”

“لولا انتشار اللغة العربية في مختلف أراضي الدولة العباسية لما وجد تطور ثقافي ولما استطاعوا نقل  
وترجمة عدة كتب وحضارات وثقافات أخرى كالحضارة اليونانية والفارسية ولهذا سمي العصر العباسي  
”بالعصر الذهبي لانفتاحه على الحضارات والثقافات عن طريق اللغة والترجمة

(If it was not for the spread of the Arabic language in the various lands of the  
Abbasid state, there would have been no cultural development, and they would  
not have been able to transmit and translate several books, civilization and other  
cultures such as the Greek and Persian civilization. This is why the Abbasid era  
is called as the golden age for its openness to civilizations and cultures through  
language and translation)\*

16% of the productions contain analogical style (presenting stories) to reinforce the  
claims, such as:

**Example 47:** “wa mi?al ?ala ? alika ?l?aqa?a ?l?arabiya aw bis’ifatin xas’a ?lha? ‘arat  
?l?slamija ?llati ?zdaharat ?ala mari ?l?os‘our wafamalal ?adida ?l?oloum  
fii moxtalif ?lmajadine wa waladat moxtalif ?lmost‘alaha?i wa ?lmafahim  
wa?lfa? ‘?llati ?abarat ?anha wa?afa? ‘atha fi sigelli ?ltarix”

”ومثال على ذلك الثقافة العربية أو بصفة خاصة الحضارة الإسلامية التي ازدهرت على مر العصور  
وشملت عديد العلوم في مختلف الميادين وولدت مختلف المصطلحات والمفاهيم والألفاظ التي عبرت  
”عنها وحفظتها في سجل التاريخ

(An example of this is the Arab culture, or in particular the Islamic civilization  
that has flourished over the ages and included many sciences in various fields  
and gave birth to various terms, concepts and expressions that were expressed  
and preserved in the history record.)\*

### 2.2.2. The Learners’ Questionnaire

This portion is devoted to the data analysis which is derived from the learners' questionnaire in terms of frequencies and percentages, mean and standard deviations when necessary. These measurements were calculated using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) 16.0.

The first question of the section is not analyzed because it is only used for coding the data.

### **Section One: Argumentative Writing**

**Question 2:** How would you define argumentative writing?

**Table 14**

*The Respondents' Definition of Argumentative Writing*

<b>Definitions</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>1. Argumentative paragraph is a type of writing in which the writer use facts, evidence, and strong arguments to support his/ her claim.</b>	7	28%
<b>2. Argumentative writing is a type of writing that presents arguments about both sides of an issue.</b>	3	12%
<b>3. To provide arguments and argue for a given idea or point of view.</b>	9	36%
<b>4. Argumentative writing is one of the controversial types of writing.</b>	2	8%
<b>5. Argumentative writing is a difficult way to present arguments because this type of writing is hard to perform.</b>	1	04%
<b>6. No response</b>	3	12%
<b>Total</b>	25	100%

This is an open-ended question, the different responses to which were coded into five categories. The similar responses were quantified under the same category as shown in Table 14. A sixth category was, however, devoted to respondents who skipped the question.

**Question 3:** Do you consider writing an Arabic argumentative paragraph/essay different from an English one?

**Table 15**

*Respondents' Views about the Difference between Arabic and English Argumentative Writing*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	08	32 %
<b>No</b>	17	68%
<b>Total</b>	25	100%

The collected results show that most of the participants (n = 17, 68%) consider writing Arabic argumentative paragraph/essay and argumentative English ones similar. Where this considerable number of participants do not account for any difference between argumentation in Arabic and English except the orthographic representation. However, only (n = 8, 32%) of the participants view them as different.

**Question 4:** Do you find writing English an argumentative paragraph (or essay) hard task?

**Table 16**

*Respondents' Judgment of the Difficulty of English Argumentative Writing*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	20	80%
<b>No</b>	05	20%
<b>Total</b>	25	100%

Table 16 demonstrates that the majority of participants (n = 20, 80%) find writing English argumentative paragraph a difficult task, whereas, only (n=5, 20%) of them find it easy.

**Question 5:** if yes, what are the difficulties that you face in writing?

**Table 17**

*Respondents' Writing Difficulties*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
--	------------------	-------------------



<b>Organization of Paragraphs</b>	06	32 %
<b>Writing style</b>	10	52%
<b>Presentation of ideas</b>	08	32%
<b>Others</b>	00	00%

This question is related to the previous one. Thus out of the 25 participants, 20 participants have selected the difficulties that they face in English argumentative writing. This question is a multiple response question that is why 4 participants expressed that they face two difficulties in writing. Table 17 shows that (n = 6, 32%) of the participants face difficulties in organization, while (n = 10, 52%) of them find difficulties in writing style. This is the highest percentage in the table. Finally, (n = 8, 32%) confront problems with presenting their ideas.

**Question 6:** When you write an English argumentative paragraph/essay, how does each of the following practices apply to your writing?

**Table 18**

*The Explanation of the Mean Ranges*

<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Mean Ranges</b>
<b>Very High Frequency</b>	04.20 – 05.00
<b>High Frequency</b>	03.40 – 04.19
<b>Moderate Frequency</b>	02.60 – 03.39
<b>Low Frequency</b>	01.80 – 02.59
<b>Very Low Frequency</b>	01.00 – 01.79

This question is in the form of a frequency Likert scale, the responses to which are analyzed according to frequencies, percentages, mean, and standard deviation values in order to determine the overall frequency of each practice in the participants' writing. The mean values are interpreted according to the ranges in Table 18.

**Table 19**

*The Respondents' Self Report of using Indirectness in their English Writing*

1. I like presenting my ideas in an indirect way.				
Option	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Not at all true of me	08	32%	2.00	0.866
Not very much true of me	10	40%		
Somewhat true of me	06	24%		
Fairly true of me	01	04%		
Highly true of me	00	00%		

The majority of the participants (n = 10, 40%) declare that the practice in Table 19 is not very much true of them. Additionally, (n = 8, 32%) claim that it is not at all true of them. (n = 6, 24%) claim that it is somewhat true of them and only one participant (n = 1, 4%) show that it is fairly true of them. Overall, the participants' self report of their preference of presenting their ideas in an indirect way as shown in Table 21 indicates that frequency of indirectness in their English writing is low which is represented in the mean value ( $\bar{x} = 2.00$ ,  $s = 0.866$ ).

**Table 20**

*The Respondents' Self Report of using Parallel Construction in their English Writing*

2. I use parallel structures often for example; “the plane descends”, “dips and rises”.				
Option	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Not at all true of me	02	08%	2.76	1.165
Not very much true of me	11	44%		
Somewhat true of me	06	24%		
Fairly true of me	03	12%		
Highly true of me	03	12%		

Table 20 unveils that (n = 2, 8%) of the participants declare that the use of parallel constructions is not at all true of them. (n=11, 44%) declare that it does not very much true of them. Additionally, (n = 6, 24%) show that the practice is somewhat true of them. While , (n=3, 12%) claim that it is fairly true of them and highly true of them, respectively. The participants' self report of their usage of parallel structures indicates that the frequency of parallel construction usage in their English writing is moderate which is represented in the mean value ( $\bar{x} = 2.76$ ,  $s = 1.165$ ).

**Table 21***The Respondents' Self Report of using Semantic Repetition in their English Writing*

3. I use different synonyms in a row in order to emphasise an idea.				
Option	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Not at all true of me	04	16%	3.20	1.414
Not very much true of me	04	16%		
Somewhat true of me	06	24%		
Fairly true of me	05	20%		
Highly true of me	06	24%		

The results show that (n = 4, 16%) of the participants claim that the practice presented in Table 21 is not at all true of them and not very much true of them, respectively. While, (n = 5, 20%) declare that it is fairly true of them. Additionally, (n = 6, 24%) find it somewhat true of them, also (n = 6, 24%) find it highly true of them. Overall, the frequency of the use of semantic repetition for the sake of emphasizing ideas in their English writing is moderate, which is represented in the mean value ( $\bar{x} = 3.20$ ,  $s = 1.414$ ).

**Table 22***The Respondents' Self Report of using Ideas Repetition in their English Writing*

4. I express the same idea in two or three different ways in order to make it clear.				
Option	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Not at all true of me	05	20%	2.84	1.281
Not very much true of me	04	16%		
Somewhat true of me	09	36%		
Fairly true of me	04	16%		
Highly true of me	03	12%		

Table 22 shows that (n = 5, 20%) participants claim that the repetition of ideas in their writing is not at all true of them. Additionally, most of them (n = 9, 30%) declare that it is somewhat true of them. While, (n = 4, 16%) claim that it is not very much true of them. The same percentage of participants claims that it is fairly true of them. However, (n = 3, 13%) find the practice highly true of them. The overall frequency of the use of ideas repetition for

the sake of making the ideas clearer in their English writing is moderate. It is represented in the mean value ( $\bar{x} = 2.84$ ,  $s = 1.281$ ).

**Table 23**

*The Respondents' Self Report of using Hedges and Hedging Devices in their English Writing*

5. I use expressions such as, “it is well known”, and “people say” in order to present arguments.				
Option	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Not at all true of me	02	08%	3.20	1.155
Not very much true of me	04	16%		
Somewhat true of me	10	40%		
Fairly true of me	05	20%		
Highly true of me	04	16%		

The majority of participants ( $n = 10$ , 40%) claim that the practice shown in Table 23 is somewhat true of them. Additionally, ( $n = 2$ , 08%) find it not at all true of them. ( $n = 4$ , 16%) consider it as not very much true of them. The same percentage of participants finds this practice highly true of them. ( $n = 5$ , 20%) show that it is fairly true of them. The participants' self report of their usage of hedges and hedging devices is moderate which is represented in the mean value ( $\bar{x} = 3.20$ ,  $s = 1.155$ ).

**Table 24**

*The Respondents' Self Report of their Excessive Use Coordination in their English Writing*

6. I link ideas by using coordination conjunctions, (for example, and, but, and, or) more than using subordination conjunctions (for example although, because, and while).				
Option	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Not at all true of me	01	04%	3.36	1.221
Not very much true of me	05	20%		
Somewhat true of me	10	40%		
Fairly true of me	02	08%		
Highly true of me	07	28%		

The majority of the participants declare that the practice in Table 24 is somewhat true of them. ( $n = 7$ , 28%) find this practice highly true of them. Additionally, ( $n = 5$ , 20%) show that it is not very much true of them. Two participants (08%) claim that it is fairly true of them. While, only one participant (04%) views it not at all true of him/her. As it shown in Table 24,

the frequency of the use of coordination more than subordination in their English writing is moderate, which is it represented in the mean value ( $\bar{x} = 3.36s = 1.221$ ).

**Table 25**

*The Respondents' Self Report of the Use of Quran and Hadith for Argumentation in their English Writing*

7. I use Quranic verses and Hadith as arguments.				
Option	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Not at all true of me	03	10%	2.52	1.005
Not very much true of me	11	44%		
Somewhat true of me	07	28%		
Fairly true of me	03	12%		
Highly true of me	01	04%		

Table 25 unveils that the majority of participants ( $n = 11, 44\%$ ) of participants claim that the use of Quranic verses and Hadith as arguments is not very much true of them. Additionally, ( $n = 7, 28\%$ ) find it somewhat true of them. ( $n = 3, 10\%$ ) show that it is not at all true of them, the same number of participants shows that it is fairly true of them. Additionally, only one participant declares that the practice is highly true of him/her. The results show that the frequency of the use of Quranic verses and Hadith in argumentation is low as it is shown in the mean value ( $\bar{x} = 2.52, s = 1.005$ ).

**Table 26**

*The Respondents' Self Report of the Use of Quotations of Famous Arab Scholars for Argumentation in their English Writing*

8. I use quotations of famous Arab scholar as arguments.				
Option	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Not at all true of me	05	20%	2.48	1.194
Not very much true of me	10	40%		
Somewhat true of me	05	20%		
Fairly true of me	03	12%		
Highly true of me	02	08%		

The results that is represented in Table 26 indicates that ( $n = 10, 40\%$ ) of the participants declare that the use of quotations of famous Arab scholar as arguments is not very

much true of them. (n = 5, 20%) show that it is not at all true of them, the same percentage show that it is somewhat true of them. Additionally, (n = 3, 12%) and (n = 2, 08%) declare that it is fairly true of them and highly true of them, respectively. Table 26 shows that the frequency of the use of famous Arab scholars quotation in argumentation is low as it is shown in the mean value ( $\bar{x} = 2.48 = 1.194$ ).

**Table 27**

*The Respondents' Self Report of the Use of Proverbs for Argumentation in their English Writing*

9. I use proverbs as arguments.				
Option	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Not at all true of me	04	16%	2.72	1.242
Not very much true of me	08	32%		
Somewhat true of me	07	28%		
Fairly true of me	03	12%		
Highly true of me	03	12%		

The majority of participants (n = 8, 32%) claim that the practice in Table 27 is not very much true of them. Additionally, (n = 7, 28%) find it somewhat true of them. (n = 4, 16%) show that it is not at all true of them. (n = 3, 12%) claim that the practice is either fairly true of them or highly true of them. Overall, frequency of proverbs as arguments in the writings of the participants' as their self report it is moderate which is represented in the mean value ( $\bar{x} = 2.72, s = 1.242$ ).

**Table 28**

*The Respondents' Self Report of their Use of Metaphor in their English Writing*

10. I like using metaphors.				
Option	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Not at all true of me	07	28%	2.60	1.384
Not very much true of me	06	24%		
Somewhat true of me	05	20%		
Fairly true of me	04	16%		
Highly true of me	03	12%		

Most of the participants (n = 7, 28%) claim that the practice presented in Table 28 is not at all true of them. (n = 6, 24%) show that it is not very much true of them. (n = 5, 20%), (n = 4, 16%), and (n = 3, 12%) claim that the practice is somewhat true of them, fairly true of them, and highly true of them, respectively. Overall, it is shown that the frequency of the participants' usage of metaphor in their English writing is moderate which is represented in the mean value ( $\bar{x} = 2.60$ ,  $s = 1.384$ ).

**Table 29**

*The Respondents' Self Report of the Use of Ambiguity in their English Writing*

11. I prefer ambiguity in writing because it attracts the reader.				
Option	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Not at all true of me	08	32%	2.04	0.978
Not very much true of me	10	40%		
Somewhat true of me	06	24%		
Fairly true of me	00	00%		
Highly true of me	01	04%		

Table 29 indicates that it is not very much true of the majority of participants (n = 10, 50%) to prefer ambiguity in writing. Additionally, (n = 8, 32%) show that it is not at all true of them. (n = 6, 24%) claim that it is somewhat true of them. Only one participant (4%) declares that it is highly true of him/her. Table shows that the frequency of the preference of ambiguity in respondents' English writing is low as it indicates in the mean value ( $\bar{x} = 2.04$ ,  $s = 0.978$ ).

**Question 7:** Do you often find the quality of your take-home assignment paragraph better than your exam paragraphs?

**Table 30**

*The Respondents' Judgement of the Quality of their Take-Home Assignment and Exam Paragraphs*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	24	96%
<b>No</b>	01	04%
<b>Total</b>	25	100%

Table 30 indicates that the vast majority of participants (96%) agree that the quality of their written home-take assignments is better than that of exams. However, only one participant claims that his/her exam writing quality is better than that of the home-take assignments.

**Question 8:** Please, explain why.

**Table 31**

*The Respondents' Explanation of their Judgement of the Quality of their Take-Home Assignment and Exam Paragraphs*

<b>The Explanation</b>		<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	<b>1. I think at home I can work better then the exam because I have a greater amount of time to finish writing.</b>	14	56%
	<b>2. I focus well at home and make many efforts than in exams.</b>	04	16%
	<b>3. I can use many resources at home such as: books, websites, and articles to find more ideas.</b>	03	12%
<b>No</b>	<b>I am motivated to write in exams because I have to; however, take-home exams are not necessary.</b>	03	12%
<b>No answer</b>		01	04%
<b>Total</b>		25	100%

It can be noticed from Table 31 that the majority of the participants (n = 14; 56%) find the quality of their take-home assignment paragraphs better than those of exams because they think that at home they can work better and they have a greater amount of time to finish writing. Four participants (16%) believe that they focus well at home and they make many efforts than in exams. Three participants (12%) state that at home they can use many resources such as books, websites, and articles to find more ideas and write better. The only participant who thinks that the quality of exam paragraphs is better than those of take-home assignments claims that s/he is motivated to write in exams because it is obligatory too;



however, take-home exams are not necessary. Finally, three participants (12%) did not answer this question.

**Question 9:** If you are required to an argumentative paragraph/essay on a topic of your choice, do you think that the quality of your writing would be better than writing on a predetermined topic?

**Table 32**

*The Respondents' Judgement of their Writing Quality on Predetermined topics and on Topics of their Choice*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	21	84%
<b>No</b>	04	16%
<b>Total</b>	25	100%

Table 32 shows that the majority of participants (84%) agree that the choice of the topic makes their English writing better. Additionally, only 16% of them disagree. The reasons for this are given in the following Table (42).

**Question 10:** Please explain why?

**Table 33**

*The Respondents' Explanation of the Judgement of their Writing Quality on Predetermined topics and on Topics of their Choice*

	<b>The Explanation</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	<b>1. If I select my topic, I will find it easy to express my ideas in a good language because I am interested in the topic, I have a background about it, I am motivated to write, and I write using a variety of structures.</b>	15	60%
<b>No</b>	<b>2. It is not matter of topic it is matter of capacity.</b>	1	04%
	<b>No answers</b>	9	36%
	<b>Total</b>	25	100%

As can be noticed, 15 participants (60%) prefer to write an argumentative paragraph/essay on a topic of their choice because they find it easy to express their ideas and

have background about the topic which betters their language. One participant (4%) states that it is not a matter of the topic but it a matter of the capacity which means that the quality of writing will be good if you know the writing conventions of the language regardless of whether the topic is chosen or imposed. Meanwhile 9 participants (36%) did not provide any answer to this question.

**Question 11:** Do you judge your English argumentative paragraphs/essays as native-like?

**Table 34**

*Respondents' Judgment of whether their Writing is Native-Like*

	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Yes</b>	06	24%
<b>No</b>	19	76%
<b>Total</b>	25	100%

Table 34 shows that 24% of participants judge their argumentative paragraphs/essays writing as native-like; while, the majority of them 76% do not regard it as native-like.

**Question 12:** Please, explain why?

**Table 35**

*The Respondents' Explanation of the Judgment of whether their Writing is Native-Like*

	The Explanation	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Yes</b>	<b>1. Because Arabic and English have the same standards form.</b>	01	04%
	<b>2. I use appropriate vocabulary, my writing is grammatical, and the flow of ideas is good.</b>	01	04%
<b>No</b>	<b>3. My writing is not well structured.</b>	01	04%
	<b>4. I do not have a great knowledge of English and its vocabulary.</b>	01	04%
	<b>5. I do not formulate arguments the way native speakers do.</b>	01	04%
<b>No answer</b>		20	80%
<b>Total</b>		25	100%

Table 35 shows that (n = 20, 80%) had not answered the question. The rest who answered, three of them explain why their writing is not a native-like by the fact that his/her writing is not well structured, s/he had not a great knowledge of English and its vocabulary, or he/she does not formulate arguments the way native speakers do. The first respondent who justified the reason why his/her writing is a native-like attribute it to the fact that s/he uses the appropriate vocabulary, his/her writing is grammatically correct, and the flow of ideas is good. While, the second considers his/her writing to be native-like because Arabic and English have the same rules. Thus, if s/he writes well in Arabic, then s/he writes well in English too. This answer particularly feeds into the problem of transfer.

### **Section Two: Writing Process**

In addition to the importance of this section in answering the second research question, it helps as well overcome the criticism of classical rhetorical analysis as dealing only with finished products.

**Question 13:** When you are assigned to write an argumentative paragraph/essay in an exam, how often do you go through each of the following writing process steps?

This question is in the form of a frequency Likert scale as well, the responses are analyzed statistically, (frequencies, percentages, mean, and standard deviation values) in order to assess the frequency with which the participants following each of the writing process steps. The mean values are interpreted according to the values in Table 21 above.

**Table 36**

*The Respondents' Self Report of the Using the Planning Step in their English Writing*

Planning				
Option	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Never	06	24%	2.88	1.509
Rarely	05	20%		
Sometimes	06	24%		
Often	02	08%		
Always	06	24%		

Table 36 shows that (n = 6, 24%) of the participants never plan for their paragraphs/essay during exams, and the same number sometimes plan for it. Also the same number of participants always plans for exam paragraphs/essay. However, those who rarely or often plan are (n = 5, 20%) and (n = 2, 8%), respectively. This shows that overall, the frequency with which participants plan for their writing is moderate which is indicated with the mean value ( $\bar{x} = 2.88$ ,  $s = 1.509$ ).

**Table 37**

*The Respondents' Self Report of the Using the Drafting Step in their English Writing*

Drafting				
Option	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Never	01	04%	3.68	1.314
Rarely	04	16%		
Sometimes	08	32%		
Often	01	04%		
Always	11	44%		

Table 37 shows that the majority of participants (n = 11, 44%) always draft during exams. (n = 8, 32%) sometimes follow this step. While, (n = 4, 16%) of the respondents rarely draft. Only one participant never drafts his/her paragraphs during exam, another one, often drafting. This indicates that overall, the frequency with which participants draft their writing is high which is indicated with the mean value ( $\bar{x} = 3.86$ ,  $s = 1.314$ ).

**Table 38**

*The Respondents' Self Report of the Using the Editing Step in their English Writing*

Editing				
Option	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Never	01	04%	3.52	1.295
Rarely	06	24%		
Sometimes	05	20%		
Often	05	20%		
Always	08	32%		

The gathered results show that (n = 6, 24%) of the participants rarely edit their writing during exams. Most of the participants (n = 8, 32%) always edit their paragraphs. (n = 5, 20%) sometimes or often edit their exam paragraphs, respectively. While, only one participant never edits his/her paragraphs during exams. The overall frequency with which participants edit is high which is indicated with the mean value ( $\bar{x} = 3.52$ ,  $s = 1.295$ ).

**Table 39**

*The Respondents' Self Report of the Using the Proofreading Step in their English Writing*

Proofreading				
Option	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation
Never	02	08%	3.60	1.323
Rarely	02	08%		
Sometimes	10	40%		
Often	01	04%		
Always	10	40%		

Table 39 unveils that only (n = 2, 08%) participants never and rarely proofread their writing in exams. (n = 10, 40%) of them always and sometimes proofread. While, only one participant often proofread his/her paragraph writing in the exams. Table 39 also shows that the frequency with which participants proofread their writing is high which is indicated with the mean value ( $\bar{x} = 3.60$ ,  $s = 1.323$ ).

**Question 14:** Explain the choice that you have made in the previous question.

**Table 40**

*The Respondents' Explanation of the Use of the Steps of the Writing Process*

The Explanation	Frequency	Percentage
<b>1. All the steps are obligatory to write the argumentative paragraphs/ essays and each of them help in being accurate and correct.</b>	11	44%
<b>2. Usually I do not make planning I start directly with drafting and write my ideas then organize them in well structured paragraph/ essay.</b>	02	08%
<b>3. Time is not enough.</b>	01	04%
<b>4. I usually only use drafting and proofread my writing.</b>	01	04%
<b>5. It depends on the topic.</b>	03	12%
<b>6. No answer</b>	07	28%

<b>Total</b>	25	100%
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As shown in Table 40, most of the participants (n = 11, 44%) explain their choices in the previous question by the fact that all the steps are obligatory to write the argumentative paragraphs/essays and each of them help in being accurate and correct. Two participants claim that they usually do not plan and start directly with drafting and write the ideas then organize them in a well structured paragraph/essay. Another participant declares that s/he usually uses drafting and proofread and discards the other steps. While, another one states that time is not enough to follow the writing process during exam. Three participants as well explain their choice by claiming that the frequency with which they follow the writing process steps depend on the topic itself. Finally, seven participants did not answer the question.

**Question 15:** If you decide to plan for your argumentative paragraph/essay writing, what is the language that you use to brainstorm your ideas?

**Table 41**

*The Language Used in Brainstorming*

<b>The Language</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>English</b>	14	56%
<b>Arabic</b>	08	32%
<b>French</b>	01	04%
<b>The Algerian dialect</b>	02	08%
<b>Others</b>	00	00%
<b>Total</b>	25	100%

It is noticed from Table 41 that most of the participants (n = 14, 56%) use English when they brainstorm their ideas. While (n = 8, 32%) use Arabic in the process of brainstorming. Two (8%) of them use the Algerian dialects while brainstorming, and only one (4%) of the participants uses French.

### ***2.2.3. The Association between the Participants' Actual Performance and their Self-reports***

The carryover of Arabic rhetorical patterns into English is investigated in this study at two layers. First, it was examined objectively through the content analysis of their written

productions. Second, it was investigated subjectively through the participants' responses to the questionnaire. Thus, correlation tests between the rhetorical patterns that are quantified in the content analysis and the sample's self-responses are carried out.

The correlation test involving the second section of the questionnaire particularly helps in finding an answer to the second research question that is about the impact of the writing process in decreasing the carryover of Arabic rhetorical patterns to English writing. Two different types of correlations, the Point Biserial Correlation and the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used depending on the type of the correlated aspects (whether they are categorical, binary, or continuous). It is worthy to note that the result is deemed statistically significant or not depending on the significance level ( $p$  value). In order for a correlation to be statistically significant, the significance level should be less or equals  $(,05) p \leq .05$ .

### **2.2.3.1. The Association between the Way Participants Define Argumentative Writing and the Way they Write Arguments**

**Table 42**

*The Association between the Way Participants Define Argumentative Writing and the Way they Write Arguments*

<b>Descriptives</b>		
<b>Argument</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>
1. Argumentative paragraph is a type of writing in which the writer use facts, evidence, and strong arguments to support his/ her claim.	7	,86
2. Argumentative writing is a type of writing that presents arguments about both sides of an issue.	3	1,33
3. To provide arguments and argue for a given idea or point of view.	9	1,11
4. Argumentative writing is one of the controversial types of writing.	2	3,00
5. Argumentative writing is a difficult way to present arguments because this type of writing is hard to perform.	1	7,00
<b>Total</b>	22	1,50

	<b>df</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	4	13,383	,000
<b>Within Groups</b>	17		
<b>Total</b>	21		

A one-way ANOVA shows that the effect of the participants' responses to the second question in the questionnaire that says "*How would you define argumentative writing?*" on the presentation of arguments in their civilization exam paragraph is statistically significant which is indicated with the F ratio and the *p* value [ $F = (4, 17) = 13.383, p = ,000$ ] i.e. there is a significant difference between the way participants' define argumentation and the way they present arguments; the definition is correct, however, this is not reflected in their writing. The mean values indicate that the more accurate the definition of argumentation that the participants gave is, the more inappropriate their presentation of arguments is. It is worth noting that the three participants who provided no definition of argumentation were excluded from this statistical test.

### **2.2.3.2. The Association between whether Participants Differentiate English and Arabic Argumentative Writing and the Way they Write Arguments**

**Table 43**

*The Association between whether Participants Differentiate English and Arabic Argumentative Writing and the Way they Write Arguments*

		Differentiating.Arabic. English	Writing.Arguments
Differentiating.Arabic. English	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1  25	-,223  ;284 25
Writing.Arguments	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	-,223  ;284 25	1  25

A point-biserial correlation is run to determine the relationship between the third question in the questionnaire that says "*Do you consider writing an Arabic argumentative*



*paragraph/essay different from an English one?”* and the presentation of arguments in the participants’ civilization exam paragraph. Table 43 shows that the correlation is statistically nonsignificant ( $r_{pb} = -.223$ ,  $n = 25$ ,  $p = .284$ ). This means that there is no match between the respondents’ self-reports and what they perform in reality.

**2.2.3.3. The Association between whether Participants Consider English Argumentative Writing Hard and the Way they Write Arguments**

**Table 44**

*The Association between whether Participants Consider English Argumentative Writing Hard and the Way they Write Arguments*

		English.Writing. Hard	Writing.Arguments
English.Writing. Hard	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1  25	,187 ,369 25
Writing.Arguments	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	,187 ,369 25	1  25

The correlation between the participants’ self-report about whether they consider English argumentative writing a hard task and the way they present arguments in their English paragraphs is statistically nonsignificant ( $r_{pb} = -.187$ ,  $n = 25$ ,  $p = .369$ ). This result shows that the participants’ self-report do not reflect their writing.

**2.2.3.4. The Association between the Participants’ Self-report of Paragraph Organization Difficulty and the Way their Exam Paragraphs are Organized**

**Table 45**

*The Association between the Participants’ Self-report of Paragraph Organization Difficulty and the Way their Exam Paragraphs are Organized*

		Difficulties.Paragraph. Organisation	Actual.Organization
Difficulties.Paragraph. Organization	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1  25	,025 ,904 25
Actual.Organization	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	,025 ,904 25	1  25

A point-biserial correlation is run to determine the relationship between the participants' self report of having a difficulty in organizing the parts of paragraph/essay (Question 5) and the way they organized their exam paragraph. The correlation was statistically nonsignificant ( $r_{pb} = ,025$ ,  $n = 25$ ,  $p = ,904$ ). Again, the participants' self report do not match their writing.

#### **2.2.3.5. The Association between the Participants' Self-report of the Writing Style Difficulty and the Style Used in their Exam Paragraphs**

The point-biserial correlation between the participants' self report of having a difficulty in the writing style (Question 5) and their actual writing style in the English paragraph is statistically nonsignificant ( $r_{pb} = -,226$ ,  $n = 25$ ,  $p = ,289$ ) i.e. there is no correspondence between the participants' claims and the way they organize their paragraphs.

**Table 46**

*The Association between the Participants' Self-report of the Writing Style Difficulty and the Style Used in their Exam Paragraphs*

		Difficulties.Writing. Style	Actual.Writing.Style
Difficulties.Writing. Style	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1  25	-,226 ,289 25
Actual.Writing.Style	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	-,226 ,289 25	1  25

**2.2.3.6. The Association between the Participants' Self-report of the Presentation of the Argument Difficulty and the Way they Write Arguments**

A point-biserial correlation unveils that there is no association between the participants' self report of having a difficulty in presenting arguments and the actual presentation of arguments in their exam paragraphs. Thus, this correlation is statistically nonsignificant ( $r_{pb} = ,237$ ,  $n = 25$ ,  $p = ,255$ ). Once more, the participants' self reports do not match the way they present their arguments.

**Table 47**

*The Association between the Participants' Self-report of the Presentation of the Argument Difficulty and the Way they Write Arguments*

		Difficulties.Presenting. Arguments	Writing.Arguments
Difficulties.Presenting .Arguments	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1  25	,237 ,255 25
Writing.Arguments	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	,237 ,255 25	1  25

**2.2.3.7. The Association between the Participants' Self-report of Preferring Indirectness and the Use of Indirectness Markers in the English Paragraph**

**Table 48**

*The Association between the Self-reports of Preferring Indirectness and the Use of Indirectness Markers in the English Paragraph*

	df	F	Sig.
<b>Between Groups</b>	3	,191	,901
<b>Within Groups</b>	21		
<b>Total</b>	24		

A One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) reveals that there is no main effect of the participants' self-reports about the preference of indirectness in writing on the frequency of indirectness markers in their English paragraphs. This is indicated with the F ratio and the  $p$  value [ $F(3, 21) = ,191, p = ,901$ ] i.e. there is no match between the self-report and the actual use of indirectness markers in the English paragraphs.

### **2.2.3.8. The Association between the Self-reports of Using Parallelism and its Use in the English Paragraph**

**Table 49**

*The Association between the Self-reports of Using Parallelism and its Use in the English Paragraph*

	<b>df</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	4	,429	,786
<b>Within Groups</b>	20		
<b>Total</b>	24		

A One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) reveals that there is no main effect of the participants self-reports about the use of parallelism on their actual use of parallelism in the English paragraphs. This is indicated with the F ratio and the  $p$  value [ $F(4, 20) = ,429, p = ,786$ ]. The self-report of using parallel constructions is not correlated with the its use in the English paragraphs.

### **2.2.3.9. The Association between the Self-reports of Using Semantic Repetition and its Use in the English Paragraph**

**Table 50**

*The Association between the Self-reports of Using Semantic Repetition and its Use in the English Paragraph*

	<b>df</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	4	,621	,653
<b>Within Groups</b>	20		
<b>Total</b>	24		

A One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) reveals that there is no main effect of the self-reports of the participants' about the use of semantic repetition and their use of this kind of repetition in English paragraphs. This mismatch is indicated with the F ratio and the  $p$  value [  $F(4, 20) = ,621, p = ,653$  ].

### **2.2.3.10. The Association between the Self-reports of Using Ideas Repetition and its Use in the English Paragraph**

**Table 51**

*The Association between the Self-reports of Using Ideas Repetition and its Use in the English Paragraph*

	<b>df</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	4	,928	,467
<b>Within Groups</b>	20		
<b>Total</b>	24		

A One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) reveals that there is no main effect of the participants' self-reports of using ideas repetition and the actual use of this rhetorical pattern in their exam paragraphs. The absence of this association is indicated with the F ratio and the  $p$  value [  $F(4, 20) = ,928, p = ,467$  ].

### **2.2.3.11. The Association between the Self-reports of Using Hedges and its Use in the English Paragraph**

**Table 52**

*The Association between the Self-reports of Using Hedges and its Use in the English Paragraph*

	<b>df</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	4	1,644	,202
<b>Within Groups</b>	20		
<b>Total</b>	24		

A One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) reveals that there is no main effect of the participants' declaration of using hedges in the questionnaire, and their use of hedges and

hedging devices in the exam paragraphs. The absence of this match is indicated with the F ratio and the *p* value [  $F(4, 20) = 1,644, p = ,202$  ].

**2.2.3.12. The Association between the Self-reports of Using Coordination and its Use in the English Paragraph**

**Table 53**

*The Association between the Self-reports of Using Coordination and its Use in the English Paragraph*

	<b>df</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	4	,297	,877
<b>Within Groups</b>	20		
<b>Total</b>	24		

A One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) reveals that there is no main effect of the participants' self-report of the use of coordination on their actual use of coordination in their paragraphs writing, which is indicated with F ratio and the *p* value [  $F(4, 20) = ,297 p = ,877$  ]. This confirms the mismatch between the results obtained from both research instruments.

**2.2.3.13. The Association between the Self-reports of Using Vagueness and its Use in the English Paragraph**

**Table 54**

*The Association between the Self-reports of Using Vagueness and its Use in the English Paragraph*

	<b>Df</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	4	,460	,713
<b>Within Groups</b>	20		
<b>Total</b>	24		

A One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) reveals that there is no main effect of the participants' declaration of using ambiguity in their responses to the questionnaire, and their use of vagueness and ambiguity devices in their, which is indicated with the F ratio and the *p*

value [  $F(4, 20) = ,460$   $p = ,713$  ]. Again, this confirms the mismatch between the results obtained from both research instruments.

#### **2.2.3.14. The Association between Planning and the Carryover of Arabic Rhetorical Patterns into English Writing**

**Table 55**

*The Association between Planning and the Carryover of Arabic Rhetorical Patterns into English Writing*

	<b>Df</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	4	,971	,445
<b>Within Groups</b>	20		
<b>Total</b>	24		

A one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) unveils that there is no main effect of the participants' responses to the frequency with which they use the planning step in writing on the transfer of rhetorical patterns in the English paragraph. This is revealed in the F ratio and the  $p$  value [  $F(4, 20) = ,971$ ,  $p = ,445$ ]. This results shows that there is no association between the planning step and the carryover of Arabic rhetorical patterns.

#### **2.2.3.15. The Association between Drafting and the Carryover of Arabic Rhetorical Patterns into English Writing**

**Table 56**

*The Association between Drafting and the Carryover of Arabic Rhetorical Patterns into English Writing*

	<b>Df</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	4	,640	,640
<b>Within Groups</b>	20		
<b>Total</b>	24		

A one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) shows that there is no main effect of the participants' report of using the drafting phase on the transfer of rhetorical patterns into the

English paragraph. This is indicated with the F ratio and the  $p$  value [F (4, 20) = ,640,  $p$  = ,640]. Again drafting is not associated with the transfer of rhetorical patterns.

### **2.2.3.16. The Association between Editing and the Carryover of Arabic Rhetorical Patterns into English Writing**

**Table 57**

*The Association between Editing and the Carryover of Arabic Rhetorical Patterns into English Writing*

	<b>Df</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	4	,945	,459
<b>Within Groups</b>	20		
<b>Total</b>	24		

A one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) shows that there is no main effect of the participants' report of using the editing phase on the transfer of rhetorical patterns into the English paragraph. This is indicated with the F ratio and the  $p$  value [F (4, 20) = ,945,  $p$  = ,459]. This result shows that there is no match between using the editing step of the writing process and the carryover of Arabic rhetorical pattern.

### **2.2.3.17. The Association between Proofreading and the Carryover of Arabic Rhetorical Patterns into English Writing**

**Table 58**

*The Association between Proofreading and the Carryover of Arabic Rhetorical Patterns into English Writing*

	<b>Df</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	4	,322	,860
<b>Within Groups</b>	20		
<b>Total</b>	24		

A one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) unveils that there is no main effect of the participants' responses to the frequency with which they proofread their compositions in



exams on the transfer of rhetorical patterns into the English paragraph. This conclusion is revealed in the F ratio and the  $p$  value [ $F(4, 20) = ,322, p = ,860$ ].

### **2.2.3.18. The Association between the Language used for Brainstorming and the Carryover of Arabic Rhetorical Patterns into English Writing**

**Table 59**

*The Association between the Brainstorming Language and the Carryover of Arabic Rhetorical Patterns into English Writing*

	<b>Df</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Between Groups</b>	4	,510	,680
<b>Within Groups</b>	20		
<b>Total</b>	24		

A one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) unveils that there is no main effect of the participants' report of the language they use for brainstorming in exams on the transfer of rhetorical patterns into the English paragraph. The absence of this association is represented by [ $F(4, 20) = ,510, p = ,680$ ].

## **2.3. Section Three: The Discussion of Results**

In this section, the obtained results from the content analysis and the designed questionnaire are discussed separately in relation to the research questions and their related assumptions; then their association is interpreted.

### **2.3.1. The Discussion of the Results Obtained from the Content Analysis**

The findings obtained from the content analysis help in answering the first research question which is formulated as follows “What are the Arabic rhetorical patterns that second-year EFL students at Larbi Tebessi University carryover into their EFL writing?”

These results indicate that the participants are cross-influenced by the Arabic style of writing and argumentation; where they carryover most of the investigated Arabic rhetorical patterns. These findings are consistent with Hamadouch (2015) findings which confirm that

the typical rhetorical features of Arabic discourse are observed in students' English written products. Additionally, the first research assumption is partially confirmed because the results of the content analysis shows that the participants carryover the rhetorical patterns of non linearity, indirectness, coordination, repetition, and argumentation into their English argumentative paragraphs. However, the transfer of using Qur'an, Hadith, proverbs, and quotation of famous Arab scholars was not traced in the students' writing. These aspects are explained in detail in what follows.

**2.3.1.1. Non-linearity.** The findings show that the participants do not obey the English paragraph norms; they follow the Arabic paragraph organization that is based on thorough explanation of one idea, which could be explicitly stated or implied.

Many of the participants have not begun their paragraphs with a relevant topic sentence which introduces the topic rather they left it to the reader to guess, which is also an Arabic rhetorical pattern. This is also asserted by Drid (2015), who found that EFL students start paragraphs with very broad topic sentences. It is in terms as well with Fareh (1988) and Al-Khani (2017) who claim that the topic of Arabic paragraphs is not stated from the beginning, it is rather developed through a series of explanations.

The participants' violation lies as well in the way of presenting the supporting sentences. According to Kaplan (1966) supporting sentences in English paragraphs are subdivisions of a topic statement followed by illustrations. Participants' supporting sentences, however, were statements followed by through explanation in more than three sentences. Most of these sentences were presented in hierarchal order; each idea explains the one that precedes it. Supporting ideas in the English paragraphs need to be followed by illustrations; however, this was not prevalent in the participants' writing Abu-Ali (1993).

Another sign of the carryover of the Arabic paragraph organization into English is the use of personal opinions as conclusions, while, English concluding sentences have to be in the

form of a restatement of the topic sentences i.e. they should sum up the main idea of the piece of writing. Most of the participants' writings end with an advice which is in turn a personal view. This aspect is Arabic-like.

The carryover of non-linearity is signalled as well in the participants English writing through the heavy use of parallel constructions; a finding that matches Kaplan (1966) claim. The findings show that participants make use of the different types of parallelism, especially synonymous parallelism, in their English paragraphs. However, this goes against Sa'addedin (1989) assertion that the excessive use of parallelism in Arabic is reserved only to aural texts.

**2.3.1.2. Indirectness.** The results obtained from the content analysis of the English paragraphs proves that indirectness markers are found in almost all the English paragraphs (23 out of 25), and in all the Arabic paragraphs, specifically vagueness and ambiguity markers which are used with high frequencies. Additionally, the paragraphs which do not contain or have a low frequency of indirectness markers are short. Thus, it is confirmed that participants transfer the convention of indirectness from Arabic writing as asserted by Zaharna (1995) and Hinkel(1997).

**3.1.3. Coordination.** The majority of participants make use of coordination more than subordination in English, despite the fact that subordination is the core of English language. Participants' Arabic writing also has a high frequency of coordination. The study results are consistent with the findings of Kaplan (1966), Ostler (1987), Beaugrand et al (1992), Ried (1992), Mohammed & Omar (1999), and Drid (2015).

**3.1.4. Repetition.** Repetition is found in most of participants paragraphs, particularly, lexical repetition which is found in all the paragraphs of English and Arabic alike. These findings assert that participants carryover the conventions of repetition from Arabic to English. However, almost half of the participants make use of ideas repetition as well, while it is highly frequent in all the Arabic paragraphs of the participants. The findings goes in

parallel with Johnstone (1983, 1991.), Abu-Ras (2010), and Hamadouch (2015) findings, which state that Arab students of English keep repeating the same idea with new words.

**3.1.5. Style of Argumentation.** The study asserts that most of participants argue through the presentational style which is the basis of argumentation in Arabic writing (Johnstone, 1989; Drid, 2016); here participants rely on word choice to involve the reader emotionally. Most of their arguments were beliefs that result from feelings. However, the quasi-logical style that is typically used by English native speakers is not very much used along with the analogical style of Arabic argumentation, where it used by two participants. These results assert that participants transfer the Arabic styles of argumentation, namely the presentational and the analogical styles. The analysed Arabic paragraphs contain the the presentational style more than the quasi-logical despite the fact that participants have relied on its writing on translating their ideas from English to Arabic since the course involves translation.

Finally, the carryover of Qur'an, Hadith, proverbs, and quotation of famous Arab scholars into English is not found at all in the participants' writing. This may be attributed to the topic itself. The topic does not leave room for the use of such evidence.

It is worth noting that the quantification and analysis of the Arabic rhetorical patterns in the Arabic paragraphs helped in drawing solid conclusion. Since a rhetorical pattern is used with the same frequency in the both the English and the Arabic paragraphs of the same participants, this confirms that the primary, if not the only, reason behind the existence of this rhetorical pattern in the English paragraph is the phenomenon of carryover.

### ***2.3.2. The Discussion of the Results Obtained from the Questionnaire***

The findings obtained from the questionnaire helps in giving an insight into the participants' self-reports of carryover.

These findings indicate that some of the participants have succeeded in defining argumentation. However, most of them find it a difficult task. Some of the participants' declared that they find difficulties in the organization of ideas in the paragraphs/essay and in the style of writing.

However, most of the participants declared that they do not prefer indirectness and ambiguity. They also claimed that they use hedging devices with a moderate frequency. A self-report that is contradictory; the content analysis demonstrates that the participants make use of hedges, vagueness and ambiguity markers with a considerable frequency as it was proven statistically.

Arguing through the use of Qur'an, Hadith, and quotations of well known Arab scholars overall mean is low in the participants' self reports. This shows that participants are not strongly tied to Qur'an and religion unlike what Ostler (1987) found that Arabic speaking writers are strongly tied to Qur'an. The results also oppose Al-Khatib (1994) findings which is that Arab speaking students of English strengthen their arguments through Qur'anic verses and proverbs. It contrasts also Abu-Ras (1994) findings about Arab students of English use of Hadith, famous Islamic scholars' quotations in argumentation. These patterns were not cross-validated in the content analysis as it is noted previously.

The participants declare that they use a moderate rate of coordinating conjunctions. However, they were excessively traced in their writing through the content analysis findings. Additionally, the mean of using metaphor is moderate, while the content analysis reveals that two paragraphs out of 25 used metaphor.

The vast majority of participants declare that the writing quality of their take-home assignments is better than that of exam paragraphs, because they have much time to correct their mistakes. This shows the importance of time in reducing errors and avoiding transfer as it is asserted by (Shaikhulislami and Makhlouf, 2002). Additionally, the writing quality on

self-selected topics is declared to be better than predetermined ones; most of the participants declare that they find it easy to express their ideas in a logical way. This may decrease the transfer of some rhetorical patterns such as non-linearity, coordination, and repetition.

The vast majority of the participants declare that their English writing is not native-like because they do not have a great amount of English vocabularies. Additionally, one participant declares that s/he does not formulate arguments as natives. Furthermore, one participant declares that his writing is native like and s/he assumes that this is due to the fact that Arabic and English forms are similar. All these responses show that the participants are unaware of the phenomenon of carryover and they do not recognize that each language has its specific rhetorical patterns.

The majority of the participants use English in brainstorming. While, a small portion among them uses Arabic, French, or the Algerian dialect. This finding shows that despite the fact that participants use English in brainstorming, they kept using the Arabic rhetorical conventions in English writing. This signals that the violation of English paragraph conventions is due to the fossilization of transfer errors (Selinker,1972) or the lack of learners' awareness. These conclusions are further asserted through the correlation between the results obtained from both instruments.

### ***2.3.3. The discussion of data obtained from the Correlation Test.***

The different correlation tests helps in associating the results obtained from both research instruments statistically and it helps in providing an answer to the second research question.

First, the statistical tests have shown that the way participants define argumentative writing is inversely proportional to the way they present the argument in their English paragraphs. This indicates that there is a gap between the students' theoretical knowledge and their performance.

Additionally, the results of the correlation test show that there is no association between whether participants consider Arabic argumentative writing different from English and the way they present arguments in their English paragraphs. This indicates that they are not aware about their styles of argumentation. Additionally, there is no consistency between participants' responses about if they consider argumentative writing difficult and the way they present arguments in the paragraphs writing. Whereby, some of them may consider English argumentative writing easy but they use the Arabic argumentative styles. The test has shown as well, that although some participants claim that they face no problems in writing, evidence about them, exist in their writing. This finding asserts once more the problem of unawareness.

The findings also show that there is no match between what participants declare in the questionnaire and how they really write; there is no correlation between their self-responses about the rhetorical patterns: indirectness, parallelism, semantic repetition, ideas repetition, hedges, and coordination more than subordination, and ambiguity and their actual use in their paragraphs. This confirms that participants are not aware about their writing style. However, these results would have been more accurate if the questionnaire was done immediately after the exam, given that this questionnaire inquires about argumentative writing in exam in general not the one that was analyzed in particular.

In this regard raising learners' awareness about their transfer errors can be a remedial factor for reaching native-like productions (Talebi, 2014).

Finally the association test provide an answer to the following research question: "What is the effect of following the different steps of the writing process on reducing students' transfer of Arabic rhetorical conventions?" It shows that there is no effect of using the writing process steps in exams on reducing the transfer of Arabic rhetorical patterns i.e. following the writing process does not help in the reduction of the carryover of the Arabic rhetorical patterns into English. Thereby, these findings reject the second research assumption.

However, the results would have been more accurate or perhaps different, if the content analysis of the exam paragraphs was correlated with an observation of the participants' writing process.

#### **2.4. Limitations of the Study**

The current study faced some difficulties and obstacles that may have affected its result and validity; the most important ones are:

1. The pandemic of Covid 19 and the quarantine lasted for 6 months, which prevented the researchers from applying the practical work in the best conditions. The data collection procedure has changed. The content analysis was planned for a writing test that is administered by the researchers on a topic that serves best the aim of the research. Additionally, the analysis of the final version of the participants' productions was planned to be correlated with an observation of the participants' writing process.
2. The learners' questionnaire was administered to all second-year students. However, only 25 participants accepted to be part of this research. Consequently, it may affect the generalization of the results obtained from this research.
3. The questionnaire is not piloted due to the small number of the participants who accepted to take part in the study.

#### **2.5. Pedagogical Implications**

This research's findings have significant implications for students, decision-makers and educational practitioners to recognise the importance of contrastive rhetoric and consider its' insertion in the Algerian universities' teaching curriculum. Despite the fact that contrastive rhetoric was established about 54 years ago, this study findings indicate the need for contrastive rhetoric which helps in rising students' awareness about Arabic and English rhetorical conventions. This possibly leads to the improvement of students' writing quality through the recognition of their writing problems and violation.



Contrastive rhetoric lessons will also prevent the fossilization of such violations and the carrying over of Arabic rhetorical conventions.

Contrastive rhetoric also permits comparison between styles of argumentation in both languages which allows learners to distinguish between such styles. Thus, applying English quasi-logical style of argumentation will be easy for them.

## **2.6. Recommendations for Further Research**

The following suggestions for future research are proposed:

1. The methodology of the research can be reduplicated with a large sample size to get more generalizable results.
2. A written test can be given to participants in parallel with an observation of the participants' writing process, then analyze their drafts and final sheets to see whether following the process of writing has an impact on reducing the transfer of Arabic rhetorical patterns.
3. An experimental research design could be made to trace the effect of the Process Writing Approach on achieving native-like writing style.
4. The Consciousness Raising Approach can be used in an experimental design to rise the learners awareness about the Arabic rhetorical conventions to avoid them in writing.
5. Further research can be done to trace the influence of both French language and the Algerian dialects on the English style of writing.

## **General Conclusion**

This research has investigated the carryover of Arabic rhetorical patterns into English argumentative writing on the one hand, and the impact of the writing process in reducing the carryover of these rhetorical patterns on the other. The study is based on the theory of Contrastive Rhetoric that is proposed by Kaplan (1966) to analyze written productions beyond the sentence level. It is based on the assumption that the writings of non-native speakers are different from those of native speakers because the writers have different cultural backgrounds, and rhetorical tendencies differ from one culture to another. Thus contrastive rhetoric investigates discourse structure and paragraph organization across cultures.

The dissertation includes two chapters. A theoretical chapter is devoted to reviewing the related literature to the focal point of this study. Thus, it consists of two sections. The first section provides a general overview about the linguistic phenomenon of transfer and its related theories. The second section includes various Arabic rhetorical patterns and Harmer's (2004) model of the process of writing.

The practical chapter represents the field work of this research. It gives an account about the descriptive study conducted by the researchers on 25 second-year students of English at Larbi Tebessi. Participants have been non-randomly assigned. They have been selected according to their availability and willingness to take part in the research. The data gathering tools are a content analysis of both Arabic and English writing and a learners' questionnaire. The collected data from both instruments are analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively separately, and then they are correlated.

The qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data shows a significant difference between participants' self-report and writing productions which confirms that participants are not aware about their writing styles. Consequently, the obtained results proved that participants transfer the Arabic rhetorical patterns investigated in this study, except arguing

through the use of Qur'an, Hadith, and quotations of well-known Arab scholars. The data analysis has shown as well that the process of writing does not help in reducing the carryover of Arabic rhetorical patterns into English writing.

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## Appendix A

### Models used for the Content Analysis

#### 1. Kaplan's (1966) Model of Parallel Constructions

**Table A1**

*Kaplan's Model of Parallel Construction*

<b>Synonymous Parallelism (Canonical Parallelism)</b>	<b>Synthetic Parallelism</b>	<b>Antithetic Parallelism</b>	<b>Climactic Parallelism</b>
Two phrases/sentences follow the same structure.	The idea of the first part is continued in the second part. The two parts are linked with implied or stated conjunctive adverbs.	The idea of the first part is emphasized by a contrasting idea in the second part.	The idea of a passage is not completed till the end.

A translated version of this model is used to analyze the Arabic paragraph.

#### 2. The Paragraph Organization

**Table A2**

*Model of English Paragraph Components*

<b>Topic Sentence</b>	<b>Supporting Sentences</b>	<b>Concluding Sentence</b>
A general statement that introduces the theme of the paragraph.	Subdivisions of the topic sentence and illustrations (facts, experiences, and examples)	A sentence that sums up and closes the passage .

#### 3. Hinkel's (1997) Model of Indirectness

**Table A3**

*Hinkel's Model of Indirectness*

<b>Indirectness Markers</b>	<b>Types and Example</b>
<b>Rhetorical Question and Tags</b>	Interrogative forms

<b>Disclaimers and Denials</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- do(es)/be forms+ not mean (meant),</li> <li>- to /imply/intend/ say, x not y,</li> <li>- not+(adj), not+ verb, not+noun, not+adv, not even, no way</li> </ul>
<b>Vagueness and Ambiguity</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b>Numerical quantifiers:</b> a lot of, lots of, approximately/ around, between x and y, many/much, numbers of, piece(s), tons of/ dozens/ hundreds/ thousands/ millions, x or y (for example, Five or six), x or so, several</li> <li>- <b>Non-numerical Quantifiers:</b> x aspect of, x facets, at least, at best,</li> <li>- <b>Scalar Qualifiers:</b> excellent/ good/ bad, always, often, occasionally, sometimes, never, large/ extensive/ small, / high/ low/ , tall/ short</li> <li>- <b>Classifiers:</b> all, and all that, and that, and so on, things / stuff (like that), who knows what/way, whatever (pronoun) want(s)/ do(s), the whole bit/works</li> </ul>
<b>Hedges and Hedging Devices</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b>Lexical:</b> (at) about, in a way, kind of, may be, more or less, most, something like, sort of</li> <li>- <b>Possibility:</b> by (some, any), chance, hopefully, perhaps, possibly, in case (of), (if) you know/ understand (what person mean(s), if structures distinguished from if condition</li> <li>- <b>Quality:</b> as is (well) know, people say, certainly , likely/ most likely/very likely, obviously, undoubtedly, seemingly, supposedly, surely</li> <li>- <b>Performative:</b> apparently, basically, clearly, definitely</li> </ul>
<b>Point of View Distancing</b>	- I well feel hope/wonder/worry. I would like to/ want to/ think/ believe/understand (tense markers and contractions)
<b>Downtoners</b>	- at all ,at most, hardly, mildly, nearly, only, partially, slightly, somewhat,
<b>Diminutive</b>	- a little, little , a bit, a little bit, a few, few
<b>Discourse Particles</b>	- well, now, any way, anyhow, any ways
<b>Demonstratives</b>	- that this, those, these, (excluding that as relative pronoun)
<b>Indefinite Pronouns and Determiners</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-<b>Universal and Negative:</b> all, both, everybody, everything, neither, nobody, nothing, every, each</li> <li>-<b>Assertive and Non Assertive:</b> anybody, anything, any, either, somebody, someone, something, some.</li> </ul>
<b>Passive Voice</b>	- Passive form

<b>Conditional Tenses</b>	- If + conditional tense/ unless+ conditional tense
---------------------------	---

**Note:** A translated version of this model is used to analyze the Arabic paragraph. Besides, they were analyzed for indirectness as well through highlighting figures of speech and embellishments such as metaphor and simile which is based on Shouby (1951) as cited in (Sa'addedin 1989) who claim that artistry and exaggeration of Arabic language leads to indirectness of ideas.

**Table A4**

*The Translation Version of Hinkel's Model of Indirectness*

جمل إستقهامية	الأسئلة البلاغية
لا يعني/لا تعني، قال، دل/لمح، أ ليس ب، ليس+نعت، لا+فعل، لا/ليس+ إسم، ليس+حال	التنصل و النفي
الكثير من /العديد من /عدّة، حوالي/قرابة، بين أ و ب، الكثير، عددا من، قليل من، العشرات من، المئات من، الآلاف من، الملايين من، أ أو ب -أ إحدى عناصر /أجزاء ب، على الأقل، على الأغلب/الأكثر، إحدى أوجه -جيد، ممتاز، سيء دائما، غالبا، أحيانا، في بعض الأوقات، أبدا، واسع، ضيق، صغير، عال، منخفض، طويل، قصير -كل، جميع، وهذا، وهكذا، مع كل هذا، أشياء كهذه، من يعلم، أي طريقة، كل ما يريد، كل ما يفعل، الشيء بأكمله/جل الشيء/الشيء كله	الغموض و الإلتباس
-شيء من، بطريقة ما، حوالي، ربما، أكثر، أقل، معظم/الأغلبية، شيء كهذا/شيء من هذا -بقليل، بأي، أملا، لعل، ممكن، في حالة ما، علما أن، لو تفهم/يفهم ما يعني بهذا، لو -كما يبدو، يدعي/يقول أشخاص، بالتأكيد، ممكن، غالبا ممكن، فيما يبدو، من المفترض، واضحا/جليا، دون شك/ريب -من المأكد، من المعلوم، من الواضح	أدوات التحوط
أعتقد/أظن، أود/أريد، أمل جيدا، أدرك، أصدق، فلق حيال/أشعر بالقلق، مندهش/مستغرب/أشعر بالإندهاش	أبعاد وجهة النظر
أبدا، غالبا، تقريبا، فقط/الوحيد/إلا، جزئيا، بعض الشيء، قليل، أقل، أقل بقليل، أقل من، قليل من	التعابير الإحترافية
على كل حال، على كل الحالات، حاليا/الآن، حسنا، هذا، هذه/هته، هنا/هناك، ذلك/ذاك، هؤلاء، أولئك	مفردات التصغير العناصر المتعلقة بالخطاب
كل شخص (كل أحد/كل واحد/كل فرد)، كلاهما، الجميع+ كل شيء، لا أحد، لا شيء، كل، أي، لا أحد، ولا (لا أ ولا ب)، إما (إما أ أو ب) -أي شخص(أي أحد)، أي شيء، إما، أحدهم، (أحد ما)، إحدى/أحد الأشياء، بعض	أدوات الإشارة
جمل مبنية للمجهول	الضمانر و المحددات
إذا، إلا إذا، إن،	المبنى للمجهول الجمل الشرطية

#### 4. Excessive Use of Coordination

**Table A5**

*The Model of Analysis of the Use of Coordination and Subordination in English*

Coordinating Clauses	Subordinating Clauses
Clauses that are preceded by the following conjunctions: and, but, or, so, yet, for, nor, or	Clauses that are preceded by : - <b>Subordinating Conjunctions:</b> although, because, since, while, when, before, after - <b>Semi colon ( ; )</b> - <b>Relative Pronouns :</b> that, which, who - <b>Phrases</b> like even so, after all, in contrast

**Table A6**

*The Model of Analysis of the Use of Coordination and Subordination in Arabic*

Coordination of Words	Coordination of Sentences/Phrases
Words are related through the connectives: “waa”, “faa”, “aw”, “θumma”.	

#### 5. Repetition

**Table A7**

*The Model of Analysis of Repetition (Based on Dickens et al., 2002)*

Words/ Phrases Repetition			Ideas Repetition
Semantic Repetition	Lexical Repetition	Morphological Repetition	
Synonyms or near synonyms repetition	The repetition of a single phrase or word.	<b>Pattern Repetition:</b> repetition of the same pattern on two or more words <b>Root repetition:</b> repetition of words that have the same morphological root <b>Suffix Repetition:</b> repetition of the same suffix at the end of words	Ideas repeated in different words.

## 6. Toulmin's (1958) Model of Argumentation

**Table A8**

*Toulmin's Model of Argumentation*

<b>Claim/ Conclusion</b>	<b>Data</b>	<b>Warrant</b>
The opinion in the form of an assertion, preference, view, or judgment	It supports the claim. It can be an experience, fact, statistic, or occurrence.	Warrants are general hypothetical statements relating the data and the claim.  They are rules, principles, inferences or any additional information.

Note that Toulmin's model of argumentation (1958) contains six elements which are the claim, data, warrant, backing, rebuttals, and qualifiers. However, for Toulmin only claim, data, and warrant are obligatory in every argument, the rest elements are optional. Therefore, only the three essential elements are taken into concern in this study.

## **Appendix B**

### **The Students' Questionnaire**



**People's Democratic Republic of Algeria**  
**Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research**  
**Larbi Tebessi University -Tebessa-**  
**Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages**  
**Department of Letters and English Language**



Dear students,

This questionnaire is designed for the purpose of gathering information for a Master's degree dissertation that is entitled "The Carryover of Arabic Rhetoric Patterns to English Writing". It aims at investigating the rhetorical patterns of Arabic writing that are transferred to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students' English writing.

As second-year students, you are familiar with the process of writing along with writing a variety of paragraph types, thus, based on your previous knowledge and practice, you are kindly requested to fill in this questionnaire as truthfully as possible. Your time and efforts are highly appreciated.

Be assured that your answers will be used for this research only and they will be analyzed anonymously.

Guideline: please, choose the option that describes your point of view the most in each statement, and provide a full answer when required.

Thank you for your kind cooperation.



1. Kindly provide your first and family name initials

.....

### Section One: Argumentative Writing

2. How would you define argumentative writing?

.....

3. Do you consider writing An Arabic argumentative paragraph/essay different from English one?

Yes

No

4. Do you find writing English argumentative paragraphs (and essays) hard task?

Yes

No

5. If yes, what are the difficulties that you face in writing? (You can choose more than one option)

- Organizing the parts of paragraph or essay

- The writing style

- The presentation of the arguments

Others.

6. When you write an English argumentative paragraph/essay, how does each of the following practices apply to your writing?

Item	Not at all true of me	Not very much true of me	Somewhat true of me	Fairly much true of me	Highly true of me
1. I like presenting my ideas in an indirect way.					
2. I use parallel structures often for example; "the plane descends", "dips and rises".					
3. I use different synonyms in a row in order to emphasise an idea.					
4. I express the same idea in two or three different ways in order to make it clear.					

5. I use expressions such as, “it is well known”, and “people say” in order to present arguments.					
6. I link ideas by using coordination conjunctions, (for example, and, but, and, or) more than using subordination conjunctions (for example although, because, and while).					
7. I use Quranic verses and Hadith as arguments.					
8. I use quotations of famous Arab scholar As arguments.					
9. I use proverbs as arguments.					
10. I like using metaphors.					
11. I prefer ambiguity in writing because it attracts the reader.					

7. Do you often find the quality of your take home assignment paragraph better than your exam paragraphs?

Yes

No

8. Please, explain.

.....

9. If you are required to write an argumentative paragraph/essay on a topic of your choice, do you think that the quality of your writing would be better than writing on a predetermined topic?

Yes

No

10. Please, explain why

.....

11. Do you judge your English argumentative paragraph/essays as native-like?

Yes

No

12. Please, explain why

.....

## Section Two: Writing Process

13. When you are assigned to write an argumentative paragraph /essay in an exam, how often do you go through each of the following writing process steps?

	<b>Never</b>	<b>Rarely</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Often</b>	<b>Always</b>
Planning					
Drafting					
Editing					
Proofreading					

14. Please, explain the choice that you have made in the previous question (15).

.....

15. What is the language that you use in brainstorming?

Arabic

English

French

Algerian dialects

Others

.....

## Appendix C

### The Detailed Results of the English Paragraphs Content Analysis

**Table C1**

*The Frequency of Parallel Constructions in the English Paragraphs per Participant*

<b>Paragraph Number</b>	<b>Synonymous Parallelism</b>	<b>Synthetic Parallelism</b>	<b>Antithetic Parallelism</b>	<b>Climatic Parallelism</b>
1	1	0	1	0
2	2	2	0	0
3	1	1	0	0
4	1	0	0	0
5	1	0	0	0
6	1	0	1	1
7	2	0	0	0
8	1	1	1	0
9	1	0	0	0
10	1	0	1	1
11	2	0	1	1
12	2	0	0	0
13	2	0	0	0
14	3	0	2	0
15	1	0	0	0
16	2	0	0	0
17	1	0	0	0
18	4	0	0	0
19	1	0	0	0
20	1	0	0	0
21	0	0	0	0
22	0	0	0	0
23	1	0	0	0
24	2	0	0	0
25	1	0	0	0

**Table C2***The Frequency of the Elements of the English Paragraph per Participant*

Paragraph Number	Topic Sentence		Supporting Sentences			Concluding Sentence		
	Relevant	Irrelevant	Illustration	Thorough Explanation	No Supporting Sentence	Relevant	Personal View	No Concluding Sentence
1	1	0	0	4		1	0	0
2	1	0	1	1		0	0	1
3	1	0	0	1		0	0	1
4	0	1	0	1		0	0	1
5	1	0	0	2		0	0	1
6	1	0	2	3		0	1	0
7	1	0	0	2		0	1	0
8	1	0	2	5		1	0	0
9	1	0	0	2		0	0	1
10	1	0	1	2		0	0	1
11	0	1	0	0	✓	0	1	0
12	1	0	0	2		1	0	0
13	1	0	1	3		0	1	0
14	1	0	0	5		1	0	0
15	1	0	0	3		1	0	0
16	1	0	0	2		0	0	1
17	1	0	2	4		1	0	0
18	1	0	0	2		0	1	0
19	0	1	0	3		0	1	0
20	1	0	1	1		0	1	0
21	0	1	1	2		0	1	0
22	1	0	0	4		1	0	0
23	1	0	1	3		0	0	1
24	0	1	0	3		0	0	1
25	0	1	1	2		1	0	0



**Table C4***The Frequency of Coordination and Subordination in the English Paragraph per Participant*

<b>Paragraph Number</b>	<b>Total Number of Clauses</b>	<b>Subordinating Conjunction</b>	<b>Coordinating Conjunction</b>
1	13	3	3
2	10	4	2
3	8	2	2
4	4	0	0
5	6	0	2
6	25	6	11
7	15	5	2
8	35	11	4
9	8	3	3
10	14	4	4
11	11	3	3
12	17	2	2
13	21	4	11
14	35	6	10
15	11	3	4
16	9	2	2
17	23	7	6
18	16	7	5
19	15	5	3
20	8	2	4
21	20	5	7
22	12	2	4
23	9	1	2
24	7	2	0
25	9	0	2

**Table C5***The Frequency of Repetition in the English Paragraph per Participant*

<b>Paragraph Number</b>	<b>Semantic Repetition</b>	<b>Lexical Repetition</b>	<b>Morphological Repetition</b>	<b>Ideas Repetition</b>
1	0	3	1	0
2	3	1	0	0
3	0	2	0	1
4	2	1	0	0
5	0	2	0	0
6	2	1	0	1
7	2	1	2	2
8	0	1	0	1
9	3	4	0	1
10	1	2	0	1
11	0	3	0	1
12	0	1	0	1
13	0	2	0	0
14	0	5	3	1
15	0	2	0	0
16	1	3	0	0
17	0	1	1	0
18	5	1	0	0
19	0	2	1	1
20	0	2	1	1
21	2	3	1	0
22	0	4	0	0
23	2	5	0	0
24	0	4	0	0
25	1	2	0	0



**Table C6**

*The Frequency of Applying the Elements of an Argument in the English Paragraph per Participant*

Paragraph Number	Claim	Warrant	Data		
			Facts & Statistics	Analogical style	Presentational style
1	2	1	1	0	2
2	1	0	0	0	1
3	2	1	0	0	1
4	1	0	0	0	0
5	1	1	0	0	0
6	4	1	0	1	3
7	2	1	0	0	7
8	2	0	0	0	2
9	1	0	0	0	2
10	1	0	0	0	1
11	1	0	0	0	1
12	3	0	0	0	2
13	4	0	3	0	1
14	1	0	0	0	1
15	1	0	0	0	1
16	0	0	0	0	0
17	4	0	2	0	0
18	1	0	0	0	2
19	0	0	0	0	0
20	1	0	1	0	2
21	1	0	0	1	1
22	1	0	0	0	1
23	1	0	0	0	1
24	0	0	0	0	0
25	1	0	0	0	0

## Appendix D

### The Detailed Results of the Arabic Paragraphs Content Analysis

**Table D1**

*The Frequency of Parallel Constructions in the Arabic Paragraphs per Participant*

<b>Paragrah Number</b>	<b>Synonymous Parallelism</b>	<b>Synthetic Parallelism</b>	<b>Antithetic Parallelim</b>	<b>Climatic Parallelism</b>
1	0	0	0	1
2	0	1	0	1
3	1	1	0	1
4	1	1	0	1
5	0	1	0	1
6	0	0	1	1
7	0	5	0	1
8	0	1	0	0
9	0	1	0	1
10	1	1	0	1
11	0	0	1	1
12	0	0	1	0
13	0	0	0	1
14	0	2	0	1
15	1	1	1	0
16	1	0	1	1
17	1	0	0	1
18	1	1	0	1
19	0	0	0	1
20	0	1	0	1
21	1	1	0	1
22	0	1	1	1
23	2	0	1	1
24	0	0	0	1
25	0	2	0	1

**Table D2***The Frequency of Indirectness Markers in the Arabic Paragraph per Participant*

Paragraph Number	Rhetorical questions & Tags	Disclaimers and Denials	Vagueness and Ambiguity	Hedges & hedging Devices	Point of View Distancing	Downtoners	Diminutives	Discourse Particles	Demonstratives	Indefinit pro & Determiners	Passive Voice	Conditional Tenses
1	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0
2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	8	1	0	1
3	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0
4	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0
5	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
6	0	3	6	1	0	1	0	0	3	1	1	0
7	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	0	0
8	0	2	8	1	0	0	0	0	6	1	0	0
9	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
10	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	0	0
11	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0
12	0	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
13	0	9	5	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	1
14	0	2	7	0	0	0	0	0	12	0	0	0
15	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
16	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
17	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	3	0	0	0
18	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
19	0	1	4	2	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
20	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
21	0	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
22	0	1	6	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0
23	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
24	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
25	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0

**Table D3**

*The Frequency of Metaphor and Simile in the Arabic Paragraph per Participant*

<b>Paragraph Number</b>	<b>Metaphor</b>	<b>Simile</b>
1	1	0
2	1	0
3	1	2
4	1	0
5	2	1
6	5	1
7	1	1
8	0	1
9	1	0
10	0	0
11	2	0
12	1	0
13	1	0
14	1	0
15	1	0
16	1	0
17	2	0
18	0	0
19	1	0
20	2	0
21	0	0
22	3	0
23	1	0
24	0	2
25	1	1

**Table D4***The Frequency of Coordinating Conjunctions in the Arabic Paragraph per Participant*

<b>Paragrah Number</b>	<b>“waa”</b>	<b>“θumma ”</b>	<b>“aw”</b>	<b>“faa”</b>
1	1	0	0	1
2	1	0	1	1
3	3	0	1	1
4	2	0	1	2
5	3	0	0	1
6	3	0	0	4
7	3	0	1	2
8	2	0	1	2
9	2	0	0	2
10	2	0	2	2
11	2	0	0	1
12	1	0	1	2
13	1	0	0	2
14	2	0	0	3
15	1	0	0	3
16	2	0	0	1
17	3	0	0	4
18	2	0	0	3
19	0	0	0	2
20	0	0	0	2
21	1	0	1	1
22	0	0	0	2
23	1	0	0	2
24	0	1	1	2
25	2	0	1	2

**Table D5***The Frequency of Repetition in the Arabic Paragraph per Participant*

Paragraph Number	Lexical Repetition	Semantic Repetition	Morphological Repetition			Ideas Repetition
			Root	Pattern	Suffix	
1	1	1	1	0	1	2
2	1	1	0	0	1	2
3	0	1	0	0	2	5
4	1	1	0	0	3	2
5	1	2	2	1	4	2
6	1	3	1	1	2	3
7	0	3	1	1	4	4
8	2	4	2	0	1	2
9	0	2	0	0	1	3
10	0	1	2	0	1	4
11	1	3	1	1	2	3
12	0	0	1	0	0	3
13	0	5	4	0	1	2
14	2	3	4	0	4	4
15	3	0	1	0	1	3
16	0	0	1	0	0	2
17	0	3	2	2	2	3
18	1	1	0	0	3	3
19	0	4	2	0	2	3
20	0	0	0	0	1	2
21	0	1	2	0	1	4
22	0	1	1	0	2	3
23	1	7	0	0	3	2
24	0	2	0	1	1	3
25	0	2	1	1	2	2

**Table D6**

*The Frequency of Applying the Elements of an Argument in the Arabic Paragraph per Participant*

Paragraph Number	Claim	Warrant	Data			
			Facts & Statistics	Analogical Style	Presentational Style	None
1	3	1	1	0	0	0
2	3	1	1	0	0	0
3	4	1	0	1	1	0
4	3	1	1	0	0	0
5	2	2	0	0	0	1
6	4	2	0	1	2	0
7	4	2	0	1	2	0
8	1	1	0	0	0	1
9	3	1	1	0	1	0
10	1	1	0	0	1	0
11	2	1	0	0	1	0
12	1	1	1	0	0	0
13	5	2	0	0	1	0
14	1	1	1	0	1	0
15	4	2	1	1	0	0
16	1	1	1	0	0	0
17	1	1	1	0	1	0
18	4	2	1	0	1	0
19	1	1	1	0	0	0
20	5	0	1	0	1	0
21	1	1	1	0	1	0
22	2	1	0	0	1	0
23	2	0	0	0	1	0
24	1	1	0	0	0	1
25	1	1	1	0	1	0

## Appendix E

### Selected Exam Sheets used in the Analysis

IV. Write a paragraph discussing the statement below. Include arguments for and against, and say whether you agree or not.

**'It is better for a country to have good roads, public order, central heating and hot baths than to be free.'** (06 pts)

..... Good living conditions are so important for any country in order to be an appropriate place for settlement; however, these conditions are not enough and they are somehow meaningless without freedom. In my own opinion, freedom is the corner stone for any country. A free country would be able to set its own rules, laws, conditions, policies etc even though it has no comfy living conditions. Freedom gives a name, a free will, and an authority to a country. It is true that having good roads, public order, and central heating is so essential like the case of Britain and the Roman invasion..... The Romans lived peacefully in there and they brought a lot of good skills and different things. Also because of them the natives (Britons) had good living conditions for over 400 years, yet they missed their freedom and they rebelled and fought back at some stage. After the Roman troops left Britain, it is true that living conditions and social life went terrible as Winston Churchill said once but at least they broke free and Britain started its journey to be what it is today. In addition, the good living conditions and fancy stuff may be quite convenient for people and social life but never for politics since a country without freedom has no free policies and without policies and laws there is chaos. Finally, good living conditions can't provide freedom but freedom can provide good living conditions. In short, it is fair to say that both are important from one side or another but personally I prefer freedom since it is the basis and the corner stone for a place to be called a country so I don't agree that good roads, public order, and central heating are better than freedom.

السؤال السادس: يقال: " اللغة وعاء الثقافة و الترجمة ناقلة لها." حل و ناقش

لغة اللغة بكل مكوناتها وعناصرها من الألفاظ، وطون، تعابير، هذاهم، وحفظ لغات، تعبير وعاء للثقافة، فاللغة هي، بصفة تحريف، الثقافة، ولا ثقافة حوت لغة، فها كجرتنا، لا يفصلت عن بعضها، فاللغة التي كويت اللغة، الشمس، العلوم، الثقافة، والتعبير عفا، والعطف، لها غير من الأفعال، هي أيضا، ففانح، تحت مفاتيحها، كما قبل، أن هذا هو العلوم، محط لغاتها، وما انفك، العلم، هي مفاتيح، العلم، وهناك على ذلك الثقافة العربية، أو بصفة عامة الحضارة الإسلامية التي ارتفعت على من العلوم، وشملت، علوم، في مختلف، المنابع، وولدت، مختلفا، المهمات، و الكفاهم، والكفاهم، التي، عنها، وعفا، في سجل التاريخ، كما، لا تقوى، وتغنى، فلو، اللغة، لها، وعرفت، العلوم، وسجلت، وعفا، وتولدت، الأجيال، ولولا اللغة، لما، ارتدى، الإنسان، والمجتمعات، والحضارات، لهذا، يقال، أن اللغة هي الوعاء، العاوي، للثقافة، و، والسفك، لها، والمحافظة، عنها، والمكت، عنها، والذهين، لها، أما الترجمة من لغة أخرى فهي، تنقل، الثقافة، فالترجمة، يفهمها، (السطر، لسبب، ففول، نقلا، وتعبيرا، للكلام، في لغة الأخرى، هي أكثر من ذلك، فالترجمة، باب، مفتوح، على، فهمية، على، ثقافات، العالم، وتولدت، وعفا، و، علوها، الترجمة، يساهم، أن، قال، الثقافة، بتعبير، لها، للفرق، والكتاب، من لغة، إلى، عديد، اللغات، فبمع، أي، شغف، حول، العالم، فأنزل، على، الأهل، على، ثقافات، عريضة، وعديدة، لم، يسلم، عنها، كما، أنما، تنقل، التعابير، العرف، التي، وتخرن، المبادئ، المشتركة، حوت، أن، ننسى، أنها، تعيق، اللغة، وتحدتها، وتأتي، بكل، ما، هو، عديد، من، المهمات، والقيام، بمبادئ، للعلم، واعتمادات، الإنسان، كما، يفهم، بشكل، عظيم، في، تعبير، الثقافة، ونقلها، وتربتها.

الترجمة، بكل، أنها، سواء، الأسماء، أو، العلمية، أو، الثقافية، أو، عني، التقنية، عنها، تعبير، ستفلا، فعالت، الثقافة، فالولها، لها، نقلت، العلوم، القديمة، ولولها، لم، عرف، الحضارات، المندثرة، ولولها، لم، استلم، البشر، في، العصر، الحديث، الأول، على، مختلف، العلوم، القديم، عفا، والحديث، وحولها، وعني، الأبناء، بها، إذ، كانت، لها، سبغ، إلى، عت، العدة، القول، أن، اللغة، هي، اللغ، الوعاي، العطف، المعسد، الراس، للثقافة، و، الترجمة، هي، الناقل، لها، غير، الأجيال، والعرف، و، العموم.





IV. Write a paragraph discussing the statement below. Include arguments for and against, and say whether you agree or not.  
'It is better for a country to have good roads, public order, central heating and hot baths than to be free.' (06 pts)

Any Country in our World could be free. In many fields not just one, but if it achieved these things for example any country have to make a good road for helping citizens travel from place to another one without any problem. In addition to this, free country means it has a public order means that every thing inside her have to be in the real order without any obstacles, or something can effect the achievement of the country further more, central heating and hot baths for me are not one from the most condition for a country to be free, because we can create that things depending on the ability of the country also depending on the situation that the country lived inside it. That's way if a country want to be free it have to achieve these things first.

*in clear ideas*

السؤال السادس: يقال: " اللغة وعاء الثقافة و الترجمة ناقة لها." حل و ناقش

لا شك أن اللغة هي العنصر الأساسي في حياة الشعوب، فهي تعكس ثقافتهم وتاريخهم، كما أنها الوسيلة التي يتواصلون بها. اللغة هي العنصر الذي يميز الشعوب، فهي تعكس عاداتهم وأسلوب حياتهم، كما أنها الوسيلة التي يتواصلون بها. اللغة هي العنصر الذي يميز الشعوب، فهي تعكس عاداتهم وأسلوب حياتهم، كما أنها الوسيلة التي يتواصلون بها.

too short!

IV. Write a paragraph discussing the statement below. Include arguments for and against, and say whether you agree or not.  
**'It is better for a country to have good roads, public order, central heating and hot baths than to be free.'** (06 pts)

It is better for a country to have good roads, public order, central heating and hot baths than to be free. In my opinion, this statement is totally true. Every country needs to have a highly developed system, which can lead to the right outcomes. The country should be powerful, wealthy and to be like that it needs a strong system and government, besides to a powerful kingdom which ruled by the king who can give all the rights to people. If the king can establish a strength in his country by achieving many successful achievements then it would be there all types of (real) justice, fair affairs, law. That means he has to engage for his country and for his people by presenting services and respecting human rights then applying them. Therefore, I agree about that statement, because I think that wherever there is a free country without authority, it would be non-developed. So, it should have a democracy, liberty.

السؤال السادس: يقال: " اللغة وعاء الثقافة و الترجمة ناقلة لها " حل و ناقش

كل لغة لها ثقافتها الخاصة، وتؤدي دوراً هاماً في نقل الثقافة من جيل إلى جيل. اللغة هي العنصر الأساسي الذي يربط بين أفراد المجتمع، وتعدّ من أهمّ أدوات التواصل والتفاهم. الترجمة تلعب دوراً حيوياً في نقل الثقافة من لغة إلى لغة، مما يساعد على فهم الآخر وتقديره. اللغة هي العنصر الذي يميز بين الشعوب، وتعدّ من أهمّ أدوات التواصل والتفاهم. الترجمة تلعب دوراً حيوياً في نقل الثقافة من لغة إلى لغة، مما يساعد على فهم الآخر وتقديره. اللغة هي العنصر الذي يميز بين الشعوب، وتعدّ من أهمّ أدوات التواصل والتفاهم. الترجمة تلعب دوراً حيوياً في نقل الثقافة من لغة إلى لغة، مما يساعد على فهم الآخر وتقديره.

اللغة هي العنصر الذي يميز بين الشعوب، وتعدّ من أهمّ أدوات التواصل والتفاهم. الترجمة تلعب دوراً حيوياً في نقل الثقافة من لغة إلى لغة، مما يساعد على فهم الآخر وتقديره. اللغة هي العنصر الذي يميز بين الشعوب، وتعدّ من أهمّ أدوات التواصل والتفاهم. الترجمة تلعب دوراً حيوياً في نقل الثقافة من لغة إلى لغة، مما يساعد على فهم الآخر وتقديره.

## Résumé

Cette thèse vise à étudier les styles d'écriture des étudiants d'Anglais comme langue étrangère à l'Université de Larbi Tebessi. Elle mène à identifier les schémas rhétoriques Arabes qui interfèrent dans l'écriture argumentative anglaise. Elle étudie également l'impact du suivi du processus d'écriture à fin de réduire le transfert des schémas rhétoriques Arabes. Par conséquent, cette étude émet l'hypothèse que les participants transfèrent la non-linéarité de l'organisation des paragraphes, l'utilisation de constructions parallèles, le caractère indirect, l'utilisation excessive de la coordination, la répétition de mots et d'idées, le style analogique d'argumentation et le style de présentation, l'utilisation du Coran, Hadiths et les citations des érudits Arabes dans l'argumentation. Elle suppose également que l'utilisation du processus d'écriture aide à réduire le phénomène de transfert. En conséquence, pour tester les hypothèses de recherche, la méthode d'analyse intégrée des données est adoptée et l'approche descriptive est menée. Cette étude a été menée sur 25 étudiants de deuxième année d'Anglais comme langue étrangère à l'Université Larbi Tebessi. Leur réponses d'examen du premier semestre en anglais et en arabe ont été analysées qualitativement par une analyse directe du contenu. En outre, un questionnaire a été utilisé pour contre-valider les résultats d'analyse de contenu et pour tester la deuxième hypothèse. Ainsi, un test de corrélation a été effectué pour relier les données obtenues à partir des deux instruments. L'analyse statistique et qualitative des données prouvent que les participants transfèrent tous les schémas rhétoriques Arabes précédemment mentionnés à l'exception de l'utilisation du Coran, Hadiths et les citations des érudits Arabes. L'auto-déclaration des participants ne correspond pas avec leur performance d'écriture réelle, ce qui affirme qu'ils ne sont pas conscients du phénomène de transfert ou ses erreurs sont fossilisées. De plus, suivre le processus d'écriture n'aide pas à réduire le transfert des schémas rhétoriques arabes vers l'anglais.

**Mots Clés :** Transfert, Schémas rhétoriques, Processus d'écriture, Arabe.

## المخلص

تسعى هذه المذكرة إلى دراسة أساليب الكتابة لدى طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في جامعة العربي التبسي. و بهذا فإنها تهدف إلى تحديد الأنماط البلاغية للغة العربية التي من شأنها أن تتداخل مع الكتابة الجدلية الإنجليزية. كما تبحث في تأثير اتباع خطوات الكتابة في التقليل من تداخل هذه الأنماط البلاغية. ولذلك تفترض هذه الدراسة أن الأنماط البلاغية كالتنظيم اللاخطي للفقرة واستخدام التراكيب المتوازية وعرض الأفكار بأسلوب غير مباشر والاستخدام المفرط للتنسيق و تكرار الكلمات والأفكار والأساليب التقديمية والتناظرية في الجدل واستخدام القرآن و الحديث و أقوال علماء العرب المعروفين كحج، قد تتداخل في كتابات اللغة الإنجليزية لطلاب اللغة الإنجليزية لجامعة العربي التبسي. كما يفترض أيضاً أن إتباع خطوات الكتابة سيساعد في الحد من انتقال الأنماط البلاغية للغة العربية. و لإثبات فرضيات البحث أو رفضها ، تم اعتماد طريقة التحليل المندمج لتحليل البيانات، وإتباع المنهج الوصفي. ولقد تم إجراء هذه الدراسة على 25 مشاركاً من طلاب السنة الثانية للغة الإنجليزية لجامعة العربي التبسي وذلك من خلال تحليل كتاباتهم باللغة الإنجليزية والعربية خلال امتحانات الفصل الأول بطريقة تحليل المحتوى المباشر. أما الاستبيان فقد أستعمل للتحقق من صحة البيانات التي تم الحصول عليها من تحليل المحتوى من خلال التقارير الذاتية للمشاركين، بالإضافة إلى التحقق من فرضية البحث الثانية. تم إجراء ربط البيانات التي تم الحصول عليها من أداتي البحث عن طريق إختبار الارتباط. و لقد أسفرت أدوات جمع البيانات عن عدة نتائج بعد التحليل الإحصائي والنوعي للبيانات. و لقد تم التأكد من أن الطلاب ينقلون كل الأنماط البلاغية المذكورة سابقا باستثناء استخدام القرآن و الحديث و أقوال علماء العرب المعروفين كحج. كما أن إجابات المشاركين على الاستبيان لا يتماشى مع أدائهم الكتابي، مما يؤكد أنهم إما غير مدركين لظاهرة التداخل اللغوي أو أنها متحجرة. بالإضافة إلى ذلك ، فلقد تم التأكد من أن إتباع خطوات الكتابة لا يساعد في التقليل من تداخل الأنماط البلاغية العربية إلى اللغة الإنجليزية.

**الكلمات المفتاحية:** التداخل اللغوي، الانماط البلاغية، خطوات الكتابة، العربية