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Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of English Language

# MASTER THESIS

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Submitted and Defended by:

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**Title**

## Assessment of Arabic/English Style Differences Effects' on the Enhancement of the EFL Academic Writing Syntactical Style: Subordination over Coordination

**The case of English as a Foreign Language Master's I Students at Mohamed Khider University of Biksra**

Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Foreign Languages as Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master in Sciences of Language

**Board of Examiners**

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**Jun, 2023**

# Declaration

I **Horiya REKIBI**, do hereby declare that this submitted work is my original work and has not previously been submitted for any institution or university for a degree. I also declare that a list of references is provided forward indicating all the sources of the cited and quoted information. This work was certified and completed at Mohammed KHEIDER University of Biskra.

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# Dedications

"Alhamdulillah", with the deepest gratitude and the most humble of expressions, I dedicate this modest work to my creator and the creator of everything and everyone under, over, and beyond the sun. I thank God almighty to have had given me the opportunity to take on such a task and blessing me with enough patience and strength to see this mountain of a task through. I also dedicate this work to whomever might benefit from it as much as I did benefit from other's works hoping that it would enlighten their path to knowledge as others' have enlightened mine.

Thank you God almighty for the countless blessings you have had blessed me with so far and thank you for blessing me with yet another blessing more.

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For quite some time I thought that success is a constant inter-comparison while in fact I came to realize that conversely it is a constant intra-comparison. The accumulation of tiny increments that we do better today than we did yesterday and even better tomorrow than we are doing today, and that in itself is quite the achievement.

After acknowledging the facts, I shall express my acknowledgement of those who made this work a reality from inspiration and realization, to conclusion.

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# **Abstract**

Being at the tertiary level, advanced productivity levels are expected from students in terms of spoken as well as written discourse. Just as correctness of productions is demanded, these productions are also expected to be as authentic and palatable as possible. Yet between what is expected and what is delivered is quite a large gap. Next to correct writing, attending more to the writing style might fill at least a portion of the gap. The present study assessed the Arabic/English style differences effects' on the enhancement of the EFL academic writing syntactical style: subordination over coordination. Relevantly to the investigation's interest, the study was conducted with Master's 1 university students producing essays for the academic writing course during the academic year 2022-2023. The study chief aim was to assess the effectiveness and practicality of additional style-oriented material (subordination over coordination) to the current EFL academic writing syllabus. To the fulfillment of this aim, a close-knit quasi-experimental study was conducted through the methods of questionnaire and pre and post-tests for data collection with implementation of the appropriate procedures. After the interpretive analysis of the obtained results, the experimental group exhibited significant improvement in performance style-wise compared to their performance before experimentation. The inclusion of the additional style-oriented material to the current academic writing syllabus proved to be both practical and beneficial. Therefore, including such style-oriented materiel to the existing EFL writing curriculum is highly recommended.

*Keywords:* **Assessment, Arabic, English, L1, EFL, style differences, effects, academic writing, syntactical style, coordination, subordination, intercultural communicative competence.**

# List of Abbreviation and Acronyms

**ACRONYMS**

**EFL:** English as a Foreign Language

**FL:** Foreign Language

**L1:** First Language

**L2:** Second Language

**NL:** Native Language

**FANBOYS:** The seven coordinating conjunction

**ABBREVIATIONS**

**el al:** Et alia, to refer to a multiple authors source

**etc.:** Et cetera, to indicate that things of similar nature should be included in the list or indicate an incomplete list.

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# RESEARCH THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

# Chapter I: Research Theoretical Background

## I.1 Research General Introduction

### I.1.1 Research Background

English without a doubt is the language of the hour and on a quest to creating a linguistically borderless new world. It has become the most frequently used Lingua franca of the century, with which communication is carried out daily all over the globe. Modern illiteracy could be illustrated in the fact of not speaking English. Hence, it has become the inevitable evolution that every country has to adopt. An evolution that already changed almost every aspect of everyday life as well as that of the academic and professional.

Whether in everyday practice, academic or professional, the non-native English language user is always in close proximity and interaction with his first language (henceforth L1), his culture, along with that of the English language. Consequently, creating transfers effecting his use both linguistically and communicatively, depending on how distant the languages and cultures are. For the native, what might be linguistically tolerable as error from the non-native English language users may not necessarily be culturally tolerable because it may present serious communication problems, and could even lead to complete communication failure. Then, acquiring the linguistic aspect of the English language is no longer sufficient to engage in effective communication and efficient at the same time, because "knowledge alone does not equal competence" (Bennett, 2004). A considerable degree of intercultural awareness must be present to appropriately handle communication whether spoken or written, that is the intercultural communicative competence. To be intercultural communicatively competent; is to be able to effectively and appropriately receive (understand) and produce (respond) in a culturally mixed context.

Productivity in any language is the ultimate goal for most language students and academics. Unless one can produce spoken as well as written discourses, one cannot be considered as language efficient. Out of all four language skills, writing is a highly demanding skill by nature that requires mastery and balance of both linguistic knowledge and skills for natives as well as non-natives. The linguistic knowledge which involves grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics, together with the linguistic skills that involve the processes of manipulating the linguistic knowledge through syntax, rhetoric and style to produce a well composed and personalized piece of writing. However, it is much more

difficult for non-natives to find that perfect balance that constitutes the difference between the writing styles.

Style differences are the range of choices a writer makes, which may be considered as acceptable to some, reluctantly acceptable to others, and even refused at times, despite their correctness, due to a combination of social and cultural preferences and differences, which govern what is acceptable and what is not (Kaplan, 1990, p. 1). Unlike predictions of contrastive analysis, differences between languages can be sources of enhancement rather than impediment. Therefore, utilizing differences instead of marginalizing them could prove to be very useful and complimentary. Style differences otherwise "Rhetorical rules" (Kaplan, 1990), if appropriately utilized, can elevate a mediocre written piece to become richer and more compelling. Since it has become one of the essential assessment criteria of the writing ability in general and academic writing in particular; advisably, style should be of primary focus and given special care instruction-wise. Thus, teachers should have a considerable degree of awareness of first language (L1) and English style differences to appropriately develop a more authentic, complex, and refined writing style into their learners.

### I.1.2    Problem Statement

Because writing is the most demanding pillar out of four that English language teaching rests on, and the last to be developed, it has been given special care at the tertiary level. At this advanced level, lexis, grammar and syntax correctness is just insufficient to generate and authentically relate ideas especially in academic compositions. The challenge is to do so with cultural considerations in mind. To ease the intricacy of English cultural conventions related to academic writing, intercultural communicative competence, which involves rhetorical competence (rhetorical patterns), is a must. Adding to the rhetorical awareness of the writing task and situation is the aspect of the writer's identity. The personal touch of how he utilizes language depending on what he wishes to emphasize, the combination produces the "different writing styles".

Despite their effectiveness, Algerian tertiary writing syllabuses do not give the writing style the attention it deserves. In the English as a Foreign Language (henceforth EFL) Algerian context, academic writing that is mainly characterized by precision and concision does not focus much on the development of style (stylistic syntax) as it does on the linguistic correctness of information transforming and transferring. The fact that is crystalized in the

majority of students' simple interlanguage writing style, first year Master's students sciences of language at Biskra University included.

A fact that could be attributed to the negative L1 simple style transfer which favors idea coordination (Dickins, 2017; Kaplan, 1990, p. 07). In addition to that is students' poor intercultural communicative competence and lack of interest to develop their writing style. The chief reasons could be attributed to students considering writing only as a medium of note taking, assignment fulfilment, and to pass summative assessment. Furthermore, from the teachers' side, is the lack of specific classroom strategies that provide materials targeting the development of their learners' simple writing style.

Given that style is what differentiates a mature efficient writer from an immature effective writer (Kaplan, 1990, p. 07), and a refined desirable work from an average acceptable one, fostering appropriate syllabuses that promote style building, development and proper assessment is strongly recommended.  Thus, an insight into the cohesive style writing differences, more specifically syntactic style, of L1 with regard to English could remedy the passive transfer in the shape of the simple, compound style (coordination) and turn it into an active transfer in the shape of insight of how to devise appropriate strategies and materials toward its development into the authentic, more complex, and complementary style (subordination).

However, while the existence of Arabic/English writing style differences has already been established in the EFL writing (Dickins, 2017; Elachachi, 2015) through contrastive rhetoric and recommendations have been given, utilizing these differences through tangible classroom materials to the enhancement of the academic writing syntactical style is yet to be explored, which will attempt this particular study that states its problem as such:  Assessment of Arabic/English style differences effects' on the enhancement of the EFL academic writing syntactical style.

### I.1.3   Research Questions

Based on the stated problem the present research will attempt to answer the following questions:

**Q1:** What are the effects of Arabic/English style differences on M1 students' EFL academic writing syntactical style at Biskra University?

**Q2:** What are writing teachers' attitudes toward the effects of Arabic/English syntactical style differences at Biskra University?

**Q3:** Would the introduction of new style-oriented materials to the current academic writing syllabus be of help to the development of M1 students' current syntactical writing style level at Biskra University?

## I.1.4    Research Hypothesis

In order to answer the aforementioned questions, the study advances the following hypothesis ($H_a$ denotes alternative hypothesis, and $H_0$ denotes null hypothesis):

**$H_a$**: Introduction of additional style-oriented materials based on Arabic/English style differences to the current academic writing syllabus may lead to the enhancement of students' current EFL academic writing syntactical style, subordination over coordination.

**$H_0$**: Introduction of additional style-oriented materials based on Arabic/English style differences to the current academic writing syllabus may not lead to the enhancement of students' current EFL academic writing syntactical style, subordination over coordination.

## I.1.5    Research Objectives

In correlation with the priorly mentioned questions, the present research aims at the following:

**1.** Assessing M1 students' current level of academic essay writing in terms of syntactical style with reference to Arabic/English style differences at Biskra University.

**2.** Assessing EFL writing teachers' awareness of the existing effects of Arabic/English style differences at Biskra University.

**3.** Designing additional material to the enhancement of the syntactical style that could be included in the current M1 academic writing syllabus at Biskra University.

**4.** Assessing EFL writing teachers' attitudes toward the additional style-oriented material.

**5.** Assessing the effectiveness and practicality of the designed additional style-oriented material in the enhancement of M1 students' EFL academic writing syntactical style.

## I.1.6    Research Significance

The study is of threefold significance: literature, student, and teacher. Firstly literature-wise, a considerable portion of the research body was focused on Arabic/English

differences in terms of mechanical and linguistic structural errors, and ways to correct or avoid theme. However, little was devoted to Arabic/English style differences and their utilization to the benefit of the writing ability. An underexploited aspect despite style being one crucial assessment and effectiveness feature of writing. Thus, information whether theoretical or practical of the present study would be a welcomed addition to the current as well as future literature. Secondly student-wise, if training is proven to be beneficial, it will lead to the development of the inherited L1 simple style into the authentic and more complex English style. A style that should be both complementary and complimentary to students' academic writing; hence, their academic career as a whole. Thirdly teacher-wise, it will raise more their awareness of the existing Arabic/English style differences. A fact that probably would prompt them to consider more style development while instructing and include the right material to do so.

### I.1.7    Research Delimitations

Delimitation to the present study can be condensed in the following three elements:

*I.1.7.1. Temporal delimitation.* Development of the study was over the second semester of the academic year 2022-2023, starting March 2023 to April 2023.

*I.1.7.2. Spatial delimitation.* Investigation was conducted in the department of English languages at Biskra University, Algeria.

*I.1.7.3. Topical delimitation.* Topic to the present investigation is the proper utilization of L1 writing style differences and preferences that are passed down to EFL to the enhancement of the academic writing syntactical style.

### I.1.8    Methodology Overview

The present study concerned itself with the assessment of Arabic/English style differences effects' on the enhancement of the EFL academic writing syntactical style. To answer to the study chief concern and subsidiary questions, a mixed-method approach was exploited and enacted by both a qualitative and quantitative methods. A quasi-experiment was adopted through the one group pretest-post-test design for numerical data elicitation, which answer to the study third question of the beneficiality and practicality of the additional style-oriented material. The choice of tool also followed the same rationale that is to answer the study proposed questions. The introduced semi-structured teacher questionnaire sought primarily categorical data that answer the study second question of teacher's awareness of

and attitudes toward the existing style differences. The last tool used was the semi-structured student questionnaire. The instrument collected namely numerical data that answer to the study first question of assessing the effects of the existing syntactical style differences on student academic writing level.

### I.1.9   Research Structure

The structural division of the study is done on the basis of the theoretical and the practical. At a total of three chapters, the first concerns itself with the theoretical side of the study with two sections. The first section introduces the study as a whole from study background, problem statement, research questions, hypotheses, objectives, significance, delimitations, an overview of the adopted methodology, and finishing at the study structural side. The second section provides a theoretical review of the literature encompassing the research variables and the related constructing concepts. In a total of five sections, the chapter begins with the writing skill, then academic writing, the phenomenon of language transfer, culture and related competencies, and finally evaluation and assessment in general and in particular assessment of the writing ability. The second chapter is devoted to the adopted research methodology and rationale behind each methodological choice. The methodological framework covers the research paradigm, design, approach, population and sample, instruments description, piloting procedures as well as instrument validity and reliability testing.

As far as the third and last chapter is concerned, under the label of data analysis, interpretation, and conclusions is in a total of three sections. The first is data analysis and interpretation that involves the descriptive and inferential analysis and interpretations of data collected from the different research tools. The second is results discussion in relation to the advanced research hypotheses and questions. The third and last stop into this investigative journey is the general conclusion and recommendations. The general conclusion combines a brief summary of the study as a whole, the encountered limitations, as well as future research suggestions and recommendations for EFL teachers and stakeholders.

## I.2   Review of the Literature

### Introduction

Academically speaking, the review of the literature provides a holistic view of the research subject area. The Review of the literature serves as a road map to both researcher

and research explorer. Arshed and Danson (2015) stated that, "A literature review may resolve a debate, establish the need for additional research, and define a topic of inquiry" (p. 31). Logically, beginning by what has already been explored, what is being explored, and arriving at what is yet to be explored?

The rationale behind the literature review construction was the deconstruction of the elements that construct the study title. The section was consecrated mainly to reviewing some of the related literature regarding the main five subsections: (1) writing, (2) academic writing, (3) language transfer phenomenon, (4) culture, and (5) assessment and evaluation. The first subsection was devoted to basic knowledge about writing by giving a number of definitions provided by different scholars. Along with the definition, mentioning the three main writing approaches, the essential writing types and the writing effective features. The second subsection elaborated on the study dependent variable, which is academic writing: definition and types. The third subsection focused on the phenomenon of language transfer including definition and types. The fourth subsection addressed the cultural component through definition, chief related competencies in correlation with the writing ability. However, the fifth and last subsection was dedicated to evaluation and assessment in general and writing assessment in particular.

### I.2.1  Writing

Writing as a human unique language character rather than other critters develops last after all others characters. Although develops last, it still is equally important. Unfortunately, in EFL contexts for quite some time the writing skill was only considered as a learning support system of the linguistic knowledge (Harmer, 2004, p. 5; Weigle, 2002, p. 1, Brown; 2003, p. 218). However, lately this fact has drastically changed and writing gained the importance it deserved as a skill rather than a mere support system, Raimes (1983) acknowledge that, "The close relationship between writing and thinking makes writing a valuable part of any course" (p. 3).

*I.2.1.1. Writing definition.* Answering the question of what the concept of writing is? As it progressed over the years, gave birth to a plethora of definitions by numerous accomplished scholars. The definition has been attempted from various angles. Some attempted it from the nature angle of writing while others attempted it from an associative angle with other terms. Nevertheless, this subsection attempted to define it from the usage and use angle. The commencement was from the basic form when in usage, where writing

is manifested, arriving at its complex form when in use, where writing is realized as communication (Widdowson, 1978, p. 58).

*I.2.1.1.1. Writing manifestation.* Writing as usage is the act of putting sound to paper. The act involves graphic illustration of the speech sound through letter combinations and the diverse configurations (Byrne, 1993, p 01). Supporting the same proposition Crystal (1995) explicated that, "It is one kind of graphic expression. In an alphabetic system, such as is found in English, the graphic marks represent, with varying regularity, individual speech sounds" (p. 257). Writing, therefore, is a translation system at its basic level; it is a kind of visual translation of sounds. Sounds illustrated into a set of symbols or letters put one next to the other in a purposeful manner resulting in what could be labeled as "sound visualization".

However, the Writing simple concept of mere "sound visualization" is just a staple for a more compound concept. The Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics defines writing as: "A system of written symbols which represent the sounds, syllables, or words of a language" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 592). Correspondingly, added Byrne (1993) "But writing is clearly much more than the production of graphic symbols, just as speech is more than the production of sounds. The symbols have to be arranged, according to certain conventions, to form words, and words have to be arranged to form sentence" (p. 3). Thus, the combination, form variation and logical arrangement of symbols give the simple writing concept more depth and complexity. The complex end-product is the production of larger units that are words, clauses, and sentences, with which clearer, more meaningful communication can be established. Advocating the same concept is Hyland (2003) by saying, "One way to look at writing is to see it as marks on a page or a screen, a coherent arrangement of words, clauses, and sentences, structured according to a system of rules" (p. 3). The largest writing unit to be produced is the text by following the rules of sentence sequencing, arrangement, and linking as described Byrne (1993, p. 1).

Accordingly, writing can be considered as the progressive act of translating sounds to symbols, symbols to letters, letters to words, words to clauses and sentences, sentences to paragraphs, and paragraphs to texts through the acts of addition, combination, variation and arrangement. All acts combined result in what Widdowson, (1978, p. 62) simply called composition.

*I.2.1.1.2. Writing realization as communication.* Writing as use, is an interpretive system for communicative purposes that goes beyond the simple act of composing. The skillful interpretation of intrapersonal feelings, ideas and, thoughts into interpersonal understandable messages. As such, Crystal (1995) states that, "Most obviously, writing is a way of communicating which uses a system of visual marks made on some kind of surface" (p. 257). Byrne (1993) also maintained that "Writing involves the encoding of a message of some kind: that is, we translate our thoughts into language" (p. 1). In this fashion, writing can be seen as an expressive tool that is message-oriented where the conveyed messages are generally of informative nature.

Yet matters are not quite so simple. Writing as use goes further beyond mere message communication. Josef (2001) declared that, "Writing is among the most complex human activities. It involves the development of a design idea, the capture of mental representations of knowledge, and of experience with subjects" (p. 5).  Hence, writing is a multi-skilled activity that requires a high level of awareness and a degree of cognitive and metacognitive development to be able to go through the deliverance stages of a written production.  In the same view, Vygotsky (1987) said that, 'Written speech is more than the translation of oral speech into written signs. Mastering written speech requires more than learning the techniques of writing" (p. 202).

Additionally, Widdowson advocated that, (1978) "What I am doing (successfully or not) is developing a discussion and arranging different points in such a way as to persuade you, the reader, that I have something worthwhile to say" (p. 62). Hence, writing is of interactional function that is action-oriented. An enjoinment tool used to enjoin certain actions upon readers or provoke certain reactions through the different writing purposes either to persuade, motivate, inspire, and so on.

Consequently, writing is equally an art as it is an act, which are two faces to the same coin. A combination of conventional structural elements, mechanics and a set of learnable practicable skills together leads to the production of a meaningful, comprehensible, and communicative piece of writing.

*I.2.1.2. Writing approaches.* The question of how to teach writing has a direct relation with what writing is. In other words, the approaching of the writing task has a close and direct relatedness to its definition and the task requirements, which generated numerous

approaches. According to Harmer (2001) "We need to choose between them, deciding whether we want students to focus more on the process of writing than its product, whether we want them to study different genres, whether we want to encourage creative writing-either individually or cooperatively" (p. 257). Since writing in EFL contexts is of great importance as Harmer (2004) makes it clear that, "In the context of education, it is also worth remembering that most exams, whether they are testing foreign language abilities or other skills, often rely on students' writing proficiency in order to measure their knowledge" (p. 3); for this, three essential and indispensable approaches are considered in teaching writing. When considering writing manifestation, the product approach is the focus and when considering realization, the process approach is focus. However, when considering both manifestation and realization as communication the genre approach is the focus. In addition to these three cardinal teaching approaches is the inter-approach marriages.

   *I.2.1.2.1 Product approach.* The beginnings of language teaching in general were based on the behaviorist view and the formation of habits. The teaching of the writing skill started also on the same basis despite the inferior status it had compared to the other language skills. At the time, Writing was viewed only as a reinforcement medium to the other language skills, especially the speaking skill. Traditionally, paradigmatic writing was based on contrastive rhetoric that was product based and generated prescriptive writing approaches. The prescriptive approaches emphasized language patterns teaching through imitation (Josef, 2001, p. 8). Instruction under such theory and paradigm, introduced an approach to writing that is unidimensional and focused entirely on the manifestation of writing. Hence, the product approach or controlled composition (Silva, 1990, p. 12) was the reflection of Behaviorism teaching methods in particular the audio-lingual method, which emphasized the importance of model replication through habit formation and step-by-step learning (Byrne, 1993, p. 22). White (1988) recapitulated that "Traditionally, the teaching of writing was language focused. Viewed essentially as secondary and in some sense inferior to the spoken language, writing was used as a means of reinforcing language which had already been dealt with in spoken form. The emphasis was on correct-ness and the adherence to and copying of models, both of language and text" (p. 5).

   About the basic conception of the product approach, Harmer (2004) connoted that, "When concentrating on the product we are only interested in the aim of the task and in the end product" (p. 257). Essentially, the key concept of the product approach, which is also

known as language-based approach (White, 1988), Accuracy-oriented approach (Byrne, 1993), or controlled-to-free approach (Raimes, 1983), is the correct reproduction of the given text model through focus on its structural features, which according to Hyland (2003) is comprised of the following, "Conceptualizing L2 writing in this way directs attention to writing as a product and encourages a focus on formal text units or grammatical features of texts. In this view, learning to write in a foreign or second language mainly involves linguistic knowledge and the vocabulary choices, syntactic patterns, and cohesive devices that comprise the essential building blocks of texts" (p. 3).

In such approach, a special focus on grammar, syntax, and mechanics is given in a type of modeled, structured, and controlled compositions that leaves little room for error commission. Only after achievement of certain advanced controlled writing levels that free writing is allowed (Raimes, 1983, pp. 6-7; Byrne, 1993, p. 22). White (1988) gave a holistic conceptual illustration of the kind of procedures involved in this particular and similar approaches that are model-based in figure 1.

Study the model ⟶ Manipulate elements ⟶ Produce a parallel text
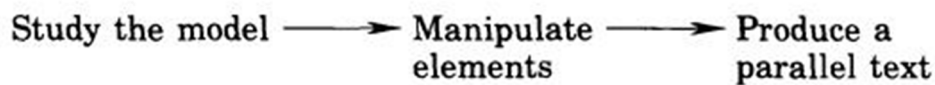
*Figure 1*. Language-based procedural model
*Source*. White (1988) in Robinson (1988, p. 5)

Within the three procedures of this model-based approach illustrated by white, Hyland (2003, pp. 3-4) suggested four main sequential stages that are also explained by Raimes (1983, pp. 6-7). Firstly, the **familiarization** stage where vocabulary and grammar as text features are taught through manipulation of sentence type, tense, or count in a sequential manner from sentence to paragraph to the whole text. Secondly, the **controlled writing** stage where fixed patterns of the text like words, clauses, and sentences are changed trough manipulation by substitution and combination. Thirdly, the **guided writing** stage where the given model texts are imitated trough following strictly prescribed operations to produce a controlled composition**.** Fourthly and lastly, the **free writing** stage where a somewhat free composition is produced after achieving a certain level of proficiency using the acquired patterns.

Just like the Audio-lingual method is teacher-dependent, and produced learners that can recite and not communicate, the product approach produces writers that can replicate but not create. Raimes (1983, p.7) confirmed this reality as, "It emphasizes accuracy rather than fluency or originality". Serious problems were created as a result of structural orientation writing. Among the problems is intuitive fragment analysis rather than real whole text analysis, which is hindering and misleading in case of situation change. Also, accuracy emphasis is only a partial measure of good writing. A fact proved practically that an accurate person is not necessarily a proper writer (Hyland, 2003, p.5) because expression under this approach is limited and does not exceed sentence level.

*I.2.1.2.2. Process approach.* With the wake of the communicative and collaborative language teaching, focus shifted from teacher to leaner and from accuracy to fluency. In addition to that is the fact of an anticipated outcome and teacher-dependent approach proved to be deficient in teaching writing.  A need for an unpredicted outcome and a more learner-centered approach became a necessity (White, 1988, p.6). White declared that, "This model-based approach was transferred to the more recent interest in rhetorical rather than language structure in written discourse" (p. 5). As a response to the deficiency of the product approach and the necessity to answer the question of how writing is handled? The process approach came to be. An approach with more focus on the realization of writing rather than its manifestation.

The process approach is a beyond the sentence level expression (Byrne, 2003, p. 22), that advocated and placed more emphasis on the many stages a written piece goes through and the various skills that go in (Harmer, 2004, p. 257), which is a focus shift from the end product to the within process. The process approach or the free-writing approach (Raimes, 1983, p. 7) or a fluency-approach (Hyland, 2003, p. 22) was not a complete departure from the product approaches but an extension. The attention to language structures was relatively left at the end of the process. Unlike its predecessor, which is of linear nature and step-by-step procedures, the process approach's activities are of interrelated, recursive and overlapping nature (Josef, 2001, p. 15; Harmer, 2004, p. 257; Raimes & Jerskey, 2010, pp. 3-4).

The concept of the process approach was exhibited by White (1988) in his new process-based procedural model in figure 2 where the model study is a secondary part and acts only as a resource, which is not to be imitated.

Task specified → Communicate → Study → Practise      → Recycle
                  as far as       model   as necessary
                  possible
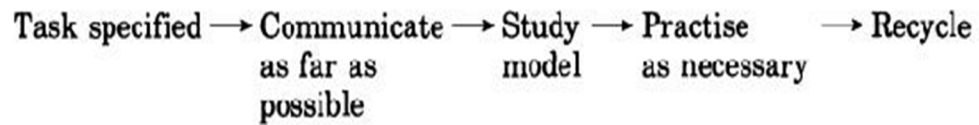
*Figure 2.* Process-base procedural model or Deep End Strategy
*Source.* White (1988) in Robinson (1988, p. 7)

In this approach, a number of elements that effect the writing process in general for instance the writing content, type and medium (Harmer, 2004 p. 4), led to a dissensus on the number of stages, which make up the overall body of the writing activity. Some suggested three stages: Planning, drafting, and revising (Singh, 1992, as cited in Josef, 2001, p. 15), and others suggested five stages: Drafting, structuring, reviewing, focusing and generating ideas and evaluating (White and Arndt, 1991, as cited in Harmer, 2001, p.258). Typically, an in-between number of four overlapping and recursive stages as proposed Harmer (2004, p. 6) is more suitable to portray the type of cognitive processes involved in this approach. However, some consensus can be found in the type of activities involved in each stage.

Firstly, the **planning** stage where the gathering of ideas is done with special considerations given to purpose, audience and content structure; the set of considerations affect the type of text to be produced, the kind of language to be used, and the choice of information to be included. The planning differs somewhat from one writer to another in terms of actually or just mentally outlining the ideas, but cognitively speaking they all go through the same conscious steps. Secondly, the **drafting** stage where the development of what has already been planned takes place, and actual writing is done at this point. Thirdly, the **editing** stage where redrafting is already resumed at this stage as a result to self-reflection and others' solicited feedback, in an effort to clarify more and eliminate any ambiguity. Consequently, a number of drafts can be produced along the whole process. Besides that, any mechanical errors are corrected at this level**.** Lastly, the **final revision** stage where the final product is produced. After the execution of all necessary changes, that enhances both content and structure, it is delivered to its final destination and reaching its target audience.

Because of the interrelatedness, overlapping, and recursiveness nature of stages, where a kind of drafting is found within planning, a kind of revision within drafting, and so

forth, a leaner model would not give it justice. For that reason, Harmer (2004, p. 4) proposed the process wheel that perfectly captures the essence of the whole process in figure 3.



*Figure 3.* Process Wheel Diagram
*Source.* Harmer (2004, p. 6)


In addition to the process wheel, Raimes and Jerskey (2010, p. 4) gave a more detailed account of the kind of mental activities associated with the writing process below in figure 4.



*Figure 4.* Writing Process Activities
*Source.* Raimes & Jerskey (2010, p. 4) Keys for Writers


Unfortunately and despite the effectiveness of the process approach in promoting fluency in addition to accuracy, it has a major drawback or "trap" as termed Harmer (2004, p. 12). The approach is technically time consuming especially with timetable constraints and

large class. The fact of going back and forth from one stage to the other can create an over focus on one stage over the other. Besides that, it can be restrictive to creativity and time stretching if properly handled depending on the situation and the task nature (Harmer, 2001, p. 278). With regards to process, all writing tasks follow the same set of simple procedures (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996, p. 132), which is illogical since tasks are influenced by many factors. Moreover, the question provoked by Silva (1990) of, "Critics also question whether the process approach realistically pre-pares students for academic work" (p. 16). Hence, critics question the preparedness level a confined classroom situation under process orientation provides to learners when real academic writing situations present themselves.

*I.2.1.2.3. Genre approach.* Factually, writing is more than just surface forms but also includes other aspects of purpose and context (Hyland, 2003, p.5). Subsequently, a change of instruction course has become inevitable, thus, recourse to a more extensive approach to writing. A two-dimensional approach including both writing manifestation and realization as communication is to emanate. A special attention is given to writing in use, which means involvement of both linguistic and social skills by choosing the appropriate linguistic patterns to the meanings to be conveyed (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996, p. 143).

The genre approach, also known as English for academic purposes (Silva, 1990, p. 12), was the logical solution and the answer to the question of what a reader expects from writing? The genre approach is also as its predecessor the product of the communicative trend of language teaching, which considered at the same time as a corrective reaction to the process approach (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996, p. 132). The approach can be regarded as an extension to the product approach with a wider spectrum to include purpose; a model is studied but not only in terms of language structures rather in relation to social variations of target audience and specific purpose (Badger and White, 2000, p. 153). That is instead of complete attention given to language structures, they were given more functional use by being included within the communicative functions.

Because such an approach is reader-oriented, both form and content are subject to the constraints of the social purpose (Tribble, 1996, p. 46). Swales (as cited in Tribble, 1990) defined genre as "A genre comprises a class of communication events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes" (p .46). A piece of writing under this definition, just as an interaction, is considered as a whole communication with specific language structures as the situation, the purpose as the event, and the reader's expectations and the

writer's intentions as the acts all combined in a specific   social setting. The Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics highlights the social importance of a genre-based instruction saying that, "Proponents of a genre approach argue that control over specific types of writing are necessary for full participation in social processes" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 225).

Despite the similarities of this approach to the product approach, it cannot be illustrated in a linear model. A wheel kind of model would better illustrate this kind of approach as in the one proposed by Martin (as cited in Badger and White, 2000, p. 155) in figure 5. Badger and White add that "In theory, the cycle can be repeated as and when necessary, but it would seem that often each phase appears only once" (p. 156).
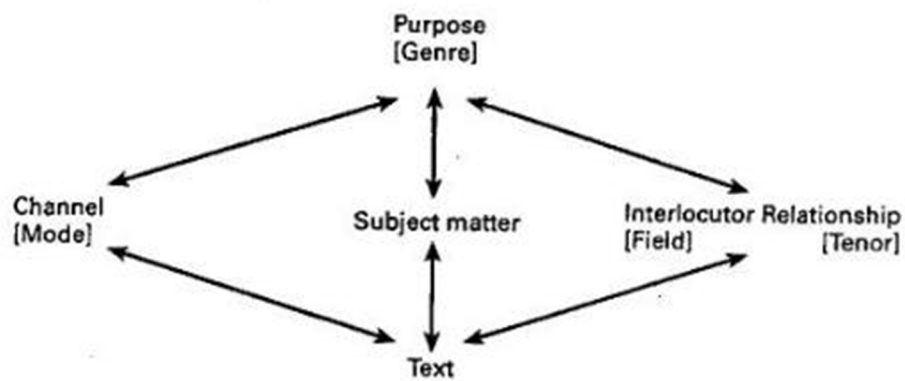


*Figure 5.* Genre model
*Source.* Martin (1993) in Badger and White (2000, p. 155)

Badger and White (2000, p, 156) explained the given model by identify three stages to the genre approach. First, the **modelling** stage where exposition to a particular authentic model and thorough analysis is done, in the aim of identifying the purpose, intended audience, and the text different stages, depending completely on teacher orientations. Second, the **construction** stage, where in a collaborative effort between learner and teacher, construction of new partial texts is engaged, after already been engaged in exercises that manipulate relevant language forms. Finally, the **independent construction** stage, in an individual effort, learners produce similar but relatively smaller texts on the basis of the particular purpose and the appropriate language forms previously gained.

Inevitably, like any other practice, genre also had its imperfections and own drawbacks. One major drawback to this approach as explained Badger and White (2000) in that, "The negative side of the genre approaches is that they undervalue the skills needed to produce a text and see learners as largely passive" (p. 157). Namely, the underestimation of the considerable amount of detailed knowledge needed to produce proper texts under the limited instruction hours, which are insufficient to provide such knowledge. Furthermore, the focus on product overshadows the learners' contribution.

Between proponents and critics, the debate should not be about which approach to choose over the other? Rather how a workable combination of the strength of each should be used in a kind of blended writing instruction? Tribble (1996) upheld that, "In this way, writing instruction can both encourage students to express their ideas in individually authentic voices and to make texts that are socially appropriate" (p. 61). Focus should be relatively shared because favoring one approach over the other would result in overpowering certain writing aspects and the underpowering of others. A fact that likely can create imbalance in the whole writing ability. The structural orientation lacking in the fluency aspect can be compensated by process orientation, and the later lacking in the social situation variation aspect can be compensated by genre orientation. In accordance with Badger and White (2000) provided advice of, "Adapting an approach has led to important development in the writing classroom. However, we feel that it is also important to identify an approach which is a synthesis of the three approaches" (p. 157). Thus, from the aforementioned a clear conclusion can be drawn that all three orientations are complimentary to each other, and instruction-wise they can be used in a relatively eclectic manner to insure balance of the writing ability.

*I.2.1.3. Writing types*. Since purpose is the situation central aspect, a fact that leads to a reciprocal relationship of genre determines purpose and purpose determines genre (Badger and White, 2000, p. 155). Therefore, the writing task's specifications and limitations, especially the purpose among others, determined for the writer: under what genre he shall produce, the appropriate channels he shall use, and the linguistic choices he shall make (Harmer, 2004, p. 15). The channels and choices bound the writer to go a certain direction and produce in a certain way. The aim is to achieve his purpose and reach his target audience, as explained Hyland (2003) that, "text may be described in terms of the ways they are structured, or staged, to achieve different purposes in writing" (p. 63).

The different channels at the writer's disposal to choose from, depending on the purpose of the writing task, are known as the kinds of writing (Byrne, 1993, p. 28), macro-genres (Hyland, 2003, p. 63), text types (Hyland, 2003, p. 105), types of writing (Grabe and Kaplan, 1966, p. 135), patterns of development (Nadell, Langan and Comodromos, 2009), or methods of development (Sorenson, 2010, p. 47). The more traditionally known and widely used classification is that suggested by Richards & Schmidt (2002, p. 337) "Modes of writing".  A discourse classification of four modes included: descriptive, narrative (expressive), expository, and argumentative (persuasive) (Yong as cited in Silva, 1990, p. 13).

*I.2.1.3.1. Descriptive writing.* The kind of writing that gives comprehensive detailing of a certain person, place, or abstract entity that can be either factual or imaginary. Descriptions are characterized mainly by clarity, accuracy and reliance on the five senses to create images that can be seen, heard, tasted, smelled and felt by the reader (Sorenson, 2010, p. 90).

*I.2.1.3.2. Narrative (Expressive) writing.* The kind of writing that signifies language transition from spoken to written (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996, p. 135). Generally, it is the reporting of previous events or stories (Richards & Schmidt (2002, p. 337). In addition to storytelling, narration is partly a means of development and purpose explanation (Sorenson, 2010, p. 90). Grabe and Kaplan presented it as "narrative writing-writing which describes how the world looks" (p. 134). In other words, narration can be seen as partly the writer's descriptive account of his own or that of others' surroundings and sequential recount of experiences.

*I.2.1.3.3. Expository writing.* The kind of writing that aims at explaining, describing, and providing information either constructively or deconstructively. Grabe and Kaplan (1996) proposed that, "expository writing- writing which explores how the world works" (p. 134), which is giving factual description of one's surrounding phenomena.

*I.2.1.3.4. Argumentative (Persuasive) writing.* The kind of writing that attempts to argue, as the name suggests, a certain point of view or defend a certain conviction in order to convince or be convinced (Richards & Schmidt (2002, p. 337). Reasoning and logic are its main persuasion tools by providing supporting theories or facts (Sorenson, 2010, p. 109). Usually, it is a two or more sided argument.

It can be noted that, in each mode there exist some of another (Sorenson, 2010); however, each mode empowers certain aspects in the writing ability as Byrne (2003) argued that, "Each type of writing has its own value, both in terms of developing writing skills and for the learners personally" (p. 14). In educational terms, the assumption was to start from the basic to the most challenging mode (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 337). The objective is to build the writing ability in parallel with the progression of the cognitive abilities. The same was promoted by Hyland (2003), who suggests that "plan a learning sequence of text types which scaffold leaner progress, ensuring that novice writers will move from what is easy to what is difficult and from what is known to what is unknown" (p. 104).

*I.2.1.4. Features of effective writing.* Effectiveness in writing is not as simple as acquiring the linguistic knowledge or manipulating the linguistic skills, nor is the simple combination of both. The set of acquired practical skills in addition to the unique personal talent is what set the effective writer apart from the rest. Rijaarsdam and Van Den Bergh (2004) confirmed that, "But effective writing depends not just on how goal-directed writing is, but also on the writer's ability to co-ordinate all the different processes involved" (p. 8). As such, effectiveness in writing is to make the right linguistic choices, through the right mediums, to reach the right audience, and finally leave the right impact. Therefore, effectiveness in writing can be described as cleverness in writing. Three levels of awareness should be developed to effectively produce a piece of writing which are: language, writer, and reader awareness. The setting of conventional criteria, that determine effective writing, can be very helpful for both, writer to write as effectively as possible and evaluator to evaluate as objectively as possible. Hence, different models were presented and progressed over the years. Based on North Carolina model, Cali and Brown (2003) identified five typical features to effective writing including: Focus, organization, support and elaboration, style, and conventions.

*I.2.1.4.1. Focus.* Reader engagement and clear purpose understanding are the aims of a focused writer. Focus is the apparent sign of a writer who is well aware of his readers and how to address them in order for his writing to be fully understood. Focus is the writer's interpretation of the writing task into a clear approachable topic. A confused reader, is the sign of an unfocused writer with an ineffective subject development method. Yet an engaged reader is the sign of a focused writer with an effective subject development method.

*I.2.1.4.2. Organization.* Unified transition from start to finish and comprehension of the written piece, as separate parts and as a whole, is the aim of an organized writer. Organization is the writer awareness sign who is fully capable of manipulating the ideas in terms of progression, relatedness, and completeness. Reader reaction is the sign of the well-organized writer and if or not his development strategy was a success.

*I.2.1.4.3. Support and elaboration.* To give the right proportions to the written piece in terms of quality and quantity are the aims of support and elaboration. The support and elaboration are the writer's witty ability to develop and expend his topic. The writer should be qualified enough to give the appropriate detailing of ideas through sufficient and relevant information. The relevant detailing should be given in such way to be clear and not misleading, in addition to the right amount of information in order to be sufficient and not redundant. Thus, power and clarity are the signs of well elaboration and good support.

*I.2.1.4.4. Style.* Language command to fit the writing task's purpose, audience, and context is the aim of a writer with style. The writer's style is his purposeful selectiveness, which is illustrated in the word choice and sentence fluency. Competency in choosing the right vocabulary or diction gives amplitude to the writing by using engaging words, phrases, and portraits. The competency also includes proper syntactical choices that build ties between and within the ideas, causes, and statements. Hence, the writer's style is the reflection of his good and unique command of language.

*I.2.1.4.5. Conventions.* A set of agreed upon rules that govern the structural aspect of the writing in general. Conventions include accuracy in forming sentences, usage, and mechanics, which are the overall grammatical conventions. A writer with a sound sense of conventions is also a good editor.

In conclusion, despite the inferior status it traditionally had, writing managed to establish itself as an independent language skill. With different teaching approaches, types and even effectiveness features, the writing ability had become an indispensable communication tool.

## I.2.2   Academic Writing

Addressing and academic reader is different from addressing other readers. For that reason, not every writing is acceptable by the standards of academic discourse. While attention to content is only half the task and seems demanding, the other half is even more

demanding. The demand is in the number of conventions that have been placed to meet those standards. The combination of content and conventions elucidates what is known as academic writing. For one to be able to recognize this specific kind of writing, it is crucial to know what it is and the different types it portrays.

*I.2.2.1. Academic writing definition.* The concept of academic writing has no unified definition. The definition varies according to context or discipline. Namely, it is scholars writing what is meant to be read by other scholars either student or academics (Geyte, 2013, p. 9). Essentially, it is a structured, directional kind of writing that differs from one discipline to another and from one language to another. Yet the difference lies in the type of conventions involved. On conventions, Baily (2003) sat forth that, "On top of the complexity of the vocabulary of academic English they have to learn a series of conventions in style, referencing and organisation" (introduction), all in order to meet the academic writing requirements.

Another description by Johnson (2016), who described it as, "Academic writing is an art, a science, and a craft" (para. 6-7-8). Thereby, it is an Art in the sense of deliverance of a proper interpretation of the writing task within writers' non-standardized thinking. A strategic, developmental work that delivers yet with personal, stylistic imprint specific to each writer. A science in the sense of adherence to the conventions that govern the writing task and its presentation. A craft in the sense of mastery through experience and practice. Like any other craft, academic writing is a rigorous, disciplined practice that evolves over time. Thus, academic writing can be summarized in the strategic mastery of the conventions distinctive to each discipline.

*I.2.2.2. Academic writing types.* Like any other writing, academic writing has certain types or categories. Each have their distinctive aims and linguistic features. Besides that, it is possible to locate more than one type in a given academic document. Not far from the traditional discourse classification of four modes, academic writing also has four major types.

*I.2.2.2.1. Descriptive academic writing.* The least demanding type of academic writing wherein descriptions or factual information of given phenomena are offered (Types of Academic Writing: Language Features/Purposes, 2022). Descriptions are of realistic nature to make the reader understand or experience that which is being described. The

instructional actions involved in this type are identifying, reporting, recording, summarizing, and defining. However, it is uncommon to encounter pure descriptive academic writing as it involves some analysis (Types of Academic Writing, 2022).

*I.2.2.2.2. Analytical academic writing.* A compound type of academic writing where detailed descriptions of certain phenomena are reorganized into certain clustered elements to demonstrate relations. Analysis include extensive descriptions in order to draw conclusions about that which is being analyzed (Types of Academic Writing: Language Features/Purposes, 2022). The instructional actions included in this type are analyzing, comparing, contrasting, and examining (Types of Academic Writing, 2022). Thus, it is obvious that the descriptive academic writing is part and parcial of the analytical.

*I.2.2.2.3. Persuasive academic writing.* A built on type of academic writing where an analytical, argumentative, evidence based stance toward a certain narrative is made. In an effort to convince the reader to accept the stance or take an action, persuasion is adopted. (Types of Academic Writing: Language Features/Purposes, 2022). The instructional actions included in this type are argumenting, evaluating, discussing, and position taking (Types of Academic Writing, 2022). Hence, persuasive academic writing is at least one more step beyond the analytical.

*I.2.2.2.4. Critical academic writing.* An advanced type of academic writing where a more than one stance is involved in a given narrative. Argumentation and counterargumention are the basic weapons used to convince the reader (Types of Academic Writing: Language Features/Purposes, 2022). The instructional actions comprised in this type are criticizing, debating, disagreeing, and evaluating (Types of Academic Writing, 2022). As such, considering critical academic writing is also considerance of the descriptive, analytical, and persuasive altogether.

In brief, similarly to the writing modes that each contains traces of the other, if not all, academic writing types are also built on each other. The analytical is built on the descriptive while the persuasive is built on the two. Finally, the critical is built on and encapsulates the types as a whole. All under the umbrella of form follows function.

## I.2.3   Language Transfer

Language transfers are naturally inevitable whether first language, second, third, or foreign, the transfer phenomenon is always present. First language transfers hold a special

interest because of their high influence degree both positively and negatively. None of the four skills is immune from those transfers, writing skill included. Unlike positive transfer, negative transfer is notorious for being hindering to language learning. To understand how both benefit or hinder the learning process, understanding the concept of language transfer is a must.

*I.2.3.1. Language transfer definition.* The concept of language transfer or cross-linguistic influence (Cenoz, Hufeisen & jessner, 2001; Peukert, 2015) has been around for quite some time. Comprehensively speaking, it is the linguistic systems potential influence of each other (Cenoz et al. 2001, p. 2). Influence may involve all the linguistic aspects of grammatical structures, sounds, vocabulary, writing systems, and even cultures (Gass & Selinker, 1993. p. 2). According to Sharwood Smith & Kellerman (as cited in Cenoz at al. 2001), the concept "include '*such phenomena as "transfer", "interference", "avoidance", "borrowing" and L2-related aspects of language loss*" (p. 1).

A number of theories about the concept of transfer were presented over the years, from which is the transfer hypothesis that Schachter's (1993, p. 38) adapted. Schachter adaptation was that, "The learner infers from previous knowledge the domain within the universe from which the solution to the current target language problem will be taken. Then, the learner samples hypothesis from that domain" (p. 38). However, the gist of the concept is to differentiate transfer from interference, which Gass (2000), from a behavioristic stand point, did suggest and attempt. Gass saw transfer as "the psychological process whereby learning is carried over into new learning situation" (p. 38) while interference was seen as "incorrect (L2) learning based on NL forms" (p. 38). As such, the concept can be summarized into the transferability of meanings and forms of the cumulative already acquired systems to the newly, being acquired system.

*I.2.3.2. Language transfer types.* The aforementioned differentiation between transfer and interference gave birth to the two transfer types, dubbed as negative and positive transfer.

*I.2.3.2.1. Positive transfer.* Considering Schachter's (1993, p. 38) adaptation of the transfer hypothesis, the positive transfer could be regarded as choosing the correct domain and hypothesis of the native language to infer from. Reasons behind the choice are either good input analysis or recognition of form consistency in both systems, which contrastive analysis hypothesis linked to system similarities that are propelling to the learning process.

The positive transfer is a less easily detectable type of transfer because it does not lead to any deviation from the target system (Bardel, 2015, p. 119).

   *I.2.3.2.2. Negative transfer.* Again with Schachter's (1993, p. 38) adaptation of the transfer hypothesis, the negative transfer could be considered as choosing the correct domain in the native language to infer from yet a wrong hypothesis. Causes of the choice are either partly mistaken input analysis or unrecognition of form inconsistency in both systems, which contrastive analysis hypothesis associated with system differences that are refraining to the learning process. The negative transfer is an easily detectable type of transfer because it does lead to deviation from the target system (Bardel, 2015, p. 119).

   In short, despite the rocky history of the transfer phenomenon, yet it managed to prove both its existence and the significant effect is has on the learning of new languages. Rooted in every aspect of the learning process either positively or negatively, it still gave insights on the learning process as a whole.

## I.2.4   Culture

   In societies, culture is one shared human aspect yet the most diverse even within one society. Hence, despite one's individuality, one can never escape the fact of being the product of his society and culture. In that sense, culture, as simple as in it may sound, is one of the most complex concepts to define as well as the related competencies.

   ***I.2.4.1. Culture definition.*** Countless definitions have been given to the concept of culture in the course of the years. Out of these definitions and from a broad sense, according to Malcom (1999), "culture embraces everything people learn and do as a member of a society. The way we write, like the way we speak, is an expression of our enculturation, as well as being an expression of our individuality" (p. 122), therefore, all that one expresses whether spoken or in writing is a reflection of one's self as well as his cultural absorptions. Just as one's expressions can never escape cultural influence; since language basically is expression, language with all its four skills also cannot.

   Conventionally, to learn any language one must learn its four skills to effectively communicate with it. Though, to efficiently and appropriately communicate one must learn the culture to that language. Certain scholars consider culture as the "fifth skill" to language as advanced Kramsch (1993) "culture in language learning is not an expendable fifth skill tacked on, so to speak, to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. It is

always in the background, right from day one" (p. 1). Because culture gives perspective to the whole process of teaching/learning, it has to have equal status just as the other four skills. Hyland (as cited in Hyland, 2003) as one example stresses the perspective significance of culture in teaching writing saying that, "Students not only need help in learning how to write, but also in understanding how texts are shaped by topic, audience, purpose, and cultural norms" (p. 14). In other words, culture gives sense to writing.

*I.2.4.2. Culture related competencies.* A number of competencies were presented by a number of scholars over time. The more observed the language within the real situations the more details given to the previous competence that provides basis or makes part of the new competence. Among them are the two umbrella competencies of the communicative and the intercultural communicative competence.

*I.2.4.2.1. Communicative competence.* Communication is the key concept of individuals' acts of sharing within societies. The sharing could be either simple information and ideas or even complex concepts and behaviors. The sharing also could be in both forms verbal (speaking) or non-verbal (writing). The exploration of language relations with both society and culture gave rise to the concept of communicative competence. The concept was interpreted in variety of ways but all agreed on the shared role it plays (Berns, 1990, p. 29). Berns' collective insights, based on the historical evolution that stated with Chomsky and Hymes, viewed it as an inclusive concept that went beyond the traditional effectiveness of that which is being shared to include the contextual appropriateness of that which is being shared. The appropriateness was decided upon in relation to the society and culture to that society.

Also adding Berns (2019, p. 30) that the appropriateness is meaningfulness within the restrictions of the society, culture, and the sharing situation. The communicative competence is a composite concept that involves a number of competencies. Comprehensively, it involves the linguistic, socio-cultural, and pragmatic competencies. Hence, the communicative competence can be seen as the management of the shaping act that society and culture impose on shared communication from a very early age.

*I.2.4.2.2. Intercultural communicative competence.* A certain category of individuals used and still are facing an uneasy question of how to properly interact with culturally different individuals in a foreign language? A one particular question that have been posed

by a considerably large and still growing category of individuals since the globalization movement invaded almost the whole world. A before and now urgent question that gave birth to the study of intercultural communication. Yet keeping one's identity intact and at the same time becoming part of the larger whole necessitates incorporative acts of other's languages and cultures (Fantini, 2019. P. 05). The incorporative acts created that which is known as the concept of intercultural communicative competence. Intercultural communicative competence is no longer a luxurious privilege for the well-educated common and professional cross-nations travelers; it became a basic skill that most must achieve or at least stave to achieve.

In this sense, one must understand what is it to be intercultural communicatively competent? And what involving skills must be acquired to be considered as so? However, skimming through the literature, one can observe that the concept of intercultural and cross-cultural are used interchangeably in many occasions. Thus, a differentiation between the two concepts must be established in order to fully grasp the target concepts. González (2023) differentiated the two concepts as follows. Cross-cultural is the comparison and contrast of linguistic behavior (identifying realization strategies, understanding social-contextual influences) of communication taking place between two or more culturally different individuals or groups. However, the intercultural is the actual negotiation of meaning (sharing, interpretation, and evaluation) of communication taking place between two or more culturally different individuals or groups. Now that the target concepts has been differentiated' for the sake of clarification, a definition can be presented.

Intercultural communicative competence is the equipment of one's self with the necessary knowledge and skills in order to behave within the conventional ways specific to a certain culture through its specific language (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009, p. 04). Hence, this competence is the combination of both the cross-cultural and intercultural. In that sense, it is the evaluative sharing and appropriate interpretations through the identification of the realization strategies and the understanding of the social-contextual influences. An ability to understand and imitate the conventions of the otherness through their language (Byram, 1997, p. 03). Accordingly, it is a paralleled notion where one must imitate the native both linguistically and overall demeanor. In other words, intercultural communicative competence is one's embracing of otherness in order for otherness to embrace one back.

*I.2.4.3. Intercultural communicative competence and the writing ability*. As a competency that is based on language as its basic communication medium, it is reflected in the four language skills. One must be aware of the kind of cultural conventions related to the target language and, in the case of this particular study, the cultural conventions related to the writing skill. According to Byram (1997) "Even the exchange of information is dependent upon understanding how what one says or writes will be perceived and interpreted in another cultural context; it depends on the ability to decentre and take up the perspective of the listener or reader" (p. 03). Thus, this summarizes the fact that efficiency is beyond correct and direct written words in the target language. Additionally to that, it is the ability to write with pre-consideration of that which is perceived as appropriate by the reader's culture.

To conclude, embracing of new languages is inevitably the embracing of their cultures. The preservation of individual and cultural identities should not be an obstacles in the face of acceptance of the other's individual and cultural identity. However, cultural openness requires competency in both communication and interculturalilty. For these reasons, culture and the related competencies should be known if they are to be utilized in an ever changing world.

## I.2.5    Assessment and Evaluation

Out of the endless, everlasting ethical enterprises that govern our daily practices, either professional or educational, are the two notion of assessment and evaluation. Language like any other human aspect is subject to both notions. Both notions are exploited to accredit individuals and fairly judge programs or institutions. Although being used interchangeably, they do have different meanings and functions. To be able to appreciate such notions, differentiating by defining them is elemental.

*I.2.5.1. Assessment definition.* Broadly speaking and following the Merriem-Webster dictionary (2023), assessment is a determinative act that is generally carried out to make a judgment. However and in relation to the educational scene, Palomba and Banta (2014) defined "*assessment* as applied in education describes the mea-surement of what an *individual* knows and can do" (p. 1) (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007, p. 31). Another definition by Brown (2003, p. 4) who viewed assessment as the performance judgment whether under formal, intended or informal, incidental circumstances. Therefore, assessment is a procedure

whereby individuals are put to test in order to be either accredited, diagnosed, predicted, placed, or achievement and proficiency measured (Brown, 2007, pp. 390-392). Thus, it is an action followed almost always by a reaction with a prime improvement aim (Palomba and Banta, 2014).

*I.2.5.2. Writing assessment.* Language in general is tested and assessed in order to decide how well attained it is. Writing as one of the four manifests of language is also tested and assessed. For the learner, writing in a foreign language has its own structural challenges, let alone rhetorical forms or discoursive conventions. The fact that according to Brown (2003) made "the assessment of writing no simple task" (p. 218) (Weigle, 2002, p. x). Since writing conceptualization can be linguistic, cognitive, social or cultural, a number of considerations have to be taken into account in the assessment process. In the context of specific audiences and purposes (genres and writing types), Brown (2007, p. 357) suggested a six (06) category evaluation model for writing, in which order depend on the adopted writing approach.

*I.2.5.2.1. Content.* The category includes thesis statement, relating ideas, developing ideas, focus in addition to the use of description, cause/effect, and comparison/contrast.

*I.2.5.2.2. Organization.* The category includes introduction effectiveness, logical sequencing of ideas, concluding, and length appropriateness.

*I.2.5.2.3. Discourse.* The category includes topic sentence, paragraph unity, transitions, discourse markers, cohesion, rhetorical conventions, reference, fluency, economy, and variation.

*I.2.5.2.4. Syntax.* The category involves appropriate word arrangement to form the larger units of phases, clauses, and sentences (style).

*I.2.5.2.5. Vocabulary.* The category involves lexis richness and appropriate word choice (style).

*I.2.5.2.6. Mechanics.* The category involves spelling, punctuation, references citation, and both neatness and appearance.

What can be observed is the connectedness and dependency of each category on the other for the written piece to ever be coherent.

*I.2.5.3. Evaluation definition.* An extensive definition of the notion was provide by Bachman (1990) as, "Evaluation can be defined as the systematic gathering of information for the purpose of making decision" (p. 22). In the broad sense, it is evident that both assessment and evaluation denote the same notion, which explains the interchangeable use in the literature. Nevertheless, when in relation to education, the distinction can be established. As such, Weir and Roberts (1994) forwarded the following definition; "Evaluation is to collect information systematically in order to indicate the worth or merit of a program or project (from certain aspects or as a whole) and inform decision making" (p. 4). In this fashion, evaluation is the procedure whereby entities or organized activities are assessed in order to be decided upon. Hence, it is an act of appraisal or an evidence-based decision making for optimization purposes.

To summarize, the heavy weight of individual assessment and whole evaluation made apparent the importance and indispensable need for such standards in the teaching leaning process. Jointly, they backwash on the teaching learning process, participants, and institutions as a whole. For that, it is key to properly implement such procedures in order to reap results that can be both valid and reliable.

**Conclusion**

The preceding section reviewed literature on many subjects that are of direct relation to the issue at hand. The review of literature laid out the foundation on which the study was built. The section was essentially comprised of notional definitions, enumeration of types, approaches, and features, with special focus on style. Sequentially presented following the investigated topic, starting with writing as basis, moving to academic writing as specification, going to language transfers as influences, considering the cultural aspect, ending with assessment and evaluation generally and writing assessment particularly.

After this theoretical journey to the investigation, the next two chapters takes the investigation to its methodological and practical path that is the assessment of the Arabic/English style differences effects' on the enhancement of the syntactic style in EFL academic writing.

# Chapter Two:

# RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

# Chapter II: Research Methodology

## Introduction

The investigation nature is what decides the best course of action to be taken. Therefore, to decide on the most suitable methodology to follow, a degree of awareness from the researcher's part, of both delimitations and limitations of his study must be present. Because each study is specific in terms of questions, aims, population, and sample, a careful choice of methodology must be taken accordingly. The present chapter mapped both the adopted methodological strategy and the grounds for each decision made. The study concerned itself with the assessment of the effects of Arabic/English style differences on the enhancement of students' EFL academic writing syntactical style (coordination over subordination). Hence, methodology was framed as follows:

## II.1  Research Paradigm

Any given research in any given field rests on comprehensive philosophical assumptions known as paradigms or world views (Creswell, 2009, p. 06), which lay grounds that serve answers to the raised research questions. Leavy (2017) proposed that "There is a range of beliefs that guide research practice … Together these beliefs form the philosophical substructure of research, informing decisions from topic selection all the way to final representation and dissemination of research findings" (p .11). Besides laying grounds, they narrow the research scope to more detailed theoretical assumptions (approaches). Narrowing the scope even more through providing foundation to the detailed strategies (design), data collection methods, and data analysis procedures that best answer the research questions. The whole strategy provides frame to the methodology that the researcher will adopt based on the study nature.

Social sciences' research worked its way through a philosophical journey of multiple paradigms of separate and specialized or joint aims. The widely recognized paradigms within the literature are: the traditional quantitative post-positivist, the qualitative constructivist, and the mixed-method pragmatist paradigm. The pragmatist paradigm holds the belief of the different tools usefulness in the different research contexts, which utility is valued by the researcher, research aims, and research questions, (Leavy, 2017, p. 14). In other words, Rather than adopting and focusing on only one linear research approach and risk its limitations and biases, the pragmatist paradigm advocated and focused on solving the problem using all available approaches where one neutralizes the biases of the other.

Accordingly, the pragmatist paradigm aligned with the study advanced problems and two principal aims of assessing cause-effect relations and constructing view interpretations.

## II.2  Research Approaches

Given the examinatory nature of the investigation, seeking understanding, and considering a methodological spectrum, the pragmatist mixed-method would be the most appropriate approaching method at the spectrum's wider angle. A qualitative and quantitative approach would be the most suitable to the outlined study aims and best answers its questions. In addition to that, strengthening both research validity and inferences through the combination of both qualitative and quantitative data (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 43).

From this stand point, the mixed method was assigned, which involved integrative use of qualitative and quantitative methods. The quantitative method aimed at gaging teachers' awareness of the specific Arabic/English syntactical style differences and attitudes toward the additional style-oriented material. However, the quantitative method aimed at assessing both students' current writing level with reference to their syntactical style and the effectiveness of the additional style-oriented material. Thus, decision of paradigm and approach decided also on the most convenient design or strategy to follow.

## II.3  Research Design

Since the present study is social, unconfined, and no control over all variables or randomization can be implemented, the compromising quasi-experimental design would be the best fit to test what the study pre-hypothesized (Dőrnyei, 2007, p. 117). The design unveils the ambiguity of the cause-effect relation between the study variables. The design also answers to the questions of suitability, feasibility, and ethicality of the present research. Data collection instruments used to the purposes of the study are the questionnaire, training, as well as pre and post-tests.

**II.3.1. Quasi-Experimental study.** The study was conducted under the Quasi-experimental design, which is the most suitable for educational research. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) defined generally this type of study as, "The *field* or *quasi-experimental* in the natural setting rather than the laboratory, but where variables are isolated, controlled and manipulated" (p. 274). However, Kerlinger (1970) defined it specifically in relation to educational research application as a compromise decision to impracticable random selection of schools and classrooms (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 282). The choice of design was

for the chief purpose of assessing the cause and effect relationship between the two variables with special focus on determining the effectiveness and practicality of the additional style-oriented material to the current academic writing syllabus.

The quasi-experimental form opted for is the Pre-experimental design: the one group pretest-post-test design, which is stronger in terms of validity and less flawed in comparison with the other two Pre-Experimental design forms. The principal of this design is the measuring of a dependent variable in a group through pretest ($O_1$), experimental manipulation (X), and a post-test ($O_2$); presented as: Experimental $O_1$  X  $O_2$ (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 282; Campbell & Stanley, 1963, p. 7). Any well founded quasi-experimental design (cause-and–effect) would anticipate and try to reduce any plausible threat to the research inferences (external and internal validity threats). Based on this logic, the study could have opted for the Quasi-experimental design: the pretest-post-test non-equivalent group design, which is commonly used in educational research, but avoiding the threat of contact contamination between the experimental and controlled group cannot be guaranteed. Ergo, this extraneous uncontrollable variable could compromise the integrity of the inferences, therefore, research invalidation. Based on that same logic, the one group pretest-post-test design was validated as the study most suitable design.

Experimentation aimed at assessing the effects of the study independent variable (Arabic/English style differences) on the study dependent variable (EFL Academic writing syntactical style) by relying on two (02) tests: pretest $O_1$ (see Appendix 03), post-test $O_2$ (see Appendix 11), and a training X (see appendix 04 to 10). The two tests were done as insurance measure of data reliability and validity and to best demonstrate the training results illustrated in the reported change. Since the study adopted a mixed-method approach, the tool of a semi-structured questionnaire was also included. The questionnaire inclusion was to support the quantitative data with qualitative data to better understand the observed phenomenon and assist with the interpretation of the obtained results. Consequently, help answering the research questions as well as accept or reject one of the two proposed hypotheses.

## II.4  Population and Sampling

Ideally, research can never be without an existing population and samples within the population. Based on elaborate selection criteria, a population and sample have to be identified before any research activities are to take place. For this reason, it is crucial to

describe the population, sample, and the in between procedures as one of the initial steps to be taken is research.

**II.4.1. Population.** Understanding a population and drawing a representative behavioral picture is the prime aim of social sciences research (O'leary, 2017, p. 379). Thus, decision on population must be a careful one with all considerations in mind. Population to the present investigative research is Master's 1 students sciences of language major at the department of English language at Biskra University. The selection was done firstly on the basis of the course assignment, which is the study dependent variable (Academic writing) that starts first year Masters. Also in accordance with the aim of the present study, which is the hypothesis testing of whether or not Arabic/English style difference can or cannot enhance EFL academic writing syntactical style. In addition to that is the adopted eclectic approach to writing in the Master's 1 syllabus, which allows material selection based on students' needs, in this case the testing of the practicality of the additional style-oriented material (training). Homogeneity-wise, students by the third year have already dealt with paragraph writing and started essay writing, which makes good grounds for starting training this year. Thus, remedy any sentence level gaps they might still have in preparation for their next year graduation project. The population is of a considerable size of one hundred and ninety six (N=196) students. According to the above-stated rationale behind the population choice, it is possible to assume that this particular population is most likely to be representative of the investigated phenomenon.

**II.4.2. Sample.** Because testing a whole population is very demanding and almost unfeasible in social sciences, parallel representation through sampling was the practical answer to this issue (O'leary, 2017, p. 379). Therefore, for practicality and generalizability reasons, research is always conducted with a sample that is a manageable portion of the population. A sample is the data collection source (practicality) in order to draw conclusions about the population (generalizability). Epistemologically speaking, the research design is what decides the appropriate sampling type and method though other intervening factors play a premise role in the choice of sampling strategy. The quasi-experimental design was the most suitable design for the study at hand, which by principal lacks randomization, as such the non-probability sampling would be the logical strategy. Although far from epistemology and for both possibility and statistical reasons, a probability sampling would be the more logical sampling strategy. Considering the already defined population, the

constructed sample frame, and the determined sample size, following statistical requirements, the random sampling strategy would be the most convenient strategy to the outlined study aims, with generalizability at the head of the list.

From the number of random selection sampling methods, the study opted for the probability cluster sampling, which allows population representation, findings generalization, and bias control. Broadly, O'leary (2017) defined cluster sampling as, "A sampling strategy that surveys clusters within a population" (p. 695). However, Mackey and Gass (2005) defined it more specifically in relation to language research as, "the selection of groups (e.g., intact sec-ond language classes) rather than individuals as the objects of study" (p. 120). Thus, in the presence of groups within the target population, cluster sampling is randomly selecting some of these groups. With quantified data and for statistical reasons, attempting the largest sample size would be the ideal solution. However, a minimum of about thirty (30) participants must be guaranteed in order to perform the most basic statistical analysis (O'leary, 2017, p. 383; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 101). Following that and the chosen sampling method, the study sample was sized at a number of eighty two (n= 77) participant, which comprises two (02) groups of the total Master's one five (05) group population. The considerable sample size was to allow a certain margin for any unanticipated events. Nonetheless, for a number of reason, mainly the attendance, only twenty five members (n=25) undergone the training and took the pre and post-testing, which represents less than half the target sample.

## II.5  Research Instruments Description

The fundament of research whether qualitative or quantitative is the collection of data. Yet the collection of data is no easy task as it requires a considerable level of awareness and precision to appropriately select, design, and develop the research instruments, tools, or methods.  As such, a careful description of the selected instruments is recommended in order to clarify the rationale behind the choice.

**II.5.1. Questionnaire description.** Questionnaires are a highly sought data gathering instrument for many reasons. They are easily formable, adaptable, gather a considerable data amount, and the collected data can be directly processed. The instrument of questionnaire is the respondent's written response to a series of written questions or selection from given responses (Brown as cited in Dőrnyei, 2003, p. 6). A tool that can be used both qualitatively

and quantitatively depending on the degree of structure. In addition to the familiar questionnaire label, other labels were mentioned in the literature as listed by Aiken (as cited in Dőrnyei, 2003, " 'inventories,' 'forms,' 'opinnionaires,' 'test,' batteries,' 'checklist,' 'scales,' ' surveys,' ' schedules,' ' studies,' 'profiles,' 'indexes/indicators,' or even simply 'sheets'" (p. 6). Since it is a case of literate individuals (teachers/students), the instrument of questionnaire was selected instead of other instruments (interview). Generally an interview is recommended in attitudinal research, however, the study narrow scope and direct questions does not necessitate much elaboration to answer its questions. Along with the precedent, efficiency was also a key factor in the choice of instrument.

*II.5.1.1. Teacher questionnaire description.* On that aforementioned basis, the design and development of the teacher questionnaire (see appendix 01) was done to assess teachers' awareness of the effects of L1/EFL existing style differences on students' writing. In addition to their attitudes toward those and the integration of new style-oriented material to the already existing syllabus. For these aims, the form used was the semi-structured questionnaire including factual and attitudinal combination of close and open-ended questions with dichotomous, multiple-choice, rank order and scaler items.

To avoid counter productiveness, the instrument did not exceed a five (05) page long (Dőrnyei, 2003, p. 18) and comprised four (04) sections with a total number of twenty two (22) items. The first section under the label of "Personal information" contained a total number of five (05) items. The section aimed at gathering information about the teachers' English language teaching career timeframe in general and with reference to teaching both written expression and academic writing, which is the study dependent variable. The second section under the label of "Syllabus satisfaction" with a total number of five (05) items. The section aimed at gathering information about the teachers' (A) required writing level to be taught, (B) the most demanding level with possible explanation as to why, (C) satisfaction degree with the provided writing course syllabus with explanation as to why, (D) possibility of adding elements to the provided writing course syllabus with listing of the usually added elements, (E) frequency of adding elements to the provided syllabus,.

The third section under the label of "Writing difficulties" was of five (05) items in total. The section incorporated (A) comprehensive rating of students' writing level, (B) most common writing difficulties facing students, (C) most common mechanical difficulties facing students, (D) most common cohesion difficulties facing students, (E) most comment

coherence difficulties facing students. The fifth and closing section under the label of "First
language transfer" was of five (05) items in total. The section solicited information about
(A) students' most common syntactical choices with possible explanation as to why, (B)
recommended sentence type in essay writing with possible explanation as to why (C)
students' most common connection practice with possible explanation as to why, (D)
students' most common mechanical sentence error, (E) familiarity with the existing writing
style differences between Arabic and English language, (F) existence of these differences in
students' writing with mentioning of the frequently used, and (G) belief of students' writing
difficulties relatedness to the L1/EFL style differences with explanation as to why.

For ease of access and response, the teacher questionnaire was administered and
completed through google forms. However, the response rate was relatively low and slow at
the same time. The whole process was over a thirteen (13) day timespan. With a considerably
limited number of teachers who taught writing in general, a finite number of six (06)
completed the questionnaire. For this reason, the study included data obtained from the
questionnaire pilot of three (03) other maven academic writing teachers. The inclusion
followed Dőrnyei's (2003, p. 68) suggestion of data use possibility in the real investigation
in case of no significant changes stemmed from the final piloting stage, which is the case of
the present investigative study.

*II.5.1.2. Student questionnaire description.* A kind of a smaller-scale needs analysis
with special focus on present situation analysis. The same degree of structure was exploited
in the student questionnaire (see appendix 02) as in the teacher questionnaire. For the
elicitation of explicate and mostly implicate controlled knowledge about the students
interlanguage, both close-ended and open-ended questions were proposed, with the most use
of the former then the latter. The reason was attributed to the fact that the prime aim is
measuring students' level in terms of awareness and understanding of the different concepts
rather than their ability to define them. Thus, the diagnosis main focus is gathering
quantitative data that would be the measuring basis of the students' level in terms of
syntactical style.

In order not to overwhelm and keep the students engaged, the questionnaire was
designed not to exceed three (03) pages long and a thirty (30) minute completion time; it
only included a reasonable number of eighteen (18) indispensable items (Dőrnyei, 2003, p.
18). Divided into four (04) sections, the first of a total number of five (05) personal, factual

items including gender, age, first official language, degree type, and if ever receiving tutoring by an English native teacher, all under the label of "personal information". Demographic questions introduced the questionnaire in order to ease the respondents into it. However, the second section was of a total number of five (05) items devoted to the probing of students' perceived writing difficulties, syntactical preferences, and familiarization with sentence error types, all under the label of "writing difficulties". The questions included, (A) if writing difficulties in general are faced, (B) the level where the difficulties are faced, (C) sentence type ranking in order of use with possible ranking explanation, (D) the difficulty type faced at the sentence level, (E) familiarity with sentence error types,

The third section, of a total number of four (04) items, consecrated to students' conjunction knowledge under the label of "Conjunction identification". The questions involved (A) familiarity with coordinating conjunctions, (B) coordinating conjunctions frequency of use in assay writing, (C) familiarity with subordinating conjunctions, (D) subordinating conjunctions frequency of use in assay writing. The fourth and last section, also of four (04) items, dedicated to students' clause identification under the label of "Clause identification". The questions comprised (A) familiarity with independent clauses, (B) familiarity with dependent clauses, (C) familiarity with superordinate clauses, and (D) familiarity with subordinate clauses.

The questionnaire was completed through group administration. The whole process timeframe was between fifteen (15) minutes to thirty (30) minutes. Out of the whole sample (n=77), only thirty four (34) participants were present the day of the administration to receive the questionnaire with a 44.15% response rate.

**II.5.2. Training description.** In order to approximate the authentic, subordinate English writing style, the training key concept was demonstrating the convenient replaceability of coordinating conjunctions with subordinating conjunctions. A fact that in turn demonstrated the possibility and ease of transforming compound sentences into complex sentences. Moreover, the training also revolved around highlighting the mechanics necessary for such replacement.

The training was integrative within the current academic writing syllabus in the form of additional material that targeted the syntactical style. After initial design and repeated redesign and because of time constraints, the training was limited to a number of seven (07)

over seven (07) sessions. The first session (see appendix 04) contained a gap-fil type of activities in a total of four (04). Focus in the first activity was on coordinating conjunctions while was on subordinating conjunctions in the second, and the same was for the third and the fourth, respectively. The exploited text was adapted paragraphs whereby subordinating conjunctions replaced coordinating conjunctions, with the accompanying necessary changes (punctuation). The aim was to illustrate the possibility of conjunctions replacing each other. On the other hand, the second session (see appendix 05) was a sentence re-order type of activities in a total of two (02), with focus only on subordinating conjunctions. The exploited text was two adapted paragraphs of jumbled sentences. The purpose was to highlight the punctuative mechanics involved with the use of subordinating conjunctions.

The third session (see appendix 06), of one (01) activity, was a recapitulation of the first two sessions to test the grasping of the whole subordination concept.  By providing demonstrative examples and employing the provided subordination conjunctions, once at the beginning of the sentence and again within the sentence, examples were asked to be given. Additionally, the training also included four (04) endorsive sessions (see appendix 07 to 10) designed and delivered by the module teacher, in accordance with both students' needs and study aims. The first endorsive sessions involved familiarizing the students with the concept of cohesion, its importance, and the strategies that could be employed to increase it. The second endorsive session included the purpose of linking devices and their function. The third endorsive session implicated the different sentence types and their common encountered errors. The fourth and last endorsive session covered punctuation that familiarizes the student with the different writing mechanics especially that associated with academic writing, and concluding each session with an activation.

In order not to majorly disrupt the students' official classes, the first three (03) sessions took no more than half an hour each from three official sessions. However, the last four (04) endorsive sessions took four whole official sessions. The usual attendees were present with less than half the sample.

**II.5.3. Test description (Pre/Post).** As simple as they might seem, tests are exceptionally a complex data gathering tool. Numerous considerations have to be taken in test elaboration. Among the advantages of testing is primarily providing numerical data instead of categorical data. Thus, amenability to perform both descriptive and inferential

statistics, which better describe and summarize the experimental work as well as test what has been hypothesized.

*II.5.3.1. Pre-test description.* Pretesting is an indispensable pre-training step. The pretest was essentially criterion-referenced and diagnostic at the same time. The criteria on which the test was based are the existence of the different sentence types in student compositions, on the one hand. On the other hand, diagnostic in terms of measuring how familiar with and capable students are of correctly using the different types of sentences, which is partly answer to the research first question. In addition to that, is providing numerical data that will serve as the tangible means of the research hypothesis testing. As such, a two paragraph official assignment was the study convenience pretest (see appendix 03). The participants were asked to develop two paragraphs of about eight (08) to (10) lines each in one of two proposed topics.

The rationale behind the test scoring was straightforward and simply based on sentence type count and mark assignment. Because the scoring of each item reflects its weight and relative significance (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 430), each sentence type was scored depending on their complexity, frequency of use as well as both conjunctive and punctuative accuracy. Use frequency was decided upon by grammatical logic alongside with both teacher and student questionnaire observations. In this fashion, accurate sentences were given the full mark while the less accurate were given half the mark (poorly punctuated). With one point (01) awarded for the least complex and the most frequent that is the simple sentence. Following is the compound with one and a half points (1.5). Then is the complex, which is the less frequent and the experimentation target with two (02) points. Lastly is the compound-complex, which is the most complicated and ranking before last at the frequency scale, with two and a half points (2.5). In parallel, the scoring also considered the length of the composition, which is of two paragraphs, in order not to exceed the maximum of twenty (20) points.

*II.5.3.2. Post-test description.* Post-testing is the last step to be taking after any treatment (training). The post-test was primarily criterion-referenced as the pretest, yet, unlike the pretest, it was an achievement test. Achievement in terms of testing and measuring how well the training objectives were achieved by the students; thus, the same criteria of sentence type were exploited. Hence, a home assignment was the study planned post-test (see appendix 11). The post-test was mainly evaluative of students' syntactical progress after

training and provided comparative data for hypothesis testing. Same as the pretest, a two paragraph composition of about eight (08) to lines (10) lines each in one proposed topic was asked to be delivered. Additionally, the same scoring logic was followed as the pretest.

## II.6  Implementation Procedures

Following the appropriate research procedures is an integral part of the research success. Logical, conventional, and preventive are the characteristics of those procedures. Out of the number of conventional implemented research procedures are the instrument piloting and evaluation. Potential failure could be avoided if those procedure are well implemented. Thus, implementation and proper implementation is advisable in any research including that in the educational context.

**II.6.1. Questionnaire piloting and item analysis.** One would think that once finished with developing any research instrument the challenging part of the journey is also finished. Indeed, the real challenge is yet to come and that is instrument piloting.  In addition to highlighting the purpose of the questionnaire, emphasis on confidentiality, following the appropriate style and layout, the procedure of questionnaire piloting was also respected after face validation. According to Dőrnyei, (2003), piloting is a recommended procedure to test and guarantee the questionnaire practicability because, "in questionnaires so much depends on actual wording of the items (even minor differences can change the response pattern)" (p. 63). Wherefore, the collected feedback from this trial (field testing) enabled item analysis, as well as the fine-tuning of the questionnaire as a whole. In addition to that, measure for both validity and reliability, which are key to the success of any research instrument.

*II.6.1.1. Teacher questionnaire piloting and item analysis.* In order to validate the instrument to-be for final distribution, the piloting procedure was performed. During the development of the questionnaire, the piloting took a number of steps. Initially was the item pool piloting, which was essentially performed with the immediate supervisor and a few close colleagues. A few guidelines were included to guide the focus. Feedback from the piloting highlighted a few discrepancies. Following the provided feedback that estimated for both content and construct validity, a number of changes were introduced. The produced near-final questionnaire version was then introduced to teachers for final piloting. Because the study was generally interested in teachers' attitudes, the pilot group needed not to be very large.

The piloting mainly targeted the teachers who did teach or are teaching the academic writing course. The pilot questionnaire was self-administered via email and in person. The responses, as a total, were received after a week from the deliverance date. In a total of ten (10) initial targets, only seven (07) completed the questionnaire. From the seven (07) responders, five (05) were teachers who were or are teaching academic writing course. The response rate was of 70%, which can be considered as satisfactory to have insightful feedback and the minimum statistical requirements for both validity and reliability testing.

Finally was the conduction of item analysis and the questionnaire fine-tuning. Issues of wording and meaning ambiguity were not raised. Nevertheless, concerns of sequence confusion and long sections were highlighted. Accordingly, the sectioning was doubled to a total of four (04) sections, and layout alterations also performed by the introduction of tables. Tables replaced boxes in certain multiple choice items for more clear and easy sequencing. Hence, the teacher questionnaire was finalized and ready for end distribution.

*II.6.1.2. Student questionnaire piloting and item analysis.* Student questionnaire also undergone the same piloting steps as the teacher questionnaire.  After the initial item pool piloting and alterations, the near-final version was introduced to a sample that is similar in almost every essential respect to the target sample (Dőrnyei, 2003, p. 63). Because the study was mainly interested in measuring students' writing level and syntactical style, the pilot group needed to be large enough to guarantee proper item analysis and statistical analysis, with a minimum of eighteen (18) members (+/-20) (Dőrnyei, 2003, p. 68). On that grounds, the piloting targeted a whole group from the M1 population with a total number of forty-one (41) members. The pilot was group-administered and collected at the same day. Completion timeframe was of thirty (30) minutes maximum and fifteen (15) minutes minimum. The day of the administration only twenty two (22) members were present with a given response rate of 53.65%.

Finally was the item analysis and the fine-tuning phase. Issues of wording and meaning clarity were inexistent, in addition to no item omission for irrelevance. However, the layout was changed following teacher questionnaire piloting remarks. Thereby, sections were doubled from two (02) to four (04), and tables were adopted instead of boxes in certain multiple choice items in order to avoid sequencing confusion. Thus, the student questionnaire was ready for final distribution.

**II.6.2. Questionnaire validity and reliability.** Research evaluation is a delicate process to go about in general and research instruments evaluation is no exception.  In psychometric research, the widely considered evaluation measurements are the validity and reliability indices. One might safely assume that validity relates to instrument coherence while reliability relates to instrument cohesion. Validity is the testing of whether or not the instruments is measuring what it was designed to measure (face/content), and the extent to which it measures what it was designed to measure (construct) (O'leary, 2017, p. 713; Leavy, 2017, pp. 113-114; Greasley, 2008, p. 105; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 432). Validity as the testing of the overall accuracy of measurements has various types. Psychometry typically opt for face and content validity, which experts can judge, as well as construct validity, which statistical work can judge. Unlike validity that is instrument-focused, reliability is respondent-focused. Reliability is the testing of whether or not the instrument results can manage consistency over time and sample change (O'leary, 2017, p. 713; Leavy, 2017, p. 113; Greasley, 2008, p. 105; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 432).  Reliability as the testing of the overall consistency of measurements has several aspects. The widely strived for is internal consistency, which can be judged statistically.

*II.6.2.1. Teacher questionnaire validity with Pearson correlation coefficient.* Questionnaire construct validity is correlation of the items as a whole. Like any instrument, a questionnaire can be validated statistically. Statistically, construct validity can be evaluated by calculating the Pearson correlation coefficient.  The Pearson correlation coefficient is the comparison of the "r" with the critical value for the Pearson correlation coefficient (see appendix 12). If the "r" is greater than the critical value then items are correlated and valid, if not then they are uncorrelated and invalid. Comparison must consider if the hypothesis being tested is one tailed or two tailed, the number of variables, and the significance level ("p-value" should be statistically significant when $p \leq 0.05$). Accordingly and using the questionnaire piloting results, the teacher questionnaire validity coefficient was computed. The SPSS package Version 27.0.1 was the study convenience choice for computation. Thus, the validation process was as follows:

The first item in the first section of the teacher questionnaire, for a bivariate hypothesis, the Pearson correlation coefficient "r" marked a value of r = 0.031 and a significance level of Sig = 0.47, which is statistically insignificant (0.47>0.05) . With the sample sized at n = 07 and the study one tailed hypothesis the degree of freedom (Df = n-1)

is at Df = 07-1= 06.  According to the critical value for Pearson correlation coefficient table (see Appendix 14) at Df = 06 degree of freedom, the critical value is at 0.621. Comparing both values of the Pearson correlation coefficient and the critical value **0.031 < 0.621**, the Pearson Correlation coefficient "r" is lesser, thus, item 01 is adequately **invalid**.

Following the same correlation pattern, summary tables are given involving all the questionnaire items. To avoid the counter productiveness of one long table, each section is detailed in a separate table in a total of four (04) (see Tables 01, 02, 03 & 04). Because the SPSS package details multiple choice and scaler items into a number of variables instead of one, the item validity is presented on variable grounds. However, since it is a case of a novice researcher, with no prior commentary experience, only descriptive and no informative commentary is to be provided. Thus, no presumed explanation as to why items are valid or invalid is to be supplied.

Table 1

*Validity Measurement Summary Table Teacher Questionnaire: Section 01*

| Item | Df | p-value | Sig. | r | c-value | r/c-value | Validity |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Section 01: Personal information | | | | | | | |
| Item 01 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.45 | 0.059 | 0.621 | 0.059<0.621 | Invalid |
| Item 02 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0.765>0.621 | Valid |
| Item 03 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.00 | 0.891 | 0.621 | 0.891>0.621 | Valid |
| Item 04 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.06 | 0.622 | 0.621 | 0.622>0.621 | Valid |
| Item 05 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.31 | 0.220 | 0.621 | 0.220<0.621 | Invalid |

*Note.* Df = Degree of freedom. p-value = Probability value. r = Pearson correlation coefficient. c-value = Critical value. p≤ 0.05. Sig. = Significance level.

Table 2

*Validity Measurement Summary Table Teacher Questionnaire: Section 02*

| Item | Df | p-value | Sig. | r | c-value | r/c-value | Validity |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Section 02: Syllabus satisfaction | | | | | | | |
| Item 01 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.12 | 0.511 | 0.621 | 0.511<0.621 | Invalid |
| Item 02 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0.765>0.621 | Valid |
| Item 03 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.28 | 0.267 | 0.621 | 0.267<0.621 | Invalid |
| Item 04 | | | | | | | |
| V1 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.12 | 0.495 | 0.621 | 0.495<0.621 | Invalid |
| V2 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.752 | 0.621 | 0.752>0.621 | Valid |
| V3 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.06 | 0.622 | 0.621 | 0.622>0.621 | Valid |
| Item 05 | | | | | | | |
| V1 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.25 | 0.302 | 0.621 | 0.302<0.621 | Invalid |
| V2 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.06 | 0.622 | 0.621 | 0.622>0.621 | Valid |
| V3 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.27 | 0.275 | 0.621 | 0.275<0.621 | Invalid |

*Note.* Df = Degree of freedom. p-value = Probability value. r = Pearson correlation coefficient. c-value = Critical value. p≤ 0.05. Sig. = Significance level.

Table 3

*Validity Measurement Summary Table Teacher Questionnaire: Section 03*

| Item | Df | p-value | Sig. | r | c-value | r/c-value | Validity |
|------|-----|---------|------|-----|---------|-----------|----------|
| Section 03: Writing difficulties | | | | | | | |
| Item 01 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.39 | 0.126 | 0.621 | 0.126<0.621 | Invalid |
| Item 02 | | | | | | | |
| V1 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0.765>0.621 | Valid |
| V2 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0.765>0.621 | Valid |
| V3 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.46 | 0.039 | 0.621 | 0.039<0.621 | Invalid |
| V4 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0.765>0.621 | Valid |
| V5 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.46 | 0.039 | 0.621 | 0.036<0.621 | Invalid |
| V6 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0.765>0.621 | Valid |
| Item 03 | | | | | | | |
| V1 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0.765>0.621 | Valid |
| V2 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.38 | 0.143 | 0.621 | 0.143<0.621 | Invalid |
| V3 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0.765>0.621 | Valid |
| V4 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.39 | 0.131 | 0.621 | 0.131<0.621 | Invalid |
| Item 04 | | | | | | | |
| V1 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.45 | 0.052 | 0.621 | 0.052<0.621 | Invalid |
| V2 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.45 | 0.052 | 0.621 | 0.052<0.621 | Invalid |
| V3 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0.765>0.621 | Valid |
| V4 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.45 | 0.052 | 0.621 | 0.052<0.621 | Invalid |
| V5 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0.765>0.621 | Valid |
| V6 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0.765>0.621 | Valid |
| Item 05 | | | | | | | |
| V1 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.13 | 0.482 | 0.621 | 0.482<0.621 | Invalid |
| V2 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.39 | 0.131 | 0.621 | 0.131<0.621 | Invalid |
| V3 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0765>0.621 | Valid |
| V4 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.13 | 0.482 | 0.621 | 0.482<0.621 | Invalid |
| V5 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.01 | 0.833 | 0.621 | 0.833>0.621 | Valid |
| V6 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.45 | 0.052 | 0.621 | 0.052<0.621 | Invalid |
| V7 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.46 | 0.039 | 0.621 | 0.039<0.621 | Invalid |
| V8 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.46 | 0.039 | 0.621 | 0.039<0.621 | Invalid |
| V9 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.01 | 0.833 | 0.621 | 0.833>0.621 | Valid |
| V10 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.03 | 0.724 | 0.621 | 0.724>0.621 | Valid |
| V11 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.01 | 0.833 | 0.621 | 0.833>0.621 | Valid |
| V12 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.03 | 0.724 | 0.621 | 0.724>0.621 | Valid |
| V13 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.03 | 0.724 | 0.621 | 0.724>0.621 | Valid |

*Note.* Df = Degree of freedom. p-value = Probability value. r = Pearson correlation coefficient. c-value = Critical value. p≤ 0.05. Sig. = Significance level.

Table 4

*Validity Measurement Summary Table Teacher Questionnaire: Section 04*

| Item | Df | p-value | Sig. | r | c-value | r/c-value | Validity |
|------|-----|---------|------|------|---------|-----------|----------|
| Section 04: First Language transfer | | | | | | | |
| Item 01 | | | | | | | |
| V1 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.11 | 0.532 | 0.621 | 0.532<0.621 | Invalid |
| V2 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.03 | 0.713 | 0.621 | 0.713>0.621 | Valid |
| V3 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0.765>0.621 | Valid |
| V4 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.23 | 0.324 | 0.621 | 0.324<0.621 | Invalid |
| Item 02 | | | | | | | |
| V1 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0.765>0.621 | Valid |
| V2 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.04 | 0.687 | 0.621 | 0.687>0.621 | Valid |
| V3 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.37 | 0.147 | 0.621 | 0.147<0.621 | Invalid |
| V4 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.04 | 0.687 | 0.621 | 0.687>0.621 | Valid |
| Item 03 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.45 | 0.052 | 0.621 | 0.052<0.621 | Invalid |
| Tem 04 | | | | | | | |
| V1 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0.765>0.621 | Valid |
| V2 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.46 | 0.039 | 0.621 | 0.039<0.621 | Invalid |
| V3 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.765 | 0.621 | 0.765>0.621 | Valid |
| Item 06 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.48 | 0.018 | 0.621 | 0.018<0.621 | Invalid |
| Item 07 | 06 | 0.05 | 0.48 | 0.018 | 0.621 | 0.018<0.621 | Invalid |

*Note.* Df = Degree of freedom. p-value = Probability value. r = Pearson correlation coefficient. c-value = Critical value. p≤ 0.05. Sig. = Significance level.

Tables 01, 02, 03, and 04 provide summary of teacher questionnaire validity testing. As can be seen, out of the fifty eight (58) variables that undergone the validity testing only thirty (30) tested as valid, with a percentage of 51.72%. Hence, with more than half valid variables, it might be safe to accept the assumption of teacher questionnaire being relatively valid.

***II.6.2.2. Teacher questionnaire reliability with Cronbach alpha coefficient.*** Questionnaire internal consistency reliability is homogeneity and correlation of the multi-item scales. Statistically, questionnaire reliability can be evaluated by calculating the Cronbach Alpha coefficient. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient is a number in the range of 0 to +1 that should register at least 0.60 to 0.70 or higher, even in the smallest scales of only few items, otherwise the questionnaire items must be revised for either the scale including a short number of items or the items share very few similarities (Dőrnyei, 2003, pp. 110-112).

On that grounds and using the questionnaire piloting results, the teacher questionnaire reliability was computed.

Table 5

*Reliability Measurement: Cronbach Alpha Coefficient Teacher Questionnaire*

| Number of variables | Cronbach Alpha Coefficient |
| --- | --- |
| 58 | 0.835 |

Table 05 illustrates the teacher questionnaire reliability testing. As illustrated, the teacher questionnaire Cronbach Alpha coefficient marks an alpha value of α=0.835 for a total of fifty eight (58) variables. The value is higher than the minimum (Min α= 0.60) that guarantees reliability. Thus, the value indicates high reliability of the questionnaire and can be regarded as internally consistent.

***II.6.2.3. Student questionnaire validity with Pearson correlation coefficient.*** The validation process was as follows:

In the first item of the student questionnaire, for a bivariate hypothesis, the Pearson correlation coefficient "r" marked a value of r = 0.176 and a significance level of Sig = 0.21, which is statistically insignificant (0.21>0.05) . With the sample sized at n = 22 and the study one tailed hypothesis the degree of freedom (Df = n-1) is at Df = 22-1= 21.  According to the critical value for Pearson correlation coefficient table (see Appendix 10) at Df = 21 degree of freedom, the critical value is at 0.351. Comparing both values of the Pearson correlation coefficient and the critical value **0.176 < 0.351**, the Pearson Correlation coefficient "r" is lesser, thus, item 01 is adequately **invalid**.

Same as teachers questionnaire, the correlation summary is presented in section based tables in a total of four (see Tables 06, 07, 08, and 09).

Table 6

*Validity Measurement Summary Table Student Questionnaire: Section 01*

| Item | Df | p-value | Sig. | r | c-value | r/c-value | Validity |
|------|----|---------|------|---|---------|-----------|----------|
| Section 01: Personal information | | | | | | | |
| Item 01 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.21 | 0.176 | 0.351 | 0.176<0.351 | Invalid |
| Item 02 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.28 | 0.413 | 0.351 | 0.313<0.351 | Invalid |
| Item 03 | 21 | 0.05 | 021 | 0176 | 0.351 | 0.176<0.351 | Invalid |
| Item 04 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.48 | 0.009 | 0.351 | 0.009<0.351 | Invalid |
| Item 05 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.21 | 0.176 | 0.351 | 0.176<0.351 | Invalid |

*Note.* Df = Degree of freedom. p-value = Probability value. r = Pearson correlation coefficient.
c-value = Critical value. p≤ 0.05. Sig. = Significance level.

Table 7

*Validity Measurement Summary Table Student Questionnaire: Section 02*

| Item | Df | p-value | Sig. | r | c-value | r/c-value | Validity |
|------|----|---------|------|---|---------|-----------|----------|
| Section 02: Writing difficulties | | | | | | | |
| Item 01 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.38 | 0.100 | 0.351 | 0.100<0.351 | Invalid |
| Item 02 | | | | | | | |
| V1 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.21 | 0.176 | 0.351 | 0176<0.351 | Invalid |
| V2 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.35 | 0.87 | 0.351 | 0.87<0.351 | Invalid |
| V3 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.27 | 0.136 | 0.351 | 0.136<0.351 | Invalid |
| Item 03 | | | | | | | |
| V1 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.11 | 0.263 | 0.351 | 0.263<0.351 | Invalid |
| V2 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.06 | 0.529 | 0.351 | 0.529>0.351 | Valid |
| Q3 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.13 | 0.251 | 0.351 | 0.251<0.351 | Invalid |
| V3 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.18 | 0.451 | 0.351 | 0.451>0.351 | Valid |
| Item 04 | | | | | | | |
| V1 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.30 | 0.114 | 0.351 | 0.114<0.351 | Invalid |
| V2 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.33 | 0.100 | 0.351 | 0.100<0.351 | Invalid |
| V3 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.37 | 0.74 | 0.351 | 0.74<0.351 | Invalid |
| V4 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.77 | 0.314 | 0.351 | 0.314<0.351 | Invalid |
| Item 05 | | | | | | | |
| V1 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.10 | 0.494 | 0.351 | 0.494>0.351 | Valid |
| V2 | 21 | 0.05 | <0.01 | 0.767 | 0.351 | 0.767>0.351 | Valid |
| V3 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.13 | 0.472 | 0.351 | 0.472>0.351 | Invalid |
| V4 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.38 | 0.69 | 0.351 | 0.69<0.351 | Invalid |
| V5 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.01 | 0.616 | 0.351 | 0.616>0.351 | Valid |
| V6 | 21 | 0.05 | <0.001 | 0.687 | 0.351 | 0687>0.351 | Valid |
| V7 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.30 | 0.409 | 0.351 | 0.409>0.351 | Valid |
| V8 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.600 | 0.351 | 0.600>0.351 | Valid |
| V9 | 21 | 0.05 | <0.001 | 0.687 | 0.351 | 0.687>0.351 | Valid |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| V10 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.360 | 0.351 | 0.360>0.351 | Valid |
| V11 | 21 | 0.05 | <0.001 | 0.628 | 0.351 | 0.628>0.351 | Valid |
| V12 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.595 | 0.351 | 0.595>0.351 | Valid |

*Note.* Df = Degree of freedom. p-value = Probability value. r = Pearson correlation coefficient.
c-value = Critical value. P≤ 0.05. Sig. = Significance level

Table 8

*Validity Measurement Summary Table Student Questionnaire: Section 03*

| Item | Df | p-value | Sig. | r | c-value | r/c-value | Validity |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Section 03: Conjunction identification | | | | | | | |
| Item01 | | | | | | | |
| V1 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.19 | 0.196 | 0.351 | 0.196<0.351 | Invalid |
| V2 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.17 | 0.213 | 0.351 | 0.213<0.351 | Invalid |
| V3 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.21 | 0.176 | 0.351 | 0.176<0.351 | Invalid |
| V4 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.16 | 0.215 | 0.351 | 0.215<0.351 | Invalid |
| V5 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.25 | 0.147 | 0.351 | 0.147<0.351 | Invalid |
| V6 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.27 | 0.136 | 0.351 | 0.136<0.351 | Invalid |
| V7 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.25 | 0.422 | 0.351 | 0.422>0.351 | Valid |
| V8 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.33 | 0.96 | 0.351 | 096<0.351 | Invalid |
| V9 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.08 | 0.509 | 0.351 | 0.509>0.351 | Valid |
| V10 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.47 | 0.014 | 0.351 | 0.014<0.351 | Invalid |
| V11 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.12 | 0.255 | 0.351 | 0.255<0.351 | Invalid |
| V12 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.07 | 0.321 | 0.351 | 0.321<0.351 | Invalid |
| V13 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.355 | 0.351 | 0.355>0.351 | Valid |
| V14 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.01 | 0.472 | 0.351 | 0.472>0.351 | Valid |
| Item 02 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.48 | 0.007 | 0.351 | 0.07<0.351 | Invalid |
| Item 03 | | | | | | | |
| V1 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.352 | 0.351 | 0..352>0.351 | Valid |
| V2 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.00 | 0.509 | 0.351 | 0.509>0.351 | Valid |
| V3 | 21 | 0.05 | <0.001 | 0.651 | 0.351 | 0.651>0.351 | Valid |
| V4 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.01 | 0.462 | 0.351 | 0.462>0.351 | Valid |
| V5 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.04 | 0.511 | 0.351 | 0.511>0.351 | Valid |
| V6 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.09 | 0.287 | 0.351 | 0.287<0.351 | Invalid |
| V7 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.04 | 0.379 | 0.351 | 0..379>0.351 | Valid |
| V8 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.00 | 0.509 | 0.351 | 0.509>0.351 | Valid |
| V9 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.24 | 0.154 | 0.351 | 0.154<0.351 | Invalid |
| V10 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.04 | 0.557 | 0.351 | 0.557>0.351 | Valid |
| V11 | 21 | 0.05 | <0.001 | 0.722 | 0.351 | 0.722>0.351 | Valid |
| V12 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.01 | 0.466 | 0.351 | 0.466>0.351 | Valid |
| V13 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.344 | 0.351 | 0.344<0.351 | Invalid |
| V14 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.14 | 0.234 | 0.351 | 0.234<0.351 | Invalid |
| Item 01 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.15 | 0.227 | 0.351 | 0.227<0.351 | Invalid |

*Note.* Df = Degree of freedom. p-value = Probability value. r = Pearson correlation coefficient.
c-value = Critical value. p< 0.05.  Sig. = Significance level

Table 9

*Validity Measurement Summary Table Student Questionnaire: Section 04*

| Item | Df | p-value | Sig. | r | c-value | r/c-value | Validity |
|------|-----|---------|------|------|---------|-----------|----------|
| Section 04: Clause identification | | | | | | | |
| Item 01 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.00 | 0.518 | 0.351 | 0.518>0.351 | Valid |
| Item 02 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.17 | 0.206 | 0.351 | 0.206<0.351 | Invalid |
| Item 03 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.24 | 0.156 | 0.351 | 0.156<0.351 | Invalid |
| Item 04 | 21 | 0.05 | 0.16 | 0.219 | 0.351 | 0.219<0.351 | Invalid |

*Note.* Df = Degree of freedom. p-value = Probability value. r = Pearson correlation coefficient. c-value = Critical value. $p < 0.05$. Sig. = Significance level

Tables 06, 07, 08, and 09 summarize the validity testing of the student questionnaire. As detailed in the tables, out of the sixty three (63) variables that undergone the validity testing only twenty seven (27) tested as valid, with a percentage of 42.86%. Hence, with close to half valid variables, student questionnaire may be safely assumed as relatively valid.

**II.6.2.4. Student questionnaire reliability with Cronbach alpha coefficient.** Computation of student questionnaire reliability coefficient followed the same procedure as the teacher questionnaire. The results were as follows:

Table 10

*Reliability Measurement: Cronbach Alpha Coefficient Student Questionnaire*

| Number of variables | Cronbach Alpha Coefficient |
|---------------------|----------------------------|
| 63 | 0.848 |

Table 10 shows the reliability testing of the student questionnaire. As can be seen, the student questionnaire Cronbach Alpha coefficient marks an alpha value of $\alpha=0.848$ for a total of sixty three (63) variables. The value is higher than the minimum (Min $\alpha= 0.60$) that guarantees reliability. Hence, the value indicates elevated reliability of the questionnaire and can be considered as internally consistent.

## Conclusion

The antecedent chapter detailed on the various parts of the fostered methodological work that could best serve the research objectives. The methodology section was presentative but mostly descriptive with provision of the rationale behind each choice. Progressively, started from the fundamental paradigmatic assumptions, moving toward the approaching methods, and design choice. Followed by population, sample, and sampling strategy. Then, proceeded to the practical instrumental tools of questionnaire and the different tests, implementations procedures of questionnaire piloting, arriving at the instrument evaluation through validity and reliability testing. The section also was the stepping stone toward the actual data analysis and interpretation that the next section will provide.

# Chapter Three:

# DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION & CONCLUSIONS

# Chapter III: Data Analysis, Interpretation, and Conclusions

## Introduction

After the description of the fostered research methodology in the former chapter, this forthcoming chapter elaborates on the data obtained from the different tools, which involved a teacher questionnaire, student questionnaire, a pretest, and a post-test. The elaboration is demonstrated in the analysis, interpretation, and discussion. The analysis and interpretation were realized through descriptive and inferential statistics while the discussion is done in correlation with the research hypotheses and questions. The chapter concluded by presenting a comprehensive study precis, the encountered limitations, future research suggestions, and finally educational recommendations.

## III.1 Data Analysis and Interpretation

Since the research tools yielded both numerical and categorical data, the analysis and interpretation of the data were performed both qualitatively and quantitatively through a variety of methods. The descriptive interpretations of data are as follows:

**III.1.1. Descriptive analysis**. Descriptive statistics is the summative, interpretive stage of data analysis that was delivered by the different research tools. More importantly, it serves as a standing ground for the inferential stage of analysis, which is the end goal of any experimental research.

***III.1.1.1. Teacher questionnaire.*** The questionnaire was processed by section following an adopted standard of results presentation, description, interpretation, limitations, and finally recommendations, with limited sequencing and presence flexibility (Swales & Feak, 2012, p. 144). Depending on their perceived correlation and for interpretive purposes, the items were treated either separately or jointly. Thus, the questionnaire analysis was as such:

*III.1.1.1.1 Personal information section.* The first section of five (05) items examined teachers' teaching experience in general. In addition to that is the examination of their combined teaching experience that comprised the teaching of both written expression and academic writing, which is the study dependent variable.

Table 11 Teacher profile: Personal Information Section

*Teacher profile: Personal Information Section*

| Teacher career timeframe | N | % | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 01-05 years | 01 | 11 | | | |
| 06-10 years | 02 | 22 | | | |
| 11-15 years | 02 | 22 | | | |
| Over 15 years | 04 | 45 | | | |
| Σ | 09 | 100 | | | |
| Teacher career timeframe with reference to written expression | N | % | Teacher career timeframe with reference to academic writing | N | % |
| 00 years | 00 | 00 | 00 years | 01 | 11 |
| 01-05 years | 04 | 44 | 01-05 years | 06 | 67 |
| 06-10 years | 03 | 33 | 06-10 years | 04 | 22 |
| 11-15 years | 01 | 11 | 11-15 years | 00 | 00 |
| Over 15 years | 01 | 11 | Over 15 years | 00 | 00 |
| Σ | 09 | 100 | Σ | 09 | 100 |

*Note.* N = Respondent number. % = Percentage. Σ = Sum.

The descriptive in table 11 summarizes teachers' teaching experience as a whole and the teaching of written expression and academic writing as parts of the whole. As can be seen, almost half the sample have been teaching for over fifteen years (45%), from which all have already taught written expression at least for one year (44%). However, all with the exception one teacher have taught the academic writing course at least for one year (67%). Thus, the targeted teacher sample demonstrates a convergent and diversified teaching experience, which would likely provide rich and in depth data of the phenomenon in question.

*III.1.1.1.2. Syllabus satisfaction section.* In a total of five (05) items, the second section reviewed teachers' satisfaction with the syllabus at the writing level they are required to teach.

Items one (01) and two (02) of the second section concerned the level of writing the teacher participants are required to teach and which among the three levels they perceive to be the most demanding.

Teaching & Demanding Level

| | Teaching Level | Demanding Level |
|---|---|---|
| Essay | 88.90% | 77.80% |
| Paragraph level | 33.30% | 55.60% |
| Sentence level | 33.30% | 22.20% |
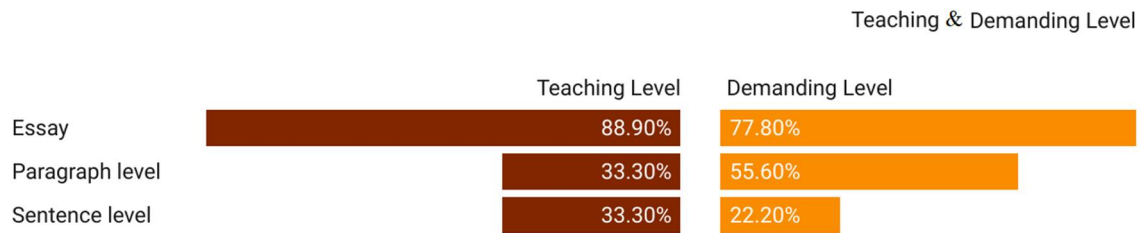
*Figure 6.* Teachers' teaching and perceived demanding level

Precis of writing teachers' teaching level and perceived demanding level are given in figure 06. As revealed by the figure, most teachers are required to teach the essay (88.90%) that means they all already dealt with sentence level teaching. At the same time, essay is also perceived as the most demanding to teach by the majority (77.80%). Then, immediately followed by the paragraph level that is considered the core unit in any composition [Teacher 02], and ranking last is the sentence level (22.20%).

While essay teaching being the most demanding is a fact coming from experts in the matter, another contrasting fact might be worthwhile mentioning. The fact that a student who could not craft a coherent and cohesive complex sentence is a student who most probably cannot craft a coherent and cohesive paragraph or essay. Alternatively, a student who could not craft a comprehensible complex sentence just by selecting, incorporating, and punctuating the right subordinator is; therefor, a student who most probably cannot select, incorporate, nor punctuate the right transitional device to connect ideas and craft an intelligible paragraph or essay. Accordingly, students' avoidance of the complex and the more compound, complex sentences, which is established in student questionnaire (Item 03, section 02), is a reality to be attended to if their paragraph or essay writing is to be anyway improved since writing like any other language skill is cumulative by nature.

The second section's last three (01, 02, and 03) items were related to teachers' satisfaction with and addition frequency to the provided writing syllabus.

Syllabus Satisfaction & Addition Frequency

|  | Syllabus Satisfaction | Syllabus Addition Frequency |  |
|---|---|---|---|
| Very Satisfied | 0.00% | 22.20% | Often |
| Satisfied | 22.20% | 44.40% | Frequently |
| Neutral | 33.30% | 33.30% | Occasionally |
| Dissatisfied | 44.40% | 0.00% | Rarely |
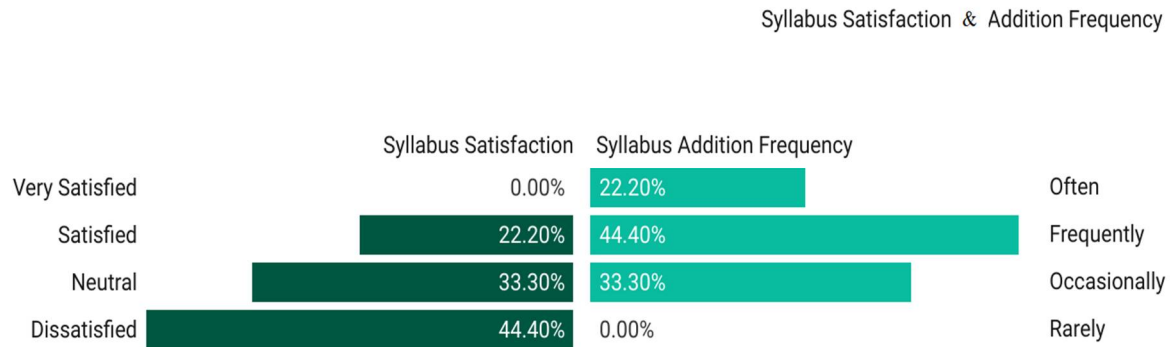
*Figure 7.* Teachers' Satisfaction with the writing syllabus and addition frequently

Figure 07 reveals teachers' satisfaction degree and adding frequency to the provided writing syllabus. As it is reflected, the majority of teachers demonstrate a dissatisfaction with the provided syllabus (44.40%) and frequent elements adding (44.40%). From the one hand, the dissatisfaction was summarized in the time limitations, repeated elements, and tutorial sessions' large size classes [Teacher 03]. From the other hand, the adding involved level prerequisites (grammar, syntax, and punctuation) yet have not been priorly dealt with or not well grasped. In addition to that is the rhetorical style related elements (formality, clarity, argumentation, and persuasion) [Teacher 02]. Results, hence, mirror an overall dissatisfied teaching staff with a syllabus that does not reflect nor address the actual needs of students, which necessitates different element addition according to student's present and pressing needs.

*II.1.1.1.3. Writing difficulties section.* The section was evaluative and looked at teachers' perceptions of students' writing level and the kind of difficulties they struggle with, all in a total of five (05) items.

First item (01) to this section was about teachers' rating of students' writing performance.
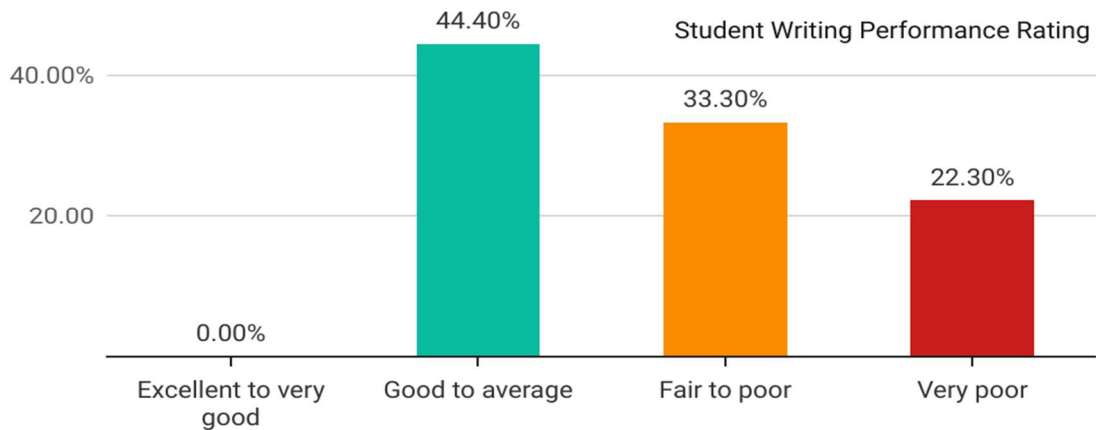
*Figure 8.* Teachers' rating of student writing performance

Figure 08 exemplifies teachers' rating of students writing performance. As can be denoted with equal difference, the majority consider students' performance to be as good to average (44.40%) at one extreme and very poor (22.30%) at the other extreme. None of the respondents considered the level excellent to very good, which is an interesting fact that raises the Why question? The students' overall limited and dissatisfactory level might also be connected to the same explanation provided by teachers in the previous item of syllabus dissatisfaction, especially that related to missing linguistic prerequisites. A fact that could promote the claim that a poorly constructed syllabus might lead or at least contribute to poor student writing performance.

The second item (02) of the section dealt with teachers reporting on students' types of encountered writing difficulties.
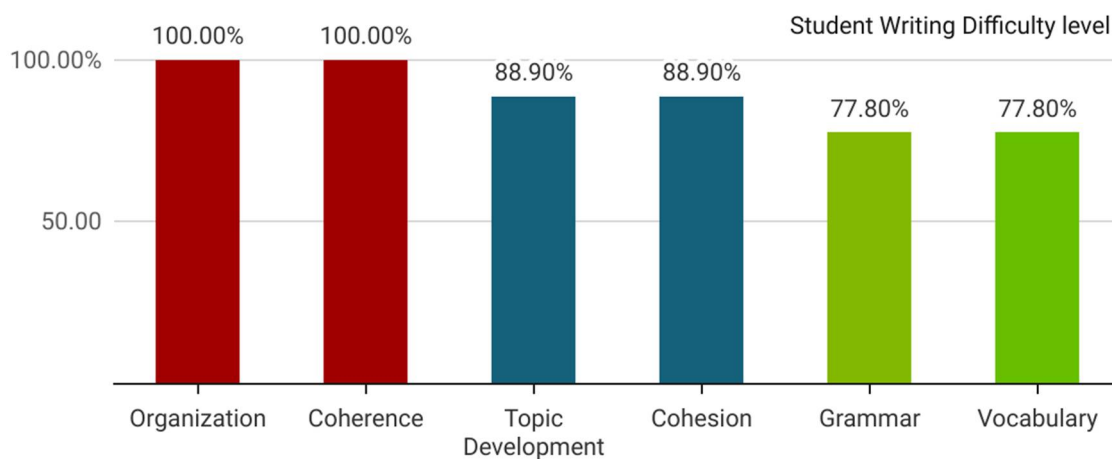


*Figure 9.* Teachers' reported student writing difficulty levels

The most common problematic areas in students' writing are shown in figure 09. As shown in the figure, the most problematic areas are organization and coherence (100%) that are immediately followed by topic development and cohesion (88.90%). Lastly, are grammar and vocabulary (77.80%). Such insights might explain to a certain degree the good to average to very poor rating of students' writing performance. Teachers commented on the conceivable causes of this rather problematic state of students' writing by student unawareness of the different stages involved in the writing process (planning, revision, and editing) [Teacher 03]. However, in linearity with the study interest and scope, focus will be more on the two elements of cohesion and coherence since both share conjunctions as a subcomponent. Again, these results validate students' avoidance of the complex and more compound sentence forms since they struggle in both areas of cohesion and coherence.

Item three (03) of the writing difficulties section reported on students' common mechanical difficulties.
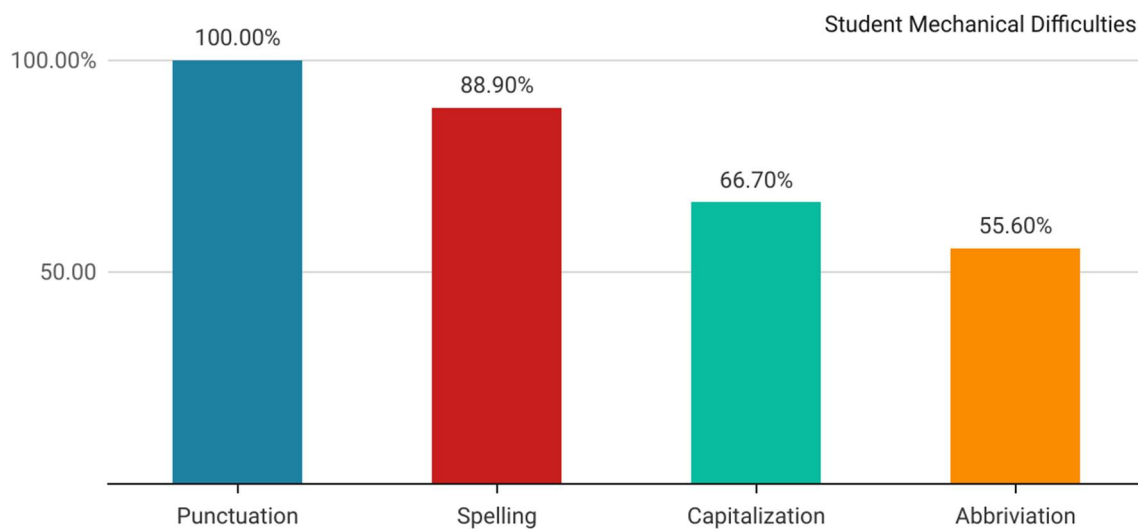


*Figure 10.* Teachers' reported student mechanical difficulties

Figure 10 represents teachers' reporting of students' mechanical difficulties. As illustrated by the figure, punctuation is at the peak of the difficulty mountain (100%) followed by spelling (88.90%), capitalization (66.70%), and abbreviation at the mountain foot (55.60%). Teachers in their totality agree that students' punctuation is the most problematic mechanic. Such fact contributes to a certain extent in students' inability to

construct more elaborative sentence forms and falling in the trap of sentence error when attempted (run-on sentences).

The last two items (04 & 05) of this section demonstrated students' detailed difficulties in relation to both areas of coherence and cohesion.

Table 12 Student Common Encountered Coherence and Cohesion Difficulties

*Student Common Encountered Coherence and Cohesion Difficulties*

| Students' most common faced cohesion difficulties | N | % | Students' most common faced coherence difficulties | N | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Grammatical cohesion | | | Sentence coherence | | |
| Conjunction | 07 | 77.80 | Conjunctions | 07 | 77.80 |
| Ellipsis | 07 | 77.80 | Transitional devices (Words) | 08 | 88.90 |
| Reference | 07 | 77.80 | Word repetition (Reiteration | 07 | 77.80 |
| Substitution | 09 | 100.00 | | | |

*Note.* N = Respondent number. % = Percentage.

Table 12 details on the basic difficulty subareas in both areas of coherence and cohesion. Relevantly to the study interests, the table details only on the two subareas of sentence coherence and grammatical cohesion that contain conjunctions as a subcomponents. As can be deduced, the conjunctions are considered particularly problematic within the two areas with 77.80% rate. The results explains once again the students' lenience toward the sentence simplest of forms. Because both areas of grammatical cohesion and sentence coherence are at the sentence level, the reported difficulties are also considered as sentence level difficulties. That being the fact and sentence being the basis in a progressive process to essay writing, it is inevitable to have difficulties at both levels paragraph and essay. Therefore, any given remedial work at any given writing level might consider starting at the sentence level and progressively work its way to reach the essay in order to have methodical and solid foundations.

*III.1.1.1.4. First language transfer section.* In a total of seven (07) items, this section was solicitous of teachers' attitudes and their overall familiarity with the existing L1/EFL writing styles differences. In addition to their specific awareness of coordination favoring over subordination as an L1 transfer.

The first two items (01 & 02) examined students' common syntactical choices and teachers' recommended sentence types.
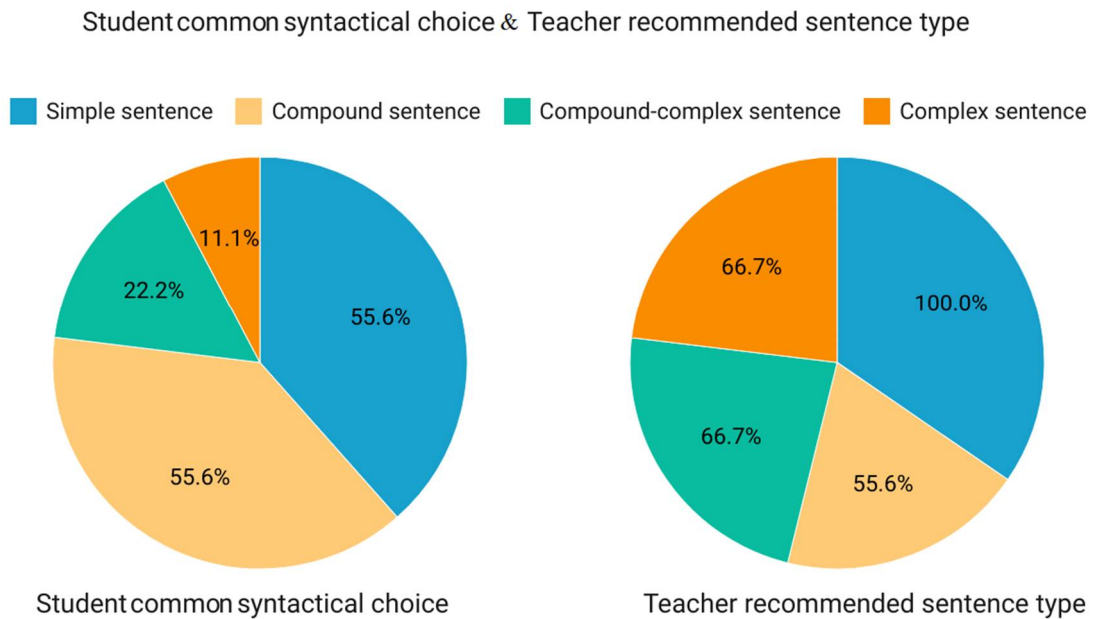
*Figure 11.* Student common syntactical choice and teacher recommended sentence type

Figure 11 displays students' common syntactical choice as well as teachers' recommended sentence types. As can be seen, both the simple and compound sentences are raking first among students' common syntactical choices (55.60%). Same observation with teachers' unanimous first recommendation of the simple sentence (100%) followed by the complex (66.70%), which is the complete opposite to students' syntactical choices where it ranks at the very last (11.10%). According to teachers, this is because of the related syntactical difficulties the students face, which is established in the previously discussed items of the previous section (03, 04 &05). However, in their given explanations, none of the teachers seem to be aware that, next to the students' noticeable syntactical weakness their favoring of the simple and compound, is an L1 transfer (Dickins, 2017; Elachachi, 2015), which makes this also a resistance issue and an even deeper one to treat.

Item three (03) sought teachers' insights on the students' most common connection practice at the sentence level. Moreover, it sought insights on this practice's related sentence errors.

Table 13 Student Common Sentence Level Connection Practice and Mechanical Error

*Student Common Sentence Level Connection Practice and Mechanical Error*

| Students most common sentence level connection practice | N | % | Student most common mechanical sentence error | N | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Coordination | 08 | 88.90 | Comma splice (Run-on sentence) | 09 | 100.00 |
| Subordination | 01 | 11.10 | Fused sentence (Run-on-sentence) | 09 | 100.00 |
| | | | Fragment | 09 | 100.00 |

*Note.* N = Respondent number. % = Percentage. ∑ = Sum.

Table 13 elaborate on students' common connection practice at the sentence level and the related sentence errors. As appears in the table, the student's tendency is toward coordination (88.90%) over subordination (11.10%), with a rather significant preference. Among the teacher explanations of students' preference is that most agreed on it being the easiest connection practice to be attempted. Next to that is the student's weakness or complete ignorance of the knowledge related to the subordination practice. Nevertheless, only two teachers [Teacher 07 & 09] were aware that this particular practice is an L1 transfer, which probably necessitates different treatment, better yet, more rigorous treatment if their syntactical style is to be in anyway ameliorated. Another notable result is that all types of sentence errors related to the coordination practice is reported by all the teacher respondents (100%). A fact that draws attention to despite the reality of them favoring coordination as a connection practice they still lack the appropriate manipulation skills.

The last three items of the section (05, 06 & 07) reviewed teachers' familiarity with the existing differences between Arabic and English writing styles. Again, the principal aim is gaging teachers' awareness of the coordination practice favoring as an L1 transfer.

Onset at the cross-linguistic level, a good number of teachers mentioned the difference of syntactical structures. Then at the rhetorical level, another good number adverted the directness, objectivity, and economy of the English writing style in contrast with the indirectness, subjectivity, and wordiness of the Arabic writing style. Nevertheless in the later, none of the teachers showed familiarity signs with the Arabic style coordination preference over English style subordination preference, which is the direct objective of this particular item inclusion.

For this reason, among others, one particular claim, better yet a cautious assumption, could be advance. The accumulation of students' syntactical weaknesses, in addition to their

preference of coordination over subordination and the simple and compound sentence types over the complex and compound-complex is from the one hand. From the other hand, teachers' simple sentence as first recommendation and unawareness of the coordination preference as an L1 transfer, the whole contributed to the students' overall underdeveloped, unauthentic writing style. In other words, at this level where advanced more nativelike writing style is expected, a simplistic and stylistically poor written productions are delivered instead of the expected more stylistically rich and authentic ones.

Table 14 L1/EFL Writing Style Differences Effect on Student Writing

*L1/EFL Writing Style Differences Effect on Student Writing*

| Existence of L1/EFL style differences in students' writing | N | % | L1/EFL style differences are part of students' writing difficulties | N | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Yes | 08 | 88.90 | Yes | 09 | 100.00 |
| No | 01 | 11.10 | No | 09 | 100.00 |
| ∑ | 09 | 100 | ∑ | 09 | 100 |

*Note.* N = Respondent number. % = Percentage. ∑ = Sum.

Table 14 demonstrates teachers' attitudes toward the existence and effect of L1/EFL writing style differences on student writing.  As can be denoted, all teachers with the exception of one agree on the style differences existence in their students' writing, with sentence structures as the most common difference. Furthermore, all with no exception agree that the writing style differences do effect the students' writing creating a considerable number of difficulties. Attributing the effects to the long exposure to writing in the mother tongue and the considerably less exposer to writing in English, which lead them to think Arabic and write English.  A fact that is perceived as unconventional by the native reader and even strange at times.

*III.1.1.2. Student questionnaire.* After treating the data set for missing values, the initial respondents' number was reduced from 34 to 31. Similarly to teacher questionnaire, the results of the filtered set were analyzed and interpreted by section as follows:

*III.1.1.2.1. Personal information section.* The first section of five (05) items concerned learners' learning background and experience. The first two (01 and 02) items focused on students' gender and age while the others three (03, 04, and 05) items focused learners' learning background.

Table 15 Student Profile: Student Gender

*Student Profile: Student Gender*

| Learners' gender | N | % |
|---|---|---|
| Male | 05 | 16.10 |
| Female | 26 | 83.90 |
| ∑ | 31 | 100 |

*Note.* N = Respondent number. % = Percentage. ∑ = Sum.

Table 15 demonstrates the age frequency measures of item 01. As can be seen, from the thirty one (31) members who took the questionnaire, only five (05) were males and twenty six (26) were females with percentages of 16.10% and 83.90%, respectively. The frequencies draw a behavioral picture that raises once again the attendance issue in general and attendance among genders in particular. First is the attendance total, which shows that from a two group sample of seventy seven members (n= 77) only thirty one (31) were present to receive the questionnaire. A number that represents less than half the sample. Then, the female classroom presence that notably dominates the male presence, which is a phenomenon that surged through most university departments, especially after the Covid 19 pandemic. Therefore, with less than half the sample present, the survey return would be limited.

The second, third, fourth, and fifth items (02, 03, 04, and 05) on learners' learning background involved age in correlation with first language and academic achievement.



| Age | Arabic Language | LMD System | Native Tutoring | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 21 | 35.5 | 35.5 | 0 | |
| 22 | 38.7 | 38.7 | 0 | |
| 23 | 16.1 | 16.1 | 0 | |
| others | 9.7 | 9.7 | 0 | |
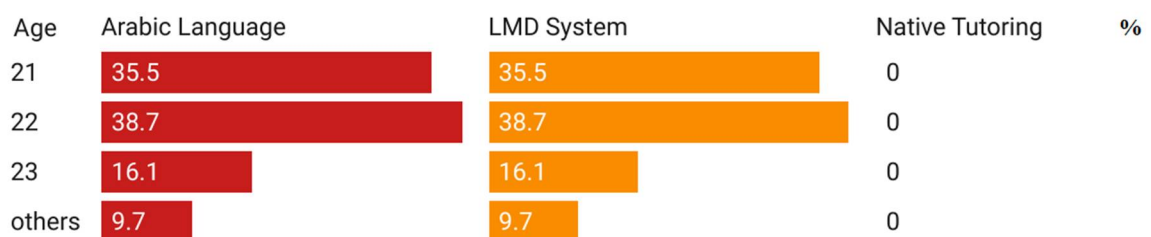
*Figure 12*. First official language, degree type, and native tutoring correlation with student age

Figure 12 presents a summary of students' age, first language, degree type, and exposer to native tutoring. As can be seen, all members share the same first official language, degree type and no tutoring by natives, which would to a certain degree affect the students

writing style. The purposeful combination of age with the three elements of first official language, degree type, and exposer to native tutoring is to demonstrate the homogeneity of the sample in terms educational background despite the differences of age. Because of the shared linguistic and educational background to 100%, the elicited data would be more reliable. In addition to that, this homogeneity adds more reliability to the testing and training proposed by the study.

*III.1.1.2.2. Writing difficulties section.* As the label suggests, the section revolved around students' commonly faced writing difficulties, with a total of five (05) items.

The second section's first two (01 and 02) items regarded students' potential existence of writing difficulties and the existence level.

Table 16 Students' Perceived Writing Difficulties and Difficulty Level

*Students' Perceived Writing Difficulties and Difficulty Level*

| Students' Writing Difficulties | N | % | Sentence level difficulties | N | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Yes | 28 | 90.30 | Yes | 00 | 00.00 |
| No | 03 | 09.70 | No | 31 | 100.00 |
| ∑ | 31 | 100 | ∑ | 31 | 100 |
| Paragraph level difficulties | N | % | Essay difficulties | N | % |
| Yes | 05 | 16.10 | Yes | 23 | 74.20 |
| No | 26 | 83.90 | No | 08 | 25.80 |
| ∑ | 31 | 100 | ∑ | 31 | 100 |

*Note.* N = Respondent number. % = Percentage. ∑ = Sum.

The students' writing difficulties existence and existence level results are shown in table 16. As shown in the table, the majority believe they have writing difficulties (90.30%) and most of whom believe their difficulties to be with the essay (74.20%). Ranking second is the paragraph level (16.10%) while none of the participants believe that their difficulties are sentence level related. The overall observation reveals students' unawareness that a considerable part of their essay and paragraph difficulties is related to them having sentence level difficulties, which was the prime aim of this items' design.

The third (03) item of the second section was a rank order item exploited to gauge students' sentence type preference of use, in addition to possible ranking explanations.

| | Simple Sentence | Compound Sentence | Complex Sentence | Compound-Complex Sentence |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1st Position | 58.10 | 22.60 | 12.90 | 6.40 |
| 2nd Position | 22.60 | 41.90 | 35.50 | 0.00 |
| 3rd Position | 16.10 | 35.50 | 41.90 | 6.50 |
| 4th Position | 3.20 | 0.00 | 9.70 | 87.10 |
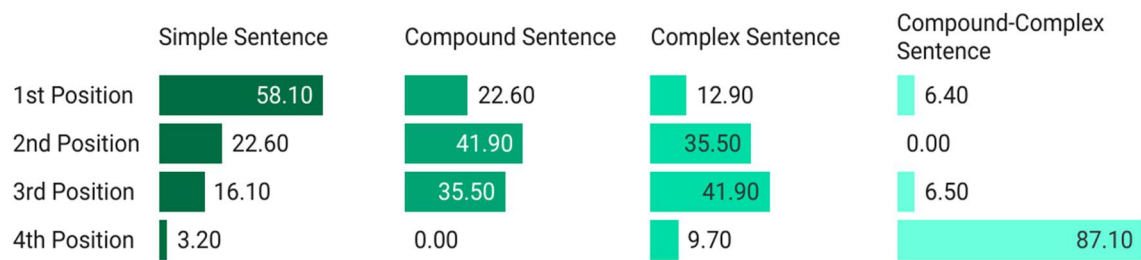
*Figure 13.* Students' sentence type order of use

Figure 13 displays the ranking of students' sentence use preference. What can be observed is students' predilection toward the simple, the compound, the complex, and ranking last is the compound-complex, which confirms teachers' questionnaire observation (item 01, section 04). As far as the provided explanations, where more than half the respondents elaborated on the ranking choices, most respondents favored the simple and compound sentences. Respondents explained their ranking with the overall writing difficulties they face as well as avoiding the grammatical complexities related to the complex and the compound-complex. The previously stated is a reasonable explanation of students' avoidance of the more compound and complex sentence structures and resorting to the simplest of forms. The same is also explanation to the teachers' simple sentence recommendations expressed in item 02 (section 04) in the teacher questionnaire. Nevertheless, the rest demonstrated preference of the complex that adds depth to their writing and serves their detailing purposes.

The students' predilections constitute further evidence of the previous studies on the L1 writing style influence of the EFL writing style (Dickins, 2017; Elachachi, 2015), with Arabic writing style coordination preference over subordination. Additionally, the item gave insights toward answering the study first question of the effects of L1/EFL style differences on M1 students' academic writing at Biskra University.

The fourth (04) item of the second section was a multiple choice item designed to see how aware students are of the types of their sentence level difficulties.

| Sentence Level Difficulties | Yes | No | % |
|---|---|---|---|
| Vocabulary (Word choice) | 58.10 | 41.90 | |
| Idea connection (Transition & junction) | 38.70 | 61.30 | |
| Grammatical structures | 29.00 | 71.00 | |
| Mechanics (Spelling, punctuation & capitalization) | 29.00 | 71.00 | |

*Figure 14.* Students' perceived sentence level difficulties by type

Figure 14 provides summary to the students' perceived sentence level difficulties. As manifested in the figure, the two elements of vocabulary (Word choice) 58.10% and idea connection (Transition and junction) 38.70% seems to be the most challenging. Following are the grammatical structures and mechanics (Spelling, punctuation, and capitalization), both with a percentage of 26.50%, as the least challenging. While student self-evaluation is not the most valid evaluation technic, it was included for a good reason. The same item, with more details (section 03), was included in the teachers' questionnaire to compare and validate the observations. The results validate teachers' observations of students having difficulties with all sentence level elements regardless of which is more observed than the other.

The fifth (05) item was also a multiple choice item developed to examine how familiar students are with the common types of sentence error.

| Sentence Error Types | Yes | % | No |
|---|---|---|---|
| Fused sentence (Run-onsrentence) | 48.40 | | 51.60 |
| Comma splice (Run-on sentence) | 41.90 | | 58.10 |
| Ambiguous reference | 35.50 | | 64.50 |
| Under loaded dentence (Choppy sentence) | 32.30 | | 67.70 |
| Overloaded sentence | 25.80 | | 74.20 |
| Sentence fragment (Incomplete sentence) | 25.80 | | 74.20 |
| Incomplete meaning setence | 22.60 | | 77.40 |
| Misplaced & dagling modifiers | 19.40 | | 80.60 |
| Duplicate subject (Double subject) | 19.40 | | 80.60 |
| Unparalleled structure sentence | 12.90 | | 87.10 |
| Subject-verb agreement | 12.90 | | 87.10 |
| Pronoun-reference agreement | 6.5 | | 93.50 |

*Figure 15.* Students' familiarization with sentence error types

Students' familiarity with sentence error types are exhibited in Figure 15. As can be noted, the two most familiar sentence error types are the fused sentence (48.40%) and comma splice (41.90%), which both are run-on sentence errors. However, at the lowest end of the familiarity list are the two subject-verb agreement (12.90%) and pronoun-reference agreement (06.50%). Despite being the most familiar error types, the two run-on sentence errors still are the most frequently occurring in students' written productions (Teacher questionnaire, Item04, section04). Such fact is evidence of students' familiarity with concepts as terms not as practices, which raises the possibility of questionnaire speculative answering.

*III.1.1.2.3. Conjunction identification section.* The section is included to check student's ability to identify the different types of conjunctions, in four (04) items total.

The third section's first item (01) targeted students' ability to identify the coordinating conjunctions embedded within the different types of subordination conjunctions. Also, testing their ability to enumerate few coordinating conjunctions.
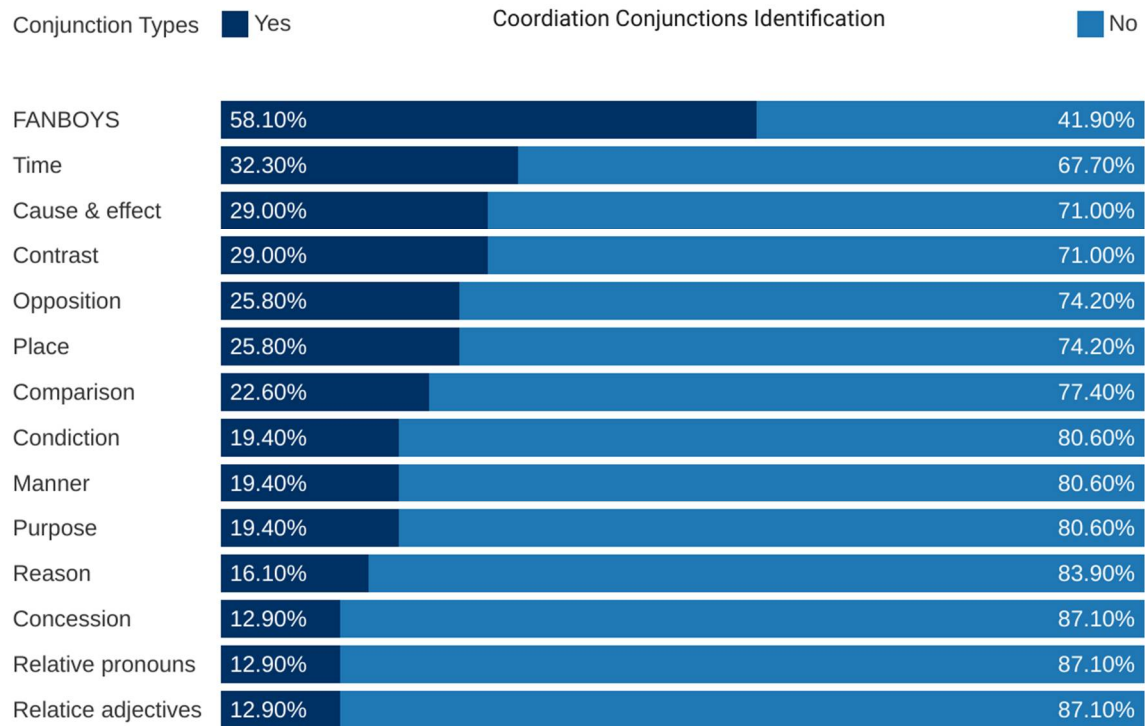
*Figure 16.* Students' coordinating conjunctions identification

Students' ability to identify coordination conjunctions is displayed in Figure 16. As can be observed, more than half (58.10%) were able to identify the coordinating conjunctions that are represented by the "FANBOYS" acronym. Almost half of which were able to enumerate some coordinating conjunctions. Among those, a few confused subordination conjunctions and the other transitional devices (words) for coordinators. On the other hand, figure 16 shows that students included also other conjunction types, which may suggest once again speculative answers. With considerations of questionnaire general unreliability issues, the answers to this item where logical enough to be considered. Hence, the results indicate an overall ability to identify the conjunctions of coordination.

The third section's second item (02) was a scaler item that was included to tally students' coordinating conjunctions frequency of use.
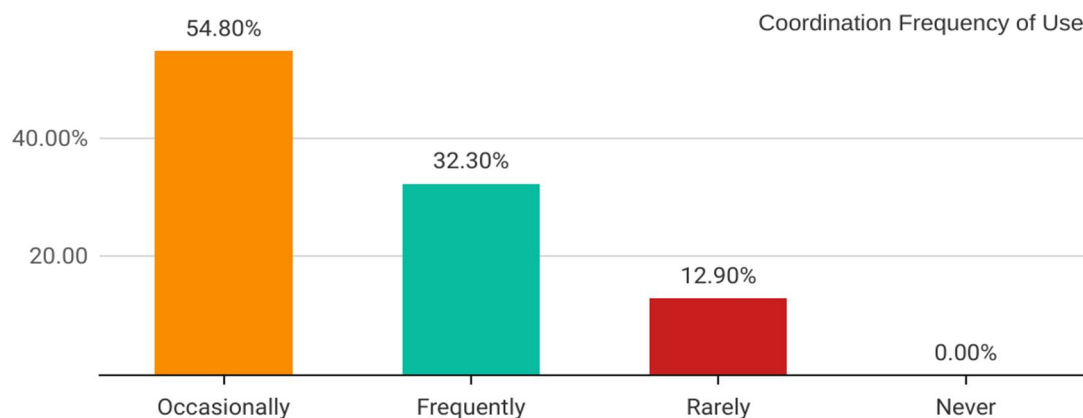
*Figure 17.* Students' coordinating conjunction use frequency

Figure 17 features students' use frequency of coordinators. As it has been indicated by the figure, over half the students' tendency is toward the occasional use of the coordination conjunctions with 54.80%. Then, the frequent use by 32.30% followed by rarely used (12.90%). Since it is clear the frequent use of coordinating conjunctions in students' pretest compositions and compositions in general, the results to this particular items can be regarded as inconclusive. Hence, the questionnaire could have benefited from adding items that are negatively worded to check for answers' consistency (Dőrnyei, 2003, p. 55).

The third section's third item (03) was directed toward students' ability to identify the different types of subordination conjunctions and possibility to enumerate a few.
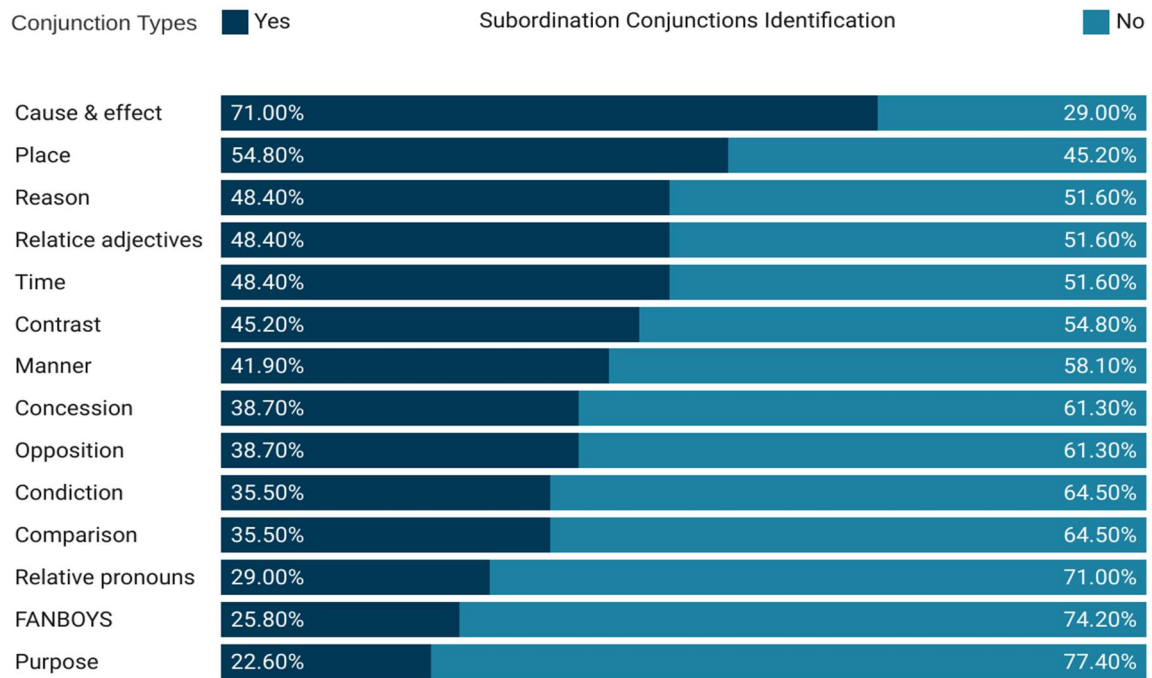
*Figure 18.* Students' subordinating conjunctions identification

Students' ability to identify subordination conjunctions is depicted in Figure 18. As detailed in the figure, all types were ticked without exception, which all are types of subordination conjunctions with the exception of the FANBOYS. A fourth of the sample (25.80%), which is a considerable number, have included the FANBOYS as subordinators. Such fact contradicts with this section's first item results of FANBOYS being coordinators instead of subordinators. Additionally, among the very few who were able to enumerate subordinators, some confused both transitional devices (words) and coordinators for subordinators. With that in mind and the fact that more than half could not enumerate any subordinate conjunctions, the possibility of speculative answers is still highly possible. Once again, the results of this items are not conclusive.

The third section's fourth item (04) was also a scaler item that was integrated to account for students' subordinators' frequency of use.
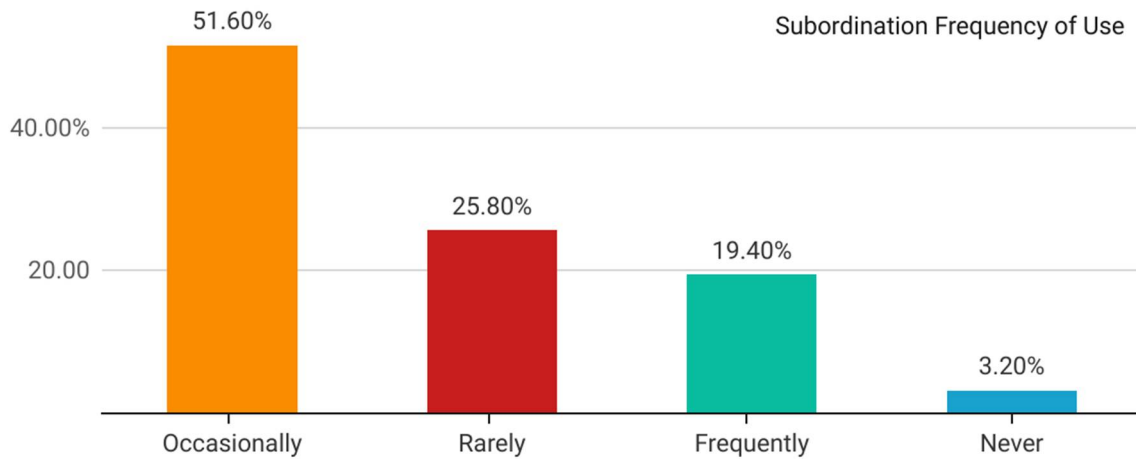
*Figure 19.* Students' subordinators use frequency

Figure 19 gives a summary of students' subordinators use frequency. As revealed by the figure, same as coordination use frequency, over half the students' tend to occasionally use subordinators with 51.60%. The rare use followed by 25.80%, then, the frequent by 19.40, and lastly never used by 3.20%. The provided frequency results reflect to a certain degree the reality of students' subordinators use. A fact that is mirrored in their pretest compositions and other compositions in general. Accordingly, results to this particular item can be deemed satisfactory.

*III.1.1.2.4. Clause identification section.* The fourth and last section in the student questionnaire is incorporated to examine student's ability to identify the different types of clauses, in a total of four (04) items.
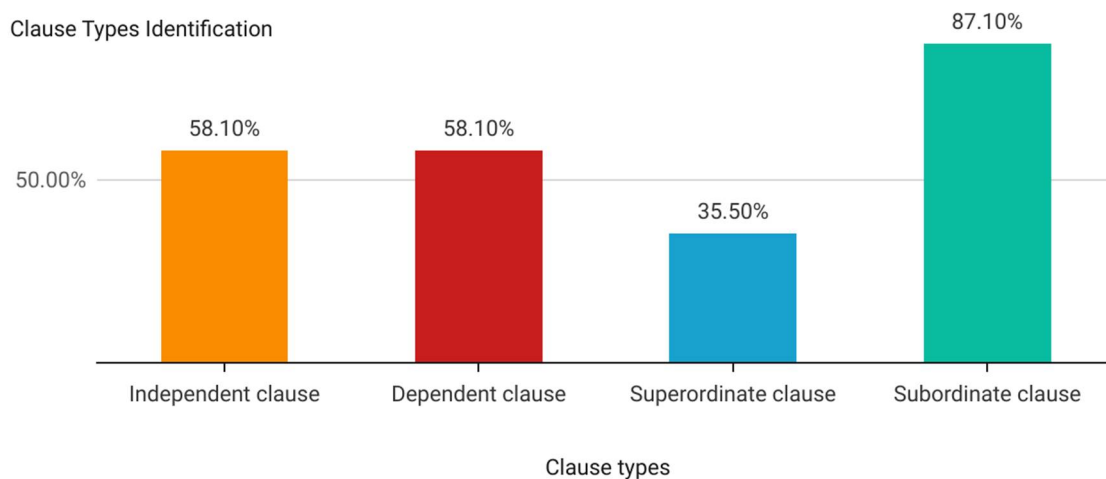


*Figure 20.* Student clause types identification

Figure 20 portrays students' ability to identify the different clause types. The portrait reported only the right answers to the clause types. As revealed by the graph, over half the sample were able to correctly discern both the independent and dependent clauses (58.10%). The same observation with the subordinate by 87.10% while the superordinate was the least identifiable among the four by 35.50%. As far as the choice explanation is concerned, over half gave no explanation or approximated a correct answer, yet still was incorrect. However, the rest gave correct answers with the exception of a few who confused the superordinate clause for a subordinate clause. The results may be reduced to two simple observations. The first is despite students' overall ability to distinguish the different types of clauses, their correct use still is relatively limited in their compositions. The second observation is in spite of students' overall ability to distinguish one clause from the other, they were unable to deliver the explicit grammatical rule, which explains their avoidance to use subordination.

**III.1.1.3. Pretest.** Before experimentation and following the priorly described pretest and scoring in the previous chapter, the scoring details are summarized in the scoring matrix illustrated in table 17.

Table 17 Pretest Scoring Matrix

*Pretest Scoring Matrix*

| Sentence types | Simple | | Compound | | Complex | | Compound-complex | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participants (n) | N | Score | N | Score | N | Score | N | Score | Score |
| Participant 01 | 04 | 04.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 02 | 03.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 07.00 |
| Participant 02 | 00 | 00.00 | 02 | 02.25 | 02 | 04.00 | 01 | 01.25 | 07.50 |
| Participant 03 | 05 | 05.00 | 01 | 00.75 | 01 | 02.00 | 02 | 02.50 | 10.25 |
| Participant 04 | 00 | 00.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 02 | 03.00 | 03 | 06.25 | 09.25 |
| Participant 05 | 01 | 01.00 | 01 | 01.50 | 01 | 01.00 | 03 | 05.00 | 08.50 |
| Participant 06 | 01 | 01.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 04 | 08.00 | 01 | 02.50 | 11.50 |
| Participant 07 | 01 | 00.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 01 | 02.00 | 02 | 03.75 | 05.00 |
| Participant 08 | 02 | 02.00 | 01 | 00.75 | 02 | 04.00 | 01 | 01.25 | 08.00 |
| Participant 09 | 03 | 03.00 | 03 | 02.25 | 01 | 02.00 | 05 | 08.75 | 16.00 |
| Participant 10 | 06 | 06.00 | 02 | 02.25 | 01 | 02.00 | 01 | 01.25 | 11.50 |
| Participant 11 | 01 | 01.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 02 | 04.00 | 02 | 03.75 | 08.75 |
| Participant 12 | 03 | 03.00 | 03 | 03.00 | 03 | 06.00 | 01 | 02.50 | 14.50 |
| Participant 13 | 00 | 00.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 02 | 02.50 | 02.50 |
| Participant 14 | 07 | 07.00 | 01 | 00.75 | 01 | 02.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 09.75 |
| Participant 15 | 05 | 05.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 03 | 06.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 11.00 |
| Participant 16 | 02 | 02.00 | 01 | 01.50 | 04 | 07.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 10.50 |
| Participant 17 | 00 | 00.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 02 | 04.00 | 03 | 07.50 | 11.50 |
| Participant 18 | 00 | 00.00 | 01 | 02.25 | 01 | 02.00 | 02 | 02.50 | 06.75 |
| Participant 19 | 00 | 00.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 03 | 03.75 | 03.75 |
| Participant 20 | 01 | 01.00 | 01 | 00.75 | 00 | 00.00 | 02 | 03.75 | 05.50 |
| Participant 21 | 03 | 03.00 | 02 | 01.50 | 00 | 00.00 | 01 | 02.25 | 07.00 |
| Participant 22 | 01 | 01.00 | 01 | 00.75 | 01 | 02.00 | 04 | 05.00 | 08.75 |
| Participant 23 | 02 | 02.00 | 02 | 02.25 | 03 | 06.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 10.25 |
| Participant 24 | 02 | 02.00 | 01 | 00.75 | 02 | 04.00 | 02 | 02.50 | 09.25 |
| Participant 25 | 01 | 01.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 01 | 01.00 | 04 | 05.00 | 07.00 |
| $\Sigma_1$ | 24 | | 11 | | 18 | | 23 | | 221.25 |
| Mode | | 07.00 | | | | Median | | 08.75 | |
| $X_1$ | | 08.85 | | | | $S_1$ | | 3.070 | |

*Note.* N = Sentence count. $\Sigma_1$ = Sum. n = 25. $X_1$ = Pretest mean. $S_1$= Pretest standard deviation.

Table 17 gives summary of the pretest scores. What can be seen in this particular sample is that the sentence type count correlates with the teacher questionnaire observation of student common syntactical choices (Item 01, section 04). The correlation in the simple sentence raking first (24) while the rest of the types do not correlate. In the pretest observations, the compound-complex (23), complex (18), and then compound (11) do not correlate with teachers' observation of compound, compound-complex, and then complex sentence ranking, respectively. With the sample sized at n= 25, another worth mentioning observation is the value closeness of the mean (08.85), median (08.75), and mode (07.00), which is according to Phakiti (2014, p. 166) suggests data normal distribution in reasonable sample sizes (e.g. 30 upwards).

*III.1.1.3.1. Pretest Piloting (Reliability testing).* When devising any test, among the numerous considerations is the piloting by testing for reliability. The testing allows more confidence in the yielded data and results. Therefore, like any other research instrument tests are tested for reliability using the Cronbach Alpha to insure internal consistency. Results of the testing is presented in table 18.

Table 18 Pretest Reliability Testing: Cronbach Alpha

*Pretest Reliability Testing: Cronbach Alpha*

| Number of items | Cronbach Alpha Coefficient |
|---|---|
| 04 | -  0.922 |

Table 18 displays the reliability testing of the pretest. As can be seen, the pretest Cronbach Alpha coefficient marks an alpha value of α=0.922 for a total of four (04) items. According to Phakiti (2014, p. 139) the reliability threshold for language tests is set at 0.80 that is higher than that of the questionnaire at 0.60. Accordingly, the value is higher than the minimum (Min α= 0.80) that guarantees pretest reliability. Hence, the value considerably indicates high reliability of the pretest and can be considered as internally consistent. However, it is of importance to mention the marked negative correlation of items, which is no threat to the test reliability but only a sign of items measuring opposite constructs of inverse relations (coordination versus subordination) (Dőrnyei, 2007, pp. 223).

***III.1.1.4. Post-test.*** After experimentation and in compliance with the priorly
described post-test and scoring in the previous chapter, the scoring was detailed in the
scoring matrix featured in table 19 below.

Table 19 Post-test Scoring Matrix

*Post-test Scoring Matrix*

| Sentence types | Simple | | Compound | | Complex | | Compound-complex | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participants (n) | N | Score | N | Score | N | Score | N | Score | Score |
| Participant 01 | 05 | 05.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 02 | 04.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 09.00 |
| Participant 02 | 00 | 00.00 | 02 | 03.00 | 03 | 06.00 | 01 | 01.25 | 10.25 |
| Participant 03 | 06 | 06.00 | 01 | 00.75 | 02 | 04.00 | 01 | 02.50 | 13.25 |
| Participant 04 | 00 | 00.00 | 01 | 01.50 | 02 | 03.00 | 02 | 03.75 | 08.25 |
| Participant 05 | 01 | 01.00 | 02 | 02.25 | 01 | 01.00 | 02 | 05.00 | 09.25 |
| Participant 06 | 01 | 01.00 | 02 | 03.00 | 03 | 06.00 | 01 | 02.50 | 12.50 |
| Participant 07 | 01 | 01.00 | 01 | 01.50 | 02 | 04.00 | 01 | 02.50 | 09.00 |
| Participant 08 | 02 | 02.00 | 02 | 02.25 | 03 | 06.00 | 01 | 01.25 | 11.50 |
| Participant 09 | 04 | 04.00 | 03 | 03.75 | 02 | 04.00 | 02 | 05.00 | 16.75 |
| Participant 10 | 05 | 05.00 | 02 | 03.00 | 02 | 04.00 | 01 | 01.25 | 13.25 |
| Participant 11 | 03 | 03.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 02 | 04.00 | 01 | 02.50 | 09.50 |
| Participant 12 | 04 | 04.00 | 02 | 03.00 | 03 | 06.00 | 01 | 02.50 | 15.50 |
| Participant 13 | 00 | 00.00 | 01 | 00.75 | 01 | 02.00 | 02 | 02.50 | 05.25 |
| Participant 14 | 04 | 04.00 | 01 | 00.75 | 01 | 02.00 | 01 | 01.25 | 08.00 |
| Participant 15 | 05 | 05.00 | 01 | 00.75 | 03 | 06.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 11.75 |
| Participant 16 | 03 | 03.00 | 02 | 02.25 | 04 | 06.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 11.25 |
| Participant 17 | 02 | 02.00 | 01 | 01.50 | 02 | 04.00 | 00 | 07.50 | 15.00 |
| Participant 18 | 00 | 00.00 | 03 | 03.75 | 01 | 02.00 | 02 | 02.50 | 08.25 |
| Participant 19 | 00 | 00.00 | 01 | 00.75 | 00 | 00.00 | 03 | 03.75 | 04.50 |
| Participant 20 | 02 | 02.00 | 01 | 00.75 | 01 | 01.00 | 01 | 03.75 | 07.50 |
| Participant 21 | 03 | 03.00 | 02 | 01.50 | 01 | 02.00 | 01 | 01.25 | 07.75 |
| Participant 22 | 02 | 02.00 | 01 | 02.25 | 01 | 02.00 | 02 | 05.00 | 11.25 |
| Participant 23 | 02 | 02.00 | 01 | 02.25 | 02 | 04.00 | 00 | 02.50 | 10.75 |
| Participant 24 | 02 | 02.00 | 00 | 01.50 | 02 | 04.00 | 01 | 03.75 | 11.25 |
| Participant 25 | 01 | 01.00 | 00 | 00.00 | 03 | 03.00 | 03 | 03.75 | 07.75 |
| $\Sigma_2$ | 26 | | 18 | | 21 | | 23 | | 258.25 |
| Mode | | 11.25 | | | | Median | | 10.25 | |
| $X_2$ | | 10.33 | | | | $S_2$ | | 3.015 | |

*Note.* N = Sentence count. $\sum_2$ = Sum. n = 25. $X_2$ = Post-test mean. $S_2$= Post-test standard deviation.

Table 19 displays the post-test scores summary. As can be noted, the compound-complex sentence type count was stable (23) while the rest of the types have slightly risen (+2, +7, and +3, respectively) in comparison with the pretest sentence count. The same observation can be provided on the total of scores with a difference of thirty seven ($\sum_2$ - $\sum_1$ = 37) points in favor of the post-test. A slight change that could be attributed to the performed syntactical training. Once again, similarly to the pretest, the close values of the mean, median, and mode (10.33, 10.25, and 11.25, respectively) indicate normal distribution of the post-test values Phakiti (2014, p. 166).

*III.1.1.4.2. Post-test Piloting (Reliability testing).* Same as the pretest, the post-test was also piloted by testing its reliability. The testing was performed to insure internal consistency of the data, hence, the results. Table 20 displays the testing result.

Table 20 Post-test Reliability Testing: Cronbach Alpha

*Post-test Reliability Testing: Cronbach Alpha*

| Number of items | Cronbach Alpha Coefficient |
|---|---|
| 04 | - 0.277 |

Table 20 illustrates the post-test reliability testing. As illustrated, the post-test Cronbach Alpha coefficient marks an alpha value of $\alpha$=0.277 for a total of four (04) items. The value is less than the minimum (Min $\alpha$= 0.80) that conventionally guarantees reliability. However, according to Larson-hall (2009, p. 172) in the range of 0.30-060 the Cronbach alpha might be considered as fairly reliable of medium to large effect size. Thus, the registered value indicates fair reliability of the post-test and might be regarded as internally inconsistent. Again, the post-test presented a negative value as the pretest because it also tested opposite constructs (Dőrnyei, 2007, pp. 223). Still, the adequacy of the alpha concept as a reliability measure has been challenged lately in a number of occasions such as Taber, (2018). On the basis of that, a worthwhile interpretation can be advanced on the registered low Cronbach Alpha coefficient. Since assumptions are at the heart of the reliability concept and statistical testing, it is possible to explain the undesirable low reliability coefficient instead of simply declare the instrument as conventionally unreliable. Livingston (2018, p.

20) explained that the reliability coefficient is to be low in the case of small changes in the scores of a nearly equal group members in terms of the knowledge being tested. Supporting that is the registered small changes in the observed post-test scores in comparison with that of the pretest.

     ***III.1.1.5. Pretest post-test descriptive comparative analysis.*** The variable manipulation results in experimental research are by principal depicted through pre and post testing, depending on the selected design. Adherence to such principle stipulates also the depiction of the similarities and differences between the pre and post treatment collected data (Nunan, 1992, p. 28). To this particular end, the chief two statistical calculations adopted are the mean *(X)* and the standard deviation (*S*/SD). The commonly used to mirror the data similarity degree or their central tendency is the mean. Out of the central tendency indices, the mean is considered the most precise for its calculation consideration of all scores (Phakiti, 2014, p .168). Concept to the mean is the total of the added scores divided by total number of scores. However, to mirror the data variation extent from the mean or their dispersion, the standard deviation is then considered. Concept of the standard deviation is the square root of the summed squared results of mean deduction from each score that was divided by the minus one total number of scores (variance square root). Under this logic, table 21 gives a precis of the two descriptive calculations provided by the SPSS package.

Table 21 Summative Comparative Table of Pretest Post-test Descriptives

*Summative Comparative Table of Pretest Post-test Descriptives*

| Indices | Pretest | Post-test | Test difference |
|---------|---------|-----------|-----------------|
| $X$ | 08.85 | 10.33 | - 01.48 |
| SD | 3.070 | 3.015 | 0.055 |

*Note.* $X$ = Mean. SD= Standard deviation.

     Table 21 depicts the data central tendency and dispersion indices. As can be seen, there is a difference between both means (01.48) and standard deviations (0.055) of the pre and post-tests scores. Further away from the detailed statistical interpretations, the beheld difference between the two tests' scores can be regarded as improvement evidence. Hence, one can infer and argue that the proposed and executed training positively impacted the students' academic writing syntactical style. Such data deduction permits to a certain extent the null hypothesis refusal, which is the essence of experimental research (Nunan, 1992, p. 12).

**III.1.2. Inferential analysis.** Arriving at the statistical stage of inferencing is arriving at the pinnacle of the experimental work. Inferential statistics is utilized to comprehend variable correlations nature (cause and effect) within a given sample to be able to infer from the sample in order to infer beyond that sample (Phakiti, 2014, p .193; Larson-Hall, 2009, p. 44). On account of that, the sample statistic is used to infer the population parameter through the number of available statistical tests that in turn test the research hypothesis.

*III.1.2.1. Inference assumptions.* Deciding on the appropriate statistical test to adopt and perform is no easy task, especially for the novice researcher. Larson-Hall (2016, p. 171) described it as the artistic science in which one must understand the logic behind the use of test in order to decide on the choice of test. Thus, the first step is decision on the suitable inferential testing category either parametric or non-parametric. Most disciplines commonly work toward parametric tests for their inference robustness. Yet a number of assumptions have to be met in order to reach a well-founded verdict, which according to Phakiti (2014, p. 200) are non-optional prerequisites to avoid false inferencing. The assumptions incorporate the data type, results distributions, and variance homogeneity (Phakiti, 2014, p. 201; Greasley, 2008, pp. 88-89) in addition to the sampling approach (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018, p. 777). However, homogeneity of variance in the case of related samples (one sample pretest/post-test) is not required (McDonald, 2014, p .182) since it is presumed true for the paired-samples (Larson-Hall, 2009, p. 251), which coincides with the study at hand.

*III.1.2.1.1. Normal distribution testing (Shapiro-Wilk Test).* Although Larson-Hall (2009) contended that "there are no clear rules about a cut-off level for "normal" and "non-normal" distributions" (p. 74), the study opted for the standard applicable knowledge for normality testing. Statistically, Larson-Hall (2016) summarized that "normality is to check whether there are any outliers" (p. 249). Data outliers are the data that skew from clustering around the mean creating asymmetry in the bell-shaped or the theoretical linear normal distribution illustration. Thus, for a medium sample size of n= 25 the normality testing was attempted following Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2018, p. 820) who explicitly indicated the imperativeness of normality testing for small samples.

The study conducted the normality testing initially through visual examination of the graphic summaries, which is a recommended step before conducting any statistical tests (Larson-Hall, 2016, p. 100). Out of the data graphic summaries commonly used to examine

the distribution shape for normality is the Quantile-Quantile plots (Q-Q plots). The principal
for such plot is the plotting of the considered data quantiles against the theoretical normal
distribution quantiles with the quantile dividing the data set at its every quarter point. The
typical examination principal is for points to fall in a straight line in the case of normal
distribution; otherwise, the distribution is abnormally distributed (Larson-Hall, 2016, p.
107). Figures 21 and 22 demonstrate data distribution of both pre and post-tests, respectively.
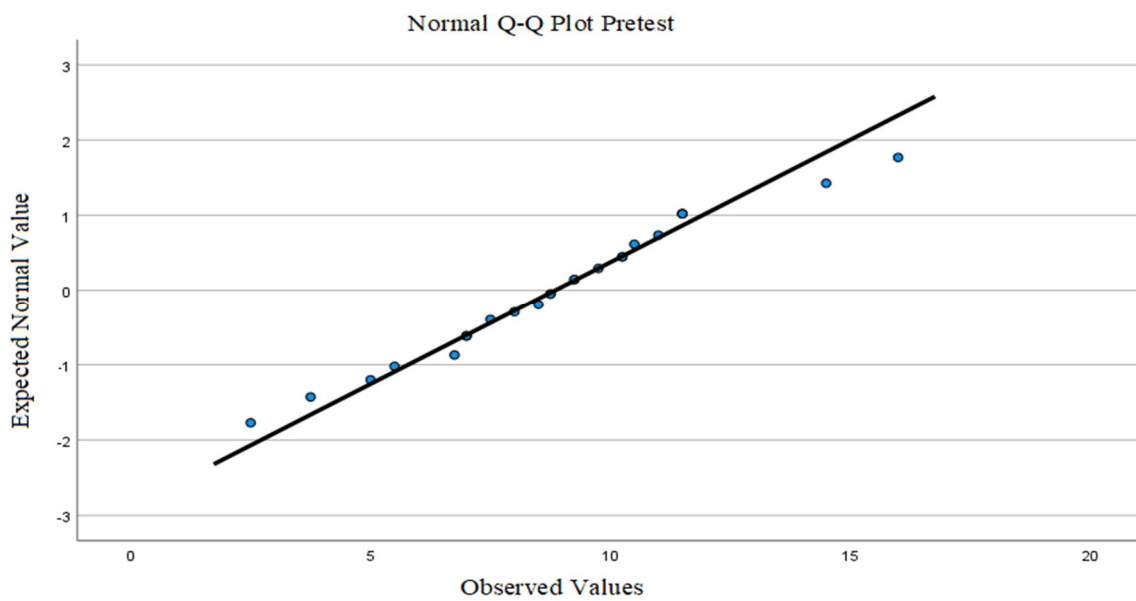


*Figure 21.* Pretest normality testing visualization (Q-Q Plot Pretest)
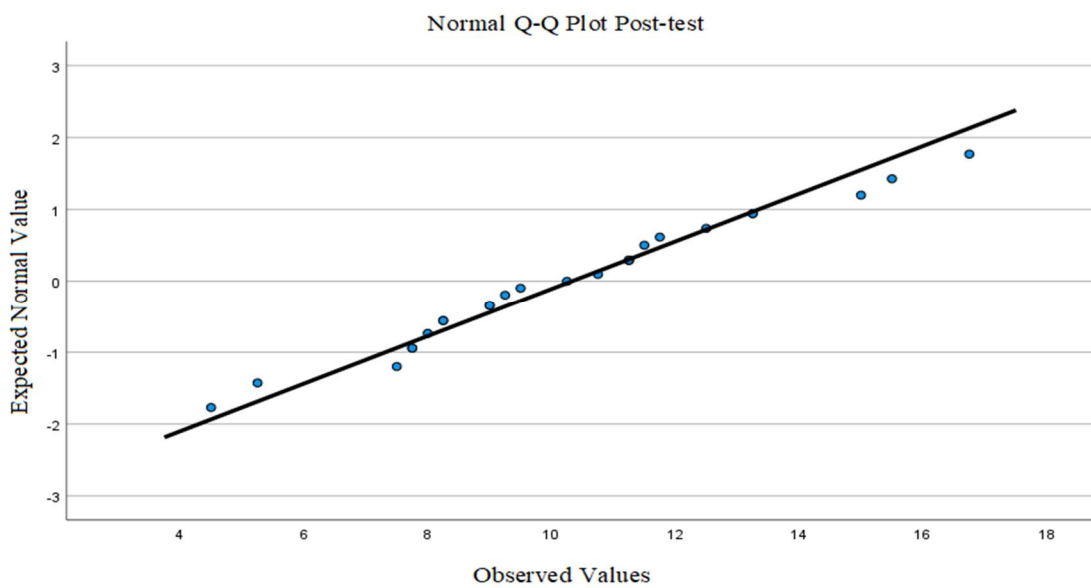


*Figure 22.* Post-test normality testing visualization (Q-Q Plot Post-test)

The above figures (21 & 22) represent the normality testing visualization for both pre and post-tests using the Q-Q plots, which is a detailed enough data graphic summary. As reviled by the figures, most data quantiles are forming an almost straight line for both tests with very few veering not too far away at the tails not the middle (outliers) (Larson-Hall, 2016, p. 249), which indicates a unimodal data set (one model). A symmetrical, unimodal data set means a data set that is normally distributed. Thus, the normality assumption can be considered as satisfactorily met for both pre and post-tests.

For more reporting scrupulousness, the study opted for normality statistical tests to endorse the visual observations with statistical observations. The Shapiro-Wilk test was selected for both its availability in SPSS and reliability with medium size samples (n<50) (Larson-Hall, 2016, p. 109; Cohen et al., 2018, p. 736; Thode, 2002, p. 152).

Before performing the test then the detailing and interpretation of the results, it is important to detail both the logic and the process of testing. Firstly is the logic behind the significance of any tested experimental observation. In what is known as the standard procedure for testing hypothesis, detailed by Weakliem (2016, pp. 4-5), the significance level (Alpha, $\alpha$) and probability value (p-value or test statistic) sit on the decision throne. The significance level (Alpha, $\alpha$) is the critical point that decides existence or inexistence of statistical significance. Accordingly, statistical significance informs decision on results' probability of random chance occurrence, on the one hand, and acceptance or rejection of the proposed null hypothesis, on the other hand. In social sciences and language learning research the recommended standard for the significance level is usually set at $\alpha = 0.05$. Conventionally, the higher the alpha the more confident the claim of results being statistically significant. Essentially, significance, or rejection of the null hypothesis, is set at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ and no significance, or acceptance of the null hypothesis, is set at $\alpha > 0.05$ (Phakiti, 2014, p. 195).

Secondly is the logic of the test itself. By principal, the Shapiro-Wilk test tests if the pre and post-tests scores are statistically significantly different from a normal distribution. The statistical logic for the Shapiro-Wilk test is the comparison of the p-value (Sig.) generated by the test with the alpha value ($\alpha$), which is fixed at $\alpha = 0.05$. For a null hypothesis of data being normally distributed the $H_0$: values are not statistically significantly different from a normal distribution, the Alpha is set at ($\alpha > 0.05$) and for the alternative

hypothesis of data being abnormally distributed the $H_a$: values are statistically significantly different from a normal distribution, the Alpha is set at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$). Post-test

Table 22 Normal Distribution Check: Shapiro-Wilk Testing

*Normal Distribution Check:  Shapiro-Wilk Test*

| Shapiro-Wilk Test | | Statistic | Ddl | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pair 1 | Pretests | 0.981 | 25 | 0.906 |
| | Post-test | 0.978 | 25 | 0.838 |

*Note.* Ddl = Sample size. Sig= Significance level.

Table 22 delivered the following results of the normality distribution testing. As can be noted, the p-value for the pretest at a Sig. = 0.906, which in comparison with the $\alpha = 0.05$, shows no statistical significance (0.906 > 0.05/ Sig > $\alpha$).  Hence, acceptance of the null hypothesis ($H_0$) that the pretest values are not statistically significantly different from a normal distribution (pretest values are normally distributed) and rejection of the alternative ($H_a$) that the pretest values are statistically significantly different from a normal distribution (pretest values being abnormally distributed). Same can be said for the post-test with a p-value at a Sig. = 0.838 that in comparison with the $\alpha$= 0.05, shows no statistical significance (0.838 > 0.05/ Sig > $\alpha$). Again, acceptance of the null hypothesis ($H_0$) that post-test values are not statistically significantly different from a normal distribution; hence, the post-test values are normally distributed. As a result and in addition to the normality visual observations, the assumption of normality can be confidently considered as met for both the pre and post-tests.

According to the above detailed assumptions analysis, it is safe to say that all assumptions for parametric testing are satisfied and are illustrated below in a check table (table 23), for visual recapitulation purposes.

Table 23
*Category Assumptions Check for inferential testing*

| Inferential Assumptions | Data type | Distribution normality | Random sampling | Variance Homogeneity |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Parametric testing | Ratio data | Normal distribution | Cluster sampling | Unrequired |
| | √ | √ | √ | |

In the difference examination between two sets of scores; in addition to determining the category of inferential testing (parametric or non-parametric), dependence or relatedness

of samples also has to be taken into consideration (Greasley, 2008). With decision on parametric tests already been reached and data coming from two related samples (same sample generating two score sets in two different occasions), the final conclusion on the most appropriate test can be made. Decision is made in compliance with the provided decision process illustrated by Greasley (2008, p. 88) in figure 25. Consequently, the related samples t-test also labeled as the paired samples t-test (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 58; Larson-Hall, 2016, p. 177) is the most convenient inferential test for the testing of the study null hypothesis ($H_0$).
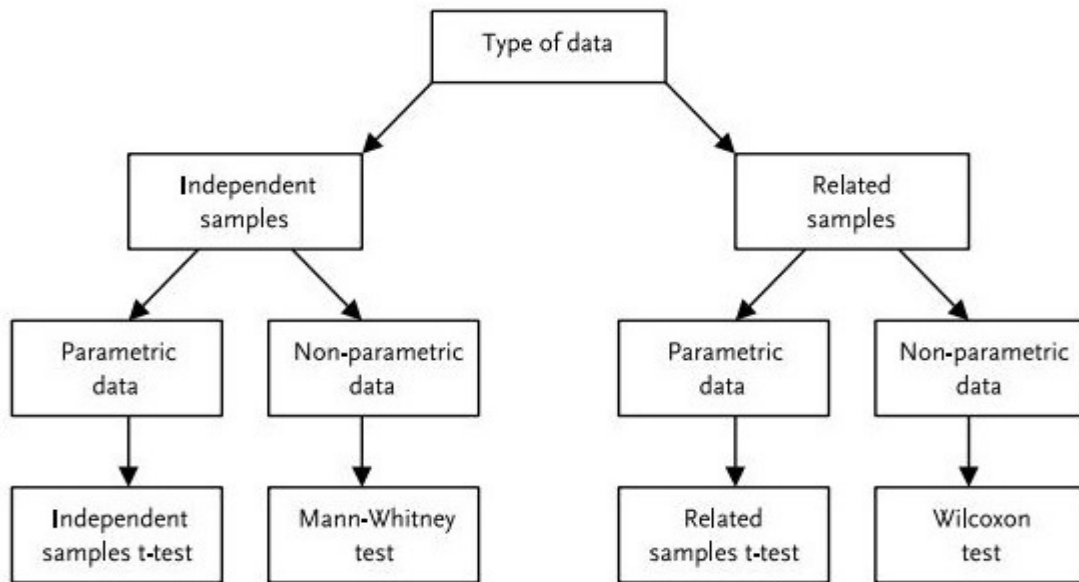


*Figure 23.* Choosing the appropriate statistical test for difference between two samples

*Source.* Greasley (2008, p. 88)

**III.1.2.1. Mean difference testing (Paired samples T-test).** Generally, the t-test is concerned with testing if or not groups differ. More explicitly, it is a group difference size determiner for either attributing small differences only to score random variation, which occurs time and time again with samples within the same population, or attributing large differences to samples being from different populations (Larson-Hall, 2016, p. 177). In statistical terms, it is group means significance determiner through statistical procedures (Phakiti, 2014, p. 202) either between two group means or one group with two different means (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018, p. 777).

Within the range of t-tests is the paired samples t-test that is one of the widely practiced two in experimental research, which is the present study's logical inferential test. Larson-Hall (2016) defined this type in this particular field as "when the groups consist of the same people sampled at different time periods" (p. 177). In statistical expression, Phakiti (2014) defined this type as "examines whether two mean scores from the same group of participants differ significantly" (p. 202). In this sense, the two means of the experimental group's pre and post-tests are to be tested for significance.

Like decision on the testing category, the performance of the paired samples t-test also necessitates checking for a number of assumptions or safety checks (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018, p. 777). The assumptions include the types of scale that should be continuous, random sampling, and normal distribution (Phakiti, 2014, pp. 260-261; Cohen et al., 2018, p. 399). Again equality of variance is not necessary since it is a case of a single group following McDonald (2014) who explicitly stated that, "The paired t-test does *not* assume that observations within each group are normal, only that the differences are normal. And it does not assume that the groups are homoscedastic" (p. 182). In other words, normality should be met at least for one of the two tests and not necessarily for both. The first assumption of scale types checks for ratio data, the second assumption of random sampling checks for cluster sampling, and the last assumption checks for normal distributions for both tests that was already performed in parametric tests decision (see table 23). The safely checks are down illustrated in table 24, for visual recapitulation purposes.

Table 24 Paired Samples T-test Assumptions Check

*Paired Samples T-test Assumptions Check*

| Statistical Assumptions | Scale types | Random sampling | Distribution normality |
|---|---|---|---|
| Paired samples t-test | Ratio data | Cluster sampling | Normal distribution |
| | √ | √ | √ |

After the statistical assumptions check is performed, the paired samples t-test can be safely perfumed via the SPSS package Version 27.0.1 adopted by the study for computation purposes. Testing followed the three step testing procedure proposed by the both Phakiti (2014, p. 262) and Larson-Hall (2009, pp. 261-262), demonstrated in tables 22, 25, and 26. The first step is descriptive statistics check to confirm for normal data distribution, which

was already confirmed in the distribution normality testing subsection (see table 22). Then, the actual paired samples t-test performance, and finally, the findings reporting and interpretation.

The paired samples t-test assumes that for a true null hypothesis the difference between the two means is to equal zero. In other words, means of both pre and post-tests are equal. As such, for a null hypothesis of no statistical significance the $H_0$: mean of the pretest equals mean of the post-test ($\mu$ pretest = $\mu$ post-test). However, for an alternative hypothesis of existing statistical significance the $H_a$: the two means of the pre and post tests are not equal ($\mu$ pretest $\neq$ $\mu$ post-test). Again, in compliance with the statistical significance principal, comparison with the Alpha is a must in order to decide on existence or no existence of statistical significance.

Table 25 Paired Samples Correlation

*Paired Samples Correlation*

|  | n | Correlation | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|
| Pair 1    Pretests & Post-test | 25 | 0.901 | 0.001 |

*Note.* n = Sample size. Sig= Significance level.

The strength of the correlation between the scores of pre and post-tests are shown in table 25. As the table demonstrates, there is a strong correlation between the two sets of scores with a registered p-value of 0.001 < 0.05. Thus, this second step summarizes the variable correlation. The correlation is performed in accordance with the t-test presumption of correlated sets of scores (Larson-Hall, 2009, p. 261), which is proven as existing in this case.

Table 26 Paired Samples T-test: Difference Testing

*Paired Samples T-test: Difference Testing*

|  | Mean | SD | SEM | 95% Confidence interval of the difference | | t | Df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  |  |  | Lower | Upper |  |  |  |
| Pair 1 Pretests & Post-test | -1.48 | 1.357 | 0.271 | -2.040 | -0.9919 | -5.45 | 24 | 0.001 |

*Note.* SD = Standard deviation. SEM = Standard error mean. t = t-value (t-test). Df = Degree of freedom. Sig= Significance level.

Table 26 recapitulates on the paired- samples t-test that is the third and last step. As reflects the table, the mean difference is quite significant (-1.48) (regardless of the minus sign) that indicates possible statistical difference for the t-test (Larson-Hall, 2009, p. 262). The second observation is the t-test registered probability value at p-value = 0.001, which for the one-tailed hypothesis specification of this study and according to Larson-Hall (2009, p. 262) must be divided by two because the SPSS only provide a two-tailed p-value. The reported, halved p-value = 0.0005 is less than $\alpha$ = 0.05 (0.005< 0.05), which indicates statistical significance. The statistical significance, hence, allows with enough confidence the refusal of the null hypothesis ($H_0$). Consequently, the difference between the two score sets was not due to random chances but to the training, indicating a causal-like relations. Accordingly, acceptance of the alternative hypothesis ($H_a$), which argues that introduction of additional style-oriented materials based on Arabic/English style differences to the current academic writing syllabus may lead to the enhancement of students' current EFL academic writing syntactical style, subordination over coordination.

*III.1.2.2. Effect size measurement (Cohen's d).* According to Phakiti (2014, p. 264) statistical significance existence is not proof enough to argue the experimental training effectiveness. Accordingly, details of the effectiveness size or "statistical power" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018, p. 399) need to be provided, for instance, the use of the Cohen's *d* that is widely used with difference tests (paired-samples t-test). Cohen's *d* is an effect sizer that delivers further proof of the experimental training effectiveness. In the literature, the effect size measurement by definition is to be performed with two or more groups design (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 399) or with two independent sample means (Larson-Hall, 2009, p. 390), which neither is the case of the present study. But since the study followed the Phakiti (2014) paired samples t-test application that opted for the effect size measurement, so did the present study.

Larson-Hall (2016) summarized the concept in, "Cohen's *d* can start from zero and range as high as it needs to, although a d = 1, means the differences between groups are as large as one standard deviation, would generally be con-sidered a large effect size" (pp. 390-391). However, Cohen et al. (2018, p. 746) gave more sizing details that are illustrated in table 27.

Table 27

*Cohen's d Effect Sizing Details*

| Type | Statistic | Effect sizes | | |
|------|-----------|-------|--------|-------|
|      |           | Small | Medium | Large |
| Difference testing (t-tests) | Cohen's d *(d)* | 0.20 | 0.50 | 0.80 |

*Note.* Adapted from Research methods in education by L. Cohen, L. Manion & K.
Morrison, 2018, p. 764. Copyright 2018 by Routledge.

As such, the Cohen's d effect sizer was performed in table 28 following the paired
samples t-test compatible formula provided by Larson-Hall (2009, p. 118) detailed in figure
24.

$$\text{t-test (paired-samples)} \quad d_{paired} = \frac{\overline{X}_1 - \overline{X}_2}{\sqrt{2(S_1 - S_2)}} \text{ (Volker, 2006) where } S_k = \text{the standard deviation of group k.}$$

*Figure 24.* Cohen's $d_{Paired}$ formula.

*Source.* Larson-Hall (2009, p. 118)

Table 28

*Cohen's D of $d_{paired}$ Effect size*

| | | Standardizer | Point Estimate | 95% Confidence interval of the difference | |
|--|--|--------------|----------------|-------|-------|
| | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Pair 1 | Pretests & Post-test | -1.48 | 1.357 | -2.040 | -0.991 |

Table 28 demonstrates the calculations of the Cohen's d effect sizer. As shown in the
table, the calculations marked a value that significantly exceeds 0.08 (1.357), which
according to the sizing detail table (table 27) is more than 0.80 that is considered a large
effect size. The large effect size further validates the statistical significance of the
experimental work results. As such, both significance results from the paired samples t-test
and the large effect size from the Cohen's d validate with enough confidence the
effectiveness and practicality of style-oriented material tested by the training, thus, answered

the proposed third research question. Additionally, allowance to reject the proposed null hypothesis ($H_0$) and to retain the alternative hypothesis ($H_a$).

## III.2  Results discussion

The section discusses the obtained results from the different research methods (tools) in relation to the research hypotheses and questions. The aim is to build direct correlation and demonstrate the significance of the study, and if or not it attained its predetermined objectives.

### III.2.1. Research question one. What are the effects of Arabic/English style differences on M1 students' EFL academic writing at Biskra University?

In relation to students' questionnaire answers, which was purposefully designed to answer this particular question, Master's 1 students demonstrated an observable effect of the L1/English style differences. To start with, the second section showed that students generally have cohesion, coherence, and mechanical writing difficulties especially at the sentence level. With regard to students' syntactical writing style, the third section demonstrated students' unfamiliarity with the different conjunction types. In addition to that demonstrating preference of the coordination practice over the subordination practice. Besides that an overall preference of the sentence types involving coordination over the sentence types involving subordination. The fourth and last section manifested students' relative familiarity with the different clause types and the associated punctuation mechanics. As a result, with enough confidence, all observations can be considered as typical patterns consistent with the Arabic writing style differences influencing EFL writing at the sentence level.

### III.2.2. Research question two. What are writing teachers' attitudes toward the effects of Arabic/English syntactical style differences at Biskra University?

With reference to teachers' questionnaire that was intentionally designed and developed to answer this specific question, writing teacher showed an overall unfamiliarity with the effects of Arabic/English syntactical style differences on the students' syntactical style. Chiefly, the teachers' showed familiarity of the students' preference of the coordination practice and the associated sentence types over subordination and the associated sentence types. However, teachers attributed the fact to students' syntactical, grammatical, and mechanical weaknesses, with the exception of very few who demonstrated

awareness of this preference being an L1 writing style transfer. Consequently, teachers' seeming unawareness of such transfer could affect its treatment because of its unresilient nature and resistance to change, which would require more rigorous treatment.

**III.2.3. Research question three.** Would the introduction of new style-oriented materials to the current academic writing syllabus be of help to the development of M1 students' current syntactical writing style level at Biskra University?

The pretest and post-test scores were used as response basis to this question. The reported change between the two tests' scores would most probably be the training's immediate effect. The moderate increase in the scores of the post-test in comparison with the pretest provided potential evidence that students' involvement in the training was the reason behind the syntactical performance upgrade. Along with that is the registered statistical significance and large statistical power that constituted further plausible evidence of the training effectiveness. Thus, the additional style-oriented material proved to a certain extant its usefulness and practicality, therefor, development of students' syntactical writing style (subordination over coordination).

**III.2.4. Research hypotheses.** In accordance with the answer to the last research question, one of the two offered hypotheses was to be rejected while the other is to be retained.

**$H_a$**: Introduction of additional style-oriented materials based on Arabic/English style differences to the current academic writing syllabus may lead to the enhancement of students' current EFL academic writing syntactical style, subordination over coordination.

**$H_0$**: Introduction of additional style-oriented materials based on Arabic/English style differences to the current academic writing syllabus may not lead to the enhancement of students' current EFL academic writing syntactical style, subordination over coordination.

The hypothesis testing is performed through experimentation and pre and post testing of the experimental group. After undergoing experimentation, scores of the post-test showed moderate improvement in comparison with the scores of the pretest. Inferential testing through the paired samples t-test also exhibited statistical significance in addition to the measured large statistical power; in turn, all endorsed the comparative observation between

the pre and post-test results. Thus, students' syntactical style improvement validates the alternative hypothesis ($H_a$) and refutes the random chances of the null hypothesis ($H_0$).

To conclude and in relation to the research questions and hypotheses, the different research instruments' obtained results were discussed in this subsection. Since the research outlined objectives followed the research advanced questions and hypothesis, the discussion showed that the objectives were attained when the questions were answered and the null hypothesis is refuted.

## III.3 General Conclusion and Recommendations

The section is comprehensive of the whole study and concluding at the same time. The section gives coverage, in a precis, of both the theoretical and practical parts, the kind of limitations along met, future research suggestions, present and lastly future recommendations.

**III.3.1. Study precis**. The study was investigative and assessing of the effects of Arabic/English writing style differences on the enhancement of students' EFL academic writing syntactical style, the subordination over coordination. The adopted quasi-experimental design addressed the research aims, answered to the proposed research questions, and decided on the refusal or acceptance of the advanced research hypotheses. The probability cluster sampling employed a sample of twenty five (25) participants from the M1 population at the department of English Language at Biskra University. The sample formed one experimental group following the quasi-experimental form of the pre-experimental design: the one group pretest-post-test design. A form that is in this case chosen because of its amenability to tasting and relative immunity from validity threats.

Methodology wise, the study opted for the mixed-method approach exploiting both qualitative and quantitative methods that materialized in the openness and closure of instruments. The quantitative aimed at collecting the non-verbal facts and the qualitative aimed at giving the verbal explanation as to why, whereby both answer to the first two advanced research questions. However, the quantitative also answered the third and last research question through pre and post testing results. As an insurance measure for both validity and reliability, with more focus on the later than the former, the research instruments where piloted.

Following the piloting was the actual administration of the instrument of questionnaire. The teacher questionnaire was more open than it was closed to reveal their possible attitudes and perceptions of both students' present writing situation and phenomenon under investigation (see appendix 01). However, student questionnaire was more closed than it was open to gauge their general writing level in correlation with the investigated phenomenon (see appendix 02). A diagnostic pre-experimentation test was placed to diagnose students' syntactical style problems. The yielded results showed an obvious weakness with the subordination practice in particular and mechanics of both practices, subordination and coordination.

The next experimental phase was the actual initiation of the treatment (training) itself (see appendices 04 to 10). In a seven week time-frame and a total of seven sessions, the training was carried out. After treatment, an achievement post-test was performed to test both the treatment effectiveness and the advanced hypotheses. The yielded data have been statistically treated both descriptively and inferentially. The data was first checked for parametric testing and then for paired samples t-testing. The safety checks involved ratio data for appropriate data type, normal distribution of both tests, and the cluster random sampling for probability sampling. The statistical software package used for data analysis was the SPSS version 27.0.1.

The SPSS descriptive output enabled answering the research questions while the inferential output enabled the null hypothesis testing. As a result, descriptively speaking, the results answered the first research question by demonstrating the observable effect of coordination dominance over subordination in students' academic writing as well as the immediate related effects (sentence type preference). Also, it answered the second research question of teachers' perceived attitudes that the coordination practice is the result of students' weak writing level while in fact it is primarily an L1 transfer. Inferentially speaking, the results answered the research third question that demonstrated the effectiveness and practicality of the additional style-oriented material. Besides that, it refuted the null hypothesis ($H_0$) in favor of the alternative hypothesis ($H_a$). Thence, the introduction of additional style-oriented materials based on L1/EFL style differences to the current academic writing syllabus lead to the enhancement of students' current academic writing syntactical style, subordination over coordination.

Accordingly, all three research questions have been answered and the alternative hypothesis retained while the null has been rejected. As such, the pre-outlined research objectives have been attained. The results obtained and their interpretations would serve as a stepping stone for future research and possible educational reforms.

**III.3.2. Study limitations**. Like any other research effort, the presence of limitations is inescapable. Thus, for the research effort to be considered both as successfully completed and properly concluded, acknowledgement of limitations is a must.

To begin with, the selected quasi-experimental design form (pre-experimental, one group pretest-post-test) is the first limitation that was in this case inevitable due to contact validity threats. The design could have possibly benefited more from a more valid design, which would be akin to give an even more established, reliable comparative results. Then, the time constraints that had a significant effect on the training. The initial proposed training was a seven lesson drill series that was not possible to implement within the considerably limited allotted time, without affecting the official academic writing syllabus. As a consequence, a restricted three lesson training was performed, in addition to four complementary, official lessons introduced by the module teacher to the benefit of the study. Yet the training could have potentially been more profitable if more time could be devoted.

Despite piloting the tests for reliability as internal consistency, where both tests scored highly, another limitation related to test reliability is to be mentioned, which is the threat to inter-rater reliability. Although the testing and scoring rationale were thoroughly described in the methodology chapter, it still is only a logically improvised effort from an unexperienced novice researcher. Thus, the two tests' results probably could have benefited more if the scoring and assessment were done by a professional.

In short, methodologically the study limitations were namely linked to the designated experimental design. However, practically they were related to both time limitations alongside test assessment and evaluation. Despite limitations being negatively perceived, they could be positively utilized to set forth future research suggestions.

**III.3.3. Future research suggestions**. As one might perceive limitations to be only on the negative side, yet they do provide opportunities for future research work. Accordingly, the previously mentioned limitations inspired the following suggestions.

The first suggestion respectively follows the first limitation of the study that is the designated design. As already been insinuated in the limitations subsection, future research could employ the pretest-post-test non-equivalent controlled group design instead of the pre-experimental one group pretest-post-test design. The former is considered as the closest variant of the quasi-experimental design to true experimentation. The closer it is to true experimentation the more valid and reliable the design is. Principal to this particular design is that group equivalence allows control over internal validity threats (Campbell and Stanley, 1963, as cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p.276).

The second suggestion in relation to the time limitations. Future research could profit from the proposed original training of the seven lesson drill series. A number of lessons that is agreed upon in social sciences to have the potential of providing tangible, observable effect with any treatment. The third suggestion with reference to the last registered limitation is the inter-rater reliability. Future research could depend on a counter-professional assessment, especially with the grading. With adoption of such step, statistical inter-rater reliability could be performed, which is one of two sorts that would ensure reliability as equivalence (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 147). Another suggestion in relation to the registered investigative observations is students' visible preposition misuse, which according to Elachachi (2015) is another L1 transfer. Future research could opt for an experimental work to investigate more and try to remedy this particular often noticed deficiency because most of the research considered this only qualitatively.

To summarize this particular subsection, the future research suggestions encompassed improvement on all the study encountered limitations of design, time restrictions, and test reliability. The subsection also included future research suggestion on the observed prepositional misuse as another L1 transfer. Thus, it is of importance to acknowledge that one research limitation point could be another's potential starting point.

**III.3.4. Recommendations.** Any investigative work, especially the experimental, after conclusion would provide recommendation for the present and the future. Recommendations of this specific work target chiefly two categories. The two categories are the decision makers and the EFL writing teachers.

***III.3.4.1. Decision maker's recommendations.*** To paint an everlasting picture to the writing practice, decision makers need to consider selecting a sturdy canvas. Thereby and

following the experimentation and the testing positive washback, an inclusive writing curriculums should consider more focus and allot more time for the basic sentence level teaching. Since the writing process is progressive by nature, syllabus instructions to writing teachers should revolve around building more solid sentence level foundations. As a result, this would pave the way for an even more solid paragraph and essay foundations. Tipping the scales of students' current writing level would require starting at the very beginning with the basics. Once students have the full syntactical grasp, the rest follows automatically. A fact that probably would empower the today weak and average performing students for future accomplished academic writers.

*III.3.4.2. EFL writing teacher's recommendations*. As teachers working on the field, they need to consider every possible way to help students' overcome any encountered difficulties, which in this case are writing difficulties. To begin with, teachers in the determination of their syllabus objectives should consider shifting their focus more to the sentence level as challenging enough to the point of hindering students' paragraph and essay progress. A fact that is the contrary to their current belief of essay being the most challenging because it is only as challenging due to the shared sentence level gaps (coherence and cohesion weaknesses). Secondly, in addition to students' syntactical weaknesses, teachers need to consider syntactical preferences also as an L1 transfer. As such, any remedial work should be more rigorous because of the common, resistant nature of mother tongue transfers.

The chief recommendation to writing teachers is considering more sentence level intensive work and consecrating more time until at least proper compound and complex sentence types are achieved to take the next two steps of paragraph than essay writing. Having managed the sentence level writing, this would have ample benefits on their paragraph writing and eventually essay writing. Since subordination is the main characteristic of the authentic English writing style, more focus should be placed on it. Once students are able to see how the dependent can complement and compliment the independent, they probably would achieve a rather versatile, polished and decorative authentic syntactical English writing style.

In brief, the recommendations are a sort of an extended invitation to both decision makers and EFL writing teachers. They are invited to integrate these recommendations in the aims of their curriculums and the objectives of their syllabuses. The goal of these

recommendations is improving students overall writing level and give it a more authentic, polished look and feel when in reading.

## Conclusion

The concluded chapter comprised analysis, interpretations, and drawn conclusions about the data yielded from the various research methods. Data was a combination of the qualitative and quantitative provided by questionnaires and pre and post-testing. All operations were performed descriptively and inferentially. Discussion also made part of the chapter in correlation with the research advanced questions and hypotheses. The last final act was the summary of the whole work, the confronted limitations, future research suggestions, and proposed recommendations for persons of interest.

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# Appendices

**Appendix 1: Teacher Pre-training Questionnaire**

## TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

-------------------------------------------------------------------------------

**Respected Teachers,**

**The present questionnaire aims at the collection of data related to teachers' attitudes towards both the teaching of writing in general and of academic writing to M1 students in particular in addition to the faced difficulties, especially style-wise. To the fulfillment of this aim, you are kindly invited to answer the down listed questions with the expression of our profound gratitude.**

**The collected data will be used for the intentions and purposes of this particular and sole study with special attention given to both anonymity and strict confidentiality.**

-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

## I. Personal Information

1. Tick in (✓) the box for the number of years you have been teaching English language.

1-5 ☐          6-10 ☐          11-15 ☐          Over 15 ☐

2. Tick in (✓) the box if you have ever taught writing.

Yes ☐          No ☐

3. Tick in (✓) the box for the number of years you have taught writing, if yes.

1-5 ☐          6-10 ☐          11-15 ☐          Over 15 ☐

4. Tick in (✓) the box if you have ever taught **academic writing to Master's 1 students**.

Yes ☐          No ☐

5. Tick in (✓) the box for the number of years you have taught **academic writing to Master's 1 students,** if yes.

1-5 ☐          6-10 ☐          11-15 ☐          Over 15 ☐

## II. Syllabus satisfaction

1. Tick (✓) in the box for which writing level you are required to teach, multiple box ticking is valid.

Sentence level ☐     Paragraph level ☐          Essay ☐

2. Tick (✓) in the box for which writing level, in your opinion, is the most demanding, multiple box ticking is valid.

Sentence level ☐  Paragraph level ☐  Essay ☐

If possible, explain why: ……………………………………………………………………..

………………………………………………………………………………………………..

………………………………………………………………………………………...…………

…………………………………………………………………………………………...…………

3. Mark (X) on the scale for how satisfied you are with the provided Writing course syllabus.

|———————————|———————————|———————————|

Very satisfied          Satisfied              Neutral              Dissatisfied
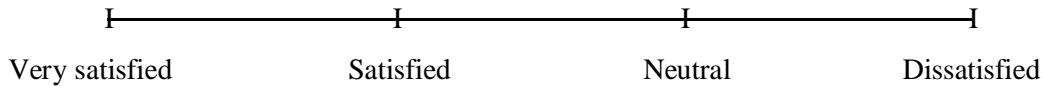
If possible, explain why: …………………………………………………………..………..

…………………………………………………………………………………….…………..…..

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………………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. Tick (✓) in the box if you ever add any elements to the provided Writing course syllabus following students' needs.

Yes ☐          No ☐

If possible, list down the elements usually added: ……………………………………….…..

………………………………………………………………………………...…………………

………………………………………………………………………………………….…………

………………………………………………………………………………………….…………

5. Mark (X) on the scale to how often you add elements to the provided syllabus, if yes.

|———————————|———————————|———————————|

Often              Frequently            Occasionally            Rarely
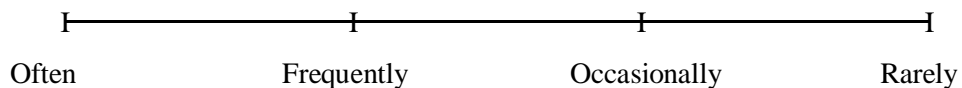
**III. Writing difficulties**

1. Mark (X) on the scale to rate students' writing performance level, comprehensively.

|———————————|———————————|———————————|

Excellent to very good      Good to average        Fair to poor        Very poor
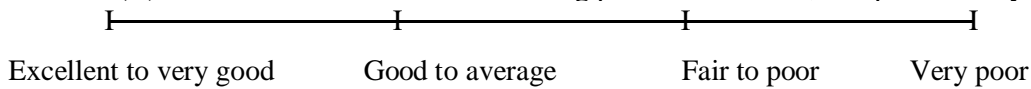
2. Tick (✓) in the box for the type of difficulty that students most commonly face in writing, multiple box ticking is valid.

Topic development ☐      Organization ☐      Grammar ☐

Vocabulary ☐      Coherence ☐      Cohesion ☐

All the above ☐

If any other, specify: ……………………………………………………...…………………..

………………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

3. Tick (✓) in the box for the mechanical aspect that students most commonly face difficulty with, multiple box ticking is valid.

Spelling ☐    Capitalization ☐    Punctuation ☐

Abbreviation ☐    All the above ☐

4. Tick (✓) in the table for the cohesion aspect that students most commonly face difficulty with, multiple box ticking is valid.

| Grammatical Cohesion | | Lexical Cohesion | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Reference | | Reiteration | |
| Substitution | | Collocation | |
| Conjunctions | | All the above | |
| Ellipsis | | | |
| All the above | | | |

5. Tick (✓) in the table for the coherence aspect that students most commonly face difficulty with, multiple box ticking is valid.

| Coherence between Words | | Coherence between Sentences | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Parallel structures | | Word repetition (Reiteration) | |
| | | Transitional devices (Words) | |
| | | Conjunctions | |
| | | All the above | |
| **Coherence between Paragraphs** | | | |
| Transitional devices (Words) | | Transitional sentences development | |
| Thesis statement development | | Thesis restatement | |
| Building sentences development | | Topic sentences restatement | |
| Topic sentence development | | Final thought development | |
| Supporting sentences development | | All the above | |

## IV. First language transfer

1. Tick (✓) in the box for the students' most common syntactical choice, multiple box ticking is valid.

Simple ☐    Compound ☐    Complex ☐

Compound complex ☐

If possible, provide possible reasons behind this choice: …..……..…………..….……………..

…………………………………………………………………………………………….……………

…………………………………………………………………………………………….……………

…………………………………………………………………………………………….……………

2. Tick (✓) in the box for the sentence type you usually recommend students to use in their essay writing, multiple box ticking is valid

Simple [ ]          Compound [ ]          Complex [ ]

Compound complex [ ]

If possible, explain why: …………………………...…………………………………...…………...

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………….

3. Tick (✓) in the box for the students' most common connection practice at the sentence level.

Coordination [ ]          Subordination [ ]

If possible, provide possible reasons behind this practice: …………………………………….……..

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. Tick (✓) in the box for the students' most common mechanical sentence error, multiple box ticking is valid.

Comma splice (Run-on sentence) [ ]          Fused sentence (Run-on sentence) [ ]

Fragment [ ]                                      All the aforementioned [ ]

5. Briefly mention the existing **differences between Arabic and English writing styles** that you are familiar with: ……………………………...……………………………………….……………..

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………

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6. Tick in (✓) the box if these writing style differences exist in your students writing.

Yes [ ]          No [ ]

If yes, mention the frequently used ones: ……...……………………….…….………………..

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………

7. Tick in (✓) the box if you believe that part of students writing difficulties is related to their L1/EFL writing style differences.

Yes ☐          No ☐

If yes, explain why: ………………………………………………..…………..…………..…..

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

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Your participation is deeply appreciated.

**Appendix 2: Student Pre-training Questionnaire**

## STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE
-------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Fellow students,

The present questionnaire aims at data collection related to EFL students' syntactical writing style at the tertiary level (Master's I). Therefore, you are kindly invited to answer the down listed questions.

The collected data will be used for the intentions and purposes of this particular and sole study with priority given to anonymity and strict confidentiality.

### I. Personal Information

1. Tick (✓) in the box for male or female

Male ☐          Female ☐

2. Tick (✓) in the box for how old you are

20 ☐   21 ☐   22 ☐   23 ☐   Others ☐

3. Tick (✓) in the box for the relevant first official language

Arabic ☐   Berber ☐   French ☐   If none of the previous, specify: ……….………..

4. Tick (✓) in the box for the type of degree that you hold

BA System ☐   LMD System ☐   Old License System ☐

5. Tick (✓) in the box if you have ever received any tutoring by an English native teacher?

Yes ☐          No ☐

If yes, mention the type of course: ………………………………..………………………………..

### II. Writing difficulties

1. Tick (✓) in the box if you have writing difficulties.

Yes ☐          No ☐

2. At what level you have writing difficulties?

Sentence level ☐          Paragraph level ☐          Essay ☐

3. Please rank the following sentence types in order of use in your assay writing from 1 to 4 where
   1 is the most used and 4 is least used.

Simple sentence ☐

Compound sentence ☐

Complex sentence ☐

Compound-complex sentence ☐

If possible, explain your ranking: …………………………..…….…………………….………..

………………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. Tick (✓) in the box for the type of difficulty you face at the sentence level.

Idea connection (Transition & Junction) ☐  Grammatical (Structures) ☐

Mechanics (Spelling, punctuation, Capitalization) ☐

Vocabulary (Word choice) ☐  All the above ☐

5. Tick (✓) in the table for the type of sentence errors you are familiar with.

| Sentence Error Types | | |
|---|---|---|
| Sentence fragment (Incomplete sentence) | Fused sentence (Run-on sentence) | |
| Incomplete meaning sentence | Comma splice (Run-on sentence) | |
| Under loaded sentence (Choppy sentence) | Unparalleled structure sentence | |
| Overloaded sentence | Duplicate subject (Double subject) | |
| Pronoun-reference agreement | Misplaced & dangling modifiers | |
| Subject-verb agreement | | |
| Ambiguous reference | All the above | |

## III. Conjunction identification

1. Tick (✓) in the Table for the **coordinating conjunctions** from the down-listed conjunction types

| Coordinating Conjunctions Types | | |
|---|---|---|
| Cause and effect | Place | |
| Condition | Purpose | |
| Concession | Reason | |
| Contrast | Relative adjectives | |
| Comparison | Relative pronouns | |
| FANBOYS | Time | |
| Manner | | |
| Opposition | All the above | |

If possible, mention a few: …..…………………………..…….…………………..…………..

………………………………………………………………………………………….………….

2. Mark (X) on the scale to how often you use **coordinating conjunctions** to join clauses in your essay writing.

| Frequently | Occasionally | Rarely | Never |
|---|---|---|---|
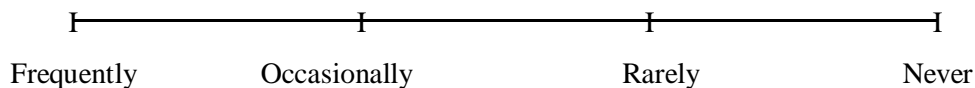
3. Tick (✓) in the box for the **subordinating conjunctions** from the down-listed conjunction types

| Subordinating Conjunctions Types | | |
|---|---|---|
| Cause and effect | Place | |
| Condition | Purpose | |
| Concession | Reason | |
| Contrast | Relative adjectives | |
| Comparison | Relative pronouns | |
| FANBOYS | Time | |
| Manner | | |
| Opposition | All the above | |

If possible, mention a few: …………………………………………………………….…………..

………………………………………………………………………………………….…………

………………………………………………………………………….……………………..………

4. Mark (X) on the scale to how often do you use **subordinating conjunctions** to join clauses in your essay writing?

⊢————————————⊣————————————⊣————————————⊣

Frequently             Occasionally             Rarely             Never
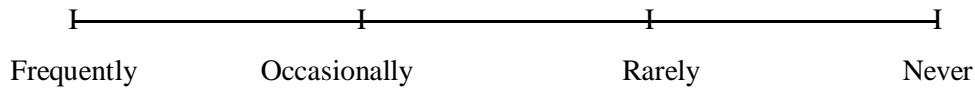
## IV. Clause identification

1. By ticking (✓) in the box, select the **independent clause (A or B)** in the given example.
E.g.: Although the study was properly conducted, the results were inconclusive.

A ☐                             B ☐

If possible, explain your choice: ………….……………………………………………………...……

………………………………………………………………………………………………………….

………………………………………………………………………….…..…………………..

……………………………………………………………………………………………….………

2. By ticking (✓) in the box, select the **dependent clause (A or B)** in the given example.

E.g.: Classroom presence rate has augmented since Covid 19 reported cases dropped down.

A ☐                             B ☐

If possible, explain your choice: ………….……………………………………………...……..…..……

………………………………………………………………………….…………………………….

……………………………………………………………………………………………………….

……………………………………………………………………………….……………………

3.  By ticking (✓) in the box, select the **superordinate clause (A or B)** in the given example.

E.g.: Now since the confinement has been lifted, people are going back to their normal routine life.

        A   [     ]                         B   [     ]

If possible, explain your choice: ……….…………………………………………………..……

……………………………………………………………………………………….……….………

……………………………………………………………………………………….……….………

……………………………………………………………………………………….……..………

4.  By ticking (✓) in the box, select the **subordinate clause (A or B)** in the given example.

E.g.: Economy worldwide has been negatively affected because of the pandemic.

        A  [     ]                         B  [     ]

If possible, explain your choice: …………………….…………………………….…………..………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………

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Your participation is deeply appreciated.

**Appendix 3: Student Pre-training test (Pretest)**

## PRETEST

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The pretesting predominantly aimed at diagnosing the syntactical and the punctuation difficulties that M1 students at Biskra University are currently facing. Additionally, exploiting the graded results in the hypothesis testing.

**Pretest subject matter**

In no more than two paragraphs eight to ten lines each develop one of either topics.

Topic 01: Controlling stress in the student's life

 A: Taking up a hobby.

 B: Maintaining close relations with family and friends.

 C: Exercising regularly.

 D: Setting realistic goals

Topic 02:  Studying in Great Britain

 A: Punctuality of the British

 B: The British expectation of student speaking up in class

## Appendix 4: Training Lesson N° 01

Mohamed Khider Biskra University          Level: **Master 1 Sciences of language**
Faculty of letters and languages          Course: **Academic Writing**
Department of foreign languages- English Division          **Training Lesson N° 01/ Time frame: 30 Mins**

**Exercise 01:** Fill in the gaps with the appropriate conjunction (And, so, but)

Culture is said to be the identity of a society, and language is its own voice. Culture understanding is very important for language understanding. The learner must bridge the two, ……..…… **(1)** he can be a fully functioning language user. Therefore in the learning process, they are not separate systems, ..……..…… **(2)** they are considered as two sides to the same coin. Yet cultural differences may cause both mistakes and misunderstandings, ……..… **(3)** they need to be appropriately considered. Thus, awareness of what cultural differences are, their effects, and the goal of culture inclusion in language teaching is a must.

**Exercise 02:**      Fill in the gaps with the appropriate conjunction (Rather than, if, in order to)

Culture is said to be the identity of a society, and language is its own voice. Culture understanding is very important for language understanding. The learner must bridge the two ……..…… **(1)** be a fully functioning language user. Therefore in the learning process, they are considered as two sides to the same coin ……..…… **(2)** separate systems. Yet, cultural differences may cause both mistakes and misunderstandings ……..…… **(3)** not appropriately considered. Thus, awareness of cultural differences, their effects, and the goal of culture inclusion in language teaching is a must.

**Exercise 03:** Fill in the gaps with the appropriate conjunctions (And, but, and, and)

The concept of brain dominance, or hemispheric dominance, refers to the general tendency of individuals to rely on one of the brain hemispheres and its functioning mode more than the other. Brain dominance is argued to be the general determiner of many personality traits, thinking modes, learning styles, personality types, social behavior, and so on. Research found out that the right and left hemispheres of the brain think and process information in very different ways, ……..…..…… **(1)** it proved the existence of actual biological brain-structure differences between left and right brain-oriented people. The main intellectual functions "lateralized" to the right hemisphere are rhythm, music, spatial awareness, depth, synthesis, color, dimension, imagination, facial recognition, along with emotions and social abilities. The right hemisphere processes mostly concrete data as a whole, ……..…..…… **(2)** it is pragmatically proficient. ……..…..…… **(3)** the left hemisphere processes specific abstract data in details, ……..…..…… **(4)** it is linguistically proficient. In addition to dominating mental skills, encompassing activities like language, speech output, words, reasoning,

logic, numbers, sequence, linearity, analysis, and lists. Such definition gives logical explanation to the individuals' different behavioral choices.

**Exercise 04:** Fill in the gaps with the appropriate conjunctions (While, in that, since)

The concept of brain dominance, or hemispheric dominance, refers to the general tendency of individuals to rely on one of the brain hemispheres and its functioning mode more than the other. Brain dominance is argued to be the general determiner of many personality traits, thinking modes, learning styles, personality types, social behavior, and so on. ……..….…… **(1)** proving the existence of actual biological brain-structure differences between left and right brain-oriented people, research found out that the right and left hemispheres of the brain think and process information in very different ways. The main intellectual functions "lateralized" to the right hemisphere are rhythm, music, spatial awareness, depth, synthesis, color, dimension, imagination, facial recognition, along with emotions and social abilities. The right hemisphere is pragmatically proficient ……..….…… **(2)** processes mostly concrete data as a whole. ……..….…… **(3)** the left hemisphere is linguistically proficient, it processes specific abstract data in details. In addition to dominating mental skills, encompassing activities like language, speech output, words, reasoning, logic, numbers, sequence, linearity, analysis, and lists. Such definition gives logical explanation to the individuals' different behavioral choices.

Your participation is deeply appreciated.

| --------------------------------------------- | ------------------------------------------------------------ |
| **Glossary: (Activity 01 & 02)** | --------- <br> (Adapted from Alyasery Abdulqawi, "The impact of culture on English language learning in Arab world," Aligarh Muslim University). <br> Reference link: <br> https://www.academia.edu/43385266/The_Impact_of_Culture_on_English_Language_Learning_in_the_Arab__World |
| **Glossary: (Activity 03 & 04)** <br> *Hemispheric:* having the shape of a half of a sphere. <br> *Lateralize:* <br> Localization of a function, such as speech, to the right or left side of the brain. | (Adapted from Almanea Manar, "Brain hemisphericity and Saudi students' EFL reading comprehension," Arab World English Journal) <br> (Soleimani Hassan & Matin. Sh Fateme, "On the relationship between right-brain and left-brain dominance and reading comprehension test performance of Iranian EFL learners, " BRAIN). <br><br> Reference link: https://awej.org/brain-hemisphericity-and-saudi-students-efl-reading-comprehension/ <br> https://www.edusoft.ro/brain/index.php/brain/article/view/362 |

## Appendix 5: Training Lesson N° 02

**Exercise 01:** By assigning numbers from 01 to 07, re-order the jumbled sentences to make a coherent paragraph

**(A)** In addition to dealing with authentic high-level classroom communication. (…….…..)

**(B)** **In order to** handle the complex authentic real-life communication, (…….…..)

**(C)** The goal of including culture in language teaching and learning is the development of intercultural communicative competence (…….…..)

**(D)** **rather than** native speaker competence. (…….…..)

**(E)** such incorporative practice is important for the language learner or user. (…….…..)

**(F)** A competence that enables appropriate interpreting and understanding of culturally-induced behaviors. (…….…..)

**(G)** Culture incorporation essentially help preparing language learners for real-life situations they are probably to encounter **while** visiting any western country. (…….…..)

**Exercise 02:** By assigning numbers from 01 to 07, re-order the jumbled sentences to make a coherent paragraph

**(A)** Brain dominance was one of the concepts resulting from that research, (………………..)

**(B)** Its types, and its relation to language. (………………..)

**(C)** The brain has been the interest subject of research both physically and psychologically. (………………..)

**(E)** The human brain was, still is, and will probably always be one of the most intriguing and controversial investigative territories. (………………..)

**(D)** **which** was widely used to explain language-related matters. (………………..)

**(F)** **Whenever** brain is mentioned, language is always present. (………………..)

**(G)** Thus, it is of importance to know what brain dominance is? (………………..)

Your participation is deeply appreciated.

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**Glossary: (Activity 01)**

*Competence*: Ability to do something successfully or efficiently.

*Communicative competence*: Ability to appropriate use of grammatical and social knowledge within communication.

*Intercultural communicative competence:* Ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in various cultural contexts.

*Incorporative:* Tending to incorporate or include things.

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**Glossary: (Activity 02)**

*Controversial*: Causing disagreement or discussion.

*Intriguing*: Interesting for being unusual or mysterious.

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(Adapted from Alyasery Abdulqawi, "The impact of culture on English language learning in Arab world," Aligarh Muslim University).

Reference link: https://www.academia.edu/43385266/The_Impact_of_Culture_on_English_Language_Learning_in_the_Arab_World

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(Adapted from Almanea Manar, "Brain hemisphericity and Saudi students' EFL reading comprehension," Arab World English Journal) (Soleimani Hassan & Matin. Sh Fateme, "On the relationship between right-brain and left-brain dominance and reading comprehension test performance of Iranian EFL learners, " BRAIN).

Reference link: https://awej.org/brain-hemisphericity-and-saudi-students-efl-reading-comprehension/ https://www.edusoft.ro/brain/index.php/brain/article/view/362

**Appendix 6: Training Lesson N° 03**

Mohamed Khider Biskra University                    Level: **Master 1 Sciences of language**
Faculty of letters and languages                    Course: **Academic Writing**
Department of foreign languages- English Division    **Training Lesson N° 03/ Time frame: 30 Mins**


**Exercise 01:**     Following the provided examples, give two examples of your own employing the provided subordinating conjunction (Rather than, till, until), once at the beginning of the sentence and again within the sentence.

**1. Rather than** speculating about the results, the researcher presented tangible evidence.

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

**2.** The researcher presented tangible evidence **rather than** speculating about the results.

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

**3. Till** the dust clears, the disaster magnitude will remain unknown.

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

**4.** The disaster magnitude will remain unknown **till** the dust clears.

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

**5. Until** recent times, culture was not a part of language teaching.

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

**6.** Culture was not part of language teaching **until** recent times.

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

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Your participation is deeply appreciated.

**Appendix 7: Training Lesson N° 04**

# COHESION IN ACADEMIC WRITING
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## Why is cohesion important?

Cohesion is an important component is academic writing. It enables the reader to follow the line of your argument clearly and to understand your point of view. In addition, using this skill mans that your test avoids repetition. More cohesive text are also more interesting.

## What strategies can be used to increase cohesion?

### Referring backwards

High-frequency **COLLOCATIONS** which can be used in your text to refer to information already referenced include *as noted above*, *as mentioned previously* and *as discussed earlier*. When using such phrases, ensure that the point is clear to the reader. In addition to this, there are several grammatical strategies which can be used to avoid repeating the same language. This is important, as otherwise your academic writing may lack variety and consequently be less interesting to the reader. Three particular common and effective strategies are as follows:

**Personal pronouns** …as Smith (2000) argues ….. He further states that articles … The grammatical job of a pronoun is to replace a noun phrase. Without pronouns, it would be necessary to repeat the same noun phrases again and again, which would make the text less interesting to read. In academic writing, third-person pronouns *(he/she/it/one/they)* are most commonly used, since first- and second-person pronouns *(I* and *you)* are considered subjective and informal.

**Demonstrative Pronouns** He further states that articles which do not cohere can confuse a reader, whereas those which do cohere can assist them. Using this category of words *(this/that/these/those)* enables the writer to refer to a particular idea or object. In the example above, *those* refer back to the word article. This is particularly common in academic English. Definite article … the understanding is likely to increase. One of the main functions of the definite article is to indicate that the writer and the reader have a shared understanding of a particular term.

### Referring forwards

There are a number of words and phrases which can be used in order to indicate to the reader that new information is coming. When a reader expects new information, transition between

ideas is much easier. Such phrases include: *below, next, as follows, the following, subsequently* and *consequently.*

**Word chain**

A word chain is a sequence of words used in a piece of writing which have a close relationship to each other. Sometimes these words may be from the same word family, or be synonyms of each other, or indeed may be umbrella terms.

**Word family** Cohesion … cohesive … cohere … cohesively

Repetition of the same word (or word ROOT) may be used as a mechanism for increasing the links between sentences. However, frequent repetition of exactly the same word may cause the reader to lose interest, and it may be wise to use different word classes from the same root instead.

**Synonyms** Text … writing … article.

Word chain may also be achieved by using synonyms of the same word. This will enable the reader to make links, whether consciously or subconsciously between the terms.

**Umbrella terms** These strategies can help you attain higher standard of writing.

A word chain may also use umbrella terms – broad, wide-ranging terms which can be used to refer to several different ideas at the same time. In the example above, the word strategies is a general way of referring to the three specific ideas mentioned previously.

**Linking devices**

Whereas …. In short. Linking devices, such as **conjunctions** and **adverbs**, are an extremely effective way of increasing the cohesiveness of a text. Words such as *however, therefore* and *moreover, for example*, indicates contrast, conclusion and addition. Indeed, linking devices are such an important aspect of cohesion that the next step is entirely focused on them.

**Punctuation**

Finally, increased cohesion makes your text more interesting; if it is more interesting, the understanding is likely to increase. Although punctuation is often sometimes which is feared by students, it can help considerably in increasing cohesion. In the academic text, there are specific marks which are frequently used in order to do this

The colon : which indicates a list, or that the information which follows is important.

The semicolon ; which indicates a close thematic link between two sentences.

Brackets ( ) which can be used to demonstrate that certain information is relatively less important.

# ACTIVATION

**Look at the following information about the English language. Rewrite this information as a single cohesive paragraph.**

Use as many mechanisms identified above (strategies used to increase cohesion) as you can.

- English is an important world language.
- English is the international language of business. Can bring economic development.
- The role of English: developing relationships and diplomacy improvements. English is one of the official languages of the United Nations.
- English is important in culture.

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(Adapted from Sowton, C, "50 steps to improving academic writing")

## LINKING DEVICES IN ACADEMIC WRITING

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### What is the purpose of linking devices?

**Function**

**Linking devices** (LDs) are a common feature of academic writing. There are three main ways in which they can improve the quality of your academic writing:

LDs increase the cohesion of your academic writing, showing the relationship between your different ideas.

LDs add shape and clarity to your academic writing, enabling to express exactly what you want to say.

LDs make your academic writing sound more professional.

Linking devices have a number of specific language functions, such as sequencing, summarizing and referencing. Linking devices enable writers to express their ideas naturally. Linking devices can be extremely useful, it is important not to overuse them, your writing may sound too verbose. Not using them enough will make your writing sound simplistic. Be sure that you use a suitable range of linking devices.

**Common problems**

Since LDs are so common in both spoken and written English, students can normally understand a considerable number of them. They are part of your **passive vocabulary** but not necessarily your **active vocabulary**. As a result, it is common to either (a) not use enough LDs or (b) continually use 'old favorites' such as *however, therefore, although* and *on the other hand* in your writing. The problem with using the same LDs all the time is that your writing will lack variety, specificity and sophistication.

In addition, there is a third problem which some students face: the overuse of LDs. When LDs are overused, they tend to lose their impact, and your writing may become repetitive and vague this example of **tautology** is demonstrated below, by adding an unnecessary LD to two sentences from the text:

… Furthermore, ~~in addition~~, linking devices enable writers to express their ideas naturally.

… In contrast~~, on the other hand~~, not using them enough will make your writing sound simplistic.

**Grammar**

Grammatically speaking, a LD can either joint a sentence to a previous sentence, or else link a **subordinate clause** to an **independent clause**. When a LD joins a new sentence to a previous sentence, it is followed by a comma. However, for the sake of emphasis/variety, it may also appear later in the sentence, where it is surrounded by commas:

In contrast, not using them enough will make your writing sound simplistic.

Not using them enough, in contrast, will make your writing sound simplistic.

However, when a LD joins two clauses, it precedes the subordinate clause and is *not followed* by a comma.

Although linking devices can be extremely useful, it is important not to overuse them.

It is important not to overuse linking devices, although they can be extremely useful.

**What is the function of linking devices?**

This list also includes examples of signposting language – language such as *noted previously* – which can be used by the reader to navigate through a text. In addition, some of the expressions below must followed by a nouns to make sense (e.g., besides). The 'X' indicates where this is the case.

| Function | Sentence to previous sentence | Subordinate clause to main clause |
| --- | --- | --- |
| To add information | Furthermore, in addition, moreover, beside X, apart from X | And, as well as |
| To show cause and effect | Therefore, thus, hence, consequently, as a result, for this reason, accordingly | Because, since, as , otherwise |
| To contrast /contradict information | In contrast, on the other hand, conversely, however, nevertheless, meanwhile, on the contrary | Whereas |
| To emphasize/highlight | In fact, indeed | - |
| To equate/show similarity | In the same way, similarly, likewise | - |
| To refer back | As noted above, as stated previously | - |
| To present alternatives | Alternatively, on the other hand, then again | - |
| To provide supporting information | For example, for instance, in this case, to illustrate this | - |

| To show a sequence | Finally, subsequently, first of all, to begin with, at first, firstly, secondly, thirdly, etc. | After, before, when, while, as, until |
|---|---|---|
| To summarize/simplify | On the whole, in brief, to conclude, in conclusion, in summary, to sum up, in other words | - |

*Note.* Many of the words within the same table cell have *similar* rather than *identical* meanings. Check then in context to see how they work.

## ACTIVATION

**In the following passage, written by z student, the teacher has identified a number of mistakes related to linking devices.**

Complete the table which follows with appropriate feedback for the student.

**Some call these kinds linking devices. Others[1] call then transitional devices. Because[2] students do not have a sufficient range of linking devices, they tend to overuse the same ones. Students could benefit significantly by learning 15 to 20 key linking devices, but they do not want to take the time to learn them[3]. As a result[4] they seldom improve and the problem remains. Therefore, in conclusion[5], teachers should provide more support in this important area.**

| **Teacher feedback** |
|---|
| 1- These two sentences could be more cohesive if a contrastive linking device such as *while* or *whereas* was used |
| 2- |
| 3- |
| 4- |
| 5- |

(Adapted from Sowton, C, "50 steps to improving academic writing")

**Appendix 9: Training Lesson N° 06**

## SENTENCES IN ACADEMIC WRITING
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### What is a sentence?

A common myth about academic writing is that sentences have to be extremely long. This is simply not true. There is no specific or required length for as sentence: sentences should be as long as they need to be. The most important thing is that you are comfortable with the length of the sentence you are writing. Problems can arise when people try to write sentences which are too long: one mistake can make the whole sentence difficult to understand. Before analyzing what makes a good sentence, it may be useful to review what its core principles are. Grammatically speaking, a sentence contains at least one **clause** which contains both a subject and a verb. In addition, writing good sentences requires you to have a good understanding of **word class** (see opposite). You will also need to know the basic rules of **syntax,** the principles and the rules which govern how a sentence is constructed. In English, some of these key principles are as follows:

> Word order is subject-verb-object
>
> Adjectives precede nouns
>
> Preposition precede the words to which they refer
>
> Adverbs can have flexible position

### What different types of sentence are there in English?

Good text tend to contain a mixture of different types of sentences. Variety is an extremely important aspect of academic writing. An outline of four basic sentence types in English appears below.

### Simple sentences

Sentences are the fundamental building bock of a text. Simple sentences are composed of a single independent clause (i.e., a subject and a verb). By definition, simple sentences tend to be relatively short. If you lack confidence in writing sentences, it is best to focus on using this type of sentence.

### Compound sentences

Longer and more fully-formed sentences may be a goal, for they represent a more mature form of writing. Compound sentences are composed of two independent clauses joined together by a **coordinating conjunction**.  Commonly used coordinating conjunctions

include *for, and, nut, not, or, yet,* and *so.* Compound sentences can be particularly effective when you want to compare or contrast the relationship between tow equally important pieces of information.

**Complex sentences**

Although sentences in academic writing may be quite long, you do not necessarily need to imitate this yet.

A complex sentence consists of both an independent and a **subordinate clause**. Complex sentences, which always contain either a **subordinate conjunction** (e.g., because, although) or a **relative pronoun** (e.g., who, that), are composed of an independent clause and dependent clause.

**Complex-compound sentences**

Sentence variety, which is absent from many student essays, can be achieved in a number of different ways and is an important aspect of academic writing.

A complex-compound sentence mixes the previous two sentences types. It consists of at least two independent clauses and at least one subordinate clause. While this type of sentence is common in academic writing, such sentences can be challenging to write at first.


**What sentence problems are common in English?**

**Short sentences**

It is often ignored.

Too many short sentences can make your text sound immature. One important aspect of academic writing is to show clearly the relationship between different ideas; this is difficult to do on a regular basis by only using short sentences. A balance between different forms is, therefore, important.

**Overlong sentences**

In addition, the issue of sentence variety is important but it is often not noticed by students or taught in classrooms and this is an error but one which is common and found throughout the world.

This is not to say that long sentences are inherently bad, however, problems emerge when students write sentences which are longer than they are capable of writing. The **syntax** may because extremely confusing and difficult to follow. One common problem is that a number of sentences are linked together by simple conjunctions such as *and* and *but.*

**Run-on sentences**

One of these ways is to insure that you use lots of different types of sentences another is to use a rage of different language.

In an attempt to sound more 'academic' students' may join sentences together with a comma (or even just place two sentences next to each other without any punctuation).

**Sentence fragments**

Because sentences are important.

Sentence fragments may just be a subordinate clause (not an independent clause). You can check if you have written a sentence fragment rather than a full sentence by asking three questions:

Is there a verb? If not, add one.

Is there a subject? If not, add one.

Is there a **subordinating conjunctions**? If so, delete is, or add a subordinate clause.

## ACTIVATION

**Write a paragraph in response in response to the following question: 'What different types of sentence are there in English?'**

Ensure that you use each of the sentence types outlined in part above at least once.

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(Adapted from Sowton, C, "50 steps to improving academic writing")

## PUNCTUATION IN ACADEMIC WRITING
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### What is the purpose of punctuation?

In speech, features such as intonation, pitch and pauses can be used to clarify meaning. In writing, punctuation performs this function. Punctuation enables the writer to say exactly what they want to say and therefore minimize misunderstanding. It is therefore extremely important in academic writing. The following table identifies the most commonly punctuation marks in English and their functions. You should refer back to text in the previous page to see the punctuation in context.

| Punctuation mark | Name | Function(s) of punctuation mark |
| --- | --- | --- |
| ' | Apostrophe | 1- To distinguish possession (with nouns) <br> 2- To replace deleted letters in words (contraction) |
| ( ) [ ] | Brackets | 1- To add information which is important, but not directly relevant to the sentence <br> 2- To indicate authorship when referencing |
| : | Colon | 1- To introduce a series, example or explanation <br> 2- To separate the year and the page (in referencing) |
| , | Comma | To divide the sentence into smaller units of meaning (e.g., **relative clauses, subordinate clauses**, list) |
| - abc - | Dashes | To represent a break in thought or idea |
| … | Ellipsis | To show where words/sentences have been deleted in a longer passage of writing |
| ! | Exclamation mark | To indicate extreme emotion, e.g., surprise, amazement or happiness |
| . | Full stop/period | To mark the end of a sentence |
| - | Hyphen | To join separate words together to form **compound words** |
| ? | Question mark | To indicate that a question is being asked |
| ' ' and " " | Quotation marks | To make it explicit that an author's exact words are being used |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| ; | semicolon | 1- To specify a close thematic relationship between two clauses within a sentence |
| | | 2- To divide a list of bullet points |

- In lists: Commas can be used to separate items in lists, for introductory adverbs and for **apposition**.

- separating clauses: If a **subordinate clause** precedes an **independent cause**, a comma can be used.

- Certain relative clauses: Non-defining relative clauses, which add information, need commas.

- **Opposition**: a way of defining nouns by using commas is an effective academic tool.

- Before quotations: According to Sowton (2012), 'Commas are … very important'.

- Before introductory adverbs: Clearly, commas can be effectively used after introductory adverbs.

Note: they should not be used to link sentences together. This 'comma splicing' is a common error. A full stop or, if the sentences are closely related, a semicolon should be used instead.

## What punctuation is/is not used in academic writing?

**Punctuation which does not generally occur in academic writing**

Certain punctuation is generally considered informal, and is not commonly used in academic writing. In the table below, acceptable academic alternatives are provided.

| Punctuation mark | Alternative |
|---|---|
| Exclamation mark | - Stance adverbials (e.g., controversially, importantly) |
| | - Emphatic adjectives (e.g., revolutionary work, groundbreaking paper, radical thesis) |
| Dashes | - Brackets |
| | - Relative clauses |
| | - Prepositions (e.g., 12 to 15 not 12-15) |
| Apostrophes (for contraction) | Full forms (e.g., cannot, do not, will not, it is, they are) |

**Punctuation which does generally occur in academic writing**

In contrast, the following punctuation marks are commonly used in academic English. The reasons for this, or the particular context in which these marks may be used, are explained in the right-hand column.

| Punctuation mark | Rationale |
|---|---|
| Semicolon | - Aids cohesion between complex ideas |
| | - Helps breakup a long sentence |

| | |
|---|---|
| Colon | - Enable clarity when listening and can add greater emphasis to the information which follows the colon |
| Brackets | - round brackets - ( ) – divide crucial information related to your argument from that which is supplementary<br>- Square brackets - [ ] – may be used with direct quotations clarify exactly what it meant, e.g., when a pronoun is used and it is impossible to understand what it means from the context (e.g., it was argued that 'She [the Prime Minister] was angry'.) |
| Ellipsis | - Allows you to follow good academic style and quote only the exact words necessary (e.g., 'She [the Prime Minister] was angry because ... of indiscipline'). |
| Quotation marks | - Single quotation marks are generally in academic English |
| Hyphen | - Compound adjectives are frequently used, and they are often created using a hyphen ( e.g., first-class, well-known) |

# ACTIVATION

**In terms of their punctuation/capitalization, how would you improve each of the following sentences?**

1- It is important to be able to distinguish important from less important information particularly in academic writing otherwise sentences look extremely long and are difficult to follow.

2- According to Otaqui (2000), 'punctuation is considered, as noted previously, by the overwhelming majority of professors to be a crucial factor in high-quality academic writing.'

3- Comma splicing is a serious problem in academic writing, proofreading is a good strategy for eliminating this problem.

4- capital letters should be used for proper names, the first word of a sentence and, as stoddart (2000: 208) argues in his book *guide to punctuation*, 'at the beginning of direct quotations'.

5- In addition to their use in references, there are three main areas where colons can be used, which are series, examples and explanations.

(Adapted from Sowton, C, "50 steps to improving academic writing")

**Appendix 11: Student Post-training Test (Post-test)**

## POST-TEST
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The post-testing mainly aimed at measuring how well developed the syntactical style and related punctuation mechanics of M1 students at Biskra University after experimentation. In addition to that exploiting the graded results in the hypothesis testing, same as the pretest.

**Post-test subject matter**

In no more than two paragraphs eight to ten lines each develop the given topic.

Topic 01: Studying study skills

Many students dread then, but test are an integral part of the educational system. To be prepared for the various examinations, they must endure over the years of their education, students must develop study skills that help them learn a range of new academic materials efficiently yet with maximum comprehension. A wide variety of study skills and techniques can aid students as they achieve their objectives in all of their classes.

## Appendix 12: Pearson Correlation Coefficient Critical Value Table

Critical Values for Pearson's Correlation Coefficient

| | Proportion in ONE Tail | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | .25 | .10 | .05 | .025 | .01 | .005 |
| | Proportion in TWO Tails | | | | | |
| DF | .50 | .20 | .10 | .05 | .02 | .01 |
| 1 | .7071 | .9511 | .9877 | .9969 | .9995 | .9999 |
| 2 | .5000 | .8000 | .9000 | .9500 | .9800 | .9900 |
| 3 | .4040 | .6870 | .8054 | .8783 | .9343 | .9587 |
| 4 | .3473 | .6084 | .7293 | .8114 | .8822 | .9172 |
| 5 | .3091 | .5509 | .6694 | .7545 | .8329 | .8745 |
| 6 | .2811 | .5067 | .6215 ⬅ | .7067 | .7887 | .8343 |
| 7 | .2596 | .4716 | .5822 | .6664 | .7498 | .7977 |
| 8 | .2423 | .4428 | .5494 | .6319 | .7155 | .7646 |
| 9 | .2281 | .4187 | .5214 | .6021 | .6851 | .7348 |
| 10 | .2161 | .3981 | .4973 | .5760 | .6581 | .7079 |
| 11 | .2058 | .3802 | .4762 | .5529 | .6339 | .6835 |
| 12 | .1968 | .3646 | .4575 | .5324 | .6120 | .6614 |
| 13 | .1890 | .3507 | .4409 | .5140 | .5923 | .6411 |
| 14 | .1820 | .3383 | .4259 | .4973 | .5742 | .6226 |
| 15 | .1757 | .3271 | .4124 | .4821 | .5577 | .6055 |
| 16 | .1700 | .3170 | .4000 | .4683 | .5425 | .5897 |
| 17 | .1649 | .3077 | .3887 | .4555 | .5285 | .5751 |
| 18 | .1602 | .2992 | .3783 | .4438 | .5155 | .5614 |
| 19 | .1558 | .2914 | .3687 | .4329 | .5034 | .5487 |
| 20 | .1518 | .2841 | .3598 | .4227 | .4921 | .5368 |
| 21 | .1481 | .2774 | .3515 ⬅ | .4132 | .4815 | .5256 |
| 22 | .1447 | .2711 | .3438 | .4044 | .4716 | .5151 |
| 23 | .1415 | .2653 | .3365 | .3961 | .4622 | .5052 |
| 24 | .1384 | .2598 | .3297 | .3882 | .4534 | .4958 |
| 25 | .1356 | .2546 | .3233 | .3809 | .4451 | .4869 |
| 26 | .1330 | .2497 | .3172 | .3739 | .4372 | .4785 |
| 27 | .1305 | .2451 | .3115 | .3673 | .4297 | .4705 |
| 28 | .1281 | .2407 | .3061 | .3610 | .4226 | .4629 |
| 29 | .1258 | .2366 | .3009 | .3550 | .4158 | .4556 |
| 30 | .1237 | .2327 | .2960 | .3494 | .4093 | .4487 |
| 31 | .1217 | .2289 | .2913 | .3440 | .4032 | .4421 |
| 32 | .1197 | .2254 | .2869 | .3388 | .3972 | .4357 |
| 33 | .1179 | .2220 | .2826 | .3338 | .3916 | .4296 |
| 34 | .1161 | .2187 | .2785 | .3291 | .3862 | .4238 |
| 35 | .1144 | .2156 | .2746 | .3246 | .3810 | .4182 |
| 36 | .1128 | .2126 | .2709 | .3202 | .3760 | .4128 |
| 37 | .1113 | .2097 | .2673 | .3160 | .3712 | .4076 |
| 38 | .1098 | .2070 | .2638 | .3120 | .3665 | .4026 |
| 39 | .1084 | .2043 | .2605 | .3081 | .3621 | .3978 |
| 40 | .1070 | .2018 | .2573 | .3044 | .3578 | .3932 |
| 41 | .1057 | .1993 | .2542 | .3008 | .3536 | .3887 |
| 42 | .1044 | .1970 | .2512 | .2973 | .3496 | .3843 |
| 43 | .1032 | .1947 | .2483 | .2940 | .3457 | .3801 |
| 44 | .1020 | .1925 | .2455 | .2907 | .3420 | .3761 |
| 45 | .1008 | .1903 | .2429 | .2876 | .3384 | .3721 |
| 46 | .0997 | .1883 | .2403 | .2845 | .3348 | .3683 |
| 47 | .0987 | .1863 | .2377 | .2816 | .3314 | .3646 |
| 48 | .0976 | .1843 | .2353 | .2787 | .3281 | .3610 |
| 49 | .0966 | .1825 | .2329 | .2759 | .3249 | .3575 |
| 50 | .0956 | .1806 | .2306 | .2732 | .3218 | .3542 |

# Critical Values for Pearson's Correlation Coefficient

| | Proportion in ONE Tail | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | .25 | .10 | .05 | .025 | .01 | .005 |
| | Proportion in TWO Tails | | | | | |
| DF | .50 | .20 | .10 | .05 | .02 | .01 |
| 51 | .0947 | .1789 | .2284 | .2706 | .3188 | .3509 |
| 52 | .0938 | .1772 | .2262 | .2681 | .3158 | .3477 |
| 53 | .0929 | .1755 | .2241 | .2656 | .3129 | .3445 |
| 54 | .0920 | .1739 | .2221 | .2632 | .3102 | .3415 |
| 55 | .0912 | .1723 | .2201 | .2609 | .3074 | .3385 |
| 56 | .0904 | .1708 | .2181 | .2586 | .3048 | .3357 |
| 57 | .0896 | .1693 | .2162 | .2564 | .3022 | .3328 |
| 58 | .0888 | .1678 | .2144 | .2542 | .2997 | .3301 |
| 59 | .0880 | .1664 | .2126 | .2521 | .2972 | .3274 |
| 60 | .0873 | .1650 | .2108 | .2500 | .2948 | .3248 |
| 61 | .0866 | .1636 | .2091 | .2480 | .2925 | .3223 |
| 62 | .0858 | .1623 | .2075 | .2461 | .2902 | .3198 |
| 63 | .0852 | .1610 | .2058 | .2441 | .2880 | .3173 |
| 64 | .0845 | .1598 | .2042 | .2423 | .2858 | .3150 |
| 65 | .0838 | .1586 | .2027 | .2404 | .2837 | .3126 |
| 66 | .0832 | .1574 | .2012 | .2387 | .2816 | .3104 |
| 67 | .0826 | .1562 | .1997 | .2369 | .2796 | .3081 |
| 68 | .0820 | .1550 | .1982 | .2352 | .2776 | .3060 |
| 69 | .0814 | .1539 | .1968 | .2335 | .2756 | .3038 |
| 70 | .0808 | .1528 | .1954 | .2319 | .2737 | .3017 |
| 71 | .0802 | .1517 | .1940 | .2303 | .2718 | .2997 |
| 72 | .0796 | .1507 | .1927 | .2287 | .2700 | .2977 |
| 73 | .0791 | .1497 | .1914 | .2272 | .2682 | .2957 |
| 74 | .0786 | .1486 | .1901 | .2257 | .2664 | .2938 |
| 75 | .0780 | .1477 | .1888 | .2242 | .2647 | .2919 |
| 76 | .0775 | .1467 | .1876 | .2227 | .2630 | .2900 |
| 77 | .0770 | .1457 | .1864 | .2213 | .2613 | .2882 |
| 78 | .0765 | .1448 | .1852 | .2199 | .2597 | .2864 |
| 79 | .0760 | .1439 | .1841 | .2185 | .2581 | .2847 |
| 80 | .0755 | .1430 | .1829 | .2172 | .2565 | .2830 |
| 81 | .0751 | .1421 | .1818 | .2159 | .2550 | .2813 |
| 82 | .0746 | .1412 | .1807 | .2146 | .2535 | .2796 |
| 83 | .0742 | .1404 | .1796 | .2133 | .2520 | .2780 |
| 84 | .0737 | .1396 | .1786 | .2120 | .2505 | .2764 |
| 85 | .0733 | .1387 | .1775 | .2108 | .2491 | .2748 |
| 86 | .0728 | .1379 | .1765 | .2096 | .2477 | .2732 |
| 87 | .0724 | .1371 | .1755 | .2084 | .2463 | .2717 |
| 88 | .0720 | .1364 | .1745 | .2072 | .2449 | .2702 |
| 89 | .0716 | .1356 | .1735 | .2061 | .2435 | .2687 |
| 90 | .0712 | .1348 | .1726 | .2050 | .2422 | .2673 |
| 91 | .0708 | .1341 | .1716 | .2039 | .2409 | .2659 |
| 92 | .0704 | .1334 | .1707 | .2028 | .2396 | .2645 |
| 93 | .0700 | .1327 | .1698 | .2017 | .2384 | .2631 |
| 94 | .0697 | .1320 | .1689 | .2006 | .2371 | .2617 |
| 95 | .0693 | .1313 | .1680 | .1996 | .2359 | .2604 |
| 96 | .0689 | .1306 | .1671 | .1986 | .2347 | .2591 |
| 97 | .0686 | .1299 | .1663 | .1975 | .2335 | .2578 |
| 98 | .0682 | .1292 | .1654 | .1966 | .2324 | .2565 |
| 99 | .0679 | .1286 | .1646 | .1956 | .2312 | .2553 |

# Résumé

Étant au niveau tertiaire, des niveaux de productivité avancés sont attendus des étudiants, tant à l'oral qu'à l'écrit. Tout comme l'exactitude des productions est exigée, ces productions doivent également être aussi authentiques et intéressantes que possible. Cependant, entre ce qui est attendu et ce qui est fourni, il y a un hiatus assez important. Outre l'exactitude de l'écriture, accorder de l'attention au style d'écriture pourrait permettre de combler au moins une partie de cet écart. La présente étude a évalué les effets des différences de style Arabe/Anglais sur l'amélioration du style syntaxique de l'écriture académique ALE : subordination vers coordination. Pour les besoins de notre recherche, une enquête a été menée auprès d'étudiants universitaires de Master 1 produisant des rédactions pour le module de l'écriture académique pendant l'année universitaire 2022-2023. L'objectif principal de l'étude était d'évaluer l'efficacité et la praticité du matériel supplémentaire axé sur le style (coordinations vers subordination) au programme actuel d'écriture académique en ALE. Pour atteindre cet objectif, une étude quasi expérimentale a été menée à travers les méthodes de questionnaire et de pré et posttests pour la collecte de données avec la mise en œuvre des procédures appropriées. Les résultats de l'analyse et de l'interprétation des données ont montrés que les performances du groupe expérimental ont été significativement améliorées en termes de style par rapport à leurs performances avant l'expérimentation. L'ajout de matériel supplémentaire axé sur le style au programme d'écriture académique s'est avéré à la fois pratique et bénéfique. Par conséquent, il est fortement recommandé d'inclure ce type de matériel axé sur le style dans le programme actuel d'enseignement de l'écriture en ALE.

*Mots clés :* **Évaluation, Arabe, Anglais, L1, ALE, différences de style, effets, rédaction académique, style syntaxique, coordination, subordination, compétence communicative interculturelle.**

# ملخـــــص

على المستوى العالي للتعليم، يُتوقع من الطلبة مستويات إنتاجية متقدمة من حيث الخطاب المنطوق و المكتوب ايضا. كما هو مطلوب صحة هذا الخطاب، فانه يتوقع أن يكون أيضًا على قدر عال من الأصيلة ومستساغ قدر الإمكان. ومع ذلك، بين ما هو متوقع وما هو على ارض الواقع هناك فجوة اقل ما يمكن ان يقال عنها انها معتبرة. بجانب الكتابة الصحيحة، الاهتمام أكثر بأسلوب الكتابة قد يؤدي على الأقل إلى سد جزء من هذه الفجوة. قيمت الدراسة الحالية تأثيرات الفروق في الأسلوب بين اللغة العربية والانجليزية كلغة اجنبية على تعزيز الأسلوب النحوي للكتابة الأكاديمية بالغة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية: النسخ بدلا من العطف. تلاؤما مع استقصائية العمل، تم إجراء الدراسة مع طلبة السنة الاولى ماستر اثناء قيامهم بكتابة مقالات في مادة الكتابة الأكاديمية خلال العام الدراسي 2022-2023. كان الهدف الرئيسي للدراسة هو تقييم فعالية وعملية المواد التعليمية الخاصة بالأسلوب (النسخ بدلا من العطف) المضافة لمنهج الكتابة الأكاديمية الحالي للغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. لتحقيق هذا الهدف، تم إجراء شبه دراسة تجريبية من خلال كل من ادات الاستبيان واختبارين اثنين قبل وبعد المعالجة لجمع البيانات مع اجذ الإجراءات اللازمة بعين الاعتبار. أظهرت النتائج بعد تحليل وتفسير البيانات أن أداء المجموعة التجريبية قد تحسن بشكل ملحوظ من حيث الأسلوب مقارنة بأدائها قبل التجربة. ثبت أن تضمين مواد تعليمية إضافية خاصة بالأسلوب الى منهج الكتابة الأكاديمية الحالي هو خطوة عملية ومفيدة في نفس الوقت. لذلك فانه يوصى بتضمين مثل هذه المواد الخاصة بالأسلوب الى منهج كتابة اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية الحالي.

كلمـات مفتاحـية: التقييـم، اللغة العربية اللغـة الاولـى، اللغة الانجليزية، الانجليزيـة كلغـة اجنبية، اختلافـات الاسلـوب، تاثيـر، الكتابـة الاكاديميـة، الاسلـوب النحـوي، العطـف، النسـخ، كفـاءة التفاعـل بيـن الثقافـات.