TEACHING WRITING THROUGH TEXTS IN LITERATURE AND
THROUGH TWO SUBSKILLS: SENTENCE-COMBINING AND VOCABULARY

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by

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Abstract

Teaching Writing Through Reading Texts in Literature and Through Two Subskills: Sentence-combining and Vocabulary

It is understood that reading literature texts and writing essays are interrelated and multidimensional. This study investigates the teaching of writing focusing on two subskills: sentence-combining and vocabulary within the context of study-reading texts in literature.

The study was carried out by the teacher-researcher in Beirut, Lebanon at the Lebanese American University (LAU). The research method comprised a threefold approach: a Counterbalancing Experiment including an experimental and control group that used two contrasting approaches to teaching writing in the classroom; an Attitudinal Questionnaire, to take into account the learners attitude and to control bias; and Transcript Analyses of 5 class sessions, to analyze the discourse of the teacher/learner interaction. The Quantitative and Qualitative Analyses of transcribed sessions included a focus on various classroom activities: vocabulary analysis, vocabulary revision, vocabulary correction, sentence-combining and reading comprehension.

Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) and T-tests among others were used to analyse the data of the Experiment. The results of the Quantitative Experiment reveal significant differences of both experimental groups in Essay Performance in the Counterbalancing Study. Furthermore, T-test results of the Attitudinal Questionnaire coincide in most instances with the quantitative results. However, the correlation among the 3 variables: vocabulary, sentence-combining and essay gave, in general, inconsistent results. In addition, the model of patterns of lexis, which is an innovation in research on vocabulary, has been analysed in the learners' written discourse with implications for the teaching of lexis.

The study shows that vocabulary is useful in a context in which it has long been neglected. It emphasises the benefits of sentence-combining as a pedagogical means for teaching writing. Finally, it highlights the dilemma of the teacher as a researcher within a traditional context of language teaching.
Dedicated
to

Peace and Unity in my country, Lebanon

Intrinsic Values, the beacon of light

The beloved ones I have lost
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Set your objectives and work. Do not let anything stand in your way.
Patience, patience, patience, my daughter.

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CHAPTER ONE: BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

This chapter presents the reasons and the purpose of the study. It also outlines a justification for studying English as a Foreign Language (EFL) within the context of study-reading of literary texts, discusses briefly the inclusion of native as well as nonnative literature, and the different factors that are involved in the choice of the literature to be studied.

Literature or study-reading of literary texts is an authentic context for the teaching of language and in particular for the teaching of vocabulary and sentence-combining, the 2 subskills used in assessing writing in this study. This is authentic in the sense that the texts are not written specifically for language learning and are therefore not selected, limited, or controlled for language level but are written for their own literary purposes.

No precedent for this study which has included 2 focuses, vocabulary and sentence-combining in the authentic context of study-text in literature. Further, the research is classroom based and while it has adopted an experimental design, the research is conducted in the normal classroom context with normal classroom teacher (i.e. researcher).

1.0 Introduction

English is a compulsory subject for students at American universities in Lebanon. Many students find aspects of English difficult, particularly writing. This is, perhaps, not surprising since for many it is a second (L2) or even a third (L3) language, and some may not see English as being relevant to their major subject, even though this major is taught in English.
This section examines the reasons for the study by briefly surveying the language and literature contexts at two Lebanese universities: the American University of Beirut (AUB) and the Lebanese American University (LAU), with consideration of writing skills courses.

*Our students do not know how to write English.* This complaint from subject specialists has regularly hammered the ears of English instructors at the English Department of AUB and LAU. Senior staff and administrators have frequently complained that the decline of the students' writing ability is due to the lack of proper teaching by the English teachers. Zughoul (1986) after examining a number of English departments at Arab universities, including the American Universities of Beirut and Cairo, stated that the curricula of these departments were based on literature. AUB is an exception because the English Department’s objectives aim mainly at developing language skills: having students write grammatically correct and rhetorically coherent short essays, rather than increasing the students' appreciation of literature and knowledge of literary criticism. It is a university requirement for all students to take English courses, the number and level of which depend on the result of a placement test, regardless of the students' major.

Furthermore, in the late 1980s, there was an attempt to remove literature (i.e. the study of short stories and novels) from the curriculum of the *Communication Skills Program* at the English Department of AUB. Although the English Department of AUB is not based on literature, short stories and novels are nevertheless normally part of the curriculum. There should be good reasons to add or to remove activities from a syllabus (Widdowson 1983). In that particular case, no reasons were advanced. LAU, on the other hand, did not attempt any removal of literature, that is, the study of short stories and/or novels.
1.1 The Recent Context in ELT in Lebanon

The recent reforms of the pre-university curricula in both private and public schools in Lebanon (1994-1996) are designed, among other things, to abolish tests of memory, to develop students' ability to learn how to learn and make choices (Osman 1997). These 1997 reforms will affect university teaching because of the extensive revisions in the secondary curriculum. The new English language curriculum (Ministry of National Education 1996) includes not only the teaching of the four skills but a strong emphasis on English for Academic Purposes, which entails the development of thinking skills. It also includes a cultural element, to be introduced from grade 1 onwards, in which language learning starts with universal themes then introduces characteristics of the culture of English-speaking people, with the purpose of developing cross-cultural openness, tolerance and understanding. The proposed curriculum therefore highlights foreign language literature at all grade levels and includes a special section on cultural awareness skills. Thus the new Lebanese high school curriculum for English language uses literature, quite specifically to develop both language skills and cultural awareness (Osman 1997; Research Center 1997; Shaaban and Gaith 1997). It will be strange if English courses at AUB and LAU do not build on this (though it may take 5 years or more before the new curriculum has a significant impact on university students).

Furthermore, government and private schools in Lebanon teach basically two languages: Arabic and French or Arabic and English, with an average of 6 hours of foreign language teaching weekly. The L3, French or English, is usually added at the secondary level. The majority of the universities have English as an L2. Students entering the university should pass the English Entrance Exam (EEE). English, even as an L3, is gaining importance in upper secondary classes. English, at this level, is taught with the objective of passing the EEE. Therefore, mock EEE booklets are studied, including Reading Comprehension, Listening Comprehension, Vocabulary, Grammar and Writing. There are also schools for specific communities, such as Armenian. In those schools, Arabic and English are taught and Armenian is the L3.
The new curriculum will be implemented in schools having English as L2 and/or French as an L2 (Research Center 1997).

**Lebanese American University Language Requirements**

As the researcher, during the course of this study, moved her teaching position from AUB to Beirut University College (BUC), the study continued at BUC, later renamed Lebanese American University (LAU). Hence, a review of the English language courses of this university is given.

Students entering both universities (AUB and LAU) have to pass a validated pre-university English Entrance Exam (EEE), given at specific time at the Office of Test and Measurement (OTM), AUB (Appendix 13). This test includes five multiple-choice sections: listening comprehension, grammar, writing, vocabulary and reading (OTM 1994). OTM offers this test to both universities: AUB and LAU. An appropriate score on the equivalent English exam, Test of Teaching Overseas English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) taken at the AMIDEAST Center (American Center for the Middle East) is also considered valid. This is the English Entrance test normally required for international students entering American Universities. It also includes 5 multiple-choice sections: listening comprehension, English structure, vocabulary, reading comprehension and writing ability (Raimes 1990). The section of the TOEFL that comprises sentence grammar and written expression (usage) is considered highly reliable and correlates well with holistic measures of writing samples (Carlson et al. 1985; DeMauro 1992). If prospective LAU students' score is 600 or above, they are required to write a diagnostic essay which determines the level of the initial English course to which they will be assigned. Otherwise, learners are placed in English 5511 (later renamed English II). In 1996 the EEE was replaced by Scholastic Assessment Test (SAT) taken at the AMIDEAST Center, Beirut. SAT is a test prepared by a college board (Princeton) and its scores measure the verbal and mathematical abilities learners are likely to do in college.
The following paragraphs present a view of the English courses that students entering LAU are required to take. There are four English courses to be taken by most of the students entering LAU regardless of their major. These courses are: English 5511 (English II), English 5512 (English III), Sophomore Rhetoric, and Communication Art. However, if learners' EEE score is between 500-549, they are required to take a noncredit course, English I. For the 1st year at the university, the syllabus places heavy reliance on reading, with writing as an indirect response to a reading passage. The first two courses, English II and III, are basically reading comprehension and writing courses. Reading includes the study of a novel and the reading of a selection of texts chosen mainly *From Reading, Writing* (Winkler and McCuen 1992). However, writing is developed as an indirect outcome of reading, often without previous discussion of the topic to be written about, and without any particular focus on vocabulary. This emphasis on reading and writing prepares students for their academic study in which, for most disciplines, reading in English is crucial, while most assessment may be through writing, also in English. The higher the academic level of the learner, the shorter the reading and the more complex the writing assignment should be (Johns in Hamp-Lyons 1991). At lower academic levels, learners need to write through study-text in literature. This task requires students to restate and recast information and ideas from literary readings. Thus, learners develop strategies of collecting, synthesising, as well as connecting new information to previous knowledge and beliefs (Shih 1986). In class, writing is undertaken under the pressure of time in a 50 minute class session. Writing at the university level is performed in a highly evaluative climate. Students tend to focus on grades which limits how they approach writing tasks (McCarthy 1987; Biggs and Watkins 1993). Literature, on the other hand, is confined to the reading and discussion of a novel in the classroom.

On the other hand, *Sophomore Rhetoric* is basically a literary criticism course, and *Communication Art* is a course based on the teaching of how to deliver speeches. The element of writing will necessarily be restrained in both courses. Hence, the importance of teaching writing in English II and English III. Furthermore, all courses taken at the university require quizzes and final exams, in class, under specific time
limits and circumstances. Learners have to comprehend what is being demanded in exam questions, analyse, synthesise and organise the material learned before writing answers. All these tasks are taught through writing in study-text in literature. In addition, the skills of writing are taught through writing (Jacob 1982; Zamel 1982, 1983; Jones 1985). However, in the context of English II and III, by *skills of writing* is meant the writing of sentences with no fragments or run-ons, appropriate vocabulary and overall coherent essay performance. This definition of *writing skills*, in these courses, is the over-riding one in the local university context, and it is this definition which has influenced the choice of two subskills (vocabulary and sentence-combining) which are the particular focus of this study.

Besides the above mentioned approach to writing, other definitions of writing are widely circulated and stress different aspects (see Chapter 3). Some definitions emphasise content rather than form. As long as the writer communicates the message appropriately to the reader, the writing process is achieved. However, some focus on form seems entirely justifiable, otherwise it is doubtful whether content can be meaningfully and appropriately expressed, using appropriate conventions particularly in academic writing. Furthermore, some approaches, mainly in Europe and the USA, put the emphasis of expression of the writer in relation to readers' knowledge. It is the duty of the writer to make writing easy and clear to the reader. However, such concepts may vary across cultures, for example, Japanese writers may expect the reader to put effort into understanding the text (Hinds 1983). This *reader orientation* would involve decoding much more implicit meaning and reading between the lines, which readers are given credit to be able to work out. This is in contrast to the Anglo-American *writer-orientation* which is generally much more explicit since it is held to be the responsibility of the writer to make things clear. Such binary divisions between cultures are oversimplifications, yet there is also considerable research on contrastive rhetoric to support this (Connor 1996). Hence, different cultural contexts may require different writing procedures. As to Lebanese, they are neither reader nor writer oriented. Many are socially oriented. Time is mostly spent socialising, favouring oral expression. In fact, a recent survey carried at LAU revealed that learners do not feel
confident writing in L2 because writing is based on a western culture of independence rather than the dependent social Middle Eastern interaction (Thonhauser, 1999).

1.2 The Scope and Purpose of this Study

The scope of this study includes the following:

The role of study-reading of literary texts as a context for teaching writing, and the interconnection of reading and writing at all academic levels. The purpose is to investigate the effectiveness of two subskills: vocabulary and sentence-combining in the teaching of writing. Both will be provided through reading applied in the writing task. These two subskills are to be taught with awareness of genre in writing (see Chapters 2 and 3).

As Lebanon has recently experienced civil war (1975-1991), little research has been undertaken in the last 20 years. The researcher hopes that this study, with its choice of texts and subskills, will be beneficial for the teaching/learning of L2 learners in Lebanon and the upright of its civil war aftermath citizens. Vocabulary and sentence-combining are two areas of weaknesses in EFL students’ writing in Lebanon. Some academic faculty at LAU note students’ weakness in lack of vocabulary, unless learners have the good fortune to come from a Romance language L1 background in which case, the use of cognate lexical items may disguise vocabulary weaknesses in non-cognate lexis. Until, recently, vocabulary has interested scholars far less than grammar in quantitative research on L2 production (Nation 1983; 1990; Wilkins 1972; Johns in Hamp-Lyons 1991; Cowie in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Coady and Huckin 1997). Lexical richness may affect the quality of writing, as a number of applied linguists have maintained (Linnarud 1986; Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Engber 1993; Laufer and Nation 1995; Grabe and Kaplan 1996). Raising students’ awareness of vocabulary learning strategies may help to improve their writing.
A second area of weakness is sentence-combining (Cooper 1973; Bridgeman and Carlson 1983). Mellon (1969); Daiker et al.(1978); DeBeaugrande (1984); Hillocks (1986); Grabe and Kaplan (1996) summarise the evidence that raising awareness of sentence-combining leads to writing improvement. It is one of the subset skills for assessing writing. Sentence-combining exercises are no panacea, but they may enable learners to focus their language-learning energies and to figure out patterns for themselves (Strong 1994).

1.3 Arguments about Teaching Language through Literature

The study of literature in a foreign language can help students master the vocabulary and grammar of the language as well as the four skills. Arguably, literature is a link to culture, and language and culture are inseparable. In addition, literature gives English teaching a dimension of depth which is a deeper context dimension in language learning than the emphasis often involved in communicative approaches or ESP (Marquardt 1975; Stevick 1976; Smith 1982; Stern 1987; Kennedy in Carter 1988; Gilroy and Parkinson 1997). Furthermore, the three activities of reading, composing and responding to literature, that are usually taught separately, can be viewed as similar processes when taught through literature. Literature may assist learners to think critically, to formulate ideas, to look closely at a text for evidence to support generalisations and to find the right lexicon (Spack 1985, Talif 1995; Engber 1995). And in the particular setting of Lebanon, the literature chosen is to trigger their conscience on dead born values.

Although the Communication Skills Program at AUB does not base its syllabus on literary criticism, Long and others note that literature could still be used as a source for writing, as a model and as subject matter content (Long in Brumfit and Carter 1986; Stern 1987; Coulthard 1994; Talif 1995). Yet literature does not seem to be fully exploited as a language teaching tool. Professional involvement in this situation at AUB, and the researcher’s awareness of the possible roles of literature led her to study the relevance of literature to language teaching, and to seek new and relevant ways to
maximise the acquisition of skills for ESL students in the *Communication Skills Programme* at the English Department of AUB, in particular, having students write grammatically correct and rhetorically coherent short essays.

1.3.1 Approaches

Linguists often question the role of English literature courses in teaching the English language to nonnative speakers at university level. English departments in Arab countries have not been able to graduate students with a native-like competence, nor have literature courses apparently had much effect upon the students’ linguistic proficiency (Zughoul 1986).

On the other hand, some writers believe that it is unreasonable to expect nonnative speakers to approach literary text in the same way as native speakers do (Kachru in Brumfit and Carter 1986; Hong Chua and Chew 1993). Others (Matalene 1985) believe that approaching literary text in the same way as native speakers reveals ethnocentricity, dismisses linguistic and cultural differences (Hinds 1983) and does not take into account the multidimensional constructs of language (Connor 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1996).

Several arguments presented against the teaching of English literature and literature in English in ESL can be refuted. Concerning the argument regarding ethnocentricity, Fishman (as quoted by Phillipson 1992) maintains that many British and American English writers did not have a deep view of ethnic or ideological contexts other than their own, in the past quarter century, and that the language has been associated with western civilization and culturally-loaded values. However, students must study such literature so as to respond to conflicting codes and become critical and analytical learners (Saleh 1989).

Others have maintained that literature is an indispensable component of a foreign language course which aims to produce competent language learners. Such
competence, it can be argued, includes cultural competence, among other elements (Brumfit 1985; Quirk and Widdowson 1985; Carter and Long 1991; Kachru 1992; Willis 1997). Indeed, there are strong arguments that intercultural competence should be a goal for language teaching. This concept is widely recognised in social psychology and studies of communication (Hammer 1989; Martin 1989; Ting-Toomey and Korzenny 1991; Wiseman and Hoester 1993; Willis 1997). However, this has only recently come to seem a goal for language classrooms, and even curriculum development has been largely confined to European contexts (Fennes and Hapgood 1997; Byran 1997).

Among other aspects is the argument that reading passages will somehow function as models from which writing skills can be learned (Collie and Slater 1991; Lazar 1993). A major element of writing skills is vocabulary (Grabe and Kaplan 1996), and one significant element which affects the perception of the quality of writing is lexical richness (Linnarud 1986; Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Engber 1993; 1995; Laufer and Nation 1995; Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996). In a study carried at AUB: University Orientation Programme (UOP), students expressed the importance and need of vocabulary in language teaching (Artanian 1997). Furthermore, if writing is preceded with study of a topic, there is active control of ideas and extensive processing of new information (Anthony 1985), whereas in traditional writing tasks where non content-based instruction is given to students, ESL teaching has often failed to develop writing academic skills (Shih 1986). One can add that Means is a function of focus on form (Widdowson in Channell 1989, pp. 57), and form is interwoven in the lexico-grammatical context (Halliday and Hassan 1976).

Further world-wide support for literature in ELT comes from two recent reviews of English language teaching (Brumfit and Benton 1993; Sell 1995; Paran 2000) which make it clear that literature is currently accepted as a necessary and useful element for developing language skills in an impressive range of countries: Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Germany, Austria, Italy, Spain, Malaysia, China, the Philippines, Sri
Lanka, Kenya, Uruguay, Brazil, Turkey and Bahrain. Literature in this context is to be exploited as a resource rather than an object of study (Talif 1995). Hence, literature should be considered as discourse and as a means to develop a sharper awareness of language use in which the parameters of the setting and role relationship are defined (Widdowson 1975; Talif 1995). The following figure (figure 1.0) shows how literature interweaves through different elements in discourse, as used in the present study.

![Figure 1.0 Literature, a resource for content and form in the present study](image)

Key:  
- vocab = vocabulary
- s-c = sentence-combining

Now that a positive link between the study of literature in ELT and developing skills in reading and writing is established, a methodology of both will be presented. Grammar is one obvious feature to be emphasised in the study of language and literature (Shaughnessy 1977, Short in Carter 1988). For instance, Carter's (1988) analysis of Hemingway's story, *Cat in the Rain*, comprises the exploration of nominal group structure, verbal structures, cohesion, repetition and ambiguity. Carter bases his analysis on intuitions in reading and rereading the story and on linguistic analysis of the literary text. He uses both intuitions and linguistic analysis. The contrast between subjective (literary) and objective (linguistic) standpoints is unrealistic (Sinclair in Carter 1988). It is equally unhelpful to view a text as a communication between individuals subject to no rules, or to see it as a rigid pattern with a known communicative value.
In addition, the listener or receiver are necessary when one is to describe the style of a literary piece (Sinclair in Carter and Burton 1982). Text analysis is a multidimensional construct including socio-cultural aspects, genre, situation and students' individual backgrounds (Connor 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1996). Furthermore, literariness can be defined on two axes: a vertical and a horizontal axis (Carter and Brumfit 1986). The vertical axis within a literary tradition implies that any particular literary experience needs to be understood as part of a literary tradition. The horizontal axis implies a knowledge of the socio-cultural and literary conventions upon which texts are based. This horizontal axis corresponds to the multidimensional constructs of Connor (1996); Grabe and Kaplan (1996) and Willis’ (1997) cultural access, universal address, the timelessness of the textual appeal and the individual interpretation of the reader. Hence, the use of Hemingway and Gibran’s texts, which are assumed to correspond to the socio-cultural knowledge of the Lebanese.

A Sample of Literary Teaching

The following is a practical classroom application for ESL learners. Talif (1995) suggested the following plan, (figure 1.1) mainly for the teaching of literature as a resource for language learning.

The Initial Stage: Preparing students for the literary text
- To initiate preliminary work to stimulate interest and motivation in preparing the students for the literary text.

The Middle Stage: Exploring the literary text
- Pre-reading: to introduce students and familiarise them with the text.
- During reading: to assist students to understand the language and content of the literary text.
- Post-reading: to determine the students’ understanding of the text: review and consolidation exercises.
The Final Stage: Extension beyond the literary text

- To stimulate further understanding of the literary text through the use of supplementary reading materials and follow-up activities and exercises.

figure 1.1 Teaching of Literature according to Talif (1995)

The Initial Stage includes, among other activities, a focus on vocabulary with which learners must be familiar in order to understand the text. This stage also includes the use of complex sentences jumbled up. The Middle Stage seems to the researcher equivalent to the stage of Comprehension in reading. The Final Stage could also be summed up by the word Production. It also includes activities such as debates and role-play. Hence, one may say that Talif (1995) uses literature to group 3 basic skills of language learning: speaking, reading and writing, and he reconfirms the present research.

Literary texts focus on language competence. They are seen as more of a bottom-up than a top-down interpretative strategy (hence the focus on form). L2 learners lack the appropriate schemata, which needs further to be automatically retrievable, as schemas often have only representational and not referential relevance. The learner is thrown back on the text (Willis 1997). Both bottom-up and top-down lead to the two subskills vocabulary and sentence-combining that the present study is based upon. By reading Hemingway and Gibran texts, top down is provided and by writing, bottom up is produced. Whatever approach is followed, it is to be linked to different teaching situations around the world, to the reasons literature is taught and examined (Carter and Long 1991; Talif 1995; Willis 1997; McDonough 1999).

1.3.2 Motivations

Literature is widely held to be a motivating agent and an effective tool in the teaching of writing (Collie and Slater 1991; Carter and Long 1991; Coulthard 1994; Connor 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Stubbs 1996).
Perhaps one should question the reasons for de-emphasising literature in foreign language teaching. In the functional traditions, literature is often regarded as elitist, remote from most students' lives, deviant from everyday communication and not authentic (Widdowson 1984; Maley 1989). However, this view has been challenged in the communicative era and literature is back in favour (Widdowson 1984; Maley 1989; Carter and Long 1991; Gilroy and Parkinson 1997). And yet, the kinds of literature used, the reasons for their choice and how they are seen as classroom resources are important components contributing to its effectiveness in English teaching. For optimal learning to take place, students should be interested in the choice of the material. Reading is a way of achieving success in language learning, and language is essentially lexical (Lewis 1993) since it is mainly composed of a string of words. Hence, teachers should take into account the learners' choice (Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996). The language learner's interest is an intrinsic part of the language using process itself. Otherwise, students will tend to slip back into their accustomed and comfortable roles as passive recipients of knowledge (Widdowson 1983, p.33; Dixon-Krauss 1996).

1.3.3 Choice of Texts
How one defines literature influences the choice of a syllabus, and classifies the purpose of literature in the teaching of nonnative speakers. Criteria for selecting definitions, and clarifying purposes of teaching literature, may guide the choice of texts.

Some writers, such as Fowler (1971), define literature as a text that is well written regardless of its subject or author. Brumfit (1985) claims that the criteria for the selection of literary texts must be guided by the needs of the learners, and by the fact of stimulating a process of variable interpretation, which encourages responses (Quirk and Widdowson 1985). Gilroy and Parkinson (1997) give literature a definition which includes a wide scope, from clearly EFL situations where literature is used to help low-level learners improve their English, to contexts where the learners are very
advanced and the teaching is barely distinguishable from that in English L1 literature classes. These different literary or non-literary varieties of language are not mutually exclusive. Style is a relational phenomenon and literariness is a feature to be found in texts which are traditional or not (Carter and Nash 1995).

Selection of texts does not necessarily mean the selection of native English literature. By native English literature is meant American, Australian literature or other literature from native English-speaking countries which have much in common with English literature and with each other since these literatures are linked by deep-rooted religious, philosophical, scientific, intellectual and other traditions (Kachru 1992). However, English literature is classified by some specialists into three categories (Quirk and Widdowson 1985):

1. Native language, that is, English and American literature (England, Ireland, USA, Canada, New Zealand and South Africa).
2. Second language, that is, literature in English in Commonwealth countries (India, Pakistan, Africa, Philippines, Malaysia and Singapore etc).
3. Foreign language, that is, literature in English in non-Commonwealth countries which has been translated into English (Japan, China, Russia, West Germany, Saudi Arabia).

Countries in category 1 provide models and linguistic standing of authority for countries in category 2 and 3. It is noticeable that these three categories correspond to Kachru’s widely-circulated concept of three concentric circles for the English language: the inner circle of countries of the traditional bases of English where it is the primary language (category 1); the outer circle in which English has spread to nonnative setting and is used as a second or official language (category 2); and an expanding circle of countries in which English is recognised as an international language and is taught as a foreign language (category 3) (Kachru 1992). Lebanese literature would belong to the expanding circle.

To be an effective tool the choice of texts in language teaching, such as that found in AUB and LAU, should be neither those typically found in English for Specific
Purposes (ESP) nor classical literature texts. The study of a text should develop both literary awareness and language competence (Carter and Long 1991; Icoz 1992; Carter and Nash 1995; Talif 1995). Furthermore, one should avoid fossilised literature of a bygone age and linguistically complex authors like Faulkner. Too much emphasis on studying the latter runs the risk of teaching foreign language students to shy away from literature (Zughoul 1983; Leki 1986; Icoz 1992).

A further consideration in the choice of texts is the literary genre(s) to concentrate on: novel, short story or poetry. The disadvantage of choosing a novel is the fact that students of ESL in Lebanon complain about the lack of time and inclination for reading long texts in English. They feel the pressure of the requirements of other courses. At AUB and LAU students have Cultural Studies courses which do require the reading of several works of fiction and non-fiction. So reading another novel in English classes is seen by some as a burden. Moreover, under the regular schedule of students, which comprises 12 class hours/week, some learners tend to replace reading the assessed novel by reading study guides such as York Notes, comprising a summary, an analysis of the characters and theme. This process of substitute reading defeats the purpose of language teaching since, almost by definition, the study guides are written in simplified terms. Yet novels or plays of average length could be assigned if the themes are relevant to students, such as A Streetcar Named Desire by T. Williams. This play was used by the researcher, followed by viewing a film and by a critical analysis of the main characters.

As to poetry, it depends on the choice of poems. Poems included in Duff and Maley (1990), for example, are accessible to EFL learners in terms of level. And yet, for the sake of introducing the learner to poetry as a genre, popular or modern poems, whose language does not deviate excessively from the norms, could be taught in language classes (Carter and Long 1991; Short 1996), for instance, T.S. Elliot's Choruses from The Rock or A Poison Tree by W. Blake.
Taking the above into account, the choice is then reduced to a selection of short stories, extracts or simplification of a text. Simplification of syntactic complexities may reduce cohesion and readability (Carter in Brumfit and Carter 1986; Coady in Coady and Huckin 1997), and while it may help learners at lower levels (hence published series of simplified readers by such publishers as Longman's), this argument seems very weak for university level English. Modern authors may be clearer in the original than the simplified or abridged versions. What is more complex in ideas and characterisation is not necessarily more complex in vocabulary and syntax. For example, at school the researcher was always given simplified versions of English novels to read, whereas her son, who was in an American school, was given original versions of English novels. She once attempted to explain some passages of a novel, she could hardly understand the English of the original version. The result of simplification is that students leave the ESL programme with a wide gap between the academic English they are expected to understand at university and the simplified English they have been reading.

Short stories seem to be the compromise, for students can probably read them in a single sitting, and this may help to arouse motivation or capture learners' attention (Akyel and Yalcin 1990; Gilroy and Parkinson 1997). In this case, learners can dedicate more time to thinking when reading and, therefore, spend more time analysing the content, and reflecting on the topics. This, in fact, will help the learner to produce more meaningful writing content which is the goal of the researcher.

1.3.4 Including Nonnative Literature
Since literature in English does not necessarily mean English literature, and motivation and identification play a role in the effectiveness of the language learned, the researcher has included the teaching of nonnative literature as a means for teaching writing. The target texts selected for this study as a base for students to develop reading and writing skills come from the first and third categories distinguished above. Many EFL learners look at the nonnative circle of the English language as part of the culture with which
they identify (Kachru in Brumfit and Carter 1986; Carter and Long 1991). In countries where English is used for extrinsic purposes (in the third category), nonnative English literature may be more appropriate. Another factor for choosing nonnative literature is that speakers or authors perceived to be similar to learners are seen as stimulating learning (Reid 1982). Further, in recent years language teachers have become more aware of teaching language as a meaning system related to various societal functions (Short and Candlin in Brumfit and Carter 1986). Among societal functions are the relation between learners, the target language and the needs of their own society. In Lebanon this includes the request of the students for the teaching of the literature of their own people. Hence, the selection of nonnative authors helps to make the content relevant and acceptable to students (Kachru 1976; Zughoul 1986).

Gibran represents the third category of Quirk and Widdowson (1985), and in the light of the above argument, it follows that the choice of *The Prophet* by Kahlil Gibran, a Lebanese writer of world standing who mirrors the lives of Lebanese people and writes on themes of universal values, would increase student responsiveness in language learning. And in a country which was at war for sixteen years (1975-1991) with increasingly complex problems and deteriorating values, the theme of truth and brotherhood, among others found in Gibran’s work, is appropriate to the learners’ circumstances.

Gibran’s style is typified in a wide range of his work. In *The Madman* new tendencies were manifested (Hawi 1963). There were intensity of thought, brevity of expression, a growing use of symbolism, the emergence of a new type of symbol and the insistent use of parable, without any loss in emotional vehemence.

Other works by Gibran such as *The Wanderer*, *The Forunner* and most of his Arabic works are inferior to *The Madman* as literature (Hawi 1963). Gibran’s motto was the inevitable word in the inevitable place which he applied in his work *The Madman* and later. Gibran used parables in *The Madman* but in more discrete and
indirect way than in his earlier work or later work such as *The Forerunner* and *The Wanderer*.

However, in *The Prophet*, Gibran used an epigrammatical style. This is clearly shown in the sermons that Al Mustafa gives to the people of Orphalees and in the nostalgic, meditative prologue and epilogue of this book. The strong influence of the *Bible* on *The Prophet* is revealed in expressions such as you *have been told... but I say unto you*. In spite of the different influences which shaped Gibran’s style, Gibran was and still is famous for the peculiar qualities which made the Gibranian style a synonym for originality and idiosyncrasy (Hawi 1963).

Books by Gibran are in private school libraries and are read as an extraculicular activity. Yet, governmental schools have some of his books part of the Arabic literature syllabus.

1.3.5 Including Native Literature

If a people and their language are inseparable, their literature becomes a prominent feature representing language. It is through the writing of English native speakers that ESL students learn a wide range of idioms and the connotative meaning of words (Fowler 1971; Carter and Long 1991; Icoz 1992). Native literature helps students to work out, on their own, the expressions a writer uses in his writing (Kachru in Brumfit and Carter 1986). Hence, the choice of native literature as part of the teaching of reading which may lead to writing. In the present research, a selection of short stories by Ernest Hemingway as an American writer is used as a text to meet this need. Both Gibran and Hemingway’s simplicity of style in English has an appeal to students and is an appropriate model of a clear, apparently simple style.

In brief, if native literature is important to language learning, nonnative literature is equally so though for different reasons (Brumfit 1985; Burke and Brumfit in Brumfit and Carter 1986; Carter and Long 1991). The decision to teach exclusively the native or nonnative variety could deny students the challenge to experience wide varieties of
the English language in action (Talif 1995). Hence, the present study uses also Hemingway, who represents the first category of Quirk and Widdowson (1985).

The comments on the style of Hemingway will be limited to the short stories used in the research which are taken from *In Our Time* and *Men without Women*, part of The Essential Hemingway. Levin (in Weeks 1962) comments that Hemingway has severely cut down on his English vocabulary. And yet, stated Gaggin (1988), his craft of words is a craft of life. Hemingway's style could be summed up by Pascal's maxim, True eloquence makes fun of eloquence. Furthermore, Hemingway's diction is thin and in the technical sense, his syntax is weak, often using, simple verbs such as the verb to be. Also his adjectives are not colourful and his verbs not particularly energetic. And yet, a dynamic style is obtained by presenting a succession of images, each of which has its brief moment when it commands the reader's undivided attention. Kame and Peters (1986) and Carter (1988) comment that the short story collection from *In Our Time* (1925) is as simple as a style can be without appearing childish. Its prose is highly sophisticated and its impact is powerful. This, perhaps, is a proof that style is more than the sum of its parts.

On the other hand, Huxley among others has accused Hemingway of aggressive anti-intellectualism (Levin in Weeks 1962). Levin's argument against this accusation is that Hemingway has been attempting to restore some decent degree of correspondence between words and things when slogan-mongers have debased the language.

1.4 Conclusion and Implications for the Design of this Study

There has been, in the recent years, a renewal of interest in the use of literature in ELT (Murdock 1992; Biggs and Watkins 1993; Winkler and McCuen 1993; Brumfit and Benton 1993; Sell 1995; Johnson 1996). Furthermore, there is a correlation between the study of literature and degree of linguistic knowledge (Brumfit 1985; Quirk and Widdowson 1985; Carter and Long 1991; Coulthard 1994).
The implications for the design of this study are that literature is not to be divorced from language teaching, for it is the other side of the coin. Writing could be effectively taught within the context of study-reading texts in literature as literature is an effective tool for teaching language when it motivates. Literature lightens the burden of the writing process when it provides content, form, takes into account the needs of the learner and advances the objectives of language teaching. As a result of societal needs and the objectives of language teaching, native and nonnative literature have been used as a vehicle in teaching ESL.

1.5 The Concept of the Teacher-researcher

The fact that there was an attempt to remove literature from language teaching at AUB, and the fact that literature is a means to societal functions led the researcher to investigate the potential of studying literature in language learning and to attempt a study, partly by action research mode. Stenhouse defines action research as follows:

Action research is the reflective process whereby in a given problem area [...] inquiry is carried out by the practitioner-first, to clearly define the problem; secondly, to specify a plan of action-including the testing of hypotheses by application of action to the problem. Evaluation is then undertaken to monitor and establish the effectiveness of the action taken. Finally, participants reflect upon, explain developments, and, communicate these results to the community of action researchers (Stenhouse 1981, p.113).

This definition stresses two essential points:

1. Action research is rigorous, systematic inquiry through scientific procedures.
2. Participants (teacher-researchers) have critical-reflective ownership of the process and the results (Gebhard et al in Richards and Nunan 1990; Somekh 1995; McKernan 1996).

One may wonder which type of action research is relevant here: action research undertaken by the teacher-researcher or action research that refers to aspects of critical education practice (Crookes 1993). The latter emphasizes educational research which is committed to emancipating individuals from the domination of assumptions which are part of the status quo (Ericson in Sirotnik and Oakes 1986).
Although both the foregoing are important, the present focus is on the teacher-researcher as the concept which has mainly surfaced in the action research projects reported in L2 literature (Long in Brumfit and Mitchell 1989; Nunan in Brumfit and Mitchell 1989; Brindley 1990; Allwright and Bailey 1991). There is a further definition of action research which distinguishes it from other forms of research and which fits the nature of this study. Action research starts from practical questions arising from concerns in teachers' everyday work (Elliot 1991; Wallace 1998). What distinguishes it from research conducted by researchers who are not full-time classroom practitioners is the fact that human action is rooted in routines developed through the experience and fundamental beliefs of the individual (Somekh 1995). To reflect on such beliefs and experience in the light of problem-centred classroom-based research (informed by current developments in relevant fields) is therefore also part of this research. There is thus a self-reflexive element, but without the emancipatory stance mentioned above which does not, at present, fit the Lebanese context.

The settings of action research are naturalistic and behaviour is highly influenced by the naturalistic surroundings in which it occurs. Leading on from the belief that the participant is one of those who are best placed to conduct inquiry into pressing professional problems, it follows that practitioners must engage in curriculum inquiry to improve their art and practice. This leads to a rationale which places the practitioner in the centre of this new research role, and to extend the debate about the criteria for a new conception of teaching as a profession and confronts teacher participants with the following dilemmas (Winter 1982; Elliot 1991):

1. Encouraging pupils to critique one's professional practice. Here the dilemma arises from a conflict between the value of critical openness to pupils and respect for the professional expertise of colleagues and their right to exercise authority within the confines of their own classroom. A way out of the dilemma is to let colleagues know what the teacher-researcher is doing (James and Ebbut in Nixon 1981). This is all problematic in the present teacher/student relations in Lebanon, although the researcher invited students' comments on the teaching approaches adopted.

2. Some teacher-researchers are reluctant to produce case studies of their reflective practices. Teachers doubt the generalizability of their work. They assume that case studies are low in generalizability. The dilemma here consists in wanting to report something interesting to professional colleagues, while believing there may be little more of general interest to report
(Simon 1978). However, reflective teachers can engage in a meta-reflection on how they deliberate about what to do in a particular situation such as comparing and contrasting cases drawn from their past experience. In this process teachers generalize from past to present experience (Elliot 1991). The process of meta-reflection and this kind of generalizing may have wide validity among teachers beyond the specific case of context-bound reflection.

3. A further problem is finding time to undertake research. This problem is viewed as a teaching versus research dilemma which generally gets resolved by classroom teachers in favor of the former (James and Ebbutt in Nixon 1981; Hollingsworth 1997).

However, despite dilemmas the idea of the teacher as a researcher is of crucial importance for the future development of the profession and of the curriculum in general (Giroux and McLaren in Popkewitz 1987).

Carr and Kemmis (1986) believe that action research should go beyond identifying a problem and move towards solving it. They wish to see the development of a cyclical program of reform, whose results are reflected on and developed in collaborative investigative communities among teachers, between teachers and researchers or teachers and students. This will lead to progressive action research which may dispute standard research practice and highlight the difference between action research and research.

There seems to be a degree of antipathy between action researchers and what they call traditional research. Some philosophers of education (McNiff 1993; Whitehead 1993) dismiss action research out of hand and many action researchers (Carr and Kemmis 1986; Elliot 1991) dismiss such a philosophy of education based on traditional research paradigms as irrelevant and elitist (Newby 1997). However, there has been an attempt to integrate the insights of deliberative discourse, to which action research belongs, and utopiean discourse to which such philosophy of education is said to largely belong (Walsh 1992).

Action research benefits and influences the professional and perhaps the personal self of the investigator as well as on the outcomes (Newby 1997). These
influences on the self imply *reflexive awareness* of the knower upon him or herself as a motivated subscriber. However, these insights are not innocent of psycho-social ambition such as those which belong to or oppose the oppressor (Newby 1997). Reflexivity also implies influence on learners. There should be no distinction between subjects and objects. That is, the researcher who studies and learners who are studied are not considered as two distinct breeds. There is only one breed on which the results of reflection are continuously transformed into practice and practice continuously throws up reasons for reflection and development of these practical theories (Gouldner 1970; Altrichter 1993; Walsh 1993).

Action research is used in ESL as well. It encourages teachers to have a beneficial effect in different areas of the curriculum and the potential for professional development and renewal (Richards and Nunan 1990). In the present study, action research reviews a range of actual proposals and suggests the bridging of some gaps such as the teaching of vocabulary and sentence-combining, the 2 subskills set for the experiment, and judges their impact in practice.

The prospect of action research is a difficult and controversial task, as shown above, besides the fact that analysis and introspection are not skills generally attributed to all teachers. These difficulties and the above dilemmas mean that an action research approach is challenging. In the Lebanese context of the near absence of linguistic or educational research, this is a double challenge. The researcher believes that perhaps *Teacher Centers* as described by Gebhard (in Richards and Nunan 1990) could serve as an alternative. That is, teachers can go to teachers’ meetings find answers to questions, use resources and talk about problems with other teachers or *special consultants*. This application of teachers’ centers allows teaching to describe rather than prescribe (Gebhard in Richards and Nunan 1990). Describing worldwide teaching has been the topic of a recent BBC programme (BBC 2000). Teachers used introspection and reflection on their teaching experience.
1.6 Applying Action Research in this Case

One of the first starting points of action research should be an analysis of the constraints on one’s action. Thus, action research is a form of applied or operational field research whose real reason may be the lifting of the oppressive situation (the emancipatory aspect) (Somekh 1995; McKernan 1996). All this leads to the thought of the teacher-researcher investigating the study of literature in the teaching of a foreign language and particularly the teaching of writing through literature.

In the constraints of the Lebanese context, which limits the approaches of teaching to the one chosen by the department and which does not give the opportunity to learners to be critical, action research is hard practice. Figure 1.2 represents the research process used in the actual study in spite of many difficulties to investigate a problem, specify a plan of action, evaluate its effectiveness and allow participants to communicate their attitude towards the approach.

In conclusion, literature is a basic and natural context for the teaching of vocabulary and sentence-combining, the two subskills highlighted in the teaching of essay performance. The particular texts used in the study were chosen to evoke students’ interest and motivation (Lebanese teachers often comment that these features are lacking in many English classes).
CHAPTER TWO: ISSUES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING:
VOCABULARY

2.0 Introduction
This chapter shows how vocabulary teaching has been widely re-instated in language teaching in the 1990s after a period of relative neglect. However, while research has developed in some areas of the field of vocabulary teaching, research in other areas is still lacking. The chapter outlines the complexity of vocabulary teaching/learning as an independent skill. A variety of vocabulary learning strategies are presented which might suit individual differences of learners, their intralinguistic and extralinguistic context. It recognizes a dichotomy between comprehension and production, and briefly explores the dilemma which this and the above factors present to classroom teachers, especially those who focus on teaching reading and writing.

Some of the strategies mentioned above have been used in the study, and other problematic issues such as the dichotomy between comprehension and production have been considered while the study was carried out.

In the light of the above, the lexical syllabus has been developed for LAU, taking into account general clues, learners' self-reliance, awareness and teachers' ways of presenting unfamiliar words.

I have put my faith in language-hence the panic when a simple word eludes me... I control the world so long as I can name it.

(Lively 1987 p.57)

With this quotation in mind, vocabulary could be looked upon as a subset skill, among other skills, for assessing writing ability (Lewis 1993; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Coady in Coady and Huckin1997; McDonough 1999). In the present study,
vocabulary is one of two subskills (together with sentence-combining, Chapter 3) which are particularly highlighted in the empirical research on students' writing.

2.1 The Neglect of Vocabulary Teaching

In the 1970s, the literature about language teaching tended to emphasise grammar rather than vocabulary under the influence of structural approaches (Wilkins 1972; Nunan 1991; Bensoussan in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Zimmerman 1994; Meara in Brown et al. 1996). This relative disinterest in vocabulary was an unfortunate outcome of developments in ELT (Coady in Huckin et al. 1993), and such disinterest has been widely noted (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Carter 1988; Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Coady and Huckin 1997). Furthermore, Zimmerman (1994; 1998); Maiguashca (1993) and Lessard-Clouston (1996) claim that vocabulary is still neglected though many students seem to give priority to learning vocabulary (Kruse 1978-79; Zughoul 1986; Meara 1998; Zimmerman 1998). Vocabulary for L2 learners requires instruction and strategy training (Huckin et al 1993; Coady and Huckin 1997; McDonough 1999). Whether the learning of a particular lexical item is easy or not may depend on a variety of contextual factors, students' interest and motivation, but instructional focus makes a word salient and facilitates learning (Wittrock 1986; Coady in Coady and Huckin 1997; Schmitt in McCarthy 1997).

There is now a general feeling among teachers, publishers and researchers that vocabulary acquisition was not treated seriously enough in the past, and that our beliefs about how people acquire vocabulary in a foreign language are due for a thorough examination (Cowie in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Zimmerman 1994; Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Coady and Huckin 1997; Mobarg 1997; McDonough 1999; Jiang 2000). The above authors believe also that little research on advanced L2 learners has been done concerning vocabulary skills. Furthermore, research on vocabulary development in L2 acquisition is largely limited to morphology, syntax and phonology (Nunan 1991) rather than concentrating on, say,
semantic or discoursal aspects of lexical development. Perhaps this is due to the fact that it is difficult to carry out effective research on measuring the size of the lexicon. Although some studies developed a model which was able to predict the rate at which individual learners were able to acquire word lists of paired-associates, these studies were ignored by linguists because of what has been called hard math (Meara in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997). Tests are simple to administer and remarkably sensitive to knowledge across a range of different frequency bands or a range of different specialist areas of lexis (Meara et al. 1996; Mobarg 1997). In addition, the main problem areas, which are still problems today, are that researchers have relatively little idea of the extent to which individual differences affect vocabulary acquisition, though it is known that individual differences in L1 vocabulary skills are very large (Ringbom 1983; Johns in Hamp-Lyons 1991; Schouten-Van Parren in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996; McDonough 1999; Singleton 1999).

In addition, compared to other languages, English seems to rely less on systematic combination of items, and rather more on discrete items (Ringbom 1983; Hanks 1987), although this would be disputed by advocates of the idiom principle (Sinclair 1991), lexical phrases (Nattinger and DeCarrico 1992) or the lexical approach (Lewis 1993) and related approaches to vocabulary development, which call for much greater emphasis on collocation, often using insights from corpus linguistics to elaborate a pedagogic approach (Stubbs 1996).

2.2 Importance of Vocabulary

With the development of the communicative approach to language teaching, some linguists believe that learners can bypass grammar, to express meaning, provided that the learner's knowledge comprises a reasonable vocabulary base (Wilkins 1972; Rivers 1983). Furthermore, research has shown that L2 readers rely heavily on vocabulary knowledge and lack of vocabulary is a major obstacle for those readers to overcome (Brown in Huckin et al. 1993; Lewis 1993; Engber 1995; Dixon-
Krauss 1996; Sokmen in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997). To obtain such knowledge of vocabulary, extensive learning through reading is recommended as well as systematic vocabulary instruction. These approaches are more successful than simply learning through context alone (Parry 1991; Nation in Schreuder and Weltens 1993; Zimmerman 1994 and 1998; Lawson and Hogben 1996; Grabe and Stoller in Coady and Huckin 1997). Also, in contrast with the development of other aspects of L2, vocabulary acquisition does not slow down with age. In fact, vocabulary augmentation becomes easier as one matures: the more one's vocabulary develops, the easier it is to add new words by integrating them into systems of known related words and conceptual frameworks (Rivers 1983; Nunan 1991; Bensoussan in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Meara in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997; Jiang 2000). In other words, the pendulum has to swing between implicit and explicit learning (Sokmen in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997).

2.3 Lebanese Learners and English Vocabulary

The implications of Channell's paper (Channell cited in Nunan 1991) stating that lexical items appear to be an independent entity in processing justify the fact of teaching vocabulary as a separate learning activity (Nunan 1991). This implication is based on her research which compares speech errors of native speakers with those of L2 learners. The implications are that a learner's L1 and L2 vocabulary knowledge are linked phonologically, semantically and associationally (Liang-Tsu Hsieh in Katchen and Leung 1997; Singleton 1997; 1999). Further, three methods of instruction for Arabic students' learning of English vocabulary have been contrasted. That is, presenting the new word, its definition and a keyword. The keyword-semantic strategy was found to increase retention above other conditions (Brown and Perry 1991).

However, some writers argue that L2 learners have more facility if the learner's L1 language is closer to L2 vocabulary acquisition (Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996). For instance, Arabic and Vietnamese
speakers learning English have very little such help from their L1 compared to speakers of Romance languages and the process of acquiring new words in English will never get any easier unless they build up L2 systems of vocabulary.

In the view of the researcher, this does not apply to Lebanese learners since all schools and university students have been exposed to English or French as an L2 at a very early age. Some families, of middle or high social status, speak a foreign language at home in addition to the mother tongue. Those Lebanese students who attended French-medium (as opposed to English-medium) secondary schools may nevertheless have a major advantage over their fellow Arabic-speaking students in neighbouring countries; the Lebanese students’ knowledge of French should be of help in reading English, given the high percentage of Greco-Latin vocabulary in English (Corson 1985) and the relatively high number of common cognate words between French and English. However, this might cause a problem because of the close relationship between the lexicons of the 2 languages (Meara 1996). In the view of the researcher this might cause an interference problem or be a source of vocabulary learning, depending on the learner’s awareness of the close relationship between lexicons, and whether they are L2 advanced learners. Singleton (1999) agrees on the last point.

In Corson’s (1985) terms there is a high chance that large numbers of Lebanese students who reach university will have passed the lexical bar in English, either because their English has reached that level or because their French has. This assumes, of course, a high rate of transfer of cognates from French L2 to English L3, which, in the researcher’s experience, is in fact the case. The researcher moved from a French system to an American-English one in the third secondary class with no problem or extra help. Erten (1998) seems to agree on this point. If vocabulary is poor among Lebanese students, it is most likely because of its relative neglect in language teaching skill.
2.4 The Meaning of Knowing a Word

Now that the importance of vocabulary teaching as an independent entity has been established, some pertinent questions are: what does it mean to know a word? What social dimensions of word usage are to be considered in the teaching of vocabulary?

Basic Aspects of Knowing a Word Are:

Connotative and Denotative Meanings

Knowing a word involves what it means to know lexical items of various kinds, being aware of their connotative as well as denotative meanings in a particular context (Richards 1985; Lewis 1993; Read 2000).

Syntactic Features

Knowing a word means knowing the syntactic features associated with it. A learner should know the types of grammatical relations that may enter into account with the knowledge of a word (Richards 1985; Lewis 1993). Halliday (1976) goes one step further as he uses the term *lexico-grammatical* for L1 and L2 language learners and believes that the lexico-grammatical system is a resource for creating meaning. The increasing use of this term among linguists and language teachers firmly places the vocabulary element in a centre-stage position, along with syntax. In fact, Lawson and Hogben (1996) and Nation (in Jacobs 1997) emphasize the importance of the lexico-grammatical interconnection in vocabulary teaching.

Semantic Values

Knowing a word means knowing the semantic value of it. For instance, *the table was damaged* and not *the table was hurt*. Furthermore, the major strategy that is available for entering the language system is a semantic one (Halliday 1973). If learners are not aware of the semantic values of words in their writing, this will lead them to *referential and social errors* (Corder 1981) as this will be discussed in Chapter 3.
Meaning is a richer concept than many people assume (Richards 1985; Read 2000). Which meaning to teach is another problem faced by linguists and teachers (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Nation 1990), although in practice when teaching vocabulary in reading literature most teachers will almost certainly give priority to the meaning(s) of a word or phrase in its immediate textual surrounding, rather than to other potential meanings of the word which do not apply to this particular context. However, many vocabulary items that may be nuclear for a particular genre may not be as central in other genres (Coady in Huckin et al. 1993; Lewis 1993).

The above basic features need to be taken into account as vocabulary is taught. In learning vocabulary, learners should be encouraged to become self-reliant (Stern 1987; Riggenback 1990; Nattinger and DeCarrico 1992; Schmitt 1995; Van Lier 1996). They need to learn to observe language tasks which foster comprehension and take into consideration the social contexts in which lexical phrases and vocabulary items are encountered.

Besides, discussions on what knowing a word means have not yet led to any working models or tests which might be used in psycholinguistic experiments (Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Meara in Brown et al. 1996). Most of the current research still looks at vocabulary in terms of discrete items which can be marked correct or incorrect on the basis of simple recognition or production tests. However, in this study, the target vocabulary items are to be used correctly in sentences and in essay writing. A further exception to this is the corpus linguistics approach, to be discussed briefly along with the lexical syllabus.

2.5 Teaching Strategies for Vocabulary
Considering all these assumptions and others about word knowledge, one gets a picture of the complex task that teachers should be aware of when teaching vocabulary. Moreover, one should question how and to what extent teaching strategies could accomplish these objectives, and how successful learners are if they
have not been taught these strategies (Read 2000). However, in spite of the complexity of the problem, a major feature of an L2 teaching programme, beyond the elementary level, should include a component of massive vocabulary expansion (Richards 1985; Zimmerman 1994 & 1998; Nation 1995; Coady and Huckin 1997). There are some major syllabuses which do clearly specify numerical targets for vocabulary levels and, in fact, list items expected to be learnt by students at such levels. A good example is the College English Scheme for all non-English majors in China which has 4 Band levels with expected vocabulary items listed for each level. These are tested, and students need to pass each level before proceeding further. They need to pass Band 4 to graduate (Cortazzi and Jin 1996). Although other syllabuses do not specify precisely the number of words a learner at a specific level should recognize and use, including the LAU and AUB syllabuses, it is clear that learners who are constantly adding to their vocabulary knowledge are better prepared for both productive and receptive language skills (Grobe 1981; Richards 1985; Linnarud 1986; Johns in Hamp-Lyons 1991; Engber 1993; Lewis 1993; Laufer and Nation 1995). However, the relationship between EFL learners' vocabulary size and other aspects of language ability, as measured by the JET test has been investigated (Meara and Jones 1987). Results reveal a significant correlation suggesting that there is a strong link between vocabulary size and other language abilities (Connor 1987; Laufer and Nation 1995; Engber 1995; Meara in Brown et al 1996; Coady in Coady and Huckin 1997).

2.5.1 The Link Between Vocabulary and Sentence-combining

The link between vocabulary and sentence-combining will now be considered. The link can be seen in terms of such specific areas as conjunction, coherence, cohesion, lexical reference among others. However, this study particularly focuses on lexical items within the context of a sentence, aiming at the construction of paragraphs, a major component of teaching writing at LAU.
The knowledge of appropriate use of lexical items avoids wordiness and circumlocution in writing. Sometimes wordiness even leads to sentence structure mistakes as revealed in the analysis of learners' essays.

Naming a word, i.e. to call out of nothingness, (Beebe 1994, p.287) takes place within the context of a sentence. A cloze exercise can be used as a link and as a context for the acquisition of lexical items. Long-term retention of vocabulary is facilitated by asking students to do second-hand cloze, i.e. fill in gaps in a summarised version of a text that they have already studied (Laufer and Osimo 1991). As a prewriting activity, cloze exercises, which are formed of sentences, demonstrate a high correlation with direct writing measures (Fotos 1991; Grabe and Kaplan 1996).

This study focuses on L2 learners, and in particular learners whose L1 is Arabic. Appropriate vocabulary usage and sentence-structure are perceived in the English Departments of American universities as being among serious nonnatives' problems (Bridgeman and Carlson 1983; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Artanian 1997). Furthermore, L2 readers rely heavily on vocabulary knowledge (Huckin et al. 1993; Scott 1996; Singleton 1999). Hence, if lexical items are constructed into larger units, that is in sentences and sentence-combining, students learn to form word groups into meaningful units rather than simply strings of words. It is, perhaps, the psycholinguistic model which cements the bond between vocabulary and sentence-combining. From here, one structures paragraphs, which are a basic feature of Essay writing (Robinson 1980; Scheifer 1985; McCarthy 1991).

Appropriateness of Strategies
One should question the appropriateness of strategies for vocabulary teaching. Perhaps this depends on individual differences to a certain extent. Learners differ with respect to the abilities they bring to the task. However, the intralinguistic and extralinguistic relations are so vast that the acquisition of meaning is a gradual process of progressive discrimination of equivalence between L1 and L2 lexical
items (Wilkins 1972; Meara and Ingle 1986; Palmberg 1990; Johns in Hamp-Lyons 1991; Nattinger and DeCarrico 1992; Bensoussan in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; McDonough 1999).

This point would seem particularly relevant to French-educated Lebanese students learning English (given the many cognate words in common between French and English) but perhaps less to the English-educated groups, whose knowledge of French is much less. Either group might be influenced by Arabic as L1, but as pointed out earlier Arabic has far fewer English or French cognates, although students are still fundamentally likely to look for lexical equivalence between their L1 and English.

For the past 25 years or more, there has been a widespread assumption that discovery-learning as a teaching strategy is likely to lead to good retention (Mondria and De-Boer 1991; Gu and Johnson 1996). A further teaching/learning procedure is role-play (Clarke 1991). Simulation entails more physical movement, more deadlines for actions, more decision making and more freedom of opinion hence, facilitating practice in conversational skills that can aid acquisition.

**A Massive Exposure to Vocabulary**

It is rather difficult to achieve vocabulary learning, at the academic level, without massive exposure to the target language through extensive reading, systematic vocabulary instruction and independent vocabulary learning within and outside the classroom (Wilkins 1972; Purves and Purves 1986; Carter and Long 1991; Zimmerman 1994; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Grabe and Stoller in Coady and Huckin 1997). Gaining vocabulary from context tends to be gradual (Nagy et al. 1985; Bensoussan in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992). Yet, if uptake is probabilistic and occurs once in a 100 encounters, then it would be unrealistic to find evidence of acquisition in a small sample of a few encounters (Meara in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997). Further, learners understand more than they are able to produce. Therefore, it might
seem unnatural to limit vocabulary teaching to helping the foreign learner to have control over an active vocabulary.

Some linguists say that teachers should limit the learner's extensive reading, for learners may misunderstand the meaning of lexical items over which they have no productive control. Wilkins' (1972) counterargument is that this is an experience for which the learner needs to be prepared since he will be exposed to it outside the classroom. However, if learners misunderstand the meaning of any lexical items, the recurrence of such meaning in context, or adding new contexts of meaning, may correct the misunderstanding.

Language learning requires also cognitive effort. It is too easy to think that a brief explanation or an exposure to a new word is sufficient for a learner to decode its meaning (Palmberg 1990; Gu and Johnson 1996). A new word has to be matched and integrated into the knowledge store and, above all, success in comprehension depends on activating the appropriate cognitive domains (McCarthy 1992). Vocabulary is also essential to engage with content (Dixon-Krauss 1996; Ellis in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997).

In this study, the concept of cognitive effort was seen in students' attitude and comment. Learners often asked anxiously whether vocabulary would be taught before undertaking the writing of an essay, and the same comment was given in the Attitudinal Questionnaire. Further evidence for such anxiety is found in Sommers' study (1982). In fact, vocabulary in foreign language learning cannot be viewed as emerging on its own (Halliday and Hassan 1976; Grabe and Stoller in Coady and Huckin 1997; McDonough 1999), but it needs inference of meaning from context, which is a form of education (Jensen 1980).

2.6 Learning Vocabulary
Besides knowing the meaning of a word, its social dimensions and being aware of the complex task of the teacher, psycholinguistic factors of L2 vocabulary must be
taken into account. Although there is an increased awareness on the part of teachers/learners of the importance of vocabulary development, understanding of the psychological aspect of L2 vocabulary acquisition and use is still rather limited (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Bensoussan in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Meara in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997). However, there is a large literature on psycholinguistic research of the mental lexical items which largely focuses on balanced bilingualism rather than on L2 acquisition. Three factors, important in psycholinguistics, are outlined below.

The First Factor

The first factor consists in defining the terms learning and acquisition. Learning is the process of acquiring a word, while acquisition requires meaningful interaction in the target language. Hence, L2 lexical items are acquired when: their meaning can be understood in and out of context, and they can be used appropriately to situations. Then learning leads to acquisition (Krashen 1981; Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988). Sometimes these two words are used differently by writers (Brown in Brown et al. 1996).

The careful reading of literature in the classroom can be regarded as comprehensible input for language acquisition. Drawing attention to vocabulary items is one way to ensure that this input is comprehensible. The present study sort to achieve this, by giving systematic attention to selected vocabulary items and at the same time the focus on sentence-combining recycles text meanings to allow students to recombine and reexpress segments of the text. Both the vocabulary and sentence-combining are used in classroom activities to promote more productive use of comprehended input.

The Second Factor

The second factor draws a hypothesis on how the speech process might take place. Comprehension, in the learner, decodes sounds into word length segments and searches for meanings to pair with. Such a view implies that the users of L1 and L2
make a differential use of the store of words in the mind for comprehension (whether listening or reading) and production (whether speaking or writing) (Coady in Coady and Huckin 1997; Jiang 2000).

Part of the production process consists in the selection of appropriate words according to the meaning to be conveyed. Production connects meaning to situation. The word form is then converted into a phonological shape and then speech. Thus, the direction in production is meaning => sound, whereas the direction in comprehension is sound => meaning (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Parry 1991; Singleton 1999). This might suggest that for the optimal arrangement of production, meaning should come first, while for the optimal arrangement of comprehension sound should come first. In addition, some experimental and clinical neurological evidence confirms that the linguistic processes of perception and production are partially independent of each other (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988) or that production involves a higher level of knowledge (Read 2000). Others suggest that vocabulary acquisition may involve the establishment of random connection between words (Meara in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997; Jiang 2000). To be on the safe side as to whether linguistic processes of perception and production are partially independent, the researcher used comprehension in the form of study-reading texts and production in the form of essay writing whereby vocabulary and sentence-combining were used as prewriting activities. Thus, using the second factor of psycholinguistics in the actual study, that is, bottom up and top down.

Drawing attention to the meaning of vocabulary items in context might be considered a top down approach under the condition that the students already appreciate the gist and overall meaning of the text. Sentence-combining, on the other hand, would be regarded as bottom up because it encourages students to recombine sentence elements in larger units.
The first objective of teachers who aim at teaching vocabulary is to help learners to be aware of the fact that not knowing some words in a passage does not necessarily prevent comprehension. Within the framework of this context of the overall meaning, the meaning of particular words can often be deduced. Students should then be encouraged not to look up words in a dictionary except as a last resort. Some EFL teachers in Lebanon encourage learners to look for meaning through context, and the use of dictionary in the classroom does not have any place.

In fact, there is little time for looking up words in the dictionary in a classhour of 50 minutes, with a specific number of texts to read, a specific number of essays to write and rewrite within a semester. This is the reason that led the researcher to give the learners a list of vocabulary words with their meaning. Besides, learners not so interested in learning English would very rarely look up the meaning of words. From the learners’ viewpoint, having to cope with an average of 12 credits/semester, it is time consuming to look up words.

However, the above view (i.e. that learners should strive to understand utterances) has been modified and using the dictionary is widely considered as a valid activity for EFL learners both for comprehension and production, especially since often meaning is not deducible from contextual clues (Carter in Carter and Long 1991).

It is also worth noting that the mid 1990’s generation of EFL dictionaries do not only define words. They give: the pronunciation, word classes and major grammatical patterns; guides to the frequency of usage of different meanings; exemplifying sentences, and often synonyms, antonyms and further indications of major collocations and uses [such as Oxford Learners Dictionary (1989), Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture (1992), and Collins Cobuild English Dictionary (1995)]. These dictionaries generally use a limited defining vocabulary; authentic examples, and contexts taken from corpuses of hundreds of millions of words. However, on the basis of the researcher’s observation and talking to English
teachers, these dictionaries are not used systematically as tools for lexical development by students in Lebanon.

In the viewpoint of the researcher, though the text itself may give clues to the meaning of unknown words, when learners need information for productive purposes, the dictionary is quite a helpful device. Generally, the use of a thesaurus might be more appropriate for lexical production in writing. Most thesauruses are somewhat complex and designed for mother tongue users of English, except for some such as the *Oxford Word Guide* (1991) and *Dictionary of Collocations* (Hill and Lewis 1997). These seem useful for EFL writing production. The researcher herself uses the dictionary for her writing. In her own studies of the English language in the 1970s, vocabulary was hardly taught. And if taught, it was taught in context without context clues or any teaching strategy. This fact, with the reading of abridged stories, led to what she considers, after reflection as an action research mode, to a poor knowledge of vocabulary. It seems very likely that current French-educated students at LAU and AUB may similarly draw heavily on French cognates in their English lexical production. In learning the French language, target vocabulary was printed in bold letters in context in textbooks and given a dictionary explanation in the footnotes.

There seems to be a *threshold effect* by which when more than approximately 50 per 1000 words are unknown, perception of overall structure may be effectively blocked in terms of successful guessing for comprehension (Hirsh and Nation 1992; Coady in Coady and Huckin 1997). And yet comprehension does not necessarily guarantee production.

**The Third Factor**

The third factor focuses on whether the mental lexicon of an L2 resembles the mental lexicon of an L1 within the same individual. The literature on neurological and psychological aspects of bilingualism remains equivocal on that issue. Ringbom (1983) believes that the fundamental difference between L1 and L2 learning to a
great extent, in L1 learning, runs parallel with the formation of concepts in the child, whereas L2 learners enter the language with a ready-made set of concepts.

A further aspect of psycholinguistics to be accounted for is that lexical association and L1 lemma (i.e. semantic and syntactic) mediation would lead to lexical errors when an L2 word and its L1 translation do not have a complete overlap in semantic or grammatical specifications. Further, lexical fossilization occurs also when development stops at the second stage (i.e. syntax) even when extensive contextualized input is available (Jiang 2000).

However, most studies seem to show an interaction between lexical items of the two languages in the same user (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Palmberg 1990; Bensoussan in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Laufer and Nation 1995; Singleton 1997; Fromkin and Rodman 1998, Jiang 2000). In fact, some of the clutter words used by learners in this study were transferred from L1.

Part of the third factor questions whether bilingual linguistic processing is similar to that of the monolingual processing. As discussed previously, it might be that if the L2 lexis is closely related to that of the L1, then psychological models of monolingual lexical processes in cognition are applicable (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996). This factor was not under control in the present Counterbalancing Experiment, for it was difficult to omit needed vocabulary items simply because they were cognates. However, cognate words were avoided in the vocabulary Pretests and Posttests.

Besides the 3 factors in psycholinguistics, there are 3 points of interest concerning the nature and the domain of the lexicon. First, one cannot deal adequately with the meaning of a lexical expression without regard to the ways in which that expression relates semantically to other expressions. Second, the lexicon cannot be just an inventory of individual words but must also cover a large variety of combinations of words such as colligation (i.e. compound word) and collocation. Third, a consideration of context is necessary in the very definition of lexical sense-
relations and that contextual influence on meaning is a major issue. Hence, orientation to context is one of the lexicon's vital parts and attempt to address the meanings of individual lexical entries in isolation from context is doomed to failure (Singleton 1999). Nevertheless, it is still possible to identify linguistic phenomena which can be described without reference to lexical particularites such as universal grammatical principles.

In sum, in the absence of definite research evidence either way, it is advisable for L2 theorists to draw on L1 models and test their validity for L2 theory until further definite evidence (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Palmberg 1990; Lewis 1993; Singleton 1997), and to use different strategies to suit individual differences (Parry 1991; McDonough 1999). However, teachers should use their expertise as teacher-researchers, their subtle understanding of individuals in different situations as well as the different psycholinguistic factors. The above factors were taken into account as the researcher was carrying out the Experiment.

2.7 The Lexical Syllabus and Concordancing

Psycholinguistic researchers on L2 vocabulary acquisition are well aware of the possible differences between comprehension and production and many other factors involved in vocabulary learning. However, two other aspects which are relevant to research in classroom situations are corpus creation and in particular the lexical syllabus for language learning.

Corpus Linguistics

Corpus linguistics is the study and creation of the linguistic syllabus. Its creation is hardly a job for linguists (Sinclair 1991). It is more appropriate to the sociology of culture. The stance of a linguist is to describe and analyze instances of language. As not much is known about the effects of the design strategies, linguists rely on what is published in a corpus (Sinclair 1991; Stubbs 1996). However, users and critics can consider and balance the corpus.
The first consideration is the aim of the activity of corpus creation. Then follows the size and a study of priorities for selection. A further consideration is the consulting of catalogues for the inclusion of the text to be chosen. The chosen texts are then to be tested through one of the following procedures, or all of them, since each suits a different class of material:

a. Adaptation of the material in electronic form
b. Conversion by scanning
c. Conversion by keyboarding.

As the purpose of this study is to focus on vocabulary as one of the subskills (the second being sentence-combining), the focal point of the discussion of a corpus will be on the lexical syllabus. A lexical syllabus is what teachers aim at when making their choice of the target vocabulary. The lexical syllabus is considered as a vast ocean in which teacher and learner can be easily drowned if some kind of operative strategy is not planned (Schleifer 1985; McCarthy 1992; Bensoussan in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Aitchison in Andelman and Rogers 1996). Also, at present, the lexical syllabus is linked to other language skills and has no independent identity. Yet assessment of progress in a language is often related to estimates of given numbers of words a learner should know. Graded reader books which produce word lists at different levels are an example of the procedure. What determines productive vocabulary is the size of vocabulary used in the writing of L2 learners (Grobe 1981; Laufer and Nation 1995; Engber 1995). Furthermore, measuring lexical richness can help to distinguish some of the factors that affect the quality of a piece of writing (Linnaurud 1986; Engber 1993; Laufer and Nation 1995; Scott 1996; Meara in Brown et al 1996).

The lexical approach has not generally been systematic, because it is practically impossible to teach meaning without grammar, nor is it coordinated with the objectives set, nor is it easy to measure the size of the vocabulary acquired
(Meara in Brown et al. 1996). This is due to the fact that vocabulary is looked upon as the means to facilitate the development of other language skills (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988). However, with Willis' (1990) new approach to syllabus design, words seem easier to teach. Words are presented through concordances, databases and dictionary entries. If the teaching strategy adopted illuminates the meaning, vocabulary teaching may be useful. Willis (1990) insists that if learners are to create appropriate meanings, they need to become aware of the choices realized in genuine language use. Then vocabulary items are more likely to be noticed again. Bongaerts (1988); Honeyfield (1989); Palmberg 1990; Garrett (1991); Gu and Johnson 1996; Altman (in Thomas and Huckin 1997) share this view.

Although the lexical syllabus has no independent entity from other kinds of syllabus and is not entirely systematic, (Grobe 1981; Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Laufer and Nation 1995), the researcher attempted in her choice of lexical items to give vocabulary an independent entity. This was made possible by focusing on a limited number of lexical items. Vocabulary was taught as one of the four skills by giving learners a list of words with their meanings. In the view of the researcher, the teaching of vocabulary was systematic and could be taught without direct teaching of grammar, but within the context of discourse since collocation and the formation of sentences were required. Teaching vocabulary in this approach used the sentence level, the knowledge of words and genre as is required by linguists at present (Knapp and Watkins 1994). Furthermore, vocabulary teaching, sometimes, is coordinated with essay performance. In fact, in this study, the correlation between vocabulary and essay was significant in Essay 2 of the Counterbalancing Experiment. Although the choice of words to be taught was selected with the objectives of writing Essays, the Cobuild Frequency Count was taken into account, among other factors (see Chapter IV).

Concordance

Various uses of concordancing constitute another lexical approach. This can generate multiple authentic instances of usage in context and presents these
instances to students when teaching a particular point (Flowerdew 1993; Wichmann 1995). It also presents a host of possibilities for the contrastive investigation of vocabulary through examination of contexts of occurrence (Baker et al. 1993; Murphy 1996). This approach counters the argument of some linguists who advocate that it is better to limit learners' extensive reading in case they misunderstand the meaning of lexical items, and these become fossilized.

**Databases**

The use of databases is a further approach to the lexical syllabus. In this approach, the main semantic fields involving a word are listed together with a number of discourse uses. Grammar is not necessarily excluded. The figures based on a computer analysis of the Cobuild Corpus reveals the following results (Willis 1990):

- The most frequent 700 words of English constitute 70% of English text.
- The most frequent 1,500 words constitute 76% of text.
- The most frequent 2,500 words constitute 80% of text.

However, the classic objection to the uses of databases and concordances is the fact that they are affected by memory limitations (Flowerdew 1993; Stubbs 1996). Further, these procedures do not fit all vocabulary learning strategies as is the case in this study. In fact, analysis is restricted mainly to surface forms identifiable with a concordance program (Hoey 1993; Halliday in Aijmer and Altenberg 1991). It is often seen as useful only for studying individual words or phrases (Leech in Aijmer and Altenberg 1991). The above mentioned features of the lexical syllabus reveal the dilemma between practitioners and researchers (Elliot 1991).

The use of database lists and concordances is also time consuming in the EFL classrooms. Such innovations are not easily applied in some situations in EFL around the world, nor are they easily adopted by educators and administrators who sometimes resist changes. Not the least of the difficulties is the limited access to computers in many countries. While LAU certainly has good computing facilities,
these are not necessarily available for large numbers of students for English II and III classes, and they could not be used for the present research.

2.8 Lexical Inventory and Vocabulary Materials
Having different lexical syllabi in mind, let us view the criteria for lexical inventories. Many linguists (Thorndike and Lorge 1944; Richards et al. 1956/1974) attempt to establish criteria for creating lexical inventories for teaching purposes generally based on frequency counts. These procedures have been widely used, but they have not passed the test of time. Yet students' L1 may help in knowing words, even some of the least frequent words in a word list. For instance, the word *suppuration* and *calumniator* in Thorndike's 3000 word list are readily known by Spanish speakers because they are Spanish cognates (Lado 1961). Yet clearly it cannot be assumed that learners know all the vocabulary items that precede these words in Thorndike's word list?

Sinclair (1991) formulated a word list based on the observation that a relatively small number of English words account for a very high proportion of English texts and more specifically writing. Nation (in Shreuder and Weltens 1993) goes one step further than Sinclair (1991), he recommends that students learn the 2000 most frequent words represented in the University Word List (Nation 1990) and then focuses on repeated reading to integrate this core knowledge and extensive reading. Nation's (in Schreuder and Weltens 1993) approach seems to have worked well in the present study using a vocabulary list extracted from reading texts, reviewed within reading texts and produced in essay writing. Nation's approach (in Schreuder and Weltens 1993) seems to be supported by Zimmerman (1994) who believes that systematic vocabulary instruction in addition to learning through reading is a successful approach. Finally, Coady (in Huckin et al. 1993), Parry (1991), and Engber (1995) support the hypothesis that reading improves vocabulary knowledge and vocabulary knowledge supports reading and writing development: A pattern that has been used in this study.
Frequency Word Lists

Frequency is another criterion for lexical inventories. Guessing words from context is most appropriate with low frequency vocabulary because of the narrow range and lower probability of meeting these words again (Nation 1983; Liu and Nation 1985; Nation in Schreuder and Weltens 1993). Spending a lot of time on learning low frequency words is not always good use of time. Again this may depend on the context of occurrence. Clearly, some infrequent words are crucial in some contexts and in those contexts it is worth spending time to teach them. Hence, one should look at 3 groups of vocabulary: high-frequency vocabulary; specialized vocabulary taught through a list of words; and low frequency taught through context (Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996).

As shown earlier, most of these criteria are readily met with in the relatively well-established corpora such as the Collins Cobuild, and the teaching/learning materials which have been published based on their frequency counts. However, a frequency list may be consulted in the course of choosing words to be taught to students (Flowerdew 1993), but ultimately the words to be learned are to be selected by the teacher-researcher.

Vocabulary Lists

In an experiment for teaching vocabulary lists, Kankashian (1979) found that gain increased proportionately to the increase in the frequency of words. This seems to coincide with the findings of writers stating that the more one’s vocabulary develops the easier it is to add new words (Wunan 1991; Bensoussan in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Meara in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997; Jiang 2000).

Strategies such as teaching through the three skills of reading, writing and oral discussion are more effective than others in advanced vocabulary acquisition of EFL learners (Schleifer 1985; Coady and Huckin 1997). Further, different strategies fit ESL learners differently (Sokmen in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997; McDonough 1999).
The Learner's Need

Although the choice of lexical items for teaching a giving group of students is a complex problem (Judd 1978; Carter and McCarthy 1988; Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Coady and Huckin 1997) and highly subjective with gaps in preferences and priorities (Kankashian 1979), this choice should be determined by the learners’ present and future need (Nation 1983; Schleifer 1985; Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996). Thus, the selection process should start with objective criteria, then the words preselected should be filtered through experts' intersubjectivity, taking into account language needs, any learning burden and the importance of metacognitive awareness in the process of acquisition (Richards 1979; Nation 1990; Parry 1991; Oxford and Scarcella 1994; Van Lier 1996; Altman in Coady and Huckin 1997).

In sum, objective criteria, experts’ intersubjectivity, learners’ needs and metacognitive awareness are procedures used in the study (some of these procedures have been used in the vocabulary syllabus proposed for LAU) (see the following section).

Besides choosing lexical items, how the learning materials are present also needs to be considered in EFL teaching. There is some difficulties because the variables affecting the organization of learning materials are not well known nor has sufficient research been undertaken according to textbook writers and educational researchers (Croft 1972; Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996).

From Simple to Complex

The most common practice of arranging learning materials is to order them from simple to complex or from concrete to abstract. This assumes that complex and abstract are more difficult than simple and concrete (Rogers 1969; Croft 1972; Bensoussan in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Coady in Coady and Huckin 1997). The concept of difficulty is relative and mainly related to the learners’ past and present
experience, their familiarity with the topic, which makes the material difficult or easy (Carrell 1983; Johns in Hamp-Lyons 1991; Stubbs 1996; Laufer in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997). Such background experience obviously varies from country to country, class to class, or student to student. When speakers of Romance languages learn English, they have difficulty learning phrasal verbs such as *call up*, meaning to telephone (Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Arnaud and Savignon in Coady and Huckin 1997). Also a word may be logically complex because of its structure and meaning but psychologically simple (Croft 1972; Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996). Further, it is important to take into account that *organisation* is a property of the vocabulary as a whole, not a characteristic of individual words (Meara in Brown 1996; Singleton 1999), and how target items relate to this whole.

A Planned Syllabus

No matter what approach is used, a properly constructed and planned syllabus is believed to facilitate successful learning since it represents a linguistically and psycholinguistically optimal introduction to the target language (Richards 1990). With Taba's well known model of a curriculum syllabus in mind, the researcher suggests the following plan for a vocabulary syllabus can be proposed for LAU:

1. Diagnosis of needs in vocabulary.
2. Formulation of specific target (comprehension/production).
3. Selection of topics to write about.
4. Selection of vocabulary and systematic instruction within a reading context.
5. Use of vocabulary in the context of essays.
6. Use of old and new vocabulary in writing and oral skill.

The final step is essential if the goal is to help learners move along the continuum of recognition/acquisition/production (Clark and Paivo 1991; Hatch and Brown 1996; Connor 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Altman in Coady and Huckin 1997).
Further, appropriate teaching methods are not predetermined. They evolve out of the teaching process itself, selected by the teacher in order to achieve learning (Richards 1990; Carter and Long 1991; Stubbs 1996; Van Lier 1996; Connor 1996). Hence, the teacher-researcher expertise is accounted for.

2.9 Further Principles and Current Practices in Vocabulary Teaching

Whatever strategies teachers use for teaching vocabulary, these have benefits as well as drawbacks. Hence, it is advisable at this juncture to look at some general strategies that could help vocabulary teaching (Rivers and Temperley 1977; Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988). Nation 1990; Nunan (1991) Liang-Hsieh (in Katchen and Leung 1997; Sokmen in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997) suggest the use of the following:

- Prefixes and Suffixes
- Phonological Distinction (e.g. to digest vs Reader's Digest)
- Compounds (e.g. look down and look after)
- Diagrams (connecting diagrams and charts with items)
- Definitions (e.g. parentheses, words in italics, footnotes)
- Inferences (e.g. in other words, for example, in sum)
- Wider Context (coherence patterns such as cause/effect sentences)

In brief, teaching the skill of general clues allows students with no previous knowledge of vocabulary items to equal or exceed students who have been taught the vocabulary (Kruse 1978-79). Kruse's results coincide with what Van Lier (1996) calls learner's awareness, Gu and Johnson (1996) as self-initiation, and what Altman (in Coady and Huckin 1997), Fleming and Walls (1998) call metacognitive awareness. In this study, learners in Group A of the Counterbalancing Experiment did not require any teaching of vocabulary when they became a control group. It is assumed that vocabulary teaching called on their metacognitive awareness or self-initiation.
Translation

Verbal explanation seems a common strategy to teach vocabulary to university learners since students are assumed to have reached maturity and since verbalization is assumed to assist learners to reach the productive level. If one looks at the teaching of meaning from the viewpoint of communication, one could replace the word *encode* by *translate*. The teacher's description is a translation of an idea, for example *chair*, into something that can be heard. The teacher can also literally translate and use the mother tongue to explain a word. Translation pairs are believed to be more effective in terms of word retention and is more effective in the long run (Jiang 2000). In fact, during the Nabatean period in Petra, Jordan (200 BC-300 AD), a soldier carved an inscription including magic words in 2 different languages: Aramaic, which was written and Arabic, which was the vernacular. Dr Kropp (2000) interpreted the above as the need of an individual to go back to the vernacular to express emotional statements. Perhaps one may conclude that translation to one’s vernacular is a need and that has been so since the dawn of times. However, some criticize this method saying that there is no exact correspondence between one language and another, and that translation is time consuming (Halliday 1973; Nation 1978). It also encourages learners to use bilingual lists and one-to-one equivalents rather than building up systems in the target language via, for example, the direct method. Fundamentally, frequent use of translation may impede learners’ ability to build up lexical systems in the L2 since rather than relating L2 words to other L2 words, they are likely to use L1 words as mediators. Again, in practice, much depends on the context and on the learners.

However, translation lends itself to a comparison between both languages and helps the learner to be aware of their own errors made in L2 (Nation 1978; Connor 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1996). The researcher sometimes uses the Arabic-English corresponding lexicon to clarify the errors of students, a contrastive method that she found effective and time saving, provided learners are also aware of the danger of translation.
Prohibiting translation is seen by learners as implicit criticism of the mother tongue, thus, making it seem like a second-grade language. The researcher experienced a clash with one of her students when she asked the learner to express herself in English as the student asked further information outside the classroom. The student felt that her L1 had been insulted and said so.

Words in Context
The use of words in context to infer meaning is another strategy. Such use of words in context differs from simply using general clues. General clues mean referential items found in context and learners are made aware of them through learning techniques, whereas teaching words in context means asking the learner to guess the meaning through trial and error. There should be a context to teach ESL vocabulary out of context. This is rarely encountered in Lebanese teachers' experience. In fact, learners at AUB and LAU could lose 20% of their Midterm and Final grades on guessing words in context. If words are to be guessed in context, 95% of the words should be known (Coulthard 1994; Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996). On the other hand, other linguists point out that, for vocabulary acquisition, presenting words in a context is likely to result in less efficient learning of the new words because rich context reduces the need for attention to the word itself (Lawson and Hogben 1996). Further, inferring word meaning is an error-prone process. Studies have shown students seldom guess the correct meanings (Pressley, Levin and McDaniel 1987; Kelly 1990). Besides, poor achievers show no interest in learning words in context (Ahmad in Meara 1989; Read 2000). In fact, this is the view of the researcher whose belief stems out of her teaching experience.

Investigators seem to favor the teaching of words in sentential contexts although experimental reports sometimes deny the advantages of using the context. These views may not be so meaningful since the learning of a foreign language involves the simultaneous learning of vocabulary, pronunciation and syntax (Higa 1963), semantics and morphology (Jiang 2000). Furthermore, guessing in
context is not without its problems. It is a reading strategy, not primarily a vocabulary acquisition strategy, although its use involves semantic treatment of the input and therefore may facilitate incidental learning (Hulstijn in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992). Yet, experimental results do not unanimously show such an effect of guessing on vocabulary retention (Mondria and Wit-de-Boer 1991). However, pre-exposure to words, that is, priming glosses difficult words and phrases with their meanings or seeing them listed on a sheet with synonyms and in a sentential context yields better results on learning from context because this procedure may require the learner to do much work disambiguating meaning once into context (Widdowson 1978; Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988, Sinclair 1991; Altman in Coady and Huckin 1997). This approach has been used by the researcher successfully (see Chapters 4 and 6).

**Cloze Procedure**

Another procedure for teaching vocabulary is cloze although it is more commonly thought of as a procedure for testing, rather than for teaching. Lexical items in a text are part of a stable and unstable relationship which can make different interpretations possible (Carter and McCarthy 1988). The attractiveness of this principle is that it gives emphasis to the creative power of language and to the value of controlling a set of productive grammatical patterns (Sinclair 1991). Further, words are learned within particular contexts and students' learning of meanings is gradually extended to a full range (Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996).

In fact, cloze procedure has been quite effective with the researcher, who used to take the test with the students. It helped her fix and remember the words within chunks of speech. However, the researcher noticed in her application of action research, that those words were only recalled because of their context. She could not recall them independently. In fact, Carter (1998) rectified his belief by saying that cloze procedure encourages skills of lexical comprehension.
Collocation

The use of collocation is another technique of vocabulary teaching. It involves the matching of an item with one matching phrasal possibility. In collocation learners produce sentences or phrases in which they incorporate newly acquired items. The attractiveness of this principle focuses attention on vocabulary and collocation rather than on more abstract patterns (Sinclair 1991; Sokmen in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997). Hence, these items become active vocabulary which led to the use of both cloze and collocation strategies, among other activities, in this experiment (see appendices 5 & 8).

Collocation also has the advantage of directing learners' attention to a larger structure of the discourse and to the social aspects of the context, besides the fact that knowledge of language is a combination of words and categories of words (Chapman 1983; Hanks 1987; Carter and McCarthy 1988; Nation 1990). As learners' vocabulary begins to increase, their sentences often contain misused content words. So, presenting learners with one matching phrasal possibility helps in using vocabulary items appropriately without violating lexical restrictions (Brown 1974; Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988). Advanced high proficiency learners rely on associated meanings to register vocabulary in memory (Henning 1973; Palmberg 1990; Coady in Coady and Huckin 1997; Jiang 2000). Hence, learners should be given collocations starting with the normal meaning of a word followed by the reoccurrence of the word in its multiple meanings (e.g. wrinkle).

2.10 Conclusion

In the 1970s the structuralist approach in language teaching emphasised grammar rather than vocabulary (Wilkins 1972; Nunan 1991). Nonetheless, with the development of the communicative approach to language teaching, vocabulary teaching was up-graded, and in the 1990s vocabulary is reconsidered as an important skill and textbook writers focus again on the learning and use of lexical items. Yet, some persist in saying that vocabulary is still neglected (Zimmerman 1994 and 1998;
Lessard-Clouston 1996). Few studies have made comparisons between learners from different backgrounds acquiring the same L2. Also, few attempts have been made to assess how the overall structure of the L2 vocabulary develops and how the size of a learner's vocabulary affects the way new words are acquired (Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Meara in Brown et al. 1996). Knowledge of words and their structures is one of the basic forms required in writing which affects its quality (Halliday and Hassan 1976; Purves and Purves 1986; Laufer and Nation 1995; Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996; Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Engber 1993, Laufer and Nation 1995; McDonough 1999; Singleton 1999).

Considering the assumptions about word knowledge, vocabulary is sometimes held to be an independent component of language teaching. Moreover, strategies for vocabulary teaching are questioned (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Sokmen in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997). However, individual differences of learner's intralinguistic and extralinguistic relations are factors to be considered as one selects vocabulary strategies. Some of the main areas which remain problems today are that researchers do not know the extent to which individual differences affect vocabulary acquisition, and few longitudinal studies have been carried to study different features affecting L2 vocabulary acquisition (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Lawson and Hogben 1996; Singleton 1999).

Linguists differ concerning which vocabulary teaching approaches they advocate. Some believe that a massive exposure to vocabulary through extensive reading is needed (Wilkins 1972; Carter and Long 1991; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Coady in Coady and Huckin 1997). Others (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988) believe that such an exposure leads to the misunderstanding of the meaning of lexical items. Yet others believe that systematic vocabulary instruction should be linked to extensive reading (Nation in Schreuder and Weltens 1993; Zimmerman 1994; Schmitt 1995). Hence, the necessity of using a broad range of strategies
(Bensoussan in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Hatch and Brown 1996; Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Meara in Brown et al. 1996; McDonough 1999). Among these activities are the following: listing and explaining words (Kankashian 1979; Nation 1978; 1990; 1995); using collocation, words in context and the cloze technique (Bensoussan in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992). Among these strategies, LAU stresses words in context, but with no guarantee of a context.

Studies about acquiring vocabulary commonly draw a distinction between comprehension and production. In comprehension, the objective of the teacher is to make the learner aware of the fact that different devices could help in deciphering the meaning of words (Connor 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Altman in Coady and Huckin 1997), and provide learners with multiple exposures to a word (Palmberg 1990; Meara 1995; Coady in Coady and Huckin 1997; Read 2000). In production, the objective of the teacher is to emphasise meaning of vocabulary and its use.

At LAU the actual lexical syllabus for language learning perceives no distinction between comprehension and production. Yet, assessments of progress in a language often include an estimate of the number of words a learner should know (Purves and Purves 1986; Engber 1993; Laufer and Nation 1995; Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996). The estimated number of words a learner is assumed to achieve for given levels remains equivocal among linguists (Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Meara in Brown et al. 1996; Nation and Waring in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997). Furthermore, many factors determine the input of lexical items (Richards 1970; Nation 1990; Palmberg 1990; Hatch and Brown 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1966; Connor 1996; McDonough 1999; Jiang 2000).

Finally, researchers have realized that words are not just isolated but part of a complex interlocking linguistic system, and that there is much more to vocabulary knowledge than the associative links between an L2 word and its equivalent word in L1. (Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Hatch and Brown 1996; Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996; Altman in Coady and Huckin 1997; Carter 1998; Read 2000),
and that L2 learners rely heavily on vocabulary (Liang-tsu Hsieh in Katchen and Leung 1997; Coady in Coady and Huckin 1997; McDonough 1999; Jiang 2000). Hence, the use of literature as an authentic context to the teaching of vocabulary, and the second subskill, sentence-combining, will be discussed in chapter 3.

If one takes an overview of the current situation in Lebanon, one could say that vocabulary is hardly taught or focused upon. Yet, vocabulary is regularly tested at both universities involved in this study, AUB and LAU. Little research has been undertaken due to the 16 years of war, the socio-economic situation and the postwar recovery. It seems that few learners and teachers are aware of the importance of this feature in writing. Learners are assumed to learn vocabulary from reading for comprehension.

The innovation of this study used focused concepts and strategies to make learners systematically aware of vocabulary learning as a skill involving cognitive effort, contextual meaning and word learning. With such a situation and research gap in mind, the next chapter examines current developments in writing.
CHAPTER THREE: CURRENT TRENDS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING: WRITING

3.0 Introduction
Chapter three sums up different approaches to teaching writing which include sentence-combining, integrating reading and writing, and process writing. It also gives a general view of recent trends in the teaching of writing in an L2.

Some of the approaches discussed such as sentence-combining and integrating reading and writing (i.e. study-reading of literary texts) have been used in the present experiment.

3.1 Writing as a Challenging Skill
Teaching the skill of writing is widely held to be relatively difficult, compared to other skills, in the teaching of ESL learners as well as in the teaching of native speakers (Kroll 1979). The results of a survey on the needs of foreign and American college freshman students reinforce the need for the mandatory freshman English writing course for both these groups (Kroll 1979). For example, Hairston (1982), Berlin (1987), North (1987) and Grabe and Kaplan (1996) recognise the problem of students' writing in the English departments at Harvard and the university of Michigan where English professors realised the failure of school and college teachers to teach the skill of writing and handed this problem over to language specialists outside the departments. The long-standing system for learning academic writing that they have always depended on does not seem effective (Kuhn in Hairston 1982). Although, word processing, a new approach to writing has been recently used, it is not clear that this has improved writing quality; the results are ambiguous (Snyder 1993).
3.2 Arabic Speakers’ Writing in English

A Multidimensional Construct

The analysis of written text is in many respects a relatively new research area (Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Connor 1996). Text analysis has grown rapidly over the past 20 years in quantity and variety with contributions from sociolinguistics, applied linguistics, cognitive psychology and contrastive rhetoric (Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Connor 1996; Hatch and Brown 1996). Further, once it is recognised that a text is a multidimensional construct, it becomes clear that no simple definition of text or writing can possibly suffice (Kachru 1992; Grabe and Kaplan 1996). For much of the last 20 years, Lebanon was in civil war and postwar recovery and little of the new research could be applied or contribute to academic progress.

In the recent past, much discussion has been given to debate among teachers over process approaches versus product orientations. Yet study of text product alone will not lead to improvement in writing instruction which needs to be seen as a process (Grabe and Kaplan 1996). However, theories of the writing process alone do not form a comprehensive interpretation of the written text which, after all, needs to lead to a product. This is especially the case in academic contexts in which students’ progress is evaluated from their written products mainly in the form of exam scripts. Although it is widely recognised that texts are multidimensional constructs, this claim seldom appears to be accounted for in research in a way that will allow for the exploration of these dimensions and their interrelationships. A major effort to overcome these limitations can be seen in the corpus linguistic work of Biber (1988, 1992, 1995), using numerous syntactic dimensions to characterize written texts and speech from a register perspective.

Contrastive Rhetoric Studies

Theories of L2 learning current in the 1950s and 1960s suggested that L1 interfered with L2 acquisition (Connor 1996; Caudery in Fulcher 1997; Jiang 2000). The dominant model of the contrastive analysis hypothesis emphasised the negative, and
harmful interfering effects of the L1 language on L2 acquisition. By the late 1960s, L2 learning was compared to L1 acquisition processes in which language learners are considered intelligent beings creating rules and systems based on the rule systems of the language they hear and use. Since such creative construction approach may use L1 rhetorical patterns, L2 texts need not necessarily be viewed as deficient but, rather, in terms of creative transfer.

Teachers of ESL are generally familiar with the more obvious negative effects of transfer such as the use of present tense forms in L2 writing to express the past that reflects the absence of specific past forms in L1, a tendency exemplified by, for example, Chinese writers in English. Three approaches concerning transfer have dominated: contrastive analysis, error analysis, and the transitional systems of interlanguage. Later research, involving error analysis and analyses of interlanguage systems of learners actual performance, suggests that the influence of transfer on L2 is more complex than was previously understood. Factors that have been more recently considered include knowledge about the target language itself, the learner's communicative strategies, the instructional situation and the combined effects of such factors, among others (Connor 1996).

A more recent approach is contrastive rhetoric. This approach focuses on the comparison of discourse structures across cultures and genres rather than focusing on purely syntactic issues in writing. This approach also has drawbacks, and there is some recognition of these. One criticism is that Anglo-American English rhetorical patterns are taken as the norm, and hence other cultural rhetorical patterns are often seen as deficient when measured by this norm, especially for learners of English writing in English. Indirectly, this argument effectively downgrades the teaching of non-Anglo-American English as an international language. However, an increasing number of scholars (Hong and Chew 1993; Kachru 1992; Crystal 1997) advocate tolerance towards a much wider diversity of World Englishes (Indian English or Nigerian English). These are seen as having a local and regional validity which could
be extended to global uses, perhaps even in writing. The language adheres to a fuzzy
set of standard English norms, but diversity is found in phonological patterns,
vocabulary, and the structuring of information. As long as intelligibility is not
jeopardised, the recognition of nonnative English norms is recommended, and
therefore this broadens tolerance of diverse cultural rhetorics in English (Hong and
Chew 1993). Besides, as time passes, the contact varieties acquire stable
characteristics in their pronunciation, syntax, vocabulary and discoursal and style
strategies (Kachru 1992).

However, such tolerance is seen by many English teachers (especially nonnative
speakers who, after all have invested considerable effort into mastering standard
forms) to symbolize falling standards of correctness and, since this has repercussions
on educational values and professional practices, this tolerance is often negatively
evaluated. Such evaluation is reinforced by the generally conservative examination
systems which in most countries focus on correct expression in English rather than on
contextual appropriateness or discourse structuring.

In the 1990s, further changes have taken place in this contrastive rhetoric
approach. Those include a broader definition that gives more weight to cognitive and
sociocultural variables of writing instead of employing a purely linguistic framework
to analyse products. Contrastive rhetoric took new directions in 5 domains:
contrastive text linguistics; the study of writing as a cultural activity; contrastive
studies of the classroom dynamics of L2 writing; contrastive rhetoric studies
conducted in a variety of genres, in a variety of situations for a variety of purposes and
contrastive rhetoric studies, dealing with the inculcation of culturally different
intellectual traditions and ideologies (Connor 1996; Carter 1996).

Writing of Arabic Speakers
As writing has become more widely seen as a complex task and is increasingly viewed
through multidimensional constructs, some of the errors of particular groups of writers
writing in English as another language (such as Arabic speaking students) have been
found to originate from their L1 and to extend beyond language, culture and genres
(Friedlander in Kroll 1994; Connor 1996). It will be recalled that most of the students
in the present research have learned Arabic as their L1.

Conjunctions and theme repetition patterns are used frequently by Arabic
learners, and this is often perceived as over-use by native speakers of English (Kaplan
1967; Mosenthal and Tiemey 1984; Bar-lev 1986). Furthermore, much Arabic writing
is characterised by a series of parallel structures (Kaplan 1966; 1972; Al-Jubouri in
Swales and Mustafa 1984). The latter writers suggest that this style is influenced by
the forms of classical Arabic as found in the Koran. In English, subordination is
preferred in many situations and is taught to students through sentence-combining and
other syntactic methods. However, in Arabic, there is a strong tendency for sentences
to be coordinated and paragraph development also adheres to principles of
coordination through parallel constructions. Instead of developing paragraphs through
a general statement followed by specific examples, Arabic writers often develop
paragraphs through a series of parallel constructions (Kaplan 1972).

Many researchers agree that Arabic writing is characterised by such
parallelism, but they object to the explanation that it stems from the influence of
parallelism characterises Semitic languages and is achieved by the use of so and and
whereas Sa'adeddin (1989) claims that Arabic has two styles of text development,
aural and visual. The aural style is characterised by repetition, a limited and
imprecise lexicon and overreliance on generalisations. On the other hand, the visual
style (the written style) favours linear development, varied lexis and more complex
syntax. In addition, the social function of the text determines the style (Sa'adeddin
1989). The visual rather than the aural style is held to be preferred in scholarly
writing. Inappropriate choice between these styles is likely to be made by students,
when writing in Arabic as L1. This is in addition to the possibility of rhetorical
transfer of one of these styles to English, which could again lead to different
evaluations of such writing by English L1 readers. Evidence that such transfer occurs is given by Al-Jubouri (in Swales and Mustafa 1984) who compares English essays written by Saudi Arabian students with English paragraphs selected from different books. The results show that the essays written by Saudi Arabians had a significantly higher number of co-ordinated sentences than the English passages. In addition, the discourse patterns in the analysed two languages differ in the use of discourse blocks and discourse units. The essays by Arabic-speaking students contained more discourse units (supporting ideas or what Bar-Lev 1986 named fluidity) than the English passages.

In the view of the researcher, whose beliefs come out of her teaching experience and the fact that she is familiar with both languages, Arabic and English, Kaplan's (1972) and Sa'adeddin's (1989) arguments concerning the development of paragraphs through a principle of co-ordination might be appropriate explanations, for Arabic does not seem to develop paragraphs following a general statement. However, learners, at AUB and LAU, are exposed to several systematic composition courses which explicitly teach American English patterns of college rhetoric. Students are bombarded with examples of the rhetorical construct in English of general statement followed by specific examples. Learners are also made aware of the fact that this kind of organisation is greatly valued in English essay performance. Furthermore, in Lebanon, most of the subjects in schools are taught in a foreign language, in contrast to neighbouring countries since most learners at high school level are French or English educated because these are the media of secondary education. Hence, learners are exposed from an early age to a rhetoric different than the rhetoric of their vernacular. Also at both universities, teachers as raters of English writing continuously meet and evaluate anchor papers, and among the criteria of essay evaluation, organisation features strongly, so teachers of English writing systematically coordinate their understanding of what they teach and how they assess it. Yet, if one needs to find out whether learners' rhetoric has changed, studies should be carried out in the written performance of other subjects over time. In fact, Jones and Comprone (1993) agree to this.
Concerning the use of co-ordination in the English writing of Arabic speakers, it seems from the researcher's teaching experience that this aspect is not so strong among Lebanese learners at AUB and LAU. Further, unlike learners in neighbouring countries many daily activities, including watching films and TV, take place in English as well as French. In other words, informal learning of a foreign language is a confluence of opportunity to formal learning (Altman in Coady and Huckin 1997). Also learners who enter AUB and LAU, and whose English writing is below a certain level, are required to take a noncredit English course whose basic content is grammar reading and writing. This course includes a focus on typical rhetorical patterns such as cause/effect, comparison/contrast, with the appropriate uses of conjunctions, transitions and subordinators. These patterns are highlighted in the American textbooks used to teach composition.

As to the influence of the *Koran on learners' style of writing, this seems far fetched since the Koran is not taught as such in private or public schools in Lebanon. Crucially, it is noteworthy that about a third of the Lebanese population is Christian besides those who are Moslem. For the Christian groups, at least, it seems highly unlikely that the Koran would have a significant influence. Again, Lebanon is unlike its neighbouring countries in this respect.

On the other hand, the researcher accepts the influence of what Bar-Lev (1986) names fluidity in writing, and of what Sa'deddin (1989) calls discourse units in writing. This fluidity is mainly due to sociocultural factors. If one had to compare the aural explanation on the same topic expressed by a Lebanese and a native speaker, what could be explained in five sentences by a native speaker might well be explained in eight sentences by a Lebanese. This has been observed by the researcher in the writing of her students, and it corresponds to what Bar-Lev (1986) characterised as

*Koran, being a holy book, has been written in bold.


**fluidity.** Furthermore, if one probes Sa‘adeddin’s (1989) claim that Arabic has aural and written styles, English also has aural and written styles. The written style itself could also be subdivided by sociocultural concepts, for example, as to whether the situation is formal or informal.

A further influence from L1 that the researcher approves of is that composing competence is different in Arabic. In fact, Krapels (in Kroll 1990) and McDonough (1999) believe that learners of English as a L2 suffer from a lack of composing competence rather than linguistic competence. Moreover, having Arabic as L1, the researcher observed that commas and fullstops are sometimes interchangeable in L1, and learners often use commas instead of fullstops in ESL writing. This takes us back to what Connor (1996) calls writing as an activity embedded in culture.

Some writers do not consider transfer from L1 as solely a negative influence (Connor and Kaplan 1987; Hinds 1983; Raimes 1991). Nonnative varieties of English could also be considered as norms, certainly within their own local or regional context (Kachru 1983; 1992; Hong and Chew 1993). The following 2 versions of the same text, one nativized and the other Englishized, present an example as to whether nonnative varieties of English are to be accepted or not (Achebe in Whitley 1964):

I want one of my sons to join these people and be my eyes there. If there is nothing in it you will come back. But if there is something then you will bring back my share. The world is like a mask, dancing. If you want to see it well, you do not stand in one place. My spirit tells me that those who do not befriend the white man today will be saying, had we known, tomorrow.

Then Achebe (in Whitley 1964) gives the second version:

I am sending you as my representative among those people - just to be on the safe side in case the new religion develops. One has to move with the times or else one is left behind. I have a hunch that those who fail to come to terms with the white man may well regret their lack of foresight.
Achebe (in Whitley 1964) concludes that the material is the same, but the form of the first version is in character (for African English in that context), while the second is not. There is, therefore, some argument that local varieties of English, i.e. those in Kachru’s (1992) outer circle, may have some formal status and a degree of acceptability in context, although exactly to what degree remains controversial. It would seem a lot more contentious, at present, to argue that foreign-language varieties of English, i.e. those from Kachru’s (1992) expanding circle, should be accepted in a written form, although some degree of influence is perhaps inevitable in future if present trends towards the globalization of English continue (Crystal 1997). If one goes back to Achebe’s (in Whitley 1964) African English version, the researcher believes that the former is more expressive and communicative. The African English version communicates the fear and threat of losing one’s identity and link with the past. Further, if one looks at the fluidity of the original version, one observes that it contains 79 words, whereas the 2nd version comprises 60 words. This again takes us back to sociocultural factors. The same observation applies to the fluidity of AUB and LAU learners writing English.

In the present study, Lebanese use of English might be considered an expanding variety in Lebanon. This would be reinforced by widespread uses of English in the media and streets and by English medium schools. There has been virtually no research on Lebanese uses of English, and it is not possible to come to definitive conclusions on this point. However, from the school and university requirements, one can assume that American English is predominant at both universities.

Word Processing and Writing
A new approach to writing has been the use of the computer in the writing process (Snyder 1993). Some studies, which carried out using statistical analyses of learners'
writing, have focused on the quality of writing produced by the effects of the word processor. Some studies report an improvement in quality (Etchison 1985; Eaton 1986; Snyder 1990, 1992), while others report no difference (Anderson 1983; Miller 1984; Dulling 1985; Piper in Meara 1989). Other studies (Burnett 1984; Pivarnik 1985; Dalton and Watson 1986; Cheever 1987) claim that the writing of weaker students improves with the use of computers, but Bryson et al. (1986) found that talented students in their study benefited the most. LAU students certainly have access to computers but, at present, there are no facilities or training available for them to use computers for the English courses which are the focus of the present study. The researcher tends to believe that word processing and writing using electronic media may be useful as skills in their own right but ultimately do not short-cut the route to achieving quality in writing.

Problems in Assessing Writing
Besides the above mentioned complexities of the writing task, a further problem of writing is bridging the gap between teaching and assessing (White 1985; Meara 1998). Teachers assign writing for different instructional purposes to meet students' personal learning goals. Also, different types of writing are selected to be consistent with personal and academic purposes (Comen 1994). In addition, it has been found that a lack of L2 writing competence resulted more from the lack of composing competence than from the lack of linguistic competence. Also skill or lack of skill in L1 composing is carried over to the L2 composing task (Comen 1994; Caudery in Fulcher 1997). This point might be relevant to the Freshman or Sophomore levels of writing in English at LAU and AUB assuming that their ability in composing in L1 needs improvement. In fact, students at the Sophomore level are also required to take an Arabic course.

The assessment of writing has been described as a complex interaction among several sets of factors: the knowledge that the assessor has about how to construct the assessment task and the knowledge of the learner or test taker (Ruth and Murphy
1984). In an essay test where the topic or focus of assessment is not clear to the writer, a misinterpretation may result and have serious consequences (Ruth and Murphy 1984).

If the concept of thesis statement and controlling ideas is applied to essay test directions, misinterpretation of essay tests would probably happen less frequently, provided learners are taught how to compose thesis statements and make effective use of controlling ideas (Raimes 1992; Grabe and Kaplan 1996). The skill in using these concepts is assumed to help solve the two factors mentioned by Ruth and Murphy (1984). These concepts are certainly taught in the English courses, yet still LAU and AUB teachers observe how their students do not use them effectively in their writing unless they are continuously monitored. In addition, there are individual differences among teachers although most teachers emphasise this aspect. It seems that some English teachers know the researcher’s previous students by the inclusion of the above mentioned concepts in their Essay writing.

In sum, writing is much more complex than different and specific approaches. It is also much more complex than some theories seem to suggest. Research on writing should draw on several related fields of study of Sociolinguistics, Applied Linguistics, Contrastive Rhetoric, and take into account that writing is a Multidimensional Construct and an Interdisciplinary Field. With this complexity of the writing task in mind, an overview of the main methods of teaching writing is presented below.

Relying on Textbooks
Scarcity of research investigations on rhetorical concerns has left many teachers to rely largely on the recommendations of textbooks (Meade and Ellis 1970; Zamel 1982; Kroll 1994). The emphasis of so many composition textbooks is basically on different methods of developing paragraphs, such as cause/effect, comparison/contrast etc. The majority of handbooks concentrate mainly on one aspect of the rhetorical approach which hinders the development of a more global approach to good writing (Kitzhaber
Researchers in one study carried out an investigation on 300 paragraphs randomly selected, from contemporary materials, magazines and English journals, to investigate the rhetorical procedures used. Results showed that writers generally use different rhetorical procedures separately or in combination. Hence, a teacher may question the validity of teaching the rhetorical procedures recommended in such textbooks or whether there is any necessity for direct instruction in particular methods of paragraph development. Regardless of the validity of rhetorical procedures, AUB and LAU universities rely heavily on textbook materials. English II and III courses have a certain number of essays, based on specific genres, to write during the semester.

Recent researchers (Connor and Schneider 1988; Weissberg and Biker 1990; Kroll 1994; Connor 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1996) have argued that genre could affect the quality of ESL learners' writing and that some genres elicit better writing quality i.e. some genres are easier or more accessible for student writers. For instance, argumentation, which needs greater attention to logic and sequencing of information, is for more advanced levels, and is less likely to elicit high quality writing at lower proficiency levels (Carrell and Connor 1991; Grabe and Kaplan 1996). The present study used argumentation in Essay 1 of the experimental group, cause/effect as genre in Essay 2 and comparison and contrast in Essay 3 (see Chapter 4).

In addition, with the complexity of writing and its social-culture interrelation, it can be concluded that no one factor is responsible for good or poor writing. (White 1985; Sinclair 1991; Grabe and Kaplan 1996). The nature of writing is multiconstruct. Even with this clear recognition of the complexities which must, of necessity, be involved in teaching writing, it is true that for both logistic and pedagogic reasons some simplification and sequencing is necessary in teaching writing. Since not every aspect can be engaged at all stages in teaching, a strategy of simplification must be employed in practical classroom situations, certainly in initial stages.
Several points can be made concerning the establishment of pedagogic priorities. It is argued that ESL learners at the Freshman level in Lebanon need to be taught particular methods of paragraph development and their writing needs to be structured, especially if they are poor performers, for they lack the skill of expression. Later, when they become advanced writers, more freedom would be given, as visualised in figure 3.1. Certainly, the composition courses required of all Freshmen who do not achieve high scores on English entry tests stress these elements, so to this extent they are institutionalized in LAU English courses.

Figure 3.1 Structured and less structured writing tasks with advanced and less advanced learners.

The researcher, who had the possibility of learning languages in both approaches, French (in which classes did not structure writing) and English (in which classes structured writing), had better results and felt the improvement when she was taught to write according to specific structured methods. Also, such methods used the concept of thesis statement, a set of schemes to support the thesis such as facts, illustration, authority helped her to understand the process as well as the skill of writing. It gave her the possibility of knowing what to include in her Essay performance. These schemes have been discussed by Oshima and Hogue (1991), Raimes (1992) and Grabe and Kaplan (1996). Moreover, if the question is whether formal practice in methods should be made conscious or not, one could also question whether the four language skills need to be taught separately rather than in an integrative approach. Compartmentalizing the 4 skills inhibits rather than assists students in language learning (Zamel 1987). Teachers of writing should keep pursuing their intuitive feeling or conduct insider research and describe what works better even
though they may perhaps lack the means to prove it initially (Shaughnessy 1979; Widdowson 1990). Certainly research gives the teacher insight into the complexities of language learning, but what one understands from Widdowson's phrase is that teachers' wisdom of practice (Shaughnessy 1979) is to be valued, especially when combined with such notions as the teacher-researcher (Stenhouse 1980; Widdowson 1990) and the reflective practitioner (Schon 1983) (see Chapter 1). Such notions seem very useful for professional development in Lebanon, but they are quite challenging in an environment in which, until recently, research practice has been difficult in universities and in which teaching based on awareness of research was largely out of the question during the war years (1975-1991) when it was a considerable achievement to keep schools and universities open.

Schon's (1983) concept of reflective practitioner is linked, in fact, to action research which is the demands of reflection on one's own practice. However, the notion of reflective practitioner needs to be bridged to the collaboration within a group to provide an effective means of empowering the self and bringing about changes (Carr and Kemmis 1983). Questions tackled in action research emerge from the teacher's concerns and problems (Crookes 1993). One can say that action research is the outcome of applying research to problems located in classroom experience and reflection on these problems is the outcome of thoughtful and perhaps research-aware practice. But it is also the improvement of the reflective awareness of experience and systematic formulation of what that experience means, perhaps in personal professional terms but certainly in research terms. This experience, critically, includes the attempt to solve classroom problems and the careful monitoring of the research-action process.

3.3 Sentence-combining Teaching and Writing
Another tool, which has been used in the skill of writing and which has, more recently, been widely discredited, is the teaching of formal grammar (Wilkins 1972; Cooper
All language activities foster syntax and there is no reason for the teacher to separate grammar since it is one of the language skills (Cooper 1973; Nation in Jacobs 1997). Furthermore, some subset skills for assessing writing ability include vocabulary and sentence grammar among others such as genre, organisation, content (Carter and Nash 1995; Grabe and Kaplan 1996). Most of these indirect measures (grammar, vocabulary, sentence-combining) were developed during the 1950s and 1960s, but they were retracted in favour of direct measures (genre, organisation, process) of writing ability. And yet, indirect measures are rules of use without which the rules of grammar are useless (Hymes in Pride and Holmes 1972; Halliday and Hassan 1976; Nation in Jacobs 1997; Hughes and McCarthy 1998).

Sentence-combining and Syntax

By developing the skill of sentence-combining, learners develop the use of different syntactic formats such as simple, compound and complex sentences. Furthermore, as the combination of sentences requires subordinations and conjunctions, learners are made aware of a further device: cohesion i.e. the surface features linking sentences together, including the specific use of vocabulary to do this (in lexical cohesion). Learners are also exposed to different ways of writing the same sentence as it has been revealed in the transcript analysis of sentence correction (Chapter V). They are able to compare their sentences with the original, comment on the rhetoric of the sentences and its semantic which is partly an outcome of rhetoric. The continuing popularity of sentence-combining can be gauged by the fact that Soars (1989; 1990; 1996) in her best-selling series Headway has used sentence-combining at different levels and forms. In fact, contextual awareness of syntax becomes discourse (Hughes and McCarthy 1998), and courses with a form-focused component achieve better results than courses without such a component (Nation and Waring in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997). In fact, contextual awareness of syntax becomes discourse (Hughes and McCarthy 1998). In this study, sentence-combining was related to Hemingway and Gibran’s texts.
Comb (1976); Zamel (1990) and Johnson (1992) measured the quality of writing resulting from practice in sentence-combining. Results show that the experimental groups who had used sentence-combining exercises wrote compositions that were syntactically more mature than those of the control group. In the present study, both Experimental Groups, that have used sentence-combining and vocabulary as subskills, have done significantly better than the two Control Groups. Further, some authors stated that a repertoire of sentence-combining has the same advantages as the use of wide vocabulary (Hunt 1965; Halliday and Hassan 1976).

It is recalled that the focus of the Experiment is on two subskills: sentence-combining and vocabulary. Both are an integral part of Essay performance which is a result of study-reading texts. Vocabulary is a major component of writing, for it is hard to conceive how one can express complicated thoughts without a command of the relevant lexical items (Kirkman 1967; Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Carter and Long 1991; Hatch and Brown 1996). Furthermore, using vocabulary accurately and writing sentences correctly are some of the basic features of Essay writing (Robinson 1980; Grobe 1981; Scheirer 1985; McCarthy 1991). These two subskills are based on the principle that language is actually grammaticalised lexis and tightly interconnected (Sinclair 1991; Lewis 1993). Learners in the Experimental groups followed the pattern in (figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2: Interconnection of Reading, Writing, Vocabulary and Sentence-combining.
Authors such as Johnson (1992) also show that there are benefits of sentence-combining regardless of whether paired sentences to be combined are given with or without due words (such as linking words). Hunt (1965) shows that beginning writers do not have the ability to use different sentence building procedures which allow more mature writers to say what they want to say. This is due to the fact that complex syntactic structures are more difficult to process than simple ones (Sternglass 1980) and, pleasurably, more difficult to write for this reason. Davies (1978) summarises a number of studies of adolescent and adult L2 learners which suggest that receptive skills should be emphasised at the early stages of introductory classes. Torrance et al. (1993), in drawing out implications for thesis writing instruction, note that it is important to base the content of the course, on which an experiment was carried out, upon the grammatical features found in academic text, particularly above the sentence level. Furthermore, sentence complexity and vocabulary are important factors, among others such as organisation and the use of genre, in the evaluation of writing (Grobe 1981; Scott 1996). A limiting factor is that most of the studies cited above are concerned with L1 writers of English. Nevertheless, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) conclude that sentence-combining techniques in L2 offer a means to raise student awareness of various clause and sentence types and of the possibilities of combining them which is an important component of writing skills.

Sentence-combining, and more specifically the use of relative clauses, is a problem for Arab speaking students (Schachter 1974; Scott and Tucker 1974; Kaplan 1972; 1987; Connor 1996). A prevalent problem in writing among nonnative speakers in American University was centred on sentence-structure (Bridgeman and Carlson 1983). This is a further obstacle for L2 readers to overcome (Huckin et. al 1993; Coady and Huckin 1997).

Sentence-combining and Psycholinguistics

A sentence-combining approach is consistent with the psycholinguistic model which assumes that fluency develops as readers learn to process larger units of language more efficiently and to draw on their linguistic resources in the target language. As
students transform sentences to phrases and clauses during their writing activities, they learn how word groups form meaningful units rather than a string of words. Furthermore, word groups that form meaningful units are formed of an appropriate range of vocabulary items (Bensoussan in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Hatch and Brown 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Connor 1996). Hence, vocabulary and sentence-combining activities should develop fluency in reading and provide a springboard for learners’ writing practice (Ney 1974; Stemglass 1980; Strong 1994; Altman in Coady and Huckin 1997; Coady and Huckin 1997).

Drawbacks of Sentence-combining and Refutation

Some writers have cautioned against sentence-combining: it could become a mechanical routine with little value (Ney 1976; Daiker et al. 1978, Witte and Faigley 1981). Yet, when sentences can be written automatically, more energy and time can be allotted to planning other needs that writing requires (Johnson 1992; Strong 1994). In fact, one can observe that in the sentence-correction of the transcript, learners asked themselves questions beyond the structure level: questions pertaining to rhetoric and semantics (see Chapter V). For instance, learners realised that if the following two sentences, from the text *Indian Camp* are linked, the meaning changes:

S: He was smoking a pipe, and the room smelled very bad.
H: *He was smoking a pipe. The room smelled very bad.*

Furthermore, by comparing their sentences with the author, the learner’s reason for not linking them was justified. That is, the effective teaching of sentence-combining should include, as here, awareness by students when it is more effective not to combine what are potentially combinable clauses. In fact, Widdowson (1979) confirmed this possible positive outcome by stating that classroom situations may be effective for teaching the semantic significance of sentences and their constituents. With sentence-combining the focus is mostly on sentence level grammar (Knapp and Watkins 1994).
This technique could be adapted to the needs of the students and used in their writing (Comb 1976). In the case of LAU students, for instance, organisation and sequencing of events could be practised. Christensen (1968) developed a generative rhetoric approach to teaching sentences. Students are given a base sentence which they should compose, expand and add to. Composing is thus seen as an act of synthesis which promotes student confidence and increases familiarity with syntactic patterns (Christensen 1968; DeBeaugrande 1984; Hillocks 1986). It also requires organised and logical paragraph writing which cannot be taken for granted even for advanced writers (Grabe and Kaplan 1996). The discoursal importance of sentence-combining arguably constitutes one of the basics of paragraph writing, a constituent of essay writing. Table 3.1 presents an analytic listing of textbooks using sentence-combining. These are important examples because they are current, wide ranging, and themselves include a variety of techniques and contexts for sentence-combining.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>S-C Exercises</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Langan. J. (1997)</td>
<td>English Skills</td>
<td></td>
<td>1. Correct fragments. Eg. Since I was tired.</td>
<td>Langan uses a wide variety of sentence-combining as well as error analysis. What is important is that he includes a revision of different features used to combine sentences. This gives learners a general view of the different features and draws on what they have learned previously. Review does not seem to have been used by many authors.</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>2. Correct run ons. Eg. Phil cringed at the sound of the dentist's drill it buzzed like a fifty pound mosquito.</td>
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<td>3. Combine to form a compound sentence. Eg. I married at age 17. I never got a chance to live on my own.</td>
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<td>4. Combine to form a complex sentence (use subordinators). Eg. Lola doesn't enjoy cooking. She often eats at fast food restaurants.</td>
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<td>5. Combine sent. using participials. adverb etc.. Eg. -ed word Dimitri was annoyed by the poor TV reception. He decided to get a new antenna.</td>
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<td>6. Review: Combine the</td>
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| Smalzer, W. (1996) *Write to Be Read* | Learners are asked to combine sentences using their own linking words and form paragraphs. Eg.: Elzeard Bouffier was a shepherd. He was poor. He was solitary. He lived in the mountains...

1. Identifying run-on & fragments. Eg.: In order to distribute the resources evenly.
2. Correcting run-on & fragments:
Two only children who marry each other may have problems.
3. Connecting sentences to form paragraphs using subordinating, transitional, & conjunctions.

| Soars, L. (1996) *New Headway* | A twofold approach: identifying and correcting and structuring sentences to form a paragraph have been used by Smalzer.

Soars focuses on the paragraph as sentence exercises are structured. She also presents paragraphs as samples to follow. No mechanical procedure is used.


1. Linking sentences with words. Eg: 1. the MP does in private
   h) is his own affair.
2. Error analysis.
   Eg. Susan as a child played in the garden.
3. Worksheets are presented to work at if learners made mistakes.

| Strong, W (1994) *Sentence Combining a Composing Book* | Strong's procedure is an excellent one and has different types of sentence combining which make learners aware of the fact that sentences build up into paragraphs and into essays. It also gives at the last stage, a rhetorical aspect of sentences.

Unit 1: Warm-up
Combining:
Eg: Carol was working hard on her test.
Sue slipped her a note.

Unit 2: Intermediate
Combining:
Angie took a deep breath.
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Burton &amp; Humphries (1992)</td>
<td>Mastering English Language</td>
<td>B.&amp;H. present the theoretical aspect of different types of sentences such as simple and complex sentences and talk about their rhetorical effects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shaw, K. (1991)</td>
<td>English Grammar Exercises</td>
<td>Shaw seems to focus rather on grammar. Grammar is worked out through comprehension and production. And yet, grammar is put in an authentic situation as the author decides a poem for a context.</td>
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Matching sentences using only prediction. Eg. 1. John starts his new school tomorrow. 2. Matching sentences using general belief. Eg. 1. John starts his new school tomorrow. 3. Complete the dialogue using will or going to.

Authors explain the causes of fragments.

1. Combining sentences aiming at choosing the suitable conditional clause. Eg. a. If it hadn't rained. c. the plants would have died. 2. Find out whether the linking words are conj. or subordinators. Eg. We wouldn't have got so uptight, if he hadn't kept nagging us. 3. Read the poem & underline all conditional clauses. Eg. The Rum Tum Tugger is a curious cat: If you offer him pheasant he would rather have grouse. If you put him in a house he would much prefer a flat.

It is as its title says, a guide. It presents the theoretical part rather than the practical.
4. Sentence Completion.
   Eg. I'd be delighted if, ...

1. Rewrite sentence fragments.
   Eg. The best movie that I saw last year.
2. Rewrite choppy sentences.
   Eg. The computer has undoubtedly benefited humanity. The computer has also created problems for humanity.
3. Correct the following run-on sentences using the method indicated. Eg. A foreign student faces many problems, for example, he has to cope with a new culture. (Add a period)
4. Improve the following stringy sentences. Eg. He enrolled in an advanced calculus class, but he found it too difficult, so he dropped it.

Sentences are used to mark transitions, contrast words and to become aware of grammar techniques and logical connectors. Eg. Learning to drive a car requires a lot of patience. Similarly, learning a language requires a considerable amount of patience.

Circling transitions & contrast words is a passive way of learning sentence-combining that H-L & H use. Producing sentences is more of an active way of learning writing.

McArthur uses 2 stages in s-c that are needed to make learners aware that s-c aim is beyond the sentence level. That is, s-c authentic situation is writing performance.
1. Scrambled sentences to put in the proper order. Eg. a. In spite of this damage the two ships managed to reach the nearby port of Dunkirk under their own steam. b. However, because of the weather conditions, the captains did not realise the danger until only seconds before the collision took place.

2. Sentence-combining using transitions and ending in the formation of a paragraph. Eg. I don't know whether you heard that I was a member of the club team in the folk dancing before the collision took place.

2. Sentence-combining using transitions and ending in the formation of a paragraph. Eg. I don't know whether you heard that I was a member of the club team in the folk dancing competition last month. ..... I didn't think I was good enough, but we've danced several times in public recently, and the leader said that I did very well.

3. Free sentence-combining. Stage no. 3 is a continuation of stage no. 2. That is, it is the same paragraph that the author uses, but the method changes. Eg. Late at night buses and trains can be dangerous. ..... if you want to avoid trouble, take a taxi.

4. An introductory paragraph is presented to the learners, and they are asked to write an introductory paragraph as the one shown.

Coe et al. (1983) Writing Skills

Coe et al. suggest in most of the exercises group work which is another approach of effective learning.

Some passages are taken from newspapers and brochures, exposing learners to different forms of writing. Coe et al. go beyond the sentence level since they also ask learners to write a paragraph presenting them with a sample.
1. Put the scrambled sentences in a proper order.
   Eg. They are very curious.
   Both her parents had to take tranquillisers
   In other words, they are intellectually very bright.
2. Differentiate between facts and opinion. Eg. a. Gifted children are usually active babies. b. Mozart started composing music when he was five.
3. Combine sentences using the right connective word. Eg. in fact, for example. Eg. In some countries there are special groups to help gifted children. He has only just learnt to tie his shoelaces.

Hedge uses sentences to make learners conscious of organization and logical sequence: to make a difference between fact, opinion; and combining sent. using appropriate conj.
All these approaches are needed to the improvement of essay performance. However, Hedge emphasis is rather sequencing of ideas, and the use of different supporting ideas.

G. and M use s-c aiming at writing a paragraph with relative clauses, and then using proper punctuation.
The author goes back to a simple stage: the simple structure of a sentence. The free production of a sentence.
He works on different genres of paragraphs He also works on causes and argumentation modes.
There is a good wide variety that the author uses. However, he stops at the paragraph.
Some words are provided and learners are asked to write additional sentences using expression such as the second, the last. Eg. Inner- includes Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune. Outer- includes Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune.

1. Sentences are linked through specific linking words such as time, purpose etc. Eg. The shoes are completely worn out (although) I've only worn them six times.
2. Cluster of sentences to combine aiming at forming a paragraph. Topic is taken from a newspaper and no linking words are suggested. Eg. The blue car turned right without warning. It collided with the cyclist. It knocked him over.
3. Notes are written and learners are to develop them into a paragraph using proper linking words (linking words are not suggested).

1. Putting sentences in order and combining them. Eg. a. An invader must cross the water to reach Britain. b. The history of Europe is full of invasions.
2. Compare the paragraph with the original text.
3. State the events and the causes of the topic of the paragraph.

1. Put the scrambled sentences in the proper sequence. Eg. a. The driver was killed instantly.
Summing up the impression given by so many textbooks, it is clear that sentence-combining is still popular and many authors used it in a variety of ways. Some focus on the sentence level others go beyond and aim at paragraph writing. Within sentence-combining some authors recommend reading aloud their sentences so that in hearing their own versions, learners become aware of their mistakes (Langan 1997). Others (Shaw 1991) emphasise grammar in sentence-combining. Others include a total review of the different approaches used (Langan 1997). The latter was used at LAU, for it gives learners a perspective on learning and reinforces long term memory. Often writers use the receptive as well as the productive approaches (Langan 1997; Strong 1994; Oshima and Hogue 1991). If there is a dichotomy between these two features, as some writers claim, learners will be exposed to the two essential approaches of learning: acquisition and production. Furthermore, some authors mention group work as a first step and then individual work. This approach gives more possibility for active and co-operative learning of writing. Others (Oshima and Hogue 1991; Lagan 1997) (both used at LAU and AUB) make learners explicitly aware of the different types of sentence problems such as fragments, run-ons, stringy sentences and choppy ones. This is a basic aspect of sentence-combining, derived to help learners to identify mistakes, label them and find solutions to their mistakes within
the frame of sentence-combining. Finally, Strong (1994) includes some aspects of rhetoric as part of sentence-combining. This is a more advanced step that polishes learners' sentences. Another approach that could be considered part of rhetoric is getting students to read their sentences aloud (Langan 1997). Other writers (Hedge 1983) emphasise the logical sequence of ideas by the inclusion of getting students to sequence scrambled sentences in a proper order. It is recalled that the aim of sentence-combining is to go from word formation, to sentence, to paragraph and finally to essay writing.

Sentence-combining and Rhetoric

Some writers believe that sentence-combining techniques might lead learners of English to fall back into rhetoric which is not English, for language is shaped by the experience of the society of its speakers (Kaplan 1967; Connor 1996). And yet, rhetorical problems should be central to the content rather than the forms of various types of texts (Spilka 1993). The results of a study carried out by Edelsky (1982) show that what a writer knows about writing in L1 forms the basis of new hypotheses with writing in another language. Friedlander (in Kroll 1990; 1994) and Caudery (in Fulcher 1997) seem to agree. In addition, style seems to persist over the years, across media and mode. Discourse structure extends beyond language to culture and genres (Friedlander in Kroll 1994; Connor 1996). For instance, Arabic makes more frequent use of conjunctions and a theme repetition pattern than English (Kaplan 1967; Bar-lev 1986). Through sentence-combining activities, one could make learners aware of the Arabic translated rhetoric used in English (if this occurs), especially when comparison takes place between learners' writing and other learners/writers. However, the reader is reminded that Lebanese students, as compared to those of neighbouring countries, seem to have fewer of the above mentioned problems, but there are still problems of sentence-structure and organisation. These findings also coincide with those of Church and Bereiter (1983) who found that students, not particularly in Arab countries, pay little attention to style until they overcome other problems.

Kaplan (1967) tried to overcome these difficulties in a study at the English
department of AUB whereby learners were asked to change sentences from the use of coordination to the use of subordination: a sentence-combining technique. Learners wrote in paragraphs with non-English rhetoric. Yet Kaplan's (1967) work in contrastive rhetoric has been criticised for the following reasons:

- for being too ethnocentric and privileging the writing of native English speakers (Hinds 1983; Matalene 1985);
- for examining only L2 products and ignoring educational process variables (Mohan and Au-Yeung Lo 1985; Raimes 1991)
- and for not taking into account that ESL coming from different cultural backgrounds present different organisational patterns (Purves 1988; Kroll 1994).

Notwithstanding the above criticisms, one could use sentence-combining taking into account nonnative English rhetorical patterns which are often used by particular groups of students; to use sentence-combining not mechanically as Kaplan did, but to use it aiming at specific objectives within a linguistic and cultural setting, and certainly not stopping at the sentence level. By specific objectives is meant the combining of sentences aiming at paragraph writing as Step 1, and Essay writing as Step 2. This process is used in China at various academic levels (Cortazzi and Jin 1996).

Perhaps one can add to the criticism against Kaplan (1967) that changing sentences from the use of conjunction to the use of subordinate does not necessarily work out as will be seen in the Transcript (Chapter V). Language is partly a matter of usage, and therefore some expressions do not necessarily fit in a different context, let alone the fact that there might not be an exact equivalence in the use of subordinates and/or conjunctions. It seems, to the researcher, that Kaplan's (1967) study was rather done mechanically.

As contrastive rhetoric develops, it is beginning to consider the variation in American, British and other native Englishes (Canadian, Australian and New Zealand English) as well as nonnative varieties of English as norms (Connor 1996). As long as intelligibility is not jeopardised, nonnative English could be the norm (Kachru in
Purvey 1988; Kachru 1992; Hong and Chew 1993). The question that arises is who is and how to define norm. This exploration is not part of the present study. Regardless of what the norm is, sentence-combining, if followed, taking into account the criticism faced by Kaplan and framing it within the context of reading texts, it could be a basic tool in teaching writing.

**Sentence-combining and its Multiple Functions**

Sentence-level studies can provide teachers with information on error which transfers to composition studies (Cooper 1973; Vann 1984; Johns in Hamp-Lyons 1991). In the researcher’s teaching experience, sentences that have been translated from Arabic as L1 are easily picked out from essays and can be pointed out to learners in teacher/student conferences. As learners become more aware that a paragraph is made out of sentences, the teacher points to an expression or structure which is typically Arabic. The teacher just needs to let the student backtranslate the structure to Arabic to make the student understand what she means. This approach, which makes learners conscious and aware of such practical aspects of contrastive error analysis, has had a positive effect on the essays of Lebanese students raising conscious. Awareness is a means of promoting learning (Van Lier 1996; Altman in Coady and Huckin 1997; Sokmen in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997; McDonough 1999).

There are several functions of sentence-combining (Stern 1987; Celce-Murcia 1991; Dixon-Krauss 1996). Students need to use sentences as a means of retaining newly acquired lexical items. Producing sentences actively helps learners to incorporate newly acquired items into their active vocabulary. As a matter of fact, the present study used cloze test, collocation along the writing of sentences as a mnemonic to retain newly acquired vocabulary items (for the results see Chapter 6). Furthermore, grammar and vocabulary in foreign language learning cannot be viewed as emerging on their own. They are both resources for creating meaning through text and relating systematically to each other, hence, Halliday’s (1975) use of the term *lexico-grammatical*. Sentence-combining may be an effective way of working out
some of these systematic links between grammar and vocabulary (Nation in Jacobs 1997; Sokmen in Schmitt and McCarthy 1997). The researcher believes that by combining or converting complex sentences to simple ones, writers learn and practice their grammatical skills within one sort of authentic setting (the setting of classroom academic writing). In fact, research suggests that sentence-combining in which the focus is on the construction of whole discourses, with attention to cohesion, coherence and transitions may be more appropriate to stimulate overall writing ability, particularly at the college level of ESL. It is in the conjunction of grammar and rhetoric that learners bring about a mature style (Christensen 1968; Engber 1995; Nation in Jacobs 1997; Hughes and McCarthy 1998).

Besides sentence-combining, lexical cohesion, discussed in chapter 6, is one of the factors that aims to help students to write well constructed sentences and therefore, well constructed paragraphs. Focussing on lexis, as a cohesive device, is an innovation in research in Lebanon with implications for the teaching of vocabulary. The model of lexical cohesion adopted to partially analyse students’ essays is that of Hoey (1991). This is explained in chapter 6.

In sum, in spite of some drawbacks when sentence-combining has not been used properly, it has been a useful addition to the language arts curriculum for stimulating syntactic gains in writing (Kaplan 1966; Perron 1976; Widdowson 1979; Johnson 1992; Strong 1994; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Hughes and McCarthy 1998). English language or teachers can, then, justifiably expect gains in syntactic maturity and quality of students' writing if students are exposed to sentence-combining exercises, ranging from the highly formulaic exercises of O'Hare (1973) to the less rigidly conceived ones of Strong (1994). It is not, of course, simply the exercise of sentence-combining which makes it effective but, rather, how possible grammatical and discoursal features are envisaged, discussed and employed by students and how their growing awareness of the corresponding communicative effects contributes to improve writing. What also makes sentence-combining an effective means of writing is the way teachers use this approach. This can be developed by post-exercise discussion in which, guided by the
teacher, the class collectively constructs interpretations of alternate sentence combinations to judge readability, effectiveness of expression and likely effect on an audience. Such a practice can meet five of the ten fundamental routines identified by successful ESL writing teachers: focusing student attention, assigning specific tasks, collectively constructing interpretations, establishing criteria of judgement, consolidating the newly acquired vocabulary and enhancing autonomy rather than dependence (Cunning 1992; Lewis 1993; Van Lier 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Connor 1996; Altman in Coady and Huckin 1997).

3.4 Integrating Skills for Writing

Integrating reading and composition is a further approach for teaching writing. Reading in the writing classroom is understood as appropriate input for acquisition of writing skills, for it is assumed that reading passages will somehow function as models from which writing skills can be learned (Stern 1987; Purves 1988; Carter and Long 1991; Collie and Slater 1991; Carson and Leki 1993). What makes a text as a written product communicative can contribute to an understanding of the writing process itself (Connor 1987). Although there is no clear comprehensive model of what constitutes a communicative text, there is a general agreement that the lexicon is a significant component in both the construction and interpretation of meaningful text (Grabe in Kaplan et al. 1985; Lewis 1993). Others claim that research has recently begun to explore this connection (i.e. reading/writing) (Kroll 1994; Coulthard 1994; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Connor 1996). Furthermore, modelling may be highlighted by teachers during intensive reading and exploitation of study-texts. For L2 writers, reading texts and studying the details are essential features of a writing course. One can hardly expect learners to be able to produce written texts unless they also obtain written language input through reading. In comparison with L1 classroom, there is a need for more explicit focus on language in the form of vocabulary. L2 learners are likely to have much to learn that L1 learners will have acquired in their normal development of their mother tongue (Engber 1995; Caudery in Fulcher 1997; Zimmerman 1998).
Support for the transfer of skills from reading to writing comes from Eckhoff's (1983) study, in which children's writing was found to reflect the structures and styles of reading used in class. Other reviews of reading-writing connections show significant results when students are taught reading strategies by examining structures applicable to both reading and writing (e.g. sentence, paragraph analysis, summaries) (Belanger 1987; Leki 1993; Eisterhold in Kroll 1994; Coulthard 1994; Grabe and Kaplan 1996). The likelihood of effective transfer of reading awareness to writing is improved if teachers draw attention to transferable elements and set specific classroom goals for identifying and producing specific elements of texts which have been studied. Hence, lexical, grammatical and rhetorical errors are learned through reading and writing (Shaughnessy 1977; Engber 1995).

In the Counterbalancing Experiment, the researcher used texts by Hemingway and Gibran as a springboard for writing. These texts were analysed and interpretations discussed. A variety of classroom approaches were used for students to take sides, back up their viewpoint with logical arguments, use also vocabulary, sentence-structure and types of sentences. The purpose of these approaches is to aid the effective transfer from study-reading texts to content and writing.

By types of sentences and by simple sentences the researcher does not mean the literal grammatical meaning of clause elements: Subject Verb Object. She means that writing needs not be a complex matter as learners assume. Ideas can be correctly expressed in an accessible and simple procedure. The same sentence, which starts as a simple sentence, could be progressively expanded into a compound, a complex then a compound-complex one. For example,

a. I ate an apple. (simple sentence)
b. I ate an apple and I ate a mandarin. (compound sentence)
c. I ate an apple which was delicious. (complex sentence)
d. I ate an apple which was delicious and I ate a mandarin which was juicy. (complex-compound)

Furthermore, these sentences can also increase in lexical density as the following sentences show (figure 3.3).

a' I ate a fresh, delicious, golden apple.
b' I ate a fresh, delicious, golden apple, and I ate a big, juicy and strongly smelling mandarin.
c' I ate an apple which was fresh, delicious and golden.
d' I ate an apple which was fresh, delicious and golden, and I also ate a big, juicy and strongly smelling mandarin.
In one simple procedure, the researcher wrote a sample of the previous sentences on the blackboard and asked learners to produce similar ones, taken from their own essays. The purpose of this procedure was to show learners the possible simplicity of writing sentences and their progression in complexity and density.

The Abuse of Models in ESL Writing Classes

The use and abuse of models has been criticised in ESL writing classes (Watson 1982). Models can provide powerful input, but what about intake? How much of this input do learners utilise and incorporate in their work? (Krashen 1984). Most models have both virtues and disadvantages. Some of the virtues consist in providing support and reassurance to learners with the use of specifically highlighted aspects of texts, whereas one might wonder whether artificial models are not, partly, responsible for the short repetitive sentences one encounters in student work afterwards. However, it depends on the nature of the model:

- which aspects of writing?
- how these models are used.
- how teachers help students internalise models.
- how teachers wean students off models.
Hence, it seems that whether models help writing develop or become the cause of repetitive sentences depend on the teacher’s approach and way of teaching.

**Writing: A Thinking Process**

Recent instructional reforms have advocated the improvement of writing instruction as a means to improve the thinking and reasoning ability of students in academic subjects. Writing represents a powerful instrument of thought by virtue of its analysis and synthesis process as well as its self-reviewing structure (Simon 1971; Fulkerson 1979; Purves 1982; Takala 1988; Grabe and Kaplan 1996). This may be the case, providing that writing is taught in a way which encourages students to develop these aspects of developing thinking. However, some conclusions about the cognitive qualities, effects or benefits involved in writing such as those cited stem from study or reflection on mature writers in L1 and simply cannot be transferred to L2 learners of writing without qualification. For example, writing is a *self-reviewing structure* only if writers are taught to review and have systematic awareness about how to improve their draft texts: not many L2 writers do this, beyond a cursory re-reading to check grammar and spelling. The *self-review* also needs to be carried out with the awareness that writing creates its context and some awareness of what the envisaged reader may or may not know. This is a continual creation of Given-New relationships (Grabe and Kaplan 1996).

In addition, the ability to hold larger units of discourse together is in fact an important measure of the learners' intellectual growth, and writing can be viewed in part as a technology for holding vast and complex units of thought together (Shaughnessy 1979). Again, this is only likely to be the case if L2 writers are taught to view their writing in such a discourse perspective. It is said that Napoleon would not upgrade a soldier unless he passed the test of writing a well organised paragraph (Kane and Peters 1986). In fact, Napoleon’s belief is a reconfirmation of Piaget’s (in Petrosky 1986) saying that writing is thinking made tangible.
In sum, there is a general recognition that a positive correlation exists between L1 and L2 reading and writing. However, teaching is itself an important factor which helps positive transfer, awareness and control of this relationship.

Speech and Composing
Besides the several techniques mentioned previously, some linguists (Emig 1977; Semke 1984; Kroll 1994) argue that verbal interaction represents an available medium for composing. Speech makes use of the learners' intuitive knowledge of the structure of the English language. Speaking obviously comes before writing in the four skills of language teaching in the traditional structuralist approach and sequence of skills (Thornton 1983). Using speech in planning writing allows students to see the decision making that occurs in mature composing. Besides, speaking aloud allows students to find mistakes and catch the rhythm of the text (Fan in Biggs and Watkins 1993; Kroll 1994; Stubbs 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1996).

This is, perhaps, somewhat artificial. Protocol analysis of think-aloud procedures with writing show that such spoken thoughts are not always easy to follow, if they are authentic: they are often idiosyncratic, and not necessarily grammatical and easy to understand. This indicates that the above suggestion evokes more complex aspects than may at first be apparent. Nevertheless, the researcher believes that speaking out loud one's thoughts, especially when the idea is not clear in the mind of the learner, as he is writing an essay which is the outcome of reading text, helps clarifying the idea and writing it. Speaking out loud does not solve problems such as the need for the right lexico-grammatical choices, but clarity and awareness of one's thoughts become clearer. Furthermore, the idea that writing is complex and scary procedure becomes less complex and authentically less scary. Table 3.1 reveals that some authors such as Lagan (1997) include the speak out loud procedure in their exercises.

However, the general tendency among authors commenting on writing is to differentiate between the spoken and written language. (Connor and Kaplan 1987;
Bloomfield 1993; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Hatch and Brown 1996). They might be more productively envisaged as interwoven strands on the fabric of language. In practice at LAU, speech and writing are separated into different academic courses, and writing means, in effect, writing certain types of essays. Hence, no matter which process of writing the teacher chooses, it is important to consider the circumstances under which learners work as well as their motivation and needs of the task to be done.

3.5 Process Approaches to Developing Writing

A widely-cited approach to writing is to focus primarily on the process rather than product of writing. Proponents of this approach believe that when learners understand the experience of composing as a process, their written products will improve (Jacobs 1982; Zamel 1982, 1983; Rose 1985; Rorschach 1985). Other writers (Zamel 1982; 1983; Jones 1985) go further and provide support for the use of process-oriented composition pedagogy in L2 classes claiming that focusing on the writing process enables the acquisition of English rather than just the learning of English. That is, acquisition of writing gives tangible results, whereas learning to write is still at the theoretical stage. Furthermore, Diaz (1985) observed that children acquire three significant composing skills: a sense of audience, voice and power in language.

However, Cohen and Cavalcanti (in Kroll 1994) pointed out that most studies of process writing have relied on the case study as a research methodology, with a small number of subjects. The focus on the writing process as a trend has been promoted to such a degree that it has become a cult (Rodrigues 1985; Purves 1988). Hence, some teachers have ceased to teach grammar and the mechanics of writing. Yet Nation (in Jacobs 1997) cautions about forgetting too much of the methods which have worked successfully in the past.

On the other hand, White and Arndt (1991) saw the process approach more positively than Rodrigues (1985) and Purves (1988). It requires a sequence of activities which would include some of the following: discussion, brainstorming (making notes, asking questions), fastwriting/selecting ideas, rough draft, preliminary
self-evaluation, arranging information/structuring the text, first draft, peer evaluation and responding, conference, second draft, self-evaluation/editing/proof-reading, finished draft, final responding to draft, for writing is a recursive process.

Yet, this approach can be time consuming, especially for non-English majors at LAU who take English courses as a requirement and whose attitude towards the language is sometimes rather negative. One has also to take into account that there is a set syllabus that institutions have to follow and finish. However, it could be argued that, even if it takes up much time, the process approach is worth using if it brings good results. Yet any such results depend upon the understanding of the approach. In fact, there is some confusion about it. A good example is brainstorming (often regarded as a key stage of generating ideas in the process approach) which seems to be the antithesis of organisation, considered a major criterion by ESL correctors of academic essay writing.

Although advocates of such techniques as brainstorming point out that they are only stages towards an organised final product, many Lebanese students find the multiplicity of such stages confusing, unless the stages themselves have a clear organisation and purpose. Writing approaches should suit learners' situation. In the case of the present Lebanese university students, whose formative years were during the Civil War (1975-1991), daily planning and organisation are not activities that they seem to know much about. While the creative aspects of brainstorming might be natural and culturally appropriate among North American students, this is far from normally the case for the Lebanese war generation. Process writing originated with the teaching of L1 writing. One may expect similarities between L1 and L2 writing classroom, but one can hardly expect L1 technique to be transferred wholesale to L2. There are differences between L1 teaching situation and L2, such as age of L2 students and proficiency of learners in L1 which may or may not be transferred to L2 writing. L2 writers may have greater difficulty in applying some techniques such as invention strategies which are frequently used in L1 process writing classes (Caudery in Fulcher 1997). Hence, process writing might not be as effective with L2.
The study of text product of writing alone will not lead to fluent writing either. To break free from past theories and move towards a theory of writing abilities, new questions should be asked (Grabe and Kaplan 1996).

1. How may texts be examined as product and process?
2. How may product and process be viewed as reflecting an interactive model of writing?
3. How do process and product issues embed themselves within a coherent interpretation of wider social contexts for writing, and how we want learners to produce genres of texts?

Purves (1988) focused on question 2 and took as a specific example the writing of Arabic learners. He argued that writing in Arabic rests on the language of a text not on its propositional structure. Therefore, both the process and the product deserve serious consideration. One may add that there is no such thing as the writing process, rather there are various writing processes (Rodrigues 1985; Caudery in Fulcher 1997; McDonough 1999). Zamel (1982) interviewed 8 ESL proficient learners, among whom were two Arabs. The results of her study show that the principle features of the composing process belong to different writing paradigms. Zamel (1982) concluded the following:

Students must be given time to write and rewrite so as to learn that several drafts may be needed before intentions are conveyed (Thornton 1980; Krashen 1981; Kroll 1994). Yet this does not seem to be what learners believe, especially if they are inexperienced, as many or most will be in academic writing at Freshman level at LAU (Griffin 1982; Horowitz 1986).

Learners should be encouraged to use the brainstorm procedure rather than the more linear traditional way of planning academic writing, but this approach does not appeal to all ESL learners, whose learning abilities differ (Reid 1985). Perhaps, like so many other techniques, students need to be taught not only the technique per se, but
when and how to use it. Without a clear perception of the advantages of such a technique, students are not likely to use it.

Moreover, teacher-student conferences need to take place regularly between drafts so that students learn to improve their writing while creating. Writers in Donovan and McClelland (1980); Grabe and Kaplan (1996); Scott (1996) strongly believe in the effectiveness of individual conferences and that they should take place in all classes.

In the writer's viewpoint, the student-teacher conference (office hours set by the teacher within university regulations) is one of the major features that are beneficial for learners. Learners come to class with their preoccupations and problems that distract them from what takes place in the classroom. When a student-teacher conference takes place, learners' attention is harnessed and focused. Learners are forced to comprehend their mistakes since they have to correct and show the correction to the teacher before student-teacher conference ends. Such office hours can be dedicated to conferences (in writing courses) thus, obviating the need to give too much classroom time to individual conferences.

Finally, Zamel (1982) pointed out that syntax, vocabulary and rhetorical form are important features of writing, but they need to be taught as means with which to better express one's meaning rather than as ends in themselves. If they are taught separately, students may never understand the importance of these features. Many authors agree with this finding (Halliday and Hassan 1976; Engber 1995; Zimmerman 1994; Coady and Huckin 1997; Nation in Jacobs 1997).

3.6 Different Trends in Writing and Sentence-combining

Having looked at the different trends in the teaching of writing, it is appropriate to focus on the approach used in this study. Formal grammar has been widely discredited in the skill of writing (Grabe and Kaplan 1996), and it is acknowledged that grammar
and vocabulary are some of the subset skills needed for the assessment of writing (Cooper 1973; Carter 1988; Hughes and McCarthy 1998). Furthermore, grammar and vocabulary are basic criteria in writing evaluation though these are not always mentioned by correctors when the criteria are set (Scott 1996). As a matter of fact, appropriate lexical richness affects quality of writing (Linnarud 1986; Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Engber 1993; Laufer and Nation 1995; McDonough 1999).

Furthermore, at an advanced level, learners are requested to vary the types of sentences they use. To do so, learners have to be conscious of syntactic formats. By its very nature sentence-combining includes general principles of rhetoric which learners could apply in writing (Christensen 1968; Grabe and Kaplan 1996). In the experiment carried out by Torrance et al. (1993) learners were taught writing through a cognitive strategies course. This course devoted relatively little time to rhetoric and was of little help to students whose writing productivity lacked inadequate rhetorical knowledge. Also it is more difficult to convey or express ideas if the format (grammar) is incorrect (Torrance et al. 1993). In spite of the fact that linguistic features were not stressed in the criteria for assessment, raters gave considerable weight to the former (McNamara 1990). Most of these factors are essential features of sentence-combining. Besides, the new grammar teaching approach operates at three levels: two of which are sentence level knowledge and the knowledge of word. At the sentence level, it is the clause grammar, and at the word level, it is the grammar of graphology concerned with spelling, pronunciation and the grammar of morphemes. Both factors were adopted by Lewis (1993) and called grammaticalised lexis and from Halliday by Knapp and Watkins (1994). Hence, both subskills sentence-combining and vocabulary in this study are approaches that linguists use in the classroom and are part of a genre-based approach (Gee in Fulcher 1997).

To avoid the drawbacks of sentence-combining, so that it might not become a routine with little value (Daiker et al. 1978; Witte and Faigley 1981), this approach
should be part of a wider construct which is the integration of reading and writing. Furthermore, teachers have to use this approach thoughtfully, that is, to fit sentence-combining to the needs of the learners and their objectives.

The purpose of this study is to show the role of study-reading texts in the teaching of writing through the interconnection of reading and writing at different academic levels. It is argued that this interconnection requires the effective use of two subskills: vocabulary and sentence-combining. While other subskills are no doubt involved, the present study focuses particularly on these two skills within the context of reading texts, or what Knapp and Watkins (1994) labelled *level of text*.

**Arabic Speakers' Errors in Written English**

L2 speakers' errors are often a transfer from L1, and they extend beyond language, to culture and genres (Friedlander in Kroll 1994; Connor 1996). However, what has been reported by Kaplan (1967, 1972), Al-Jubouri in Swales and Mustafa (1984); Mosenthal and Tiemey (1984) and Bar-lev (1986) concerning L2 writing of Arabic speakers do not necessarily apply to Lebanese writers. What applies mostly, as seen in this study, is the use of conjunctions rather than transitions and the use of circumlocutions. From the syntax point of view, the use of fragments, run-on sentences and what has been labelled sentence structure do apply. The latter refers to sentences that could be fragment and run-on simultaneously as well as incorrect structure and transfer from L1 (see Chapter V). Other types of errors can also occur.

**3.7 Conclusion**

In conclusion, writing has increased in importance for many purposes and many contexts for ESL learners (Swales 1990; Connor 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1996). It has now a higher profile for teachers and researchers, as shown by recent publications (Ellis 1996; Glenn 1997; Crystal 1997; Fulcher 1997) although it is still a new area (Grabe and Kaplan 1996). It is evident that there are different approaches to the teaching of writing, and that researchers are more aware of the complexity involved in
fair and appropriate assessment of student writing abilities, yet this claim seldom appears to be accounted for in research (Biber 1992; 1995). It is recognised that no approach to writing assessment is without problems. Furthermore, recent research has also indicated that different types of assessment are better suited to distinct instructional contexts, student abilities and goals, teacher preferences and purposes and institutional expectations (Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Connor 1996; McDonough 1999). Although writing has gained in importance, there are many gaps still to fill. When research is carried out, researchers are to define subjects, that are not the researcher’s own students, L1 learners’ background, age group and nationality of learners if results are to be specifically determined (Biggs and Telfer 1987; Fan in Biggs and Watkins 1993; Reid in Kroll 1994; Stubbs 1996).

In the light of these findings, and in the light of the instructional contexts suited to LAU University where the researcher works, the following factors are to be accounted for: Learners at AUB and LAU Universities are required to take 2 or 3 English courses depending on the results of the EEE and/or SAT and the placement test. Therefore, English courses become compulsory. This results in the fact that urgency for learning L2 cannot be taken for granted (Pfaff 1987; Ringbom 1987; Birdsong 1989).

Hence, the need to present learners with topics that could appeal to their interest, the interest of their major studies and their work in the future. Subjects need content to write about, and form to shape their ideas. They should be provided, therefore, with directed study-text tailored to their needs and interests. These texts are analysed and comprehended with the teacher’s help, whose objective is the writing task, and whose form includes the focus upon which this study relies: vocabulary and sentence-combining.

The researcher does not hold that writing requires just these 2 subskills. As the review of the literature has shown, there is much more to writing than the skills of
language. However, within the multidimensional constructs that are part of the writing process, language skills are needed, and this study focuses on the two mentioned subskills, vocabulary and sentence-combining. Looking at this assessment from a different perspective, one could compare the sentence-combining approach to the trees in the forest. Trees make the forest as sentences make paragraphs and paragraphs the composition. And yet, one needs to keep the forest in sight.

It is hoped that the approach using the two subskills vocabulary and sentence-combining, which are based on study-reading literary texts, would lighten the burden of learners by providing them with interesting content that they can draw from, and that vocabulary and sentence-combining focus their attention on form.

Summing up the broad spectrum of the composing process, which is culture and context bound (Fulcher 1997), one could quote Darnell (in Sauers 1987, p.25) who states:

The next to worst reason for doing anything in a particular way is,

> It's traditional.

The worst possible justification is,

> It's not traditional.

The best justification is a combination of these,

> It's novel

(so we may learn something from it)

> And it has logical roots in past experience

(so it entails minimal risk).
CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH DESIGN AND INVESTIGATING TESTING MATERIALS

This chapter investigates a set of quantitative and qualitative materials prepared to control the Counterbalancing method used in the empirical study. An overview of the Counterbalancing Experiment is displayed in figure 4.1, where the various elements, that are measured, are shown in three phases: a Pretest, Midtest and Posttest. This chapter also states the rationale for undertaking the study and the hypothesis. The latter focuses on an investigation of two of the subskills related to writing: vocabulary and sentence-combining teaching.

The chapter also investigates and measures the linguistic characteristics of Gibran and Hemingway texts, aiming at relating some of the grammatical and lexical cohesive devices in the studied texts to the devices used by learners in their essay performance.

4.1 Research Design

4.1.1 Rationale

Various scholars believe literature to be a motivating agent and an effective tool in the teaching of writing (Smith 1982; Gwin 1990; Carter and Long 1991; Coulthard 1994; Short 1996; Nation in Jacobs 1997; Singleton 1997). Literature is said to encourage students to read pleasurably. It teaches with delight (Taylor 1982) and provides the learners with the content they need for writing skills (Murray 1968; Thornton 1980; Carter and Long 1991; Talif 1995) (see Chapter 1).

It can be concluded, therefore, that if learners are given motivating texts to read and discuss, this will provide them with the inspiration and perhaps the content they
need for writing. Furthermore, nonnative speakers rely on decisions about content much more than native speakers as they start on their writing (Campbell in Kroll 1990; Nunan 1991; Engber 1995; Talif 1995; Nation in Jacobs 1997). As the content is provided, the task of the student is lightened and attention could be focused on form. By focus on form, in the present study, is meant the focus of learners on vocabulary and sentence-combining. When writing focuses on sentence-combining, learners develop the use of different syntactic formats (Carter and McCarthy 1995; Grabe and Kaplan 1996) which are progressive in complexity and density (figure 3.3). If sentences are written automatically, more energy and time can be allotted to planning other needs that writing requires (Strong 1994). And this is the discoursal importance of sentence-combining which arguably constitutes one of the basics of paragraph writing and hence essay writing (see Chapter 3). This brings us to another component of essay writing: vocabulary.

Some authors claim a dichotomy between comprehension and production (Aitchison in Anderman & Rogers 1996; Nation in Jacobs 1997; Hui-Lung Chia in Katchen and Leng 1997). If this is the case, there is no guarantee that if learners comprehend the lexis they will produce the words. Therefore, one should provide them with a context for production. In that case, by its very nature sentence-combining constitutes one of the basics of paragraph writing and hence, essay writing. Furthermore, the knowledge of words and their structures is one of the basic forms required in writing (Halliday and Hassan 1976; Laufer and Nation 1995; Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996). It is impossible to perform at an acceptable level of learning a language without controlling an appropriate range of multiword units (Bensoussan in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Hatch and Brown 1996; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Connor 1996; Nation in Jacobs 1997).

**Aim**

The aim of the study is to investigate the following general hypothesis in the context of the Lebanese American university:
Learners, at the university level, who are taught writing through study-reading texts in literature with a focus on two subskills, vocabulary and sentence-combining, will improve their writing performance as compared to learners who are taught writing as an independent activity (with no particular focus on these two subskills).

As teaching through literature is carried out, in the experimental classroom (not in the control classroom), attention is drawn to vocabulary and sentence-combining. What one says and in the choice of the word, one discovers what he wants to say (Murray 1968; Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Willis 1990; Lucas 1992). In addition, vocabulary may be better remembered if the words are listed and explained (Nation 1982; Sinclair 1991). Also, the more attention a word receives, the more likely it is to be learned (Xue-Guo-yi and Nation 1984; Zimmerman 1994; Altman in Coady and Huckin 1997).

4.1.2 General Overview of the Counterbalancing Experiment
A series of five Pretests were designed to obtain baseline data from both groups (see figure 4.1). These Pretests comprised the following: an Essay to measure the writing knowledge of the learners before any experimental teaching methodology was used; a General Vocabulary Test (GENVC) to measure the general vocabulary knowledge of both groups; a vocabulary test focusing particularly on the vocabulary to be taught through the texts of Gibran and Hemingway (G&HVC); a General Sentence-combining Pretest (GENSC) to measure the general sentence-combining ability of the learners and a further pretest focusing on the sentence-combining to be taught through the texts by Gibran and Hemingway (G&HSC).

In addition, a Background Information Questionnaire (Back.Inform.Quest.) inspired by Reid (1987) aiming at controlling variables among students was designed. Also the research included an Attitudinal Questionnaire, given after the Midtests and another parallel one given after the Posttests, evaluating the students' attitude toward the methodology used. A Classroom Analysis is also used, whereby teaching sessions for each critical learning skill were taped and transcribed. This was
designed to support a predominantly quantitative approach with some qualitative analysis. The extracts selected from Gibran and Hemingway for classroom use were analysed, to confirm the apparently simple style, according to a criterion adapted from Halliday and Hasan (1989) and Nation's (1990) procedures. The criteria included lexical and vocabulary density, grammatical and lexical cohesive devices, theme and rheme patterns, T-units and the patterns of lexis.

**The Groups in the Experiment**

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<th>B'</th>
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<td>(Experimental)</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>A'</td>
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<td>(Control)</td>
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**Counterbalancing Experiment**

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<th>GROUP A</th>
<th>PRETEST</th>
<th>MIDTEST</th>
<th>POSTTEST</th>
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<tr>
<td>GROUP B</td>
<td></td>
<td>GIBRAN &amp; HEMINGWAY SYLLABUS</td>
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<th>PRETEST</th>
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<td>BACK.INFORM. QUEST.</td>
<td>GIBRAN &amp; HEMINGWAY SYLLABUS</td>
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**Figure 4.1**

Key: Gen.Voc: General vocabulary  
G.&H.Voc: Gibran and Hemingway vocabulary  
Quest: Attitudinal Questionnaire  
Gen.S-C: General sentence-combining  
Essay: Pretest and Posttest Essays  
G.&H.S-C: Gibran and Hemingway sentence-combining  
Back.Inform.Quest: Background Information Questionnaire
4.1.3 Significance of the Study

The study is expected to identify the extent to which classroom activities relating to vocabulary and sentence-combining, drawn from the study-reading texts in literature, might help students' writing performance, provided the purpose for reading on writing is specific.

Some research has focused on combining the reading and writing process, but many studies examine reading and writing separately (Kennedy 1985). Other research studies stress that academic writing cannot be tested without accepting the interactivity of the skill of reading with writing (Thornton 1980; Stern 1987; Johns in Hamp-Lyons 1991; Coulthard 1994; Engber 1995).

It is hoped that this study will improve the writing of Lebanese students with, perhaps, some implications about causes of weakness (although this is not the focus of the study). The information acquired from the study may assist administrators in establishing curricula programs that best meet the needs of learners. In addition, this study aims at shedding light on the question of how literature may be an integral part of language teaching as it has been part of both groups control and experimental.

It is also hoped that educators would look at teaching as insider research (Stenhouse 1981; Widdowson 1984; James and Ebbut in Nixon 1981; Elliot 1991), an approach which is practically without precedent in Lebanon. This would stimulate further investigation into problems of essay writing pertaining to interdisciplinary fields in social-cultural studies that could shed light on the important skill of writing in an L2.

4.1.4 Treatment

The treatment includes a counterbalancing experiment which involves an experimental and control group. Three texts by Hemingway were used with the experimental group. The control group studied three texts from the syllabus (see fig. 6.1). In the counterbalancing design, both groups studied the texts in the syllabus.
and the treatment, hence, learners were equally exposed to any difficulty encountered.

4.2 The Pretest Materials and Attitudinal Questionnaire

4.2.1 Possible Vocabulary Tests

The 2,000 word list by West (1953) is one of the possible sources considered to construct the General Vocabulary Test since it has long been considered suitable as the basis of vocabulary for learning English as a foreign language. However, this word list is impossible to administer in 50 minutes, which is the maximum time allotted to standard classes at the university level and, therefore, this was the time available for testing subjects in this study. Furthermore, this word list does not take into account difficulty levels. Although this list is an old one, it represents a fairly complete frame of words that learners are likely to know (Read 1988; Willis 1990; Laufer and Nation 1995). In some respects, West's list is outdated and has been surpassed by current databases of hundreds of millions of words held in such corpuses as Collins Cobuild (1991; 1993), British National Corpus (1996). Yet, tribute is still being paid to West's General Service List (1953) and Sinclair (1991) proposed a return to these words since it is observed that a relatively small number of English words account for a very high proportion of English text, including those words in the General Service List (Willis 1990).

Another more recent vocabulary test developed by Nation (1990) and based on cloze procedure was considered. However, this test based on the first 1,000 base words of the General Service List by West (1953) had the following weaknesses:

The words used, according to Nation (1990), are not of university level. If used, they would not have a discriminatory function to test the students' vocabulary knowledge at this level.

The topic of the passage was Forestry. This would test students' general knowledge as much as their knowledge of vocabulary on a topic that hardly exists in the local context in Lebanon. Furthermore, deletions were used every 4 or 5 words,
the norm being every 8-12 words (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988). These two factors would make comprehension difficult and time consuming, given that approximately 20 minutes of class time was allotted to the learners for the general vocabulary test. A further test, in General Sentence-combining, was also to be given during the same class hour. Finally, this type of passage tests production rather than recognition which is a more difficult task (Hymes 1971; McCarthy 1991). Often learners recognise a word but cannot produce it, let alone the fact that learners know more words than what they produce.

A further vocabulary test designed by Nation (1990), which includes the use of guessing the meaning of nonsense words in context, was also considered. In the opinion of the researcher who is familiar with the learners and their knowledge of English, this procedure seemed distracting and misleading to nonnative speakers. Besides, learners' knowledge of vocabulary should be of a certain level before they are confronted with misleading words (Meara in Grunwell 1987).

Further lists of words taken from the **General Service List** (West 1953) and used in the studies of Barnard (1961) and Quinn (1968) were also considered. Although these tests have been validated, they are tests of pre-university vocabulary students.

Sinclair's (1991) frequency list as well as concordance processing were considered. However, the frequency list is thought to be redundant since Nation's vocabulary density, lexical density (1990) and the patterns of lexis were used in the text analysis of this chapter. As to the concordance processing, it was considered inappropriate since the target texts in this study are short and linguistically important patterns could not be distinguished from other statistical effects of the process (Sinclair 1991; Wichmann 1995). However, depending on the size of the corpus and the frequency of the items chosen, the concordancer may provide too few or too many examples of a particular usage. This might overwhelm and frustrate learners (Wichmann 1995).
Nation's (1990) own university level vocabulary test was also considered. This test included lexical items from the Thorndike and Lorge List checked against items in the West (1953) General Service List, and against A Computational Analysis of Present-Day American English (Kucera and Francis 1967). The comparison with the latter was done by Nation (1990) to avoid the effect of some of the outdated material used in the Thorndike and Lorge counts.

Nation's vocabulary test is divided into 5 parts pertaining to the following levels: 2,000-word level, 3,000-word level, 5,000-word level, university word list level and a 10,000-word level. This means that the first level was chosen from the General Service List, the vocabulary of which is used in simplified reading books. The second level is found in the reading of a variety of texts; the third level comprises a wide vocabulary found in novels, newspapers and university texts. The university word list level comprises specialised vocabulary drawn from university texts, and the last level pertains to a larger wide vocabulary. Nation (1990) stated that the whole test was given to a native speaker who did it in 5 minutes and got full marks. This vocabulary test seems the most appropriate. However, some adaptations were needed since many of the Lebanese students in this study are French-educated at primary and secondary school level, their knowledge of French would very likely facilitate recognition of French-English cognates (although this would not apply to English-educated students to the same extent). To avoid this problem, French-English cognate words were therefore replaced by noncognate ones of the same frequency count. And yet, no matter what type of test is used, there would still be loose ends (Sinclair 1991).

4.2.2 The Actual Vocabulary Pretests Used in the Study
The Lebanese Educational system, whether private or public, crucially involves the learning of an L2, which is used as a medium of education in primary and secondary schools along with Arabic. As Lebanon was under the French mandate (1920-1943), the majority of private schools and all public schools teach French as an L2 (Gaith
But the L3 in that case, if taught, is not taken seriously. It is given only 2 or 3 hours per week. As The General Service List (1953) includes words of Latin origin, this would very likely be recognised by French speakers and interfere with testing students' knowledge of English. Therefore, they have been substituted by non-Latinate words of the same frequency count (see above comment on cognates). Without such modification, this vocabulary test would not be appropriate for Lebanese learners whose L2 is French. A total of 50 words were, therefore, replaced as follows: the first 36 words were taken from the university word list by Nation (1990) and arranged in an alphabetical order. These were chosen from the words in the following manner: they were selected from the letters A, C, D, E, F, I, L, M, P, R, S and T. Every third word with these initial letters whose frequency range is equal or closely equal to the replaced word, was used (Frequency was marked by a number next to each item). Twelve other words were chosen from the alphabetical letters B, G, H, L, N, and O. Every second word in the list under the above letters made up the 12 used words, and one W and one X word, the only available ones in the list, were used to complete the 50 replaced ones. Furthermore, 20 words whose range of frequency was between 5 and 11 were added to the vocabulary level test to replace the words of the 2,000 and 3,000-word level considered as below university level (Barnard 1961; Quinn 1968). Nation (1990) also used this list. Learners were asked to give the meaning of these words through an example, a synonym or a definition (see Appendix 3). These three options were offered to learners in case they feel more comfortable in producing items in one way rather than another (Heaton 1991; Carter 1998). This part of the test was designed as a subjective one to counterbalance the objective part. As the test format might affect the learner's performance (Weir 1990), it seemed advisable to include more than one variety of test format. In addition, subjective tests permit the use of techniques that are natural and outwardly valid, whereas objective tests reduce items to mechanical scoring and are rendered outwardly artificial (Lado 1961). Objective tests pertain rather to comprehension, whereas subjective ones pertain to production (Carter and McCarthy 1988; Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996).
After adapting the test to the actual circumstances, it was pretested on two native speakers since a subjective part had been added and words had been replaced. These native speakers took 10-15 minutes to complete the test. One of them got a complete mark. The fact that it took them more than 5 minutes was probably due to the subjective part which requires more time. The General Vocabulary Test was then piloted on 15 nonnative male and female speakers to measure the time needed. An average of 30 minutes was taken. Nation (1990) allotted 50 minutes for the whole test although most subjects would need less.

In pretesting the experimental and control groups only twenty to 25 minutes could be allotted to learners since there were a total of 5 Pretests, 5 Posttests, 2 Questionnaires, a syllabus to finish in a semester of 45 hours, without allowing for possible strikes or other unforeseen events, quite common in universities in Lebanon in recent years.

4.2.3 The General Sentence-combining Test

The General Sentence-combining Pretest was based on Tinkel's (1988) and Strong's (1994) approaches. It included 19 clusters of sentences taken from Strong's *Sentence Combining: A Composing Book* (1994) unit 3, advanced combining. The clusters of sentences used ranged between 2 and 7 sentences. Learners were asked to combine each cluster of sentences by means of meaningful conjunctions, relative pronouns and/or subordinators as the instruction next to each cluster indicated. The cluster of sentences pertained to two themes thought to be of interest to learners as well as being related to contemporary issues: *A Right to Die* and *Black Death* (see Appendix 1). It is very unlikely that students would have seen these materials since Strong's book (1994) was not available in Lebanon. Furthermore, the materials taken from Gibran's books are not likely to have been taught in private schools, and if they are it would be part of the Arabic syllabus. This is, unfortunately, an aftermath effect of the action of the Maronite clergy who considered his books heretical, for his characters represent open criticism of the clerical feudal system of
the time (Hawi 1963). However, learners could have read some of his novels as extensive reading.

The reason for limiting the cluster of sentences to 19 was again due to the fact that only 20 minutes could be allotted to the Pretest. A pilot study was thought to be unnecessary since the researcher has been teaching sentence-combining in one of the English classes at AUB for 8 years, and an average of 19 clusters was normally given during a 30 minute exam. Hence, the researcher's experience in this area obviated the need for a full pilot test. There was also an attempt to give the test to 3 native speakers as well as to 3 nonnatives. This was a failure, for none of these learners understood the meaning of the terms *conjunction*, *relative pronouns* and/or *subordinators*. The testees confirmed that the meaning of specific directions given for sentence-combining was unknown. The teaching of grammar has been de-emphasised from English teaching in England unlike the teaching of English among foreign students (Widdowson 1975; Carter and McCarthy 1998). The following is a sample of the directions given for sentence-combining:

*Combine the following cluster of sentences by means of meaningful conjunctions (eg. and), relative pronouns (eg. who) and subordinators (eg. as, while).*

*Follow the indication next to each cluster. Delete words if necessary and punctuate appropriately.*

*Here is an example:*  
*Our Constitution guarantees certain rights. *  
+ *relative pron.*  
*The rights are inalienable.*  
*+ conjunction*  
*It does not guarantee 'the right to die'.*

*Answer:*  
*Our Constitution guarantees certain rights which are inalienable, but it does not guarantee 'the right to die'.*

One should take into account the fact that with the communicative approach, the teaching of grammar has been toned down in language teaching. Yet, these particular learners, on whom the experiment was carried out, had successfully completed Freshman English II. (The teaching of grammar within the context of sentence-combining as exemplified in Oshima and Hogue (1991) was taught in the course textbook of English II).
Perhaps specifying the nature of the sentence-combining limits the test. However, the aim of the test is to measure the knowledge of the learner’s ability in combining sentences according to specific directions. A few samples of free combining were also included in the test. During sentence-combining correction, the teacher asked the students which way was easier in their opinion: that is, with directions or without. Some students found it easier with directions and others found free sentence-combining easier.

4.2.4 Attitudinal Questionnaire

Besides the background information questionnaire (Appendix 16) that was given at the beginning of the academic year, a questionnaire evaluating the students' attitude toward the methodology used was designed and administered after the Midtests and Posttests. The questionnaire represents the evaluative aspect of the study and comprised 3 techniques: an attitude scale, a rating-scale and an open-ended response to give learners the possibility of evaluating the advantages of different techniques used in the experiment. The questionnaire was revised after a pilot test: the structure of the sentences of the attitude scale was changed from an objective form to a subjective form which is more likely to elicit involvement of the learners. For instance, Given a list of the words with an explanation helps learning these items was rephrased as Giving me a list of the words with an explanation helps me learning these items (see Appendix 15).

The questionnaire was pilot tested on native speakers for the clarity of the instructions given. No changes were made. The Attitudinal Questionnaire was given after the first and second quantitative experiments were over. Learners were reassured that this was simply a questionnaire and not another test.

- Attitudinal Questionnaire of Group A

The first Attitudinal Questionnaire of the Experimental Group consisted of three parts. The first part, which was rating questions, included eleven items, 5 of which
investigated students' attitudes towards vocabulary teaching, and 6 asked them about sentence-combining teaching.

The second type of questions included the rating of the texts studied in the treatment as to whether the passages helped learners in the following matters:

1. In understanding the meaning of unknown words.
2. In using the vocabulary in the essays.
3. In improving essay writing.

The last type of questions included one question on how learners perceived their improvement in essay writing. Another question asked for suggestions as to the improvement of the course. Finally, the last three questions asked the subjects to rate their reception of teacher's knowledge of the subject, the teacher's liking of the material and the teacher's teaching method. These last three questions were put to control teacher/researcher subjectivity across the Control and Experimental Groups (Appendix 15).

- Attitudinal Questionnaire of Group A'
  At the end of the semester, after administering the Posttests, another Attitudinal Questionnaire comparing the content of the syllabus and the content of the treatment was given to all subjects (figure 4.1).

- Attitudinal Questionnaire of Group B'
  Group B, which was at that time following the treatment and was hence called B', was given the same Attitudinal Questionnaire but with an organisation that fits the Counterbalancing Experiment (Appendix 15). Again when the handout was distributed, learners were assured that this was simply a questionnaire and not another test. (The results of the Attitudinal Questionnaire will be discussed in Chapter 6).
Variables

**Dependent Variable**

In this study, the quality of the students' writing as measured by their scores on the three essay tests is chosen as a dependent variable since it is assumed that there is a relationship between the study of literature and language learning.

Writing through study-reading texts in literature requires two basic subskills: vocabulary learning and sentence-combining. These subskills are taught within the context of normal classes using a selection of short stories from *The Essential Hemingway* by Ernest Hemingway and selections from *The Prophet* by Gibran Khalil Gibran. (The Control Group, see figure 4.0, was taught within the context of a selection of literary texts which are part of the normal syllabus, but with no particular focus on vocabulary or sentence-combining).

It might be questioned that sentence-combining and vocabulary, being an innovation for these students, could have caused the *Hawthorne Effect*. Other skills such as comprehension of the text studied, discussion of the topic and debates among students have also been emphasised in both groups: control and experimental. Within these variety of activities, the researcher could claim that the Hawthorne effect has been avoided or that, at least, it can be monitored at the points of the midtest and posttest in the counterbalancing design (see figure 4.1).

Vocabulary was widely recognized until the 1990s as one of the neglected subskills of writing (Nunan 1991; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Zimmerman 1998). It was a skill which many commentators recognised as not treated seriously enough in the past (Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Cowie in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992), and L2 vocabulary acquisition was due for thorough examination (Bensoussan in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Zimmerman 1994; Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996). Furthermore, research has shown that L2 readers rely heavily on vocabulary knowledge and lack of vocabulary is a major obstacle for those readers to overcome (Huckin et al. 1993; Spack in Leki 1993; Engber 1995) (Chapter 2).
Others (Mellon 1965; Daiker et al. 1978; DeBeaugrande 1984; Hillocks 1986; Grabe and Kaplan 1996) mention evidence that sentence-combining leads to writing improvement. These authors maintain that this approach has achieved some measure of success and should not be discredited (see Chapter 3).

In contrast, writing as an independent activity in the control classroom means teaching according to the syllabus of English III at LAU. Learners are given 9 literary texts from *From Reading, Writing* (1992). These texts are read and explained in class. After every other text an essay is given. The essay is usually an indirect outcome of the reading. For instance, subjects read and discuss two texts on the creation of the universe. According to the syllabus, learners are then required to write their own story of the creation of the universe.

However, as the researcher believes that writing is an outcome of reading and that complex writing, as an inference activity, is too much of a burden on university students using English as an L2 or L3 language, she altered the writing approach. Hence, the essay topic of the control group was related to the reading text. For example, one of the reading texts was *Once More to the Lake* by E.B. White. After the class had read, the teacher explained and discussed the text, and the following essay topic was given:

*In a well developed essay, compare and contrast the two visits of E.B. White to the lake in Main.* However, no vocabulary list was given or explained unless learners asked for the meaning of a word. Furthermore, no attention was drawn to the sentence structures found in the reading text, nor had learners specific exercises on vocabulary or sentence-combining.

As the study is a Counterbalancing Experiment, all reading texts were given to both groups: experimental and control, depending on which group learners happened to be in. In addition, the 9 literary texts, which would normally have been on the syllabus, were reduced to 6 in order to fit them into the time scale of the experiment. Learners were asked to read the other texts as homework. The 4 reading texts that
were used in the treatment were selections from *The Prophet* by Gibran and from *The Essential Hemingway* by Hemingway.

Further, the Counterbalancing Experiment has been chosen to test whether the content of the syllabus had any effect on the learners, and whether primacy/recency of the treatment affected the results of the study. However, no design is perfect, and this one has some drawbacks. Learners were overtested, and the 5 Posttests administered to Group A were given 8 weeks after the experiment was over.

**Independent Variable**
The independent variable is the treatment. That is, whether the students who received training in sentence-combining and vocabulary improved their essay writing as measured by their scores.

A group of 105 vocabulary words were chosen from the 4 texts by Gibran and Hemingway to be part of the treatment, and one of the independent variables. In other words, students were given training in the use and meaning of these words. The criteria on which vocabulary items were selected depended on several factors: on the knowledge the researcher has concerning the general standard of English of the learners; on the CoBuild Frequency Count of these words (discussed later in this chapter); and the likelihood of their usefulness in writing compositions. Although vocabulary selection should start with the use of objective criteria such as frequency or familiarity (Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996), vocabulary selection for L2 instruction ultimately remains a subjective affair (Richards 1970; Nation 1990; Brown 1994; Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996).

Sentence-combining is the second subskill used in the treatment and the second independent variable. Sentences from the study-reading texts were chosen as the basis of sentence-combining exercises to be done in class. The criterion for the selection of sentences is based on the possibility of combining these sentences through relative pronouns, subordinators and/or conjunctions. Some of the
sentence-combining elements are authentic clusters (i.e. unaltered from those focused on in the original texts), others are constructed using the Gibran and Hemingway texts as sources to meet the aim of the study (Appendices 5 and 6).

The link between both authors is the fact that both Hemingway's style, in the short stories, and Gibran's are relatively simple. While Hemingway's literature is the literature of a native speaking prize winning writer, Gibran was chosen for the inclusion of nonnative literature, and in particular he is a well-known Lebanese writer who wrote in English. This factor is assumed to motivate learners in Lebanese American universities and to be a model with which they can identify. Furthermore, the topics selected from Gibran i.e. *On Reason and Passion* and *On Work* are likely to appeal to the interest of the learners, and values that the generation of the aftermath of the Lebanese war (1975-1991) seems to have forgotten. *The Prophet* (1923), from which these selections were chosen, is a book of which millions of copies have been and are still printed. This book is commonly considered the masterpiece of Gibran's work.

**Control Variables**

Variables such as age, gender, intelligence and proficiency of the experimentees and of the teacher are thought to be neutralised in a Counterbalancing Experimental Design (see figure 4.1). In other words, if any difference exists between these two incidental groups, since each group would be experimental and control in turn, the supposed differences would be neutralised or, at least, will be evident through cross data analysis or matching at the first or second stage. Furthermore, since the researcher would teach both groups and her performance was monitored through the analysis of classroom transcripts and the Attitudinal Questionnaire, any biased behaviour would be controlled or can be described in detail and accounted for.

Finally, the Essay writing task, whose topics are an outcome of studied texts by Gibran and Hemingway and designed in a way that students will be likely to use the vocabulary and sentence-combining taught, was administered to the subjects.
Different genres along the 3 treatment Essays were applied. The control group had their essay topics as an outcome of the literary texts and an equivalent genre to the ones given to the experimental group.

Nonparametric tests are used since the sample (N=25), although valid, was not necessarily representative of the larger population of the university (Heyes et al. 1994) (see Chapter 6). The essays were corrected holistically by two markers and an average of both scores was computed.

4.3 The Texts
An attempt was made to characterise some of the elements of the style of the target texts, in order to compare the extracts from Hemingway and Gibran with each other and, later, with students’ essays. A combination of Halliday & Hasan (1989) and Nation’s (1990) procedures were used to come up with a criterion used in the analysis. Further, the pattern of lexis model of cohesion (Hoey 1991) was used to measure cohesion and the types of categories of lexical cohesion used in the sample texts. Five out of 24 short stories (i.e. 20%) were selected from The Essential Hemingway by Hemingway for text analysis. Two of the texts, Hills Like White Elephants and Indian Camp were used in the treatment. The three other texts, The Revolutionist, My Old Man both written in 1925 and In Another Country (1927) were chosen for the variety of their themes, the date of their publication, and from consideration of some negative as well as positive criticism of critics (Benson 1975).

In order to provide a fairly precise linguistic characterisation of the texts, a sample of 10 lines from the beginning, middle and end of each text was analysed to assess the accessibility of the texts used in the experiment. The rationale for restricting these samples was as follows: Hemingway’s short stories are approximately 4 pages, and Gibran’s stories are shorter. Analysing 10 lines of a page would represent 40% of the content, considering an average of 250 words per page.
The following eight items were calculated in the ten selected lines of each of these parts of the texts:

1. no. of sentences.
2. no. of grammatical cohesive devices.
3. no. of lexical and cohesive devices (These were limited to the needs of the learners' writing). Such characterisations are needed to track their influence on the subjects' essays in the treatment.
4. lexical density: \( \frac{\text{no of main words}}{\text{no of clauses}} \)

Although some authorities (Nation 1990) point out that lexical density is a measure of intelligibility of a text, others state that intelligibility of a text depends rather on a function of situation and group membership of readers (Perren and Trim 1971; Stubbs 1996), for intelligibility depends on the available schemata of the reader (Carrell and Eisterhold 1983; Carrell 1983; Coulthard 1994). However, in the opinion of the researcher, all 8 items mentioned are essential procedures of accessibility, and therefore they were calculated. Other possibilities such as readability scores were considered but found not suitable for the study. There is no readability measure that is suitable to all age levels and no particular measure designed for university levels. A readability score is only useful if the measure is a valid one, and if the prose is suitable for analysis (Harrison 1980).

5. vocabulary density:
\( \frac{\text{no of previously encountered words at regular intervals}}{\text{no of new words in one page}} \)

For the purpose of this study, the denominator has been limited to the sample of 10 lines at the beginning, middle and end of the selections by Hemingway and Gibran. This is arguably too little text to yield a meaningful measure of lexical density. However, the decision to limit text samples to chunks of 10 lines was taken for other reasons as mentioned earlier.
The features of the texts used by the control group have not been analysed since both groups were control and experimental, and therefore, any further complexity in those texts would have equally been experienced by both groups. These texts are not the focus of the present study.

6. Cobuild Frequency Count
7. T-Unit analysis
8. A Theme and rheme analysis
9. Pattern of lexis in text (details of items 6, 7, 8 and 9 will be discussed further on in this chapter)

Some other features of text and cohesion in Halliday and Hasan’s sense (1989) such as ellipsis and substitution were considered. However, the chosen items were thought to be more appropriate and helpful to less advanced L2 learners of LAU. Grammatical and lexical frequency and cohesive devices were analysed in both texts, to test their accessibility as an appropriate context to teach vocabulary and sentence-combining within the context of study-reading of literary texts.

Other measures of lexical devices were investigated such as lexical originality (LO), lexical variation (LV) and lexical sophistication (LS) (Laufer and Nation’s 1995). However, these devices were not found suitable to the objectives of the present study. These two items were believed to test advanced learners and perhaps L1 learners. The purpose of the present study is to improve the learners vocabulary not to render it original or sophisticated.

The three texts used by the Control and the Experimental group in a Counterbalancing Method were the following: *Women in the Eskimo World*, *Why We Fall in Love* and *Diogenes and Alexander*. These texts were selected from *From Reading, Writing* (Winkler and McCuen 1992), the textbook used in English III. They have been part of the syllabus for some years. It is assumed then that the texts are comprehensible, of fairly complexity to learners and of interest to them. Familiarity and interest in a topic facilitate comprehension and ease guessing of
*The Revolutionist* is a very short story, therefore, there was no possibility of analyzing a middle excerpt.

Table 4.1 reveals that more sentences and more consistency in the average number of sentences is found in the 2 short stories, *Hills Like White Elephants* and *Indian Camp*, selected for the treatment. Three out of 5 stories (i.e. 60%) of the selections is consistent in the average number of sentences.

**Table 4.2: Grammatical frequency and cohesive devices at the beginning, middle and end of the 5 short stories by Hemingway.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>sent.</th>
<th>conj.</th>
<th>trans.</th>
<th>endophor.</th>
<th>anaphor.</th>
<th>cataphor.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>begin.</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>middle</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One observes that Table 4.2, which analysed the grammatical frequency and cohesive devices at the beginning, middle and end of Hemingway's 5 short stories, showed conjunctions as the most frequent grammatical cohesive device used. That is, 40, 39, 20 respectively. Hemingway used conjunctions and more particularly *and* as a key word (Weeks 1962). Furthermore, zero transitions were used in all the stories. Transitions have not long been stressed in teaching L2 writing as a cohesive device. Perhaps, this is the reason for not finding them in Hemingway's short stories, which were written in the 1920s. Among the 3 other devices, endophoric, anaphoric and cataphoric, that add to the cohesion of a text, cataphoric was mostly used. That is, 29, 93, 69 respectively.

**Table 4.3: Lexical cohesive and frequency devices at the beginning, middle and end of the 5 short stories by Hemingway.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>sent.</th>
<th>repet.</th>
<th>synon.</th>
<th>near-synon.</th>
<th>anton.</th>
<th>hypon.</th>
<th>meron.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>begin.</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>middle</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.3 reveals that Hemingway’s most common lexical device at the beginning, middle and end of the 5 short stories is repetition, that is, 16, 21, 25 repetitions respectively. In connection with Hemingway’s writing this has been called *Elegant repetition* (Fenton in Benson 1975). As a matter of fact, Hemingway has severely cut down his use of English vocabulary (Weeks 1962). Although Hemingway’s most common lexical device is repetition, one cannot assume that repeated words retain the same meaning (Hoey 1991). Differences are introduced, *even when the whole sign is repeated*. Differences are introduced through the very fact of repetition, the accumulation of significance it entails and the change effected by the different context in which it is placed (Rimmon-Kenan 1980). The following is an example from *Hills Like White Elephants*:

...*If you don’t* want to *you don’t have to*. *I wouldn’t have you do it if you didn’t* want to. *But I know it’s perfectly simple.*

*And you really* want to?

*I think it’s the best thing to do*. *But I don’t want you to do it if you don’t really want to.*

Perhaps one can look at the repeated words in Hemingway’s dialogue as rather a complex lexical repetition. The repeated items are sometimes sentence initial but otherwise are postponed to later positions. In other words, sometimes the *doing* is stressed, sometimes it is not. A possible interpretation of the lexical complex repetition is that it may be subject of a novelistically portrayed renegotiation between the partners (McCarthy in Carter 1987), but with a slight shift in meaning. Actually, the dialogue taking place between the couple has been called *playing the game of democracy* (Icoz 1992). Next to repetition, comes near-synonyms: 5, 1, 0 and then synonyms: 5, 0, 0.
**Table 4.4: Lexical density at the beginning, middle and end of the 5 short stories by Hemingway.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stories</th>
<th>Lexical density (beg.)</th>
<th>(middle)</th>
<th>(end)</th>
<th>average per story</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HLWE</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian C.</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Revol.</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My O. Man</td>
<td>5.38</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In An. Coun.</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.8</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.7</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.6</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.1</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Again one notices that in **Table 4.4**, 4 out of 5 of the stories have consistent lexical density at the beginning, except for *My Old Man* whose density is quite high, 5.38. One might expect high lexical density initially in short stories if there is a descriptive section to establish orienting information. 80% of the lexical density is consistent at the beginning (there are 3 sentences only, in 12 lines at the beginning of *My Old Man*). In the middle lines of the short stories, 50% of the lexical density is consistent, whereas the lexical density of *My Old Man* is again quite high (4.26) and the lexical density of *Hills Like White Elephants* is low (1.34). The relatively low lexical density of the latter story is likely due to the fact that the middle part is a dialogue. As to the lexical density of the last part of the short stories, two by two short stories have consistent lexical density. That is, 2.26 and 2.42; 3.47 and 3.56 (**Table 4.4**). On the other hand, the lexical density of *My Old Man* is quite low, 1.6. Again this might be due to the number of sentences in this part which is 8 sentences versus the beginning and middle parts which comprise 3 sentences each. In sum, the purpose of studying lexical density is again to check on the ease or difficulty of the material used in the experiment; the stories seem fairly consistent in this respect.
Table 4.5: Vocabulary density at the beginning, middle and end of the 5 short stories by Hemingway.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stories</th>
<th>Vocab. density begin.</th>
<th>(middle)</th>
<th>(end)</th>
<th>average per story</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HLWE</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian C.</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Revol.</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My Old Man</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Ano.Coun.</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>.34</strong></td>
<td><strong>.76</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.2</strong></td>
<td><strong>.74</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.5 displays the calculations of vocabulary density in these stories. If one compares vocabulary density at the beginning, middle and end of the short stories, one observes that vocabulary density is at its lowest in the extracts at the beginning. This is natural since the number of previously encountered words at the beginning of the stories would be few. In contrast, the highest vocabulary density, in the sample of the middle short stories, pertains to *Hills Like White Elephants*. Again this seems natural since most of this story is a dialogue and not many new words are encountered in a dialogue, where a specific issue, abortion, is discussed. The lower vocabulary density pertains to *My Old Man*. Next to the lowest is *Indian Camp*. This text had a long vocabulary list to teach. The high number of vocabulary in *Indian Camp* is due to the topic of the story. The researcher assumed that Lebanese learners, living in a semi-arid area with few forests and practically no lakes, would not know the meaning of words such as *hunk, squaw, logging, meadow* or words pertaining to medicine such as *peroxide and taper*.

The highest vocabulary density of the sample at the end of the short stories is found, for a change, in *My Old Man*. This is due to the fact that the end sample contains a larger number of sentences. In the 8 sentences, there are 44 previously encountered words over 22 new ones. The same seems to apply to *In Another Country* whose end excerpt contain the largest number of sentences i.e. 9 sentences. In these 9 sentences, the number of previously encountered words are 27 over 19 new words.
Table 4.6: Cobuild frequency count (in a corpus of 110 million words, 1994) of the selected vocabulary list from the stories by Hemingway used in the treatment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency Order</th>
<th>Cobuild</th>
<th>Indian Camp</th>
<th>Indian Camp</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>look off</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>oar-lock</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>absinthe</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>reminiscently</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>liquorice</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>shoved off</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bead</td>
<td>913</td>
<td>flow down</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>jack-knife</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>rowboat</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brightly</td>
<td>1057</td>
<td>squaw</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pad</td>
<td>1283</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cut out</td>
<td>2684</td>
<td>bass</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>string</td>
<td>4329</td>
<td>chill</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>label</td>
<td>6005</td>
<td>choppy</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>junction</td>
<td>13232</td>
<td>taper</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>track</td>
<td>13618</td>
<td>peroxyde</td>
<td>239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>felt</td>
<td>33841</td>
<td>shanty</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HLWE (hills like white elephants)</td>
<td></td>
<td>exalted</td>
<td>346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>lantern</td>
<td>379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>in labour</td>
<td>420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>bunk</td>
<td>501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>anaesthetic</td>
<td>551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dew</td>
<td>568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>stitch</td>
<td>597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>sagged</td>
<td>794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>logging</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>meadow</td>
<td>984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>razor</td>
<td>1063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>bitch</td>
<td>1247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mist</td>
<td>1255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>axe</td>
<td>1271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>scrub</td>
<td>1704</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cobuild Frequency Count

Although frequency count is monitored in this research as displayed in table 4.6, Xue and Nation (1984); Coady et al. (1993); Hazenberg and Hulstijn (1996) consider the division between high and low vocabulary frequency artificial. Furthermore, they state that it is up to the teacher to make an arbitrary decision about where to draw the line on what is obviously a continuum. Some words are neither frequent nor infrequent, and items which are frequent in specialized texts are infrequent ones in
more general texts. Braddock (1963) also added that before using a frequency count, a person should determine what the purpose is since the topic, and the style among other factors affect the standard of a learner's writing.

A frequency list can be rendered in several ways (Sinclair 1991). The most common are: alphabetical order and frequency order. In a text of a thousand words or more, a frequency count is worth studying. If the text is shorter, the usefulness of word-frequency is limited. The advantage of a frequency list is that it can be compared to that of other texts or to a large corpus of language. The most frequent items tend to keep a stable distribution, and so any marked change in the order can be significant. Although Nation's lexical and vocabulary density are used, the Cobuild frequency count is considered though it seems less delicate than might be apparent. This is because most of the present target words are in the less frequent 20%. The most frequent 2,500 words constitute 80% of English texts (Willis 1990).

The Cobuild data base in 1994 was (when this survey was carried out on the present target words) 110 million words. Words with high frequency, in Table 4.6, are more frequently encountered, and those with low frequency are less frequently encountered. The purpose of presenting such a frequency count is a further means to show the ease or difficulty of the vocabulary to be taught on the assumption that less frequent words are less frequently encountered by learners and are therefore more difficult to learn or less likely to have been learned previously. In fact, Table 4.6 shows that some vocabulary items that Hemingway used have an extremely low frequency count such as absinthe 33, liquorice 112 or even 0 frequency such as oarlock. Hemingway also used frequent verbal phrases which have low frequency counts such as look off 13, shoved off 14 and are difficult to learn as L3 items when learners' L2 is French.

If the researcher had to rely on frequency count only as the criterion for selecting items for teaching and testing, many of those words, that are part of the treatment,
would have been excluded as being rare items in general English. However, the items occur in these particular Hemingway texts, which are commonly used in language and literature courses at this level. What is more important than frequency count is the purpose of the vocabulary to be taught (Braddock 1963; Engber 1995; Nation in Jacobs 1997). In this particular case, the purpose is comprehension that might reasonably lead to production in essay performance.

Table 4.7 reveals the average percentage of T-units in Hemingway's 5 short stories.

By T-unit (minimal terminal unit) is meant one main clause plus any subordinate or nonclausal structure attached to or embedded in it (Hunt 1965). T-units are used just to reconfirm the fact that Hemingway's style is simple. Hence, the focus of this conclusion is to find the percentage of the subordinate clauses whether at the beginning, middle or end of the short stories. It is noticeable from Table 4.7 that the highest percentage of subordinate clauses in the 5 stories of Hemingway is 32.2%.

By using Hemingway's sentences (as well as Gibran's) in a sentence-combining process, learners are expected to recall the authors' simple style and construct their sentences in the manner of the studied model or as requested in the directions (subordinate clauses, relative clauses, simple or compound sentences). As learners have learned previously how to combine sentences according to specific directions, simple sentences can easily progress to subordinates. A repertoire of sentence-combining has the same advantages as use of wide vocabulary (Hunt 1965; Halliday and Hassan 1976).

Widdowson (Allen and Widdowson 1974) devises sentence-combining which he calls rhetorical transformation whereby learners are required to transform
a set of propositions (i.e. simple clauses) into an appropriate communicative act, or transform one communicative act into another. In other words, Widdowson used progressive clause-combining or sentence-combining to form a paragraph. By transforming one comparative act to another, Widdowson used comparison that the researcher has used by comparing learners' sentences to the authors', and as some authors of textbooks have done (Oshima and Hogue 1991; Soars 1996; Langan 1997) (table 3.1).

The T-units in the texts of Gibran and Hemingway are analysed to reconfirm the existence of one element of the simple style used by both authors as this is one of the criteria for choosing these two authors. Learners are reminded that writing does not necessarily require complexity or complex devices, but that one can choose between types of sentences in terms of effectiveness (Wilkinson et al. 1980; Thomas and Peters 1986). A further limitation on using T-units to judge the maturity of style is the fact that long T-units throughout a text may give an impression of verbosity of sentences (Faigley 1980).

However, as a fairly standard general measure of writing development, T-units have been used for 30 years. They reveal certain features of writing such as style and maturity of the learner through the number of embedded clauses and nonclausal structures (Hunt 1965). Yet, the purpose of this study is not to measure the maturity of the authors' style nor that of the students', but rather to check on the simple style of the chosen authors and the type of incorrect sentences that learners wrote in their essays. For instance, by checking on the T-units of the students' essays, one can detect mistakes such as fragments in which the main clause is absent, and ascertain how far the learners have used simple rather than complex sentences.

**Theme and Rheme**

In this study, theme means the element which serves as the point of departure of the message of the speaker/writer. If some element, other than the subject, comes first, it constitutes a marked (m) choice of theme (Halliday 1994). However, if the
sentence is complex, thematization will take into account the different clauses in the sentence. This would lead to consideration of the theme as, marked or unmarked, of different nested themes in the complex sentences.

Before choosing theme/rheme as one of the features to be analysed, other criteria subsumed under the general headings of Halliday and Hasan's (1989) ideational, interpersonal and textual aspects of language were considered. However, as learners at LAU are familiar with them, theme/rheme was considered more appropriate. Theme/rheme calls attention to some information that the author has marked to emphasise it with highly charged quality primary by positioning in the sentence (Vande Kopple 1991). Hence, by focusing the learner's attention on theme/rheme, learners become aware of the author's highlighted points or focus of information. Learners sometimes like to vary the beginning of their sentences, by understanding the function of theme/rheme, they would know what and why it is worth varying the beginning (Vande Kopple 1991). Ford and Thompson (in Traugott et al. 1986) speculate that when conditionals follow independent clauses, one reason could be because they are loaded with heavy and important meaning. In fact, learners realised what and why some clauses are marked and the meaning that marked themes convey when they compared their own sentences with those of Hemingway. This was clearly revealed in the classroom analysis of sentence-combining correction session.

The use of a variety of theme and rheme patterns is a wide and complex strategy which gives the clause its character as a message (Halliday 1994). The theme also works to signal genre (i.e. comparison/contrast etc.). The thematic structure, among other ways of emphasising thematization, is a form of organisation which gives the status of a communicative event (Fries 1981). Furthermore, a text which consists entirely of unmarked themes, particularly if the theme is the same participant over a long stretch, can seem flat, monotonous and sometimes rather childish (Lock 1996). To a certain extent the analysis of thematization might vary according to different authors and schools (Halliday 1994; Lock 1996; Thompson 1996). However, for practical purposes, an analysis rarely needs to show much detail (Lock 1996).
instance, sentence 2: But I don't want you to do it if you don't really want to. If marked themes do not start with a conjunction, they mark the cause of the action, a condition or both, for instance, sentence 14: Because I don't care about me.

In *The Indian Camp*, fewer themes are marked. Also 4 out of 5 marked themes constitute a reverse of the expected order of clauses. For instance, sentence 5 represents the following: *While his father washed his hands very carefully and thoroughly, he talked.* One would normally expect the much shorter simpler clause to be first.

A great number of marked themes are within the sentences. Most marked themes within the sentences in *My Old Man* are conjunctions as well as the marked themes at the beginning of sentence 2. Two marked themes appear at the beginning of the sentences in *In Another Country*. One of them uses a subordinator, *after that* (sentence 3); and the other one is a conjunction, *but* (sentence 6). There are more marked themes in the middle extracts of the stories not used in the treatment than the used ones. Knowing Hemingway's concision in writing, marked themes indicate what the author wishes to stress.

There are an equal number of marked themes at the end and the beginning selections of *Hills Like White Elephants*. Sentence 7: *Coming back, he walked through the bar-room, where people waiting for the train were drinking* marks the return of the American. Sentence 12, *Do you feel better? he asked*, is a formal question, whereas a question in a dialogue might be informal such as *You feel better?* Perhaps this formal question forshades the distance taking place in the relationship between the couple.

The last excerpt in *The Indian Camp* is a dialogue, and again many themes are marked as the dialogue in the middle excerpt of *Hills Like White Elephants*. The dialogue between Nick and his father seems formal although in an authentic situation a dialogue would not normally be so. For instance, sentence 5 represents the
following: Do many men kill themselves, Daddy? Perhaps this formal dialogue conveys the gravity of the topic: death. Lock (1996) mentions that a text which consists of entirely unmarked themes is flat and monotonous. The researcher does not believe that this is the case with Hemingway though most of the patterns he uses are flat and made out of unmarked themes. However, flatness and monotony are intentionally produced to cast emphasis on marked themes.

In fact, Hemingway’s style is an example to learners that writing does not need to be complex or to include complexity in patterns of thematic variation. One can write simple but clear sentences, and these sentences can be progressed to complex and dense ones if necessary (figure 3.3). Learners in both universities (AUB and LAU) assume that writing is a complex task, but this needs not necessarily that they should write complex sentences.

The marked theme at the beginning of the sentences of The Revolutionist are 3 sentences and the emphasis is on negation, No... in sentence 5; a place At Bologna... in sentence 3; and sentence 10 marks time, the last.... The marked theme within sentence 1 emphasises the pronoun, that.

In My Old Man, the two marked themes at the beginning of sentences 5 and 7 are conjunctions: and, but. The marked themes within the sentences are conjunctions. On the other hand, the marked theme of In Another Country indicates time in sentence 5, When..., and place in sentence 6, In front of the machine...

In sum, the study of the linguistic characteristics of the texts by Hemingway appears to show a simplicity of style and vocabulary. Further, the study of theme and rheme focuses one’s attention on what is assumed to be important to Gibran and Hemingway in the texts studied. This made learners realised that rhetoric writing of sentences is based on semantics, organisation and style. Learners realised this rhetorical aspect by comparing their sentence-combining with those by Gibran and Hemingway.
There is an apparent paradox here that authors with a relatively simple style are
being used as the bases for sentence-combining exercises. However, it would seem
to be a mistake to teach sentence-combining for its own sake, as often happens in the
course books listed in chapter 3. Those course books implicitly suggest that
complexity is good in itself. In the present study, this is counteracted by showing the
virtue of simplicity on occasion. Therefore, the present study carries the implicit
suggestion (and the teacher-researcher’s clarification of this point in the classroom)
that the key factor in resolving the paradox is appropriateness of stylistic complexity
in relation to the writer’s purpose.

In the sentence-combining exercises the students become writers. Thus, the
students have to judge the appropriateness where to construct complex sentences
and when it is effective. Chapter 5 illustrates how classroom discussion, shown in the
transcript analysis reveals students awareness of the effects of the simplicity on
occasion and the effect of complexity through sentence-combining on other
occasion. The sentence-combining approach, in this study is, in this way somewhat
different from the one normally found published in ELT materials.

The Patterns of Lexis in Text
A study of the patterns of lexis of the texts presented to learners was undertaken
based on Hoey’s (1991) model of lexical cohesion. The purpose of this study was to
reconfirm the fact that lexical cohesion is a significant part of the excerpts and to
examine the potential role of the target vocabulary in patterns of repetition in the
texts. This is important because if the target words enter into salient patterns of
links and bonds, in Hoey’s (1991) terms, they would be lexically more prominent
because of this role in repetition across sentences. In turn, this would imply that
they stand out to learners and might possibly receive more attention and, perhaps, be
more easily learned. Also simplicity of style could be verified in this model by
examining adjacent links, hence, the analysis of beginning, middle and end parts of
Hills Like White Elephants, Indian Camp, On Reason and Passion and On Work.
No further studies of the other texts by Hemingway and Gibran was undertaken, in
this respect, for it was assumed that if lexical cohesion and simplicity of style are part of learners’ essays, it will be due to the samples presented. Further, as lexical cohesive and frequency devices have been studied in all texts, it will be redundant to study the patterns of lexis again.

Perhaps lexical cohesion (which was not taught explicitly) had an indirect effect on learners through the discussion of reading, the practice of vocabulary and cohesive devices used in sentence-combining.

The following are Hoey’s (1991) definitions according to which lexis in the texts and essays were studied.

*Simple lexical repetition* (sr) is the simplest form of repetition. It occurs when a lexical item that has already occurred in a text is repeated with no greater alteration than what is entirely explicable in terms of closed grammatical paradigm. For example, *Indian* and *Indians*, the only variation between them is the singular and plural paradigm.

*Complex lexical repetition* (cr). This occurs when 2 lexical items share a lexical morpheme but are not necessarily morphologically identical such as *abort* and *abortion*. Hence, the complex repetition is not true direct repetition.

*Simple mutual paraphrase* (s). It occurs whenever a lexical item may substitute for another in context without loss or gain in specificity and with no discernible change in meaning. It corresponds to Hasan’s category of synonymy (1984). An example of simple mutual paraphrase is *cause* and *reason* within the context of *On Reason and Passion*. For example, *Another reason for his staying is the fact that the nurse won’t come until tomorrow morning* (11). *Finally, the most important cause is the fact that he loves the Indians and would like to help them* (12) (see Appendix 8).

*Complex paraphrase* (cp). A broad interpretation of this item is the occurrence of 2 lexical items such that one of the items includes the other although they share no lexical morpheme, for instance, *cesarean* and *operation* in the context of *Indian Camp*. That is, *The doctor sought exaltation because he performed a cesarian on an Indian squaw without any anesthetic and he used primitive instruments such as a*
Furthermore, due to his outstanding operation, he thought that he will be famous and therefore, he would be recognised in the medical journal. Other ways of repeating such as types of textual connection are exemplified by the pronoun systems. Only he, she, it and they are part of the significant repetition sets. I, you and we are not treated since learners have not used quotation and Hoey (1991) stated if otherwise the latter are deemed to be exophoric reference. The demonstrative pronouns, this, that, these and those are also considered repetition links. Furthermore, items such as other, the other, the same, similar and different are treated like demonstrative modifiers. If they accompany a lexical item in a repetition link with an earlier item, they are ignored to avoid double counting.

Co-reference repetition is sensitive to date and place of composition. However, this is not the case in the essays of students, for participants are strongly advised to be objective in their essays and not to use co-reference except in the conclusion where they state their opinion. In such a case, usually, the expression in my opinion is used. My, being exophoric, has not been counted as a lexical repetition.

Substitution and ellipses are also taken into account. Although these types of repetition may stand for more than one lexical item, or can substitute for whole stretches of text, they are considered as single links and are so recorded.

The study of the patterns of lexis in Hills Like White Elephants and Indian Camp revealed that both stories have a great number of links and bonds, and the ratio of bonds to links is rather high compared to learners ratio in their essay performance (tables 6.20, 6.25 and 4.7). There are also more links and bonds in Hills Like White Elephants. Perhaps this is due to the fact that the middle part of this text is mostly a dialogue, and therefore the conversation is predetermined by the topic. Having dialogues in stories by Hemingway and Gibran made the researcher take into account the I, You and We since in a dialogue or quotation these references are anaphoric (Hoey 1991). The links of Hills Like White Elephants are mostly adjacent in the middle and end part. However, in Indian Camp links are mostly adjacent in the middle part.
The analysis of the types of repetitions also revealed that in both stories simple repetitions and synonyms are mostly used (table 4.7'). This again reconfirms the results of lexical cohesive and frequency devices used in the 5 short stories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stories</th>
<th>No. of sentences (begin, middle, end)</th>
<th>No. of links</th>
<th>No. of bonds</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>HLWE</em></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Indian Camp</em></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Types of Repetition**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stories</th>
<th>syn cr spp</th>
<th>sr cp anto</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>HLWE</em></td>
<td>21 1 5</td>
<td>61 1 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Indian Camp</em></td>
<td>20 3 8</td>
<td>49 1 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:

*HLWE*: Hills Like White Elephants  
syn: synonym  
cr: complex repetition  
spp: simple partial paraphrase  
sr: simple repetition  
cp: complex paraphrase  
anto: antonym

In sum, the previous analysis of grammatical, lexical and frequency items, lexical and vocabulary density, the Cobuild frequency count, T-unit, theme and rheme and the patterns of lexical analyses reveal that Hemingway's vocabulary is simple. This simplicity is rendered coherent mostly through the use of cataphoric device, repetition, bonds and high ratio of bonds to links. The analysis of T-units and theme/rheme reconfirms the fact that Hemingway's sentences are simple rather than complex. Hence, the reason for choosing these texts seems justified.

### 4.3.2 Linguistic Characteristics of Gibran Texts

Gibran Khalil Gibran is the second author whose texts are analysed and used in the treatment. The passages *On Reason and Passion* and *On Work* are taken from *The Prophet* written in 1923. Another passage taken from his early work, *The Madman* (1918) and a later work, *The Garden of The Prophet* (1933) are also analysed to attempt to draw conclusions on the general style of the author.
**Table 4.8:** Average of sentences in 30 lines taken from the beginning, middle and end of the 4 excerpts by Gibran.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excerpts</th>
<th>No. of lines (begin, middle &amp; end)</th>
<th>Average of sent.</th>
<th>Calculated average of sent. in 30 lines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>On R. &amp; Pas.</td>
<td>22 (begin &amp; end only)</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On Work</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Madman</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Garden of the Prophet</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Average of sent. in 30 lines of the 4 excerpts by Gibran</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>4.7</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NB *On Reason and Passion* is too short a passage to have a middle excerpt analysed.

**Table 4.8** reveals that the average of sentences in the Gibran extracts, in 30 lines, is slightly inconsistent. The average of sentences in *On Reason and Passion* and *The Madman* are consistent. That is, 4.8 and 4.2 respectively, whereas the two others, *On Work* has an average of 3.7, and *The Garden of the Prophet* has an average of 6.2. It is recalled that those books were written in English at different periods of Gibran's life, and that could be the reason for the difference in the average of sentences in 30 lines.

**Table 4.9:** Grammatical frequency and cohesive devices at the beginning, middle and end of the 4 excerpts by Gibran.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>sent</th>
<th>conj</th>
<th>trans</th>
<th>endophor</th>
<th>anaphor</th>
<th>cataphor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>begin</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>middle</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.9** which sums the grammatical frequency and cohesive devices at the beginning, middle and end of the excerpts by Gibran show that the most common grammatical cohesive device is conjunction. That is, 27, 23 and 38 conjunctions
respectively. Hawi (1963) also mentioned the fact that Gibran used the conjunction and quite often which signals explicit temporal sequence. When and is not used as is the case sometimes in Hemingway, the relations between all kinds of propositions are frequently left implicit which involves the reader more closely in the text (Hatim and Mason 1990). No transitions are used except for one in the middle excerpt of Gibran's latest book The Garden of the Prophet.

Table 4.10: Lexical, cohesive and frequency devices at the beginning, middle and end of the 4 excerpts by Gibran.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>sent</th>
<th>repet</th>
<th>synon</th>
<th>near-synon</th>
<th>anton</th>
<th>hypon</th>
<th>meron</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>begin</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>middle</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.10 sums the lexical, cohesive and frequency devices at the beginning, middle and end excerpts by Gibran. The table displays that Gibran's most common lexical device at the beginning, middle and end of the 4 excerpts is simple repetition. (Simple repetition is also the lexical device that Hemingway used most.) These repetitions act as a hammer on the reader's mind. When words are repeated, they carry different meanings within the context of repetition which carries along accumulation of significance (Hoey 1991). The following is an example taken from On Work (middle excerpt) by Gibran.

You have been told also that life is darkness,  
and in your weariness you echo what was said by the weary.
And I say that life is indeed darkness  
save when there is urge.
And all urge is blind save when there is knowledge,  
And all knowledge is vain save when there is work,  
And all work is empty save when there is love;

One notices also that Gibran uses complex lexical repetition such as weariness and weary. The different grammatical function of these two words include semantically, the doer as well as the concept. That is, weariness and the weary. Further, the other words, with the exception of said say, are simple repetition, that is,
darkness/darkness; urge/urge; knowledge/knowledge; save/save; and work/work. Although simple repetition is mostly used, their place in the sentence is different. At one time, it is in a final position and at another time it is medial. When simple repetition is repeated, it alters the meaning of words (Hoey 1991), and their different positions in the sentences also affects meaning (Rimmon-Kenan 1980). One may also add that punctuation is another feature that emphasizes or deemphasizes the meaning of those words.

Next to repetition, Gibran used antonyms: 9, 1, 7 respectively (table 4.10). Perhaps the topic and genre Gibran used lend themselves to antonyms rather than other lexical devices. Gibran used mostly epigrams in his book The Prophet (Hawi 1963). This may be the reason for the difference in the number of sentences in 10 lines between Gibran and Heminway. Furthermore, the use of antonyms is due to the frequent use of antithetical statements (Hawi 1963). In fact, this is what Gibran used in the extracts selected for the study.

**Table 4.11: Lexical density at the beginning, middle and end of the 4 excerpts by Gibran.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excerpts</th>
<th>lexical dens. (begin.)</th>
<th>(middle)</th>
<th>(end)</th>
<th>average per story</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>On R.&amp;Pas.</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>3.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On Work</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Madman</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Garden of the Prophet</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.9</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.8</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.2</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.11 shows that the lexical density at the beginning of the 4 excerpts by Gibran is rather consistent, with the exception of the selection On Reason and Passion. The lexical density in On Reason and Passion is high at the end (i.e. 4.36), whereas the other excerpts taken from The Madman and The Garden of the Prophet are rather consistent. Then comes the lexical density in the middle excerpt of On Work. Learners found difficulty in comprehending the excerpt from On Work.
Perhaps the high lexical density is one of the factors that explains the students' difficulty in this section.

**Table 4.12: Vocabulary density** at the beginning, middle and end of the 4 excerpts by Gibran.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excerpts</th>
<th>Vocab. density begin.</th>
<th>(middle)</th>
<th>(end)</th>
<th>Average per story</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>On R&amp;Pas.</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On Work</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Madman</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Garden of the Prophet</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>.3</strong></td>
<td><strong>.35</strong></td>
<td><strong>.72</strong></td>
<td><strong>.51</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.12 reveals that the vocabulary density of *On Reason and Passion* is the highest at the beginning and end of the selections. That is, not many new words appear in this selection. Further, the difference in vocabulary density among the excerpts from different books by Gibran is less than 1 point in all the selections. This might reconfirm the difficulty that learners found in Gibran’s excerpts. However, here comes the role of the teacher who has to facilitate the task of the learners.

**Table 4.13:** Cobuild Frequency Count (in a corpus of 110 million words, 1994) of the vocabulary list of the stories by Gibran used in the treatment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency Order</th>
<th>On Reason and Passion</th>
<th>On Work</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>seafaring</td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peacemaker</td>
<td>116</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>confining</td>
<td>172</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unattended</td>
<td>188</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>priestess</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nay</td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poplars</td>
<td>250</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>discord</td>
<td>262</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mindful</td>
<td>337</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>serenity</td>
<td>338</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rudder</td>
<td>447</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inmost</td>
<td>52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>naught</td>
<td>268</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>weariness</td>
<td>247</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>furthest</td>
<td>310</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unison</td>
<td>556</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whispering</td>
<td>565</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affliction</td>
<td>588</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>misfortune</td>
<td>650</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>curse</td>
<td>901</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>infinite</td>
<td>1020</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>idle</td>
<td>1097</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dumb</td>
<td>1155</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>procession</td>
<td>1177</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>weary</td>
<td>1327</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>echo</td>
<td>1474</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brow</td>
<td>2062</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.13 shows the frequency of the target items in the Gibran texts in the Cobuild corpus (1994). It reveals that lexical items selected from *On Reason and Passion* do not go below a frequency count of 82 (seafaring), whereas those selected from *On Work's* have 52 (*inmost*) as the lowest. If one compares Hemingway’s lowest frequency count, one observes that the count 0 corresponds to the word, *oarlock*, let alone the fact that several words have a frequency count less than the lowest in Gibran i.e. 52 *inmost*. And yet some learners complained about the difficulty of Gibran’s selections. This may prove that frequency count is not a major factor to take into account, for high or low frequency count may be a relative matter.

Apart from the factors of text considered above, these are further factors which might influence text intelligibility. Intelligibility of a text depends, among other aspects, on a function of situation and group membership (Perren and Trim 1971; Stubbs 1996). Perhaps then one may conclude that ultimately frequency count is only one factor among others that could influence comprehension and readability. What might be more important is the familiarity of the reader with the topic. In this study, as revealed in the results of the Attitudinal Questionnaire, learners in Group A’ did not seem to like philosophical issues as they seemed to enjoy the texts in the syllabus, (table 6.11), whereas Group B’ enjoyed philosophical issues. One might also add that schemata is an important factor in comprehension (Carrell 1983), and comprehension is mainly in the reader’s mind since the text might be comprehended by some and not comprehended by others (Coulthard 1994).
Table 4.14 shows that the total average percentage of the subordinates at the beginning of the 4 extracts by Gibran is 30.5%. The total average percentage of the subordinates in the middle 4 extracts is 11.4% and 30.4% at the end of the 4 extracts.

Both beginning of extracts used in the treatment start with marked themes. In On Reason and Passion, 3 sentences start with conjunctions and the fourth starts with a modal, Would. Again 2 sentences On Work start with a conjunction, the 3rd starts with then and the 4th starts with when. On the other hand, only 1 sentence, taken from the beginning of The Madman, starts with a marked theme which is and, and 3 sentences from The Garden of the Prophet have the conjunction and as a marked theme.

The middle extract taken from On Work, which is used in the treatment, has 1 sentence with and as a marked theme at the beginning of the sentence, whereas many marked themes occur within the sentences. Sentences 2, 3 and 4 marked themes, within the sentence, use the words, even as if, an archaic expression which is another factor that makes comprehension slightly more difficult. The two extracts from The Madman and The Garden of the Prophet start mostly with marked themes that are conjunctions, at the exception of sentence 5 in the latter text whose marked theme is a transition, Therefore.
The 2 extracts taken from *On Reason and Passion* and *On Work*, which are part of the treatment, have mostly marked themes at the beginning of the sentences, and sometimes marked themes within the sentences. Again most of the marked themes at the beginning of the sentences use conjunctions and in particular, the conjunction *and*.

There are more selections with marked themes in Gibran's at the beginning of the sentences and within the sentences of *On Reason and Passion* than in the equivalent part of *On Work*. (No middle selection from *On Reason and Passion* was analysed because the text is short.) There are also more marked themes in the end extract of *On Reason and Passion* than in the end excerpt of *On Work*.

The 2 extracts selected from *The Madman* and *The Garden of the Prophet*, have mostly marked themes at the beginning of the sentences, and the conjunction *and* is mostly used. Gibran seems to use the conjunction *and* frequently. Perhaps one can conclude that it is a key word in his work as it is in Hemingway’s, marking what the author wishes to emphasise, and rendering the relationship among propositions explicit (Hatim and Mason 1990).

For example: *And as his ship approached the harbour... And he spoke and the sea was in his voice*

The Patterns of Lexis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stories</th>
<th>No. of sentences</th>
<th>No. of links</th>
<th>No. of bonds</th>
<th>ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(begin, middle, end)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>On R. &amp; P.</em></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>On Work</em></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Repetition</th>
<th>syn.</th>
<th>cr</th>
<th>spp</th>
<th>sr</th>
<th>cp</th>
<th>anto</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>On R &amp; P.</em></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>On Work</em></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NB Only the beginning and end of *On Reason and Passion* were analysed for this text was too short.
The study of the patterns of lexis in the 2 study texts by Gibran, analysed according to the model of lexical repetition (Hoey 1991), revealed that both have numerous links and bonds and the ratio of bonds to links is relatively high (table 4.14'). Further, the links are all adjacent in the beginning of *On Reason and Passion* and almost the same applies to the end part. *On Work* has adjacent and nonadjacent links, but most of them are adjacent (see Appendix 8).

In sum, the study of the linguistic characteristics of the texts revealed that Gibran as Hemingway used mostly simple repetition, synonyms in order of frequency. However, Gibran used more antonyms. This might be due to the epigrams and aphorisms he used in the texts selected from *The Prophet*. Further, the patterns of lexis revealed that links, bonds and the ratio of bonds to links are respectively numerous and high. Again, it is assumed that the study of the texts, which has these linguistic characteristics and the patterns of lexis of the study-reading texts will have an implicit effect on essay performance. Clearly, not every linguistic feature of the target text could be studied in the classroom. Therefore, inevitably, some features are selected for study and others are left apparently to have an implicit effect.

4.3.3 Comparison Between the Texts

Table 4.15 charts the similarities and differences in the analysis of the style of both authors, Gibran and Hemingway, chosen as a sample to teach participants essay performance. A number of general points can be concluded as listed below.
**Table 4.15** Comparative lexical, grammatical and syntax devices in the excerpts of Gibran and Hemingway

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Average of sentences in 30 lines</th>
<th>Use of grammatical cohesive devices</th>
<th>Use of lexical cohesive devices</th>
<th>Lexis below 1000 frequency count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gibran = 4.7</td>
<td>G &amp; H = conjunctions</td>
<td>G &amp; H = synonyms</td>
<td>G = 27 out of 51 (53%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hemingway = 11</td>
<td>G &amp; H = cataphoric devices</td>
<td>H = near synonyms</td>
<td>H = 23 out of 54 (43%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>G = 1 transition</td>
<td>G = antonyms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average of lexical density</th>
<th>Average of vocabulary density</th>
<th>Average in % of subordinate sentences</th>
<th>Marked themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gibran = 3.0</td>
<td>G = .51</td>
<td>G = conjunctions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hemingway = 3.1</td>
<td>H = .74</td>
<td>H = dates, places, subordinators &amp; conj.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Average of</th>
<th>Pattern of Lexis</th>
<th>Average of</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bonds</td>
<td>syn</td>
<td>cr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gibran</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hemingway</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: G = Gibran  H = Hemingway

- Hemingway's average number of sentences in 30 lines in all 5 extracts is 11 versus Gibran's average, 4.7 (table 4.15).
- Both authors, Hemingway and Gibran, use conjunctions mostly as a grammatical cohesive device. In addition, as a second grammatical cohesive device, both authors use cataphoric devices, but they differ in the total number of this device. That is, Hemingway's total use of cataphoric devices is 191, whereas Gibran's total cataphoric devices is 88 (tables 4.2 & 4.9).
- Both authors do not use transitions except for once whereby Gibran used *therefore* in The Garden of The Prophet.
- Both authors use mostly synonyms as a lexical cohesive device, but Hemingway uses also near-synonyms, whereas Gibran favours antonyms. Perhaps this is due to the style of Gibran who uses parables in The Prophet as well as epigrams and aphorisms in the two other studied works. This style lends itself to the use of antonyms rather than other lexical devices (tables 4.3 & 4.10).
• There is little difference in the lexical density of the selections of both authors. The total average of lexical density in Gibran's studied work is 3.0 and Hemingway's total average lexical density is 3.1 (table 4.15). (There is too little text to yield a meaningful measure of lexical density, but the decision to limit text samples to chunks of ten lines was taken for other reasons as mentioned earlier.)

• There is a difference in the total average vocabulary density of the work by Gibran and Hemingway. Gibran's average of density in vocabulary is .51, but Hemingway's is .74 (table 4.15). Perhaps this is one of the reasons that made Gibran's texts more difficult to some students.

• There is a lower frequency count in the vocabulary selected from the texts by Gibran than the vocabulary selected from the texts by Hemingway (53% is below 1,000 frequency count in Gibran, while 43% is below in Hemingway in table 4.15).

• The average percentage of the subordinates in the 5 extracts by Hemingway is 20%, whereas 24% is the average percentage of the subordinates in the 4 extracts by Gibran (table 4.15). Although Gibran's sentences include more subordinate clauses, this is just one of the features in the style of a writer that makes it a complex task.

• The marked themes in the selections of the two authors differ in quantity and quality. Hemingway marks his themes with conjunctions, dates, places and reverse order of subordinate clauses, yet Gibran marks his themes mostly with conjunctions at the beginning of the sentences.

• The study of the patterns of lexis in Hemingway’s sample texts given to students have more links and bonds, but this author has a lower ratio of bonds to links than Gibran’s sample texts. The types of repetitions used mostly by both authors are simple repetition and synonyms (table 4.15). This reconfirms the findings of lexical, cohesive and frequency devices in the sample texts.

• Finally, both authors believe in concision and the right word in the right place. Both tend to limit their use of adjectives, and the range of their structures. Kane and Peters (1986); Carter (in Carter 1988) make similar points about
Hemingway's limited use of adjectives and sentence structure. In spite of the above similarities and differences, the researcher believes that Gibran's extracts seem slightly more difficult to comprehend because of the theme selected from *The Prophet* that is tackled philosophically and written in parables.

### 4.4 Procedures

The procedures for this study involve: first, Pretests, second, a series of treatments and third, Midtests and Posttests. The treatment was organised, as explained earlier, according to the counterbalancing design, i.e. both groups received treatment but in a different order. The three stages of this procedure is described below.

- **Administering the Vocabulary Pretests**
  The two classes, Group A and Group B, that the researcher taught, were given two of the Pretests in the first class hour: the General Vocabulary Test to test the vocabulary of university entrants (Appendix 3) and the Gibran and Hemingway Vocabulary Test to test the vocabulary that was to be taught (Appendix 4). Students were given the directions for the tests orally to ensure that they understood what was asked from them. Explaining rather than reading the directions help to establish rapport with a new teacher. Learners were told the purpose of the test: vocabulary was going to be part of teaching and that it was necessary to measure the learners' knowledge before any teaching was implemented. Twenty five minutes approximately were allowed. The same procedure was followed with Gibran and Hemingway Vocabulary Pretest and the same time was allotted. It was made clear that the tests were just diagnostic tests (i.e. not graded).

- **Administering the Sentence-Combining Pretests**
  The same time was allotted to administer both Sentence-combining Pretests. The General Sentence-combining Pretest was first given, and students were again reassured that the tests were not graded (Appendices 1 & 2). Ten minutes were
taken from the break session between courses to administer the Background Information Questionnaire, and they were, finally, promised no more Pretests.

Giving the same tests three times (i.e. Pretests, Midtests and Posttests) might affect students' responses from their memory of previous tests, besides the fact that experiencing so many tests may be boring and cumbersome, it was, nevertheless, decided to administer them. The memory effect, if present, is not likely to be great since students were not given feedback after the first or second administration of the test although they asked for feedback. Thus any memory of details of the test is not so much for correct answers as for previously given answers (which may or may not be correct) or for the general format and perhaps some individual items of the test. The latter can be considered a minimal influence since most students are unlikely to have looked up the answers (e.g. locating meaning in a dictionary). After all, they were not told that they would be retested and, conventionally, students do not expect the same test to be given to them again.

- Administering the Essay Pretest

The Essay Pretest was not viewed by students as a test, although it was graded, since they knew that writing is a major requirement of this course. The topic of the essay was: *State some of the causes and effects of electricity shortages, in Lebanon, in the last few months.* This topic was selected because of the normal condition in which learners were living. The genre or method of development used, i.e. cause/effect, is one of the expository type of essays required of students at LAU as well as in universities in the USA (Gray and Ruth 1982; Hottel-Burkhart cited in Scarcella, 1984; Raimes 1985; Kroll 1994; Grabe and Kaplan 1996).

As the students had come to class fresh from a three month summer vacation, it was thought that they needed readjustment to academic writing. Hence, in following Gray and Putts (1982) steps, 10 minutes were allotted to the discussion of the causes/effects of electricity shortages, and to the genre, despite the fact that similar writing procedures had been taught in a prerequisite course (Freshman English II).
previous occasion learners were reminded of the importance of the Thesis Statement in the introduction i.e. the sentence that states the topic and lists the subtopics or controlling ideas that will be discussed in the body of the essay.

Subjects were also briefed and reminded about the importance of the topic sentence at the beginning of each paragraph of the body. By topic sentence is meant a sentence, usually the first sentence in the paragraph, which briefly indicates what the paragraph is about (Oshima and Hogue 1991). One could relate the concept of topic sentence to thematic progression, hierarchic organization, rhetorical purpose of the text and to topic opening (Hatim and Mason 1990; Hoey 1991). Topic support is an important factor of coherent essays (Witte and Faigley 1981; Conner and Farmer 1985; Grabe and Kaplan 1996). For example, Gold, a precious metal, is prized for two important characteristics (Oshima & Hogue 1991, p.16). Lack of competence in writing in English resulted more from a lack of composing competence (Raimes 1985). Raimes (1985) presents the following set of schemes to support a thesis: facts, illustrations, chronological and spatial sequences and comparison or contrast. Oshima and Hogue (1991) use almost the same set of schemes.

Vocabulary items pertaining to the causes and effects of electricity and likely to be used were discussed and written on the blackboard (Those vocabulary items are not related to any of the two Vocabulary Posttests see Appendix 7). Also, learners were reminded of the meaning and use of transitions such as furthermore, however, which would affect cohesion in their writing. Students were also asked not to write more than two pages of a standard composition booklet that was given to them to allow them enough time to process their ideas from one language to another (Lay 1982) although learners might not be aware of this factor. Greater length may simply mean that learners are padding the essay unnecessarily (Cornen 1994).
4.4.1 Administering the Texts

- Vocabulary

After administering the 5 Pretests and the Background Information Questionnaire, the treatment was started in the following sequence:

The number of words tested varied in the three vocabulary tests given. This depended on the complexity of the readings, which was tested according to Halliday & Hasan (1989), Nation's (1990) and Hoey's (1991) procedures.

The method of vocabulary testing depended on collocation (Appendices 5 & 6). Collocation is tested by word matching, and the writing of these matched words in sentences. The phrases used in collocation are taken from the text read and practised in class previously through cloze exercises. The latter step (writing sentences) is used to test the learners' proper usage of words, for writing words in sentences help learners' retention. Collocation exercises have the advantage of directing the attention of the learners to a larger structure of the discourse (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Sinclair 1991; Stubbs 1996).

Twenty minutes were allotted for testing the subjects on the selected vocabulary from each of the following texts: Hills Like White Elephants, Indian Camp, On Reason and Passion and On Work. Again, time allocated varied in the three tests depending on the number of words tested. None took more than 40 minutes, and while the focus of the study was essay writing, writing sentences correctly, and using vocabulary accurately are some of the basic features of essay writing. Moreover, using words in sentences is the last step in vocabulary teaching for it involves the use of words in their ultimate context i.e. writing appropriate production is the purpose of vocabulary teaching (Robinson 1980; Scheifer 1985; McCarthy 1991, Nation in Jacobs 1997). Subjects were encouraged to use their sentences in the context of the story. The objective of this procedure was to facilitate essay writing which was an outcome of the text. However, other meaningful contexts were accepted.
Vocabulary tests were scored one point for each correct sentence. The number of sentences amounted to the number of words. However, the score was converted to percentage in the vocabulary and sentence-combining tests.

Correction was given importance in every step carried out in the experiment. When subjects were given back their vocabulary tests, they were asked, on a voluntary basis, to read their correct sentences, for this does not cause embarrassment and learners, sometimes, understand each other's explanation better. Those who did not use lexical items in proper sentences could ask the reason for their incorrect usage. This facilitates, as much as possible, the students understanding of their mistakes and hopefully reduce mistakes in the future. Furthermore, correction is mainly helpful in dealing with problems of grammar (Chaudron 1988; Silva in Kroll 1994). Since neither vocabulary nor sentence-combining has been given to the control group, there is not much to be said in this respect. Nevertheless, the correction of the essays of the control group followed the same procedure than the experimental group. That is, correction preceded any new essay and after giving back the essays. A sample of learner's good essay was typed and distributed to students to compare with a low marked one. Learners were also asked to correct a sample of fragment and run on sentences which were taken from the students' essays.

Both groups, Experimental and Control, were shown the results of their essays so as to control any halo effect. Learners were also made aware of the objectives of the treatment. The control group was told that the teaching procedure will be different after the writing of the third essay. This was said, after the results of the first essay, when the dissatisfaction of the students in the control group was evident. Bright students spontaneous transfer of knowledge could take place when learners are made aware of the objectives (Brown et al. 1981; Van Lier 1996). Arguably, this also risks the Hawthorne effect: knowing the purpose of the treatment students may make a special effort to make their work conform accordingly. This would, then, risk an extra effect, outside the normal teaching situation. Yet this effect is the
same for both groups, at different times, in the Counterbalancing Experiment, and might therefore be taken as being evened out.

• Sentence-combining Testing
Students were asked to join each cluster of sentences according to the directions next to it (Appendices 5 & 8). In the three sentence-combining tests administered, a different number of sentences was given, depending on the length and complexity of the reading text from which the sentences were drawn. The time assigned to the tests depended on the number of sentences that subjects had to combine. Again the total time did not exceed 40 minutes, and the following scoring procedures were adopted:

One point was given to each sentence combined correctly i.e. combined according to the directions given. Subjects were asked to delete unnecessary words that result from the process of combining sentences. Any major deletion, omitted and affecting the sentence grammatically, lowered by 0.5 the grade of the subject. For example,

Join with a (conjunction)  

The girl looked at the bead curtain.  
She put her hand out.  
She took hold of two of the strings of beads.

Correct:  
The girl looked at the bead curtain, put her hand out and took hold of two of the strings of beads.

Partly correct:  
The girl looked at the bead curtain, put her hand out, and she took hold of two of the strings of beads.  
(This sentence lacks parallel structure. The pronoun, she, should be omitted.)

• Testing Essay Writing
Besides the prewriting activity or subskills which consisted of vocabulary and sentence-combining, the approach used in teaching writing was based on the strategy of read, analyse and write (Richards 1990).

On the day assigned for the essay, the following topic was written on the blackboard: In a well developed essay, illustrate whether the couple in Hills Like
White Elephants is going to separate or not. Give supporting ideas from the reading and use the vocabulary that you have learned. Awareness and instructions concerning essay writing such as compare/contrast, illustrate are key terms that indicate the form, content and strategies of the assignment (Jordan 1984; Carter in Lauren and Nordman 1984; Horowitz 1986; Van Lier 1996). Subjects were reminded of Gibran and Hemingway's style i.e. short and progressive sentences (figure 3.3). Although the sentence-combining activities produced compound, complex and compound-complex sentences, this activity did not contrast with Hemingway's and Gibran's style. Both authors' styles are simple, yet they both used some compound sentences and a few complex ones. Christensen (1968) disagrees with the popular notion that long sentences make a skilful writer. Long sentences are more difficult to read and write, she argues. However, this does not mean that the validity of using complex sentences is undermined. Complex sentences are mostly needed to express some complex thoughts.

Forty to 50 minutes were allotted to students to write the essay. This limit was imposed by the length of normal class hours at LAU. The experiment consisted of three essays to write besides the Pretest and Posttest Essays. Each essay was developed in a different mode. The genre of development of the first essay was argumentation. The second essay was developed through cause/effect, and the third through comparison/contrast. The last type of essay writing was viewed above average on the complexity dimension in a survey carried out by TOEFL (Bridgeman and Carlson 1983). Cause/effect and comparison/contrast are two of the three basic methods used in writing essays at LAU (the third being illustration and/or argumentation).

The following sequence of modes: argumentation, causes and comparison/contrast, fit the nature of Gibran and Hemingway respectively. Argumentation fits Hills Like White Elephants in which learners have to argue (and support their view) as to whether the girl is going to abort and separate from the American. Indian Camp lend itself to causes, and learners have to state the reasons (and support their view) that led Uncle Georges to stay in the camp. On Reason and Passion and On
Work, by Gibran, were used for comparison and contrast. As the researcher was choosing the vocabulary to be learned, these topics were one of the reasons (the others being stated previously) that led the choice.

The content of the essay was the result of the reading, analysis and discussion in class of Hills Like White Elephants. Writing requires a good deal of thinking before the simplest arrangement occurs (Murray 1968). Moreover, this topic was the first one in the treatment because the discussion created high motivation in a pilot study. So, it was assumed that such motivation would elicit better writing. Some topics produced better writing than others (Freedman 1983; Reid in Kroll 1994; Van Lier 1996). Writers do not specify which produces better writing. In that particular case, it was rather the topic not the genre. Motivation is one of the multidimensional construct, taking into account that students have the same equal writing ability.

Students were forbidden to write more than two pages, for the researcher noticed and it had been generally observed how learners view writing: more writing is better writing (Fan in Biggs and Watkins 1993). This rule forces them to focus on the quality rather than the quantity, and it makes the learners respect time limits (Marton et al. 1984; Cornen 1994). Compositions for intermediate performers ranged in length from 270-280 words (Kroll in Kroll 1994). In addition, learners were asked to use the vocabulary learned previously. Words learned previously and used in the context of an essay reinforces learning and assures their proper use (Laufer and Nation 1995; Engber 1995; Coady in Coady and Huckin 1997), specially as learners' vocabulary begins to increase, their sentences contain misused content words (Brown 1974). Of course, the meaning of the words used is assumed to match the context of the essay.

Correction of the essay was given time and importance, and it was done on two bases: content and form. First, a handout with diagrams representing the causes of
run-on sentences and fragments was distributed to the subjects with a sample of the learners' mistakes. Learners were then asked to label their mistakes and correct them in pairs. Sentences that were not fragments nor run-ons were labelled sentence-structure (SS). Hence, the major mistakes that subjects were asked to avoid were made clear although all the above types of mistakes had been highlighted in the prerequisite English II (This was the part related to form (i.e. grammar).

Furthermore, a statement with no supporting idea was typed and learners were asked about possible ways of sustaining it. Supporting ideas help in building cohesion in a text (Witte and Faigley 1981; McCarthy 1991; Oshima and Hogue 1991, Stubbs 1996). Next, a wrong Thesis Statement was typed and learners were asked to find the reason for the flaw. The teacher typed the essay of a good student and handed it to subjects for analysis. In addition, clutter words such as many illustrating ideas were typed and learners were asked to replace the phrase by an appropriate one i.e. many illustrations. This part was related to content. Writing that was revised on the bases of form and content contained 50% fewer errors in the rewrite (Morgan in Biggs and Watkins 1993; Silva in Kroll 1994). In fact, the Attitudinal Questionnaire (Chapter 6) reconfirmed the importance of rewriting.

4.4.2 Teaching Procedures

- Vocabulary

Vocabulary is a major component of writing for it is hard to conceive how anyone can express complicated thoughts without a command of the relevant lexical items (Kirkman 1967; Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Carter and Long 1991; Hatch and Brown 1996). Students were asked to underline the words to be learned in the reading text as a first step in vocabulary teaching. Using visual, oral and tactile approaches help learning since individuals acquire knowledge differently, taking into account that L2 learners often have limited memory for the target language and they need varying strategies to process the information (McLaughlin et al. 1983; Meara in Brown et al. 1996; Carter 1998; McDonough 1999; Jiang 2000). Learners were given a list of the words to be learned, and their meaning. Listed
words with synonyms had better results on learning from context (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Sinclair 1991). However, as words have a variety of meanings and the use of each is learned as one sees it in contexts, both ways i.e. underlining the words in context and making a list of them were used in the vocabulary teaching. Words were written with a suitable definition taken from the dictionary by the researcher. Rarely was Arabic translation used in the classroom. Sometimes miming was used.

Part of another class session was spent reviewing the vocabulary orally and writing the words on the blackboard. The researcher would briefly narrate the story and stop at words to be memorised. Furthermore, subjects were advised to remember target lexical items according to their sequences in the story. This mnemonic way of recalling was assumed to help word production. Then a cloze exercise was given to learners as a means of producing the learned words, before they were tested. The students were told that the test would require matching words and the writing of these words in sentences (Appendices 5 & 6).

Fifteen minutes approximately, were assigned to students to discuss in groups as to whether in their prediction the main character in the story was going to abort and whether the couple would separate or not. It was highly likely that students would use the target items in this discussion. Discussion was used as part of vocabulary learning for speaking precedes writing.

A cloze exercise taken and adapted from the literature of Hemingway and Gibran followed the discussion (Appendices 5 & 6). This classwork was done in pairs, and it included most of the vocabulary words given. Use of a cloze test is held to be one of the effective exercises in vocabulary learning (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Sinclair 1991; Talif 1995). In this study, a cloze test has been used as a learning procedure rather than production, for the researcher observed that a cloze test setting induces recalling, whereas in an authentic situation producing a word does not necessarily have an explicit context that helps its recalling (see Classroom Analyses, Chapter 5). Carter (1998) reconfirmed the researcher’s observation.
Sentence-combining

Besides vocabulary teaching, Sentence-combining was the second subskill taught to learners as a step towards achieving essay writing. English departments perceive sentence structure and appropriateness of vocabulary usage as being among the more serious nonnatives' problems (Bridgeman and Carlson 1983; Engber 1995; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Nation in Jacobs 1997).

The same directions given in the Pretests of the sentence-combining were used in the 3 sentence-combining tests. Moreover, all sentences were selected from the readings studied previously, but the cluster was not necessarily the same. This has the advantage of having students encountering the vocabulary beforehand (though here the focus is on sentence-combining). If they have read similar sentences or clauses to those used in the sentence-combining, they are not required to reproduce them but, if anything, to recombine (known) elements.

Often and particularly with sentences that were adapted from texts by Hemingway, students were asked to compare their sentences with Hemingway's sentences. They were also asked to find out which was better and why, using criteria listed by Kane and Peters (1986); Oshima and Hogue (1991). The best way to understand a text is to change or transform its sentences (Strong 1994; Pope 1995). In fact, transforming sentences, as seen in the Classroom Analysis, has made learners aware of the rhetorical aspects of sentences, the awareness of change in meaning if sentences are connected when in the text they are not, and the implicit or explicit meaning that some cohesive devices add to the sentences (Hatim and Mason 1990). This judgement of what is better depends crucially on the context, co-text and on limited-audience relations.

Essay Writing

After the 2 subskills were practised and tested as prerequisite to essay performance, the essay was given to the participants. Further, subjects were required to correct the mistakes of their essays in the composition booklet and show the teacher the correction. To help learners correct their mistakes, the teacher told them to think
out loud what they wanted to say. Murray (1968), Emig (1971), Moreberg (1978), Faigley (1979) advise their students to follow this procedure. If the correction was done properly, students had additional grades, which were not part of the treatment. This type of correction was undertaken with students who had a grade below 70%. Those who had above 70% were asked to correct their mistakes at home, show the correction during the teacher/learner tutorial, and they were then given the correction period off. Those who had a failing grade (i.e. below 60%) were asked to correct some fragments and run-ons and show the teacher the correction, before rewriting the essay in class.

4.4.3 Midtests and Posttests
Three midtests, General Vocabulary, General Sentence-combining and the Third Essay were administered to both experimental and control group to test whether there is any significant difference after the treatment was given to the experimental group. Further, five Posttests, which are the same as the Pretests, were given to both experimental and control group to see whether there is any significant difference between those groups in the counterbalancing design.
CHAPTER FIVE: INITIAL ANALYSIS

This chapter discusses 2 varieties of measures to monitor the Counterbalancing Experiment: A Background Information Questionnaire and the criteria for the analysis of the classroom transcript of 5 treatment sessions.

1. The Background Information Questionnaire attempts to control variables in an authentic classroom situation (5.2-5.3).

2. The Classroom Transcript Analysis is one of the qualitative aspect of the triangular technique which includes a focus on 5 different classroom activities:
   5.4.2 vocabulary analysis
   5.4.3 vocabulary revision
   5.4.4 vocabulary correction
   5.4.5 sentence-combining
   5.4.6 reading comprehension

5.1 The Subjects
The Background Information Questionnaire was given to subjects at the beginning of the academic year, the information obtained was as follows:

- Subjects in Group A and B
The size of the experimental Group A and B in the Counterbalancing Experiment (figure 4.1) is 25 subjects in each group. There are 11 males and 14 females in Group A, and 7 males and 18 females in Group B. That is, students are in their normal classes for the duration of the project, and these happened to be the gender balances in the particular classes used in the project.

In Group A, the average age of the males is 19.5 and that of the females is 19.3, whereas in Group B the average age of the males is 20.3 and that of the females is 19.3 years. The majority of the male subjects in Group A are Lebanese with the exception of 1 Jordanian. 12 females are Lebanese, 1 is Syrian and 1 Italian.
In Group B, the majority of the learners are Lebanese with the exception of 1 Syrian and 1 German male; 1 female is Syrian, 2 Jordanian and 1 Italian. Group B has 1 more learner of a different nationality than learners in Group A, but in general the spread of ages and nationalities is broadly similar in both groups. They are also quite representative in this respect of LAU classes at this level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Grp. A</strong></th>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Grp. B</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parent's Education</strong></td>
<td><strong>Fathers</strong></td>
<td><strong>Mothers</strong></td>
<td><strong>Fathers</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Univ. Level</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary. Lev.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elem. level</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The educational background of the subjects in Group A and B is shown in table 5.1. As a general rule parents who have reached university level wish their children to have the same intellectual status, which is looked upon as prestigious in Lebanon. This may explain the relatively higher proportion of university educated parents. It seems that the educational background of both Group A and B is again broadly similar.

At the Entrance Exam, some subjects in Group A sat for the EEE (English Entrance Exam) and some sat for the TOEFL. The average male EEE score, is 527, while the females' average is 546. The average TOEFL score of the male subjects is 522 as opposed to the female average score that is 563.6. In Group B, the average male EEE score is 512.6 versus 551.8 of the females, whereas the males scored an average of 537 on the TOEFL versus the female score of 568.2. Females in both Group A and B seem to be at an advantage in relation to the basic English language requirements.
As to the subjects' university level, 3 males and 4 females are freshman; 7 males and 7 females are sophomore; and 1 male and 3 females are junior students in Group A. They are, however, all in the same class for the period of the experiment, and they were all enrolled in this particular class as normal students. This is a common situation at the university when students take such obligatory courses at different times in their university courses. However, the majority of the learners in both Group A and B are in their Sophomore year. In Group B, 3 males and 3 females are Freshman; 2 males and 14 females are Sophomore; and 2 males and 1 female are Junior.

The students' majors in Group A are as follows: 10 male and 6 female students majored in sciences, whereas 1 male and 8 females majored in Arts. The majority of the learners in Group A are in sciences contrary to Group B which has half the students in Arts. In Group B, 6 males majored in sciences and 1 was majorless, whereas 2 females majored in sciences, 4 in social sciences and 12 in Arts. None were English majors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Courses Taken</th>
<th>5511 (5 cr) Grp. A grade</th>
<th>5511 (3 cr) Grp. A grade</th>
<th>5512 Grp. A grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>7 C</td>
<td>5 C</td>
<td>1 D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 D</td>
<td>1 D</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>10 C</td>
<td>12 C</td>
<td>1 C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 B</td>
<td>2 D</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 D</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NB: 1 (F) Ss in Grp. A was exempted, coming from McGill university
1 (M) and 4 (F) Ss in Grp. B were exempted from taking 5511

Table 5.2 shows a further potentially important characteristic of the groups, that is, the grades members received from a prerequisite English course 5511. This will indicate previous assessments in English but it may also indicate the range of general academic ability, though in a tentative way. In Group A the following English courses and
grades had been taken. One female subject was exempted from taking English 5511 since she had studied at McGill University (Canada). The majority of the students, in both Group A and B, males and females, took the 5 credit prerequisite English 5511. This reveals that their writing skill is rather homogeneous, at least to the extent that they have all reached the 5512 level.

Table 5.2 also shows what English courses the subjects in Group A and B had taken. Having 5 students exempted (in Group B) from English 5511 seems to reveal that 20% of these learners have a better English level. However, few students in either group have high grades, the highest are two B grades (both in Group A).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Foreign Language Spoken at Home in Group A and B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Lang. Spoken at Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grp. A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grp. B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A further variable of potential importance is whether students speak languages other than Arabic at home. Table 5.3 shows which other languages are spoken by the two groups. Several subjects speak a foreign language at home in Group A. One male speaks French, while 4 females speak French, 1 Italian and 3 Armenian. All the rest use Arabic at home as is expected in Lebanon. This reflects the general cosmopolitan multilingual nature of the Lebanese society.

In Group B (table 5.3), 1 male speaks German, 3 females speak English, 3 French and 1 speaks Italian. Again, the rest use Arabic at home. It seems from the observation of both Groups if learners know French, they speak it at home. If they know English, this
does not always apply. Perhaps this is due to the fact that Lebanon was under the French mandate up to 1943. The fact that 3 students in Group B apparently speak English at home does not seem to have led to high grades in English courses. In such cases, it seems that speaking English at home by no means guarantees academic writing abilities (this is true of many native speakers).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Very Often</th>
<th>Kinds of Reading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reading English outside the classroom</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group A</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sories and Magazines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group B</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Stories and Magazines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subjects were also asked whether they read English and the type of reading they do outside the classroom since this could potentially be a further influence. Students were asked to rate their frequency of reading English outside the classroom on a 4 point scale, the results of which are shown in Table 5.4. Table 5.4 reveals that most learners in Group B read English outside the classroom at the sometimes scale. Some of this group had spent their school years abroad. Students apparently do not read much outside the classroom. In general, Lebanese are not good readers. Social interaction precedence takes over reading. However, in Group A 7 females said that they sometimes read stories and magazines, and 7 said that they very often read stories and magazines. In both Groups, females seem to read more, but the mean of learners in
both Group A and B is virtually the same, that is, Group A, X = 16.2 and Group B, X = 15.5. (The mean was calculated by giving a value of 1 to 4 to the four scales starting with never = 1).

In sum, the incidental sampling of the experimental Group A and B, undertaking the treatment of the Counterbalancing Experiment, turned out to be fairly homogeneous. Although females scored higher than males in the EEE and TOEFL, this should not be considered as a serious disadvantage for testing writing is not part of these exams. Learners are placed in English 5511 (English II) if they get a passing grade. However, if learners score 600 or above in EEE or the equivalent in TOEFL, they are tested in composition and placed in English 5512 (English III). It seems, therefore, that the writing skill level of the two Groups is as nearly parallel as possible, in the authentic teaching context.

5.2 The Essays

5.2.1 Scoring The Essays
The following holistic criteria, adapted from Writing Academic English by Oshima and Hogue (1991), were used in assessing the essays of the treatment and in the Pretest/Posttest. Holistic scoring reinforces the two activities, reading and writing, and does not enumerate linguistic, rhetorical or informational features of a piece of writing (Cooper and Odell 1977; White 1985). These holistic criteria were adopted by most of the English teachers giving this course and giving the prerequisite English II. Teachers giving English III meet twice per semester to grade anchor essays and discuss their scoring system. This is to moderate the grading system of English courses.

According to the criteria followed, a failing grade, of below 60%, is for work which lacks organisation and proper sentence structure. By organisation is meant the lack of Thesis Statement in the introduction, the lack of Topic Sentence in the paragraphs of the body and the lack of restatement in the conclusion. Furthermore, organisation means the proper and logical sequence of events. These features are

By poor sentence structure is meant fragments, run-on sentences or erroneous grammar in English as a result of using translated sentences from L1. According to Oshima and Hogue (1991), a fragment is defined as an incomplete sentence or parts of sentences. A fragment lacks one of the following four items: 1. It includes a subordinate clause and lacks the independent clause. 2. It lacks a verb. 3. A participial taken for a sentence. 4. The independent clause lacks a verb. By run-on sentence is meant a sentence in which two or more independent clauses are incorrectly joined by a comma without a conjunction or a transition (Oshima and Hogue 1991; Bridgeman and Carlson 1983).

To maintain construct interreliability, two colleagues (the researcher and an instructor) with the same academic background and almost the same number of years of teaching experience, corrected the essays. The name of the learners and the grade of the first marker were covered up during the second correction. Both correctors have masters degrees from the American University of Beirut (AUB).

5.2.2 Criteria for Essay Analysis
Different criteria are presented by different authorities. Wilkinson et al. (1980) suggest the development of logical coherence and syntax as assessment criteria. By logical coherence is meant the use of superordinates and a wide range of adversatives (transitionals). By syntax is meant sentences with few modifiers and compound sentences. There are other means of judging learners' writing. For instance, teachers judge a paper a failure if it contains numerous run-on sentences or spelling errors. However, the most common type of judgement is a grammatical one (Fulkerson 1979). This does not mean that other assessments of judging students' writings are not available. Other criteria include metaphorical form (i.e. features internal to the work of students’ writing).
However, the criteria used in the essay writing of the treatment in this study were based on those listed by Bridgeman and Carlson (1983) and Oshima and Hogue (1991). They focused mainly upon correct use of vocabulary and proper sentence structure (i.e. no run-ons or fragments). In addition, vocabulary and sentence-combining are the two features stressed in the *study-reading* texts of the treatment (see chapters II & III). The following are the criteria used for the essay analysis. They are similar to those used for the texts by Gibran and Hemingway, but some modifications were undertaken to adapt it to the composition of the students. The criteria comprise the following:

1. number of clutter words (i.e. circumlocution).
2. number of correct use of vocabulary.
3. number of correct use of conjunctions.
4. number of correct use of transitionals.
5. number of fragments and run-on sentences.
6. T-unit analysis (number of main and subordinate clauses).
7. theme and rheme (marked theme beginning and within sentences).
8. Patterns of Lexis (discussed in chap. VI).

The number of acquired vocabulary items were measured, but lexical items had to be adjusted to some degree to suit the topic of the compositions. That is, although a specific number of vocabulary items have been taught, learners up to a certain extent, tackle writing differently. This might lead to a different number of vocabulary items in the essay. Furthermore, the vocabulary needed for comprehension, and the teacher’s assumption of the learners’ vocabulary made it difficult to measure accurately the number of vocabulary words that learners have learned. But proper use of lexis versus *clutter words* was taken into account. In addition, by sentence structure is meant correct progressive sentences (figure 3.3).

Although T-units have been calculated, this was a secondary feature. Several authorities, in fact, agree that T-unit is not a reliable measure for measuring learners' syntax. T-unit predicts less than 2% of the variance in holistic scores (Hunt 1965). Also writers of different ages adjust their syntax to suit the rhetorical context (Faigley 1980). Furthermore, the length of T-units reflect verbosity rather than lexical richness (Laufer and Nation 1995), and it is hard to distinguish between main clause and subordinate ones among low proficiency learners.
In sum, learners' essay writing, which will be discussed in this chapter, is analysed according to the criteria comprising lexical and cohesive devices, some aspect of syntax, T-units, theme and rheme and patterns of lexis. These various measures relate holistically to essay performance.

Among the criteria are items used in the essay analysis of the learners relating to the reading texts by Gibran and Hemingway. These items comprise the number of correct vocabulary which avoids circumlocution; the number of correct use of conjunctions and transitions which interrelate form and content; T-units which reveal whether students reduced the number of subordinate clauses as it was suggested to them that good writing does not necessarily need to be complex; theme and rheme which was analysed to see whether learners reduced the use of conjunctions at the beginning of sentences; and finally the patterns of lexis which was studied to see to what extent lexis contributed to the cohesion in essay performance.

It is hoped that the results of these items analysed in the learners' essays, taught explicitly through sentence-combining and vocabulary, and implicitly through the reading of texts by Gibran and Hemingway will show improvement in the students' essays in the 3 treatments.

- Essays in Group A and B'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ESSAYS IN THE COUNTERBALANCING EXPERIMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pretest</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5.1
Group A and Group B' (called so when B became experimental) wrote 250 essays as part of the experiment (figure 5.1). The breakdown of the types of essays written by the two groups is shown in Figure 5.1. Apart from the Pretest and Posttest essays, each group wrote 3 treatment essays, as shown. As an example of typical sampling in studies of essay writing, Witte and Faigley (1981) selected 10 essays out of 90 which were rated holistically by two readers, that is, 11% of the essays were analysed. In the present study the researcher analysed all the essays (i.e. 250) to see whether there is a significant difference between the Experimental and Control groups.

5.2.3 Results
The results will be presented by considering Group A and then Group B'.

Group A had its first essay on the text, *Hills Like White Elephants*. Table 5.5 sums up the results of the different items of the criteria used in the 3 treatments of Group A.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5.5 Summary of Lexical and cohesive devices, Syntax, T-units and other features in the 3 treatments of Group A.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>H.L.W.E.</strong> (25 scorers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical &amp; cohesive devices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clut. wds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of N1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T-units (error free)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>main cl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>287</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The devices in the 3 treatments of Group A and B' were calculated in terms of percentage, for cells in these devices are not all independent. The percentage of clutter words was calculated out of the total number of sentences because circumlocutions could be in both correct and incorrect sentences. However, the percentage of the use of correct conjunctions and transitions was calculated out of the correct sentences because in incorrect sentences it is rather hard to distinguish between correct and incorrect use of transitions and conjunctions. The percentage of the target vocabulary was calculated out of the number of words taught in each treatment. Further, the percentage of syntax was calculated out of the total number of sentences because if it were calculated out of the incorrect sentences, the difference in the result in percentages may increase along treatment 2 and 3 as the number of incorrect sentences decreases, giving the visual impression of an increase in the number of syntactic mistakes. (For example, the difference in the result in percentage of the number of sentence-structure calculated out of the incorrect number of sentences will be (in treatment 1, 2 and 3 of Group A ) respectively 50%, 37% and 53%, whereas the percentage of sentence-structure calculated out of the total number of sentences (Nt1) is respectively 7%, 8% and 2%). Further, incorrect sentences come out of a total number of sentences, and therefore they should be calculated out of the total.
Table 5.5 of Group A shows that in lexical and cohesive devices, percentage of the number of clutter words was equal in the 3 treatments. However, the percentage of learned vocabulary in the 3 treatments was different. The largest number of vocabulary used was in treatment 1 (69%) and the smallest in treatment 3 (29%) (in table 6.24). Perhaps the largest number of vocabulary items used is due to the smallest number of words taught, and learners could easily retain those words. One observes also that treatment 3 had the largest number of vocabulary items taught but the smallest percentage of used target words. This may reconfirm the fact that there is a norm for the number of words to be taught, among other factors to be taken into consideration. Furthermore, one observes that the correct use of conjunctions is the same in treatment 1 and 2 but increased in treatment 3. Use of correct transition words varied slightly between the 3 treatments.

Group A also revealed almost an equal percentage of fragment errors in the 3 treatments. Yet, the number of run on sentences decreased gradually. This is considered an improvement, taking into account that in Arabic, sometimes, commas and fullstops are interchangeable and learners are influenced by L1. (In editing the creative writing of children that was to be published, the researcher worked with an Arabic editor who disagreed with her English academic punctuation.) The number of sentence structure has decreased in treatment 3, regardless of the 1% increase in treatment 2.

The examination of the use of T-units revealed an increase of main clauses in treatment 3 and a decrease of the use of subordinates in relation to treatment 1. The latter is considered an improvement as learners were encouraged to write simple sentences (No further interpretation of T-units was undertaken, for this feature is of secondary focus in this study.) Further, the number of correct sentences used by learners increased in treatment 3 and this increase is significant as shown in the Multivariate Analysis of Essay 3 (p = .018 in table 6.16).

The use of other marked theme was inconsistent, but sentences beginning with the use of conjunctions was the same. The appearance of the continuous use of conjunctions initially (although learners were told not to use them so) might be due to the fact that both authors have used conjunctions in that position (tables 4.3 & 4.10). Yet
results changed when one compares the features analysed in the Pretest/Posttest of Group A.

In sum, it is interesting to observe that the two subskills, sentence-combining and vocabulary, used to improve essay writing improved syntax and the number of correct main clauses if one compares treatment 1 and 3. Yet, other features in the lexical and cohesive devices remained static.

Group B’

Group B’ is the second experimental group which took the treatment. But this group received the treatment after studying the syllabus. The same procedure has been used for the analysis of the essays.

Table 5.6 Summary of Lexical and cohesive devices, Syntax, T-units and other features in the 3 treatments of Group B’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>H.L.W.E.</th>
<th>Indian Camp</th>
<th>On R. &amp; Passion; On Work</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(25 scorers)</td>
<td>(25 scorers)</td>
<td>(25 scorers)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Lexical & cohesive devices**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>H.L.W.E.</th>
<th>Indian Camp</th>
<th>On R. &amp; Passion; On Work</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>clot. wds.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>voc. used</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cor. conj.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cor. trans.</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Syntax**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>H.L.W.E.</th>
<th>Indian Camp</th>
<th>On R. &amp; Passion; On Work</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>frag.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>run-on</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sent. struc.</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**T-units**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>H.L.W.E.</th>
<th>Indian Camp</th>
<th>On R. &amp; Passion; On Work</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>main cl.</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subor.</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noncl. stru.</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage of features:

- **H.L.W.E.**
  - Percentage of Nt1: 3%
  - Percentage of Nt2: 3%
  - Percentage of Nt3: 3%

- **Indian Camp**
  - Percentage of Nt1: 3%
  - Percentage of Nt2: 5%
  - Percentage of Nt3: 13%

- **On R. & Passion; On Work**
  - Percentage of Nt1: 8%
  - Percentage of Nt2: 5%
  - Percentage of Nt3: 4%

**Total number of sentences**

- **H.L.W.E.** (correct ones 323)
- **Indian Camp** (correct ones 384)
- **On R. & Passion; On Work** (correct ones 402)
Kev:
N1, N2, N3: Total number of sentences respectively in *H.L.W.E.*, *Indian Camp* and *On Reason and Passion* and *On Work*.
C1, C2, C3: Correct sentences respectively in *H.L.W.E.*, *Indian Camp* and *On Reason and Passion* and *On Work*.
N: Number of correct raw scores

Table 5.6 sums up the different items of the criteria used in the 3 treatments of Group B'. Lexical and cohesive devices reveal that the percentage of clutter words increased in treatment 2 but decreased by 2% in treatment 3. Again the use of vocabulary learned decreased in treatment 2 and 3. The same happened in Group A. This may reconfirm that there is an implicit norm for the number of words to be successfully taught. In fact, some believe the most daring attempt for vocabulary teaching has not exceeded 100 words per year (Nagy and Herman in Hatch and Brown 1996). The use of correct conjunctions remained rather stable in the 3 treatments, but correct transitions decreased then increased again in treatment 3. It is recalled that the sample texts hardly comprised transitions.

The syntax in Group B' shows that although the number of fragments decreased in treatment 2, it increased by 2% in treatment 3. The number of run-ons increased in treatment 2, but decreased by 4% in the last treatment. The frequency of errors in sentence structure also decreased in treatment 2, but increased by 1% in treatment 3. Nevertheless, the frequency of errors in treatment 3 decreased as compared to treatment 1. The assumption of the researcher, which stems from her teaching experience, is that more advanced learners have more self confidence, and they allow themselves to try out new expressions or to break rules sometimes, which causes syntax mistakes.

The examination of the use of T-units revealed a gradual increase in the percentage of main clauses in the 3 treatments and a gradual decrease of subordinates. Again this is considered an improvement and the same improvement applies to Group A. Results are again consistent with the Multivariate Analysis.
which revealed a significant difference in the essay of treatment 3 of both groups (table 6.16). Other features along the 3 treatments of Group B’, reveal that other marked themes and conjunction beginning sentences are inconsistent.

In sum, the analysis of the criteria items of Group B’ show that the results of the analysis of syntax and the number of correct main clauses are practically the same as in Group A. These items improved if one compares treatment 1 and 3. This may reconfirm that giving attention to sentence-combining and vocabulary, as highlighted in the study, improved essay performance.

Table 5.7 Analysis of lexical and cohesive devices, syntax, T-units and other features in Pretest/Posttest of Group A/A’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pretest Essay</th>
<th>Posttest Essay</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>A’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical &amp; cohesive devices (25 scorers)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clut. wds. voc.used cor. conj. cor.trans.</td>
<td>10 5 out 10</td>
<td>65 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>3% (NLA)</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30% (CA)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16% (CA)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntax</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frag. run-on sent.struct.</td>
<td>18 40 62</td>
<td>15 14 45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of NLT</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12% (NLT')</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19% (NLT')</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T-units (error free)</td>
<td>215 85 35</td>
<td>325 120 90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of NLT</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25% (NLT')</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10% (NLT')</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of sentences 335 (correct ones 215)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Total number of sentences 399 (correct ones 325)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Other features (CA) | Other features (CA’)
---|---
other marked theme conj. begin. sent. | other marked theme conj. begin. sent.
N= 52 | N= 65
24% | 20%
N= 22 | N= 16
10% | 5%

Key:
NtA, NtA’: Total number of sentences in Pretest/Posttest A/ A’
CA, CA’ : Correct number of sentences in Pretest/Posttest A/ A’
N: Number of correct raw scores

- Analysis of Pretest/Posttest Essay of Group A/A’

Table 5.7 compares the features analysed in the Pretest/Posttest Essay of Group A/A’.

The topics of the Pretest and Posttest Essay are as follows respectively:

*State some of the causes and effects of electricity shortage, in Lebanon, in the last few months.*

*State the causes and effects of living in a country with no proper telephone communication.*

- If one compares the essay analyses of the Pretest/Posttest of Group A/A’, one observes that in the use of lexical and cohesive devices, the use of clutter words increased by 1%, and the assumed vocabulary to be used remained stable. Yet there were 2 more vocabulary items to be used in the Posttest, that is, 12 vs 10 words. It is recalled that no vocabulary was taught to learners in the Pretest/Posttest. Learners had to draw on their own knowledge and strategies learned in the study. The general words pertaining to the topics of electricity shortage and improper telephone communication, were assumed to be known and used by learners (Appendix 7). Further, the use of correct conjunctions decreased by 8%, but transitions increased by 9% although very few transitions were part of the sample texts.

- The Pretest/Posttest of Group A/A’ revealed an improvement in syntax. There were fewer number of fragments, run-ons and less sentence-structures in the Posttest.
• The use of T-units revealed that main clauses increased by 17% in the Posttest. Although the use of subordinate clauses increased by 5%, main clauses are much more numerous. Learners seemed to realise that correct sentence writing is progressive (figure 3.3). However, when interpreting such results and that this is a feature which is inherent in the counterbalancing design, it is recalled that the Posttest of Group A was administered 8 weeks after learners had finished their treatment.

• In other features one notices a decrease by 4%, and a decrease by 5% in the use of conjunctions at the beginning of sentences. Finally, learners applied what had been taught to them, regarding not starting with the use of conjunctions.

Summing up the main features in the Pretest/Posttest essay of Group A/A', one may say that the same percentage of vocabulary use may reveal the necessity of teaching vocabulary, one of the subskills used in the essay. The decrease of errors in syntax may also reveal that sentence-combining, the second subskill used in the study, helped in the improvement of essay performance.

• Analysis of Pretest/Posttest Essay of Group B/B'

The features analysed in the Pretest Essays will be compared with those analysed in the Posttest Essay of the same group. The topic of the Pretest/Posttest Essay is the same as the one given to Group A.
Table 5.8 Analysis of lexical and cohesive devices, syntax, T-units and other features in Pretest/Posttest of Group B/B’

**Group B/B’**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Pretest Essay B</strong></th>
<th><strong>Posttest Essay B’</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lexical &amp; cohesive devices (25 scorers)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clut. wds. voc. used cor. conj. cor. trans.</td>
<td>11 5 out 10 117 95</td>
<td>19 6 out 12 136 98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>3% 45% 37%</td>
<td>5% 45% 32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(NtB)</td>
<td>(CB)</td>
<td>(NtB’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(CB)</td>
<td>(CB’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Syntax</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frag. run-on sent. struc.</td>
<td>13 39 28</td>
<td>15 30 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of NtB</td>
<td>4% 11% 8%</td>
<td>4% 8% 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T-units (error free)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>main cl. subor. noncl. stru.</td>
<td>260 125 60</td>
<td>305 80 63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of NtB</td>
<td>76% 37% 18%</td>
<td>78% 21% 16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of sentences</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(correct ones 260)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(correct ones 305)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other features (CB)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other marked than conj. begin. sent.</td>
<td>N= 52 20%</td>
<td>N= 55 18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other features (CB’)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other marked than conj. begin. sent.</td>
<td>N= 13 5%</td>
<td>N= 6 2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: NtB, NtB’: Total number of sentences in Pretest/Posttest B/ B’
CB, CB’: Correct number of sentences in Pretest/Posttest B/ B’
N: Number of correct raw scores
The results of comparing lexical and cohesive devices and other features in the Pretest/Posttest Essay of Group B/B’ are shown in table 5.8.

- There is a 2% increase in the number of clutter words, and the same percentage of the assumed vocabulary to be used. The use of correct conjunctions remained the same, but the use of correct transitions decreased by 5%.

- The syntax of Group B/B’ revealed an equal percentage of the number of fragments, and a 3% decrease in the number of run-on sentences. Again this is an improvement, for the same reason stated in the Pretest/Posttest of Group A/A’.
  There is a 2% increase in the number of sentence-structure of the Posttest Essay.
  (It is recalled that no sentence-combining or vocabulary was taught to learners, but learners had to draw on the strategies taught through the treatment.)

- There is a 2% improvement in the use of main clauses. Group B’ performed significantly better in 3 out of the 5 Pretests, and perhaps this explains the slight improvement.

- There are fewer use of subordinates in the Posttest of learners in Group B’. As stated previously, this 16% decrease in the use of complex sentences is considered an improvement since the writing of authors presented to learners had few complex sentences, and students were told that good writing does not necessarily need to be complex.

- In other features, learners had 2% use of less other marked themes in the Posttest and 3% fewer use of conjunctions at the beginning of sentences. Again as in the Posttest of Group A, learners finally decreased the use of initial conjunctions.

  Summing up the main features in the Pretest/Posttest essay of Group B/B’, one may say that the same result of vocabulary use of Group B’ reconfirms the necessity of teaching vocabulary. And the decrease of syntax error in the Posttest essay of Group B’ may also reconfirm the effect of the study of sentence-combining on essay performance.
## 5.3 Conclusion and Comparison of the Essay Analysis in the Treatment and Pretest/Posttest of Group A and B'

Table 5.9: Results of features analyzed in Essays in the Treatment and Pretest/Posttest of Group A & B'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group A</th>
<th>Group B'</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Treatments</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percentage of lexical &amp; coh. dev.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>clut wds. voc. used cor. conj. cor. trans.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3% 69% 61% 20%</td>
<td>2% 62% 46% 19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3% 32% 61% 23%</td>
<td>5% 32% 42% 13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3% 29% 66% 19%</td>
<td>3% 24% 46% 17%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Percentage of Syntax (NtA)** |                  |                  |
| frag run-on sent. struct.     |                  |                  |
| 1                              | 1.5% 6% 7%       | 3% 3% 9%         |
| 2                              | 2% 4% 8%         | 2% 5% 3%         |
| 3                              | 2% 3% 5%         | 4% 1% 4%         |

| **Lexical & coh. dev.**       |                  |                  |
| clut wds. voc. used cor. conj. cor. trans. |
| Pretest 3% 50% 30% 16% (NtA) 5 out of 10 (CA) (CA) |
| Posttest 4% 50% 22% 25% (NtA) 6 out of 12 (CA) (CA) |

| **Percentage of Syntax (NtB')** |                  |                  |
| frag run-on sent. struct.     |                  |                  |
| Pretest 3% 50% 45% 37% (NtB') 5 out of 10 (CB') (CB') |
| Posttest 5% 50% 45% 32% (NtB') 6 out of 12 (CB') (CB') |

| **T-units & Average of Pretest Posttest Other features the 3 treatm.** |                  |                  |
| Percentage of NtA main cl. | 85% 64% 81% | 89% 76% 78% |
| subord. cl. | 46% 25% 30% | 50% 37% 21% |
| correct sent | 85% 64% 81% | 89% 76% 78% |
| Percentage of CA other marked them. | 15% 24% 20% | other marked theme 31% 20% 18% |
| conj. begin. sent. | 9% 10% 5% | conj. begin. sent. | 5% 5% 2% |
5.3.1 Summary of Results and some Limitations

Table 5.9 charts the various features analysed in the Essays of the treatment and Pretest/Posttest of both Group A and B’

- Comparing the percentages of lexical and cohesive devices of both Group A and B’, one observes that the total average number of clutter words is the same (N=9, 3% vs N=10, 3%). However, the total average of vocabulary items used in the 3 treatments, the total average use of correct conjunctions and transitions are all greater respectively in Group A (N=130, 43% vs N=18, 39%; N=188, 63% vs N=134, 45%; N=62, 21% vs N=49, 16%).

- However, the choice of the target words had its limitations. Content and form of the target vocabulary were not considered. This might have caused the difference in the percentage of learning these words through the 3 treatments.

- Circumlocutions have been considered as errors when they could have been used as a strategy for vocabulary learning.

- The syntax of Group A and B’ differs. Group B’ had a lower total average of run-ons and sentence structures respectively (N=9, 3% vs N=13, 4%; N=16, 5% vs N=20, 7%). Yet, there was a greater total average of fragments in Group B’ (3% vs 2%).

- In the Pretest of Group A and B’, one observes that Group B’ had more correct use of conjunctions and transitions, but the same percentages of clutter words and correct use of vocabulary as Group A. In the Posttest, Group A and B’ had the same percentage of vocabulary used, but Group B’ has 1% more clutter words, more correct use of conjunctions and transitions. (It is recalled that because of the nature of the Counterbalance Experiment, the Posttest was given to Group A 8 weeks after the experiment was over.)

- The total number of syntax was less numerous in the Pretest of Group B’. However, Group A improved the 3 aspects of syntax in the Posttest. Group B’, in the Posttest, had the same percentage of the number of fragments, decreased its number of run-ons but the number of sentence structure increased by 2%.
• The analysis of T-units revealed that the total average of correct sentences and subordinates in the treatment is respectively more numerous in Group B', though learners were asked to use simple sentences if possible (89% vs 85%, 50% vs 46%).

• Perhaps there is less need to ask more advanced learners to use simple sentence. The fact that complex sentences are a sign of maturity cannot be denied.

• The use of other marked themes were more numerous in the treatment of Group B' (31% vs 15%).

• Both Group A and B' used conjunctions wrongly initially in the Pretest, but they both reduced its use in the Posttest.

5.3.2 Interpretation and Discussion

• Perhaps the results of the lexical and cohesive devices prove again that the timing of the treatment teaching for Group A was more appropriate since 3 out of 4 lexical devices were better in the treatment of this Group. This assumption has been observed by the researcher and reconfirmed by the results of the Attitudinal Questionnaire.

• However, the syntax of Group B' was better. This may reconfirm the fact that Group B', as revealed in 3 out of 5 Pretests, is more advanced, and that improvement in syntax is more difficult to achieve within the rather short span of time given to the experiment. But one also observes that the total average of mistakes in the Posttest syntax of Group A was by 1% less than Group B'. Perhaps interactional timing (Rowe 1986) had worked out its way by then, since the Posttest was given 8 weeks after the treatment.

• The more numerous correct sentences and subordinates in Group B' may lead to the assumption that this group also has a more mature writing style though to examine this was not part of the study.

• In spite of the differences in the results of the elements analysed in the Essays of both Group A and B'. Essay 3, in both Experimental Groups, maintained a significant difference (p = .018 and p = .021 in table 6.16). This assumes that the two subskills (vocabulary and sentence-combining) taught and analysed through lexical/cohesive devices and syntax are being used effectively.
• In spite of the fact that Group A was less advanced, the total number of its correct use of sentences was greater in the Posttest. Perhaps the treatment with the 2 subskills and the passage of time led to this result.

• Furthermore, Group A maintained an equivalent level of writing performance until the Posttest, which was given 8 weeks after the experiment was over. This result suggests that the approach using vocabulary and sentence-combining has a relatively long term effect.

• However, the results of the Experiment have their limitations because of the limited exposure to relevant contexts, limited time span, limited vocabulary targets and sentence-combining techniques within the limited texts of Gibran and Hemingway, and the drawback of the experimental design. But the researcher assumes that paying attention in the classroom treatment to both subskills can improve Essay performance, and therefore these subskills should not be neglected.

5.4 The Classroom Transcript Analysis

5.4.1 Approaches to the Analysis

As the experiment is a threefold design, the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the classroom transcript is an important part of the study.

The Transcript Analysis maintains the richness of the details in their authentic situation. This is important because a quantitative study using a Pretest/Posttest design gives little impression of the classroom processes between tests. It also allows the study of learners authentic verbal expression, partly compensating for the limitations of a questionnaire.

Still the transcript analysis has its limitations. These include the interpretation of the interaction. Yet, the transcript will throw up a problematic aspect between then and now: what the researcher did not realise or did then and what she became aware of and has realised now. Further, it shows some paradox in the interrelation of sentence-combining and vocabulary as lexis constructs sentences, sentences paragraphs and paragraphs essay. The above mentioned aspects and limitations will be revealed in comments on the following sessions. The data comprise five taped sessions which include the following activities:
• Analysis of a Vocabulary Session
  i. initial analysis
  ii. the researcher’s later interpretation
• Vocabulary Revision
  i. vocabulary learning and reading comprehension
• Vocabulary Correction
• Sentence-combining
• Reading Comprehension
  i. resuming reading comprehension

(Since classroom taping is rare in Lebanon, the teacher felt a need to reassure the learners, so she told them that taping was undertaken to control her teaching approach.)

Different approaches can be used in observational classroom studies. The choice of approach depends on whether researchers are interested in measuring, controlling, watching or asking and doing (Van Lier 1988). The present classroom sessions are based mostly on asking and doing. This naturalistic enquiry often deals with matters of opinion and interpretation which rely on the intuitive nature of human experience offering perceptions of the world that seem insightful to the readers. In addition, asking and doing counterbalance the context of experimental research intervention which some writers believe to be negative (Allwright and Bailey 1991).

Classroom interaction has been recognised as one of the more important variables influencing language learning. Its importance has been noticed since the 1960s. However, some writers such as Krashen (1981) believe that language acquisition is an unconscious process and therefore, untestable in part, because in practice we cannot operationalise non-conscious learning. He holds that the role of the teacher is to provide an appropriate language environment through comprehensible input. Yet the present study is directed at trying to understand and deal with the practical problems facing teachers and learners (Allwright & Bailey 1991). In an action
research context, it should also go beyond the understanding of practical problems. It should solve them (Carr and Kemmis 1986). This raises the issue of vocabulary teaching which some writers believe is still neglected (Zimmerman 1994; 1998).

Classroom analysis has contributed to a growth in awareness of the internal formal structure and functional purpose of verbal classroom interaction (Chaudron 1988). Different strategies have been studied (Sinclair and Brazil 1982; Jordan 1984; McCarthy 1991; Coulthard 1992). However, the researcher emphasises the model followed by Barnes (1969) which sets out to analyse aspects that are found to be interesting and relevant. Different approaches to discourse analysis have advantages and disadvantages, quantitative and qualitative transcript analyses of transcripts have theirs too. The qualitative view highlights interesting and important features of educational communication such as learning and acquisition, analysis and source of errors in learning, and the quantitative analysis quantifies these features (Edwards and Mercer 1987; Mercer 1995). Hence, both approaches will be used here to take advantage of their benefits.

In the analysis of this transcript, the following procedure has been adopted: Teacher’s initiations and learners’ responses to them have been counted as 1 initiation everytime the mark T (teacher) and everytime the mark S (student) appears, regardless of the number of sentences. However, questions were counted separately. This procedure has been followed consistently.

Classroom analysis has also been used for it is a starting point for action research. It is the teacher-researcher approach to reflect on her teaching. The transcript analysis including the two subskills, vocabulary and sentence-combining will be looked upon as a reflection of the researcher then and now i.e. what the researcher (as teacher) said, did, or remember thinking then related to, and interpreted by, what the teacher (as researcher) analyses, interprets and concludes now about the events then.. Hence, showing through a critical evaluation of her teaching, that the teacher is in fact a researcher who looks for local solutions to local problems as well as more global solutions (Allwright and Bailey 1991).
5.4.2 The Vocabulary Session

i. The transcript of the vocabulary session starts with the teacher asking learners to underline vocabulary words in the study-reading text. The teacher does this in order to use different oral/aural, visual and tactile approaches to vocabulary learning (Chapter 2). These techniques have also been recommended as facilitators and harmonizing with various verbal and non-verbal learning styles which students may differ in. The list of words was given to the learners with the explanation of these words (Chapter 4), so there was no need for learners to make notes. (It is recalled that no list of words was given to learners in the Pretest/Posttest.) Students can relate the words to the original context by looking at the text. The criteria on which vocabulary items were selected depended on the teacher’s knowledge of the general standard of English of the learners, on the Cobuild frequency count of these words (Appendix 12) and the likelihood of their use in writing compositions. Furthermore, some believe that the most daring attempt for vocabulary teaching has not exceeded 100 words per year (Nagy and Anderson 1984; Nagy and Herman in Hatch and Brown 1996). Others report that EFL students in China have to learn hundreds or more words a year on which they are tested (Cortazzi and Jin 1996). Hence, the use of a word list in the teaching of vocabulary of this study, besides the fact that a word list makes learning vocabulary more systematic and tangible (Coady and Huckin 1997). A word list generally relies on the observation that a relatively small number of English words accounts for a very high proportion of English texts (Willis 1990; Sinclair 1991). However, some of the words and phrases in *Hills Like White Elephants* have a low frequency such as look off (13) and absinthe (33) (Cobuild data base 1994); others, like the idiom white elephants, are difficult to comprehend with all their connotations by L2 learners. By asking learners to look at the words in context, the teacher is trying to use implicit concordancing, within a limited context, which hopefully generates authentic instances of usage in contexts (Wichmann 1995). No other verbal interaction took place at this stage except the immediate interaction with the assigned vocabulary words.

The following is an explanation of the terminology used here. By instructive is meant getting learners to do things (order, control instruct). This aspect of classroom behaviour covers all the content and structural sides of talking about the teaching. By
informative is meant telling things to pupils (informative, describe, explain) such as subject matter of lessons. By questioning is meant getting pupils to say things (questioning, probing, stimulating various kinds of talks). It includes general behaviour patterns and the inclusion of informative and instructive (Sinclair and Brazil 1982; Cazden in Wittrock 1986).

The percentage of the types of initiation in exchanges of the teacher’s talk in the vocabulary teaching sessions, reveals that in the first session most of the talk is done by the teacher. The talk is 63% instructive, 33% informative and 4% interrogative (Appendix 11). By underlining the words, learners focus on the context which determines the specific meaning of words. As learners are underlining words, the teacher gives them an oral explanation which again helps to fix the meaning of the words within the context. ...Now, keep going until you reach the paragraph that starts with ‘the woman brought two glasses’. Can you see that? On this line you have ‘felt pads’. Please underline ‘felt pads’. Pad is a felt material on which you put a drink.

Then the teacher proceeds to explain to the learners the purpose of teaching the target vocabulary (in effect, to learn it in preparation for a test). Explaining to learners the behavioural objectives, among other factors, should facilitate learning (Zamel 1982; Wenten 1986; Van Lier 1996).

This approach, in this vocabulary session, unusually perhaps, makes the hypothesis of the research explicit to the subjects and makes it part of the behavioural objectives. The purpose of the hypothesis is to show the interconnection of reading to writing, and the use of two subskills: vocabulary and sentence-combining. The purpose of the study is to show the effectiveness of two subskills, one of which is vocabulary in essay performance within the context of study-reading texts. This was actually said to the students (in both Group A and B’), but without stating that this was an experiment. The reason for not saying that it was, in fact, a counterbalancing experiment was because the researcher believes that this would make the students over-conscious of the situation, falsify the natural setting and may disturb them. In this way the teaching was, to a limited extent, related to Participant Action Learning, in which
the research aims are made clear to learners too, so that they can participate in the action (Averback 1998).

Again the words are explained, and at an end of the class the teacher informs students how these words would fit in the context of sentence-combining. In other words, the researcher explicitly comments on how both subskills vocabulary and sentence-combining are integrated within the context of reading and writing: the framework and purpose of the study.

ii. Looking in retrospect to the vocabulary session, the researcher finds positive as well as negative aspects. The approach of presenting a word list seems a beneficial one, recognised by some writers (Willis 1990; Sinclair 1991; Carter 1998).

However, looking at the quantitative analysis, one observes that 63% of the interaction was instructive, which leaves little possibility of a response to learners. Questions are powerful prompts for learning. However, there is evidence that they are over-used or mis-used, generally to check learning or diagnose learning problems rather than to prompt learning (Richards 1978, Dillon 1988). However, this is not the case in this session since learners did not understand much in their first encounter with the text so much of the teacher talk is explanation. Perhaps this justifies the high percentage of instructive questions which are assumed to have provided learning by the oral/aural, visual and tactile approaches.

Giving instructions contribute more positively to L2 acquisition than naturalistic exposure (Chaudron 1988). Furthermore, the teacher felt the need to use the didactic method to guide the construction of knowledge at this stage. The problem is how to provide learners with the right balance of different kinds of opportunities and guidance (Mercer 1995).

Yet the researcher realised (then) that a word list may be more effective if words are presented in their actual reading context. In other words, a mini-concordance, which serves as learning in chunks. It is through role playing, which puts words into productive vocabulary, and listening to learners’ comments that the teacher came to the above conclusion. This analysis is backed up by Nation 1990, Nattinger (1992) and Dixon-Krauss (1996).
5.4.3 Vocabulary Revision

The vocabulary revision, in the transcript, starts with a mnemonic way to recall the vocabulary encountered. This way consists of the teacher initiating a recall based on the sequences of the events in the story, and the response of the students is to fill in the oral blanks such as the following:

T: *There is a train coming and stopping at ...*
S: *At the junction.*

Memory plays an important role in vocabulary storing. Memorizing here is not a rote process but rather an active one of transforming and restructuring. It actually resembles the pattern of cognitive development from preoperational thought to concrete, and from concrete to formal operation (Neimark et al. 1971). It is a *metacognitive strategy* recommended for learning lexical units (Arnaud and Savignon in Coady and Huckin 1997). One might compare the fill-in-the-oral-blank method that the teacher uses to the scaffolding theory which represents both teacher/learner as active participants in the construction of knowledge (Bruner in Sinclair et al. 1978). In fact, the transcript of vocabulary revision reveals 7 incomplete declaratives which are used by the teacher as this device for indirect questions: students are expected to fill the incomplete oral slot represented by dots (...) (Appendix 11). Incomplete declaratives allow learners to verbalize the vocabulary to be learned by completing teacher utterances. However, scaffolding does not seem to take place, though the interaction is highly structured by the teacher. Little evidence of a handover is revealed by the answers of learners. Yet, this session is a vocabulary revision session and learners are filling in the oral gap as revealed in the following extract:

T: *They also said that they have nothing to do except...* (107)
S: *Drinking.*
S: *Drinking and talking about drinks.*
T: *If you notice, they have already tried 3 or 4 drinks. But they all taste ...*
S: *Liquorice.*
How far this is actually active production of the target vocabulary by the learners is debatable. Here, the students (some of them) are indeed producing target items but only in response to fairly tight contexts from the study-text, and students are not producing the words in larger chunks. It might, therefore, be said that this is a verbal cloze procedure, where students fill in oral blanks, often in severely restricted contexts where there are few alternatives. However, a neo-Vygotskian interpretation (Hicks 1996; Dixon-Kraus 1996) might be that here the teacher is scaffolding student responses in an assisted performance (Tharp and Gallimore 1990) which is conceived as leading towards more independent production, but this latter stage has not actually been resolved yet. In other terms, production is a continuum from speech (or writing) in a relatively fixed context (as here) to that in increasingly freer, more meaningful contexts. The problem with this second view is that in this transcript, at least, students do not, in fact, move on to this freer stage; the scaffolding seems to be held in place. A simple tactic to remove the scaffold might have been for the teacher to ask students to use the target words in their own contexts. At the time, the teacher thought there was too little time for this. Without the removal of the scaffolding the extent of learner independence, or internalization of the vocabulary, remains unknown.

Besides the mnemonic approach to retention, the teacher uses an oral/aural, and visual approach. Some words are written on the blackboard (junction, operation, liquorice). Different approaches are used to take into account individual means of learning, accounting for some of the areas which are still problems today in vocabulary teaching. One of the problems is the extent to which individual differences affect vocabulary acquisition (Aitchison in Andelman and Rogers 1996). Sometimes the vocabulary response is direct, sometimes the teacher has to pause to get an antonym:

T: If you notice, they have already tried 3 or 4 drinks. But they all taste ...
S: Liquorice.
T: Yes, and some of them taste ...
S: Like absinthe.
To make sure that learners know the meaning of *absinthe*, the teacher initiates learners to recall another vocabulary session in which the word had been discussed:

T: *You remember what we said about absinthe?*
S: *Bitter* (the word is written on the blackboard)

Providing a context to the words that learners utter, is the process of learning in chunks (Chapman 1983). Again an oral/aural and visual approach is used although *bitter* is not one of the listed words. However, it is written and emphasized for direction in the production of a word is meaning = > sound, whereas direction in comprehension is sound = > meaning. In fact, in that case both production and comprehension are needed and used since the teacher, through her initiations, provides learners with the authentic study-reading of literary text.

Some details of pedagogical values are spontaneously acted upon without preconceived thinking, depending on the present situation. It is *teacher mediation* which is more than modelling or demonstrating how to do something (Dixon-Krauss 1996). This is the case with the words written on the blackboard. Up to this point, the initiation/response exchange is rather smooth and regular in Vocabulary Revision. A follow up approval is given by the teacher for the first time: *Good.* As some vocabulary words to be learned are phrases, the teacher follows up by repeating a word which is taken over by the learner:

T: *Good. The girl was sitting, and she moved with her hand a string of ...*
S: *Beads.*
T: *String of beads.* (the word is written on the blackboard)

The teacher repeats the phrase. Vocabulary learning takes place in chunks (Chapman 1983). In this case, perhaps ironically, the teacher is repeating the chunk. However, the student who says *beads* has clearly produced it to complete *string of ...*. The student’s response might thus be considered a partial chunking or, collaboration with the teacher, a joint chunking. However, the student does not actually produce the complete string herself either then or later. Another approval follows:

T: *Yes, bravo. Alright.*
The teacher seems satisfied about the learners’ progress. Along with vocabulary revision, comprehension questions are used. This is considered quite essential, for it provides learners with comprehension and access to vocabulary which they will write later (Wenden 1986; Stern 1987). The reader who does not understand the important words that convey the meaning in a passage is not likely to comprehend the passage (Dixon-Krauss 1996; Coady and Huckin 1997). Therefore, some key vocabulary items are singled out for specific attention in the classroom since they are believed to be essential in reading comprehension of these texts and essay performance.

In sum, with vocabulary recalled mnemonically, with role-play and comprehension questions, learners seemed to understand the text better and learn the vocabulary assigned. These vocabulary strategies, hence, are embedded within a virtual text-reading context, bridging the gap between vocabulary and literature.

Again if one looks in retrospect at the vocabulary revision, the teacher-researcher (now) finds the vocabulary revision session (then) didactic. Perhaps a less structured or more socially-interactive vocabulary revision might have led learners to depend more on themselves and stimulate their self-awareness (Van Lier 1996). Yet the teacher, at the time, took into account the fact that vocabulary teaching at LAU is still neglected, and hence used a more didactic approach. A further crucial aspect is that the teacher knew then that this is what students expected. There are tensions here between current, communicatively oriented, more interactive approaches to teaching vocabulary, the learners’ expectations, and culture between the teacher-researcher’s approach (then) and her more informed subsequent awareness of what might have been done. To an extent, the need to take account of local Lebanese context and culture, teachers’ and students’ beliefs mediates these tensions.
5.4.4 Vocabulary Correction

The following transcript analysis is on the aspect of vocabulary correction. The teacher points out to learners her high expectations on their performance (high expectations and discipline gave better results in American Catholic Schools, CNN report Oct., 1996). The teacher explains to the students the purpose of vocabulary teaching as she had done previously in the sentence-combining correction session: the purpose of this study is to show the interconnection of reading and writing at all academic levels, and more specifically the effectiveness of two subskills: vocabulary and sentence-combining.

Again, and as in almost every session of the classroom transcript, the teacher clarifies the purpose of the session at work. As a teacher she articulates the aim of the lesson, and as a researcher she keeps track of the hypothesis of the study and gives to learners reasons to reconfirm the validity of the procedure followed which makes learners aware of the process and help to take them more seriously (Zamel 1982; Van Lier 1996).

Learners are asked to collocate words and then put them in sentences, and they are also reminded of the use of proper tenses. With this procedure, the linking of vocabulary and sentence-combining is insured. The teacher starts reading the students’ ill-formed expressions such as look brightly, pauses and expects those learners who have written their sentence correctly to fill in the blank:

T: ...You don’t look brightly. You ... (256)
S: Smile brightly
(...)
S: Something that you have waited for brightly...
T: No, Sana. You can’t wait brightly. You smile brightly.

At this point, the teacher has used two pedagogical procedures: an oral cloze procedure to fill in the blanks with the correct words, since this session is a vocabulary session, and a procedure encouraging students to produce words in (limited) chunks, thus, ensuring comprehension and production. The latter procedure has been used in two different ways: implicitly expecting learners to give the correct chunk such as “You don’t look brightly you ...”, and explicitly when learners have no answer, and therefore
the teacher provides them with the correct chunk. That is, "no, Sana. You can't wait brightly. You smile brightly". It remains a problematic element that learners are still not encouraged to produce their own complete, meaningful utterances in their own contexts. The elements of lexical choice for learners is, as seen in retrospect, rather restricted. This might be considered a factor which limits their learning of meaning, since meaning implies choice (Lyons 1977; Read 2000). Yet at a less advanced stage and in the Lebanese context, this choice is difficult to apply. The teacher (then) was less aware of this point than the teacher (researcher) is now.

As a means of motivation, the teacher uses male/female competition by giving learners the number of highest grades between girls and boys: 3 girls had 10/10, and 1 boy got 10/10. The teacher continues asking students to read their sentences. These results reconfirm the EEE results which revealed a higher score of females in both Group A and B.

The teacher/student exchange seems smooth, at this point, and goes as follows: T/S; T/S; T/S; T/S; T/S. However, interaction is the reverse of what in fact it should be, yet it focused on an important aspect of vocabulary teaching: production:

T: (...) Alright. Cut it out. Yes, Read.
S: The American angrily asked the girl to cut it out.
T: Liquorice. Yes!
S: The girl said that the drinks taste like liquorice.
T: Absinthe, yes Sylvie.
S: Suddenly, the things you have waited for so long taste like absinthe.
T: Felt pad. Yes Mustapha.
S: The waitress has put felt pads under the glasses.
S: Something that you have waited for brightly ...
T: No, Sana. You can't wait brightly. You smile brightly.

This vocabulary correction session reveals the use of only 3 follow ups. It is assumed that there is less need for follow ups at this point in the vocabulary correction. The seven initiations are mostly reminders to learners of the criteria on which the test is
based, expectation of learners' performance, and the purpose of the vocabulary test. The teacher initiations are informative; from one angle, this is useful, since to be successful, knowledge in the classroom needs explanation, must be offered, accepted, understood and consolidated (Mercer 1995).

At the time, in the context, the teacher understood this kind of dialogue as a useful way to elicit students' sentences. Reading the transcript later, the researcher realised that the predominance of initiations without follow ups, together with the brevity of many student replies (at most a sentence), implies that at this point the interaction is heavily teacher dominated. The overall discourse also seems somewhat fragmented. The teacher's initiations seem only connected to each other by the fact that the prompt words are on the revision list since they have no textual connections with preceding replies or follow-ups. The overall dialogue does not link target items to each other nor to any extended sequence. The result is that words are indeed presented (by students) but meanings are hardly negotiated in interaction or jointly constructed explanations of knowledge, in Mercer's (1995) sense of knowledge construction.

If these reflections are put together, it can be seen that this section of the transcript exemplifies several discourse and pedagogic features which are in tension with each other. The main speaker (the teacher) is attempting to be informative, expansive (by extending student talk to expand the context of the target vocabulary), yet diagnostic (to check how far students can use the words appropriately). This researcher (the teacher) also wishes the discourse to be instructive (with student participation) and acceptable (so that the target words are used in acceptable contexts) yet controlled (in the sense of managing the classroom turn-taking in a disciplined fashion). The other speakers' contributions are likewise affected by discourse features which are in tension: they have their own intentions (which can only be guessed but may include information to learn or at least to pass the tests) and expectations (many of which stem from the context of previous lessons and a general lack of emphasis on vocabulary in their English learning histories). The classroom discourse here can then, with this elaborated hindsight be seen to exemplify some discourse criteria in tension, in much the same way as DeBeaugrande and Dressler's (1981) model of discourse. Since
the solution to some of these tensions becomes problematic to other tensions, it is inevitable that in some ways this classroom talk is not ideal.

5.4.5 Sentence-combining

Another class hour was spent on the correction of sentence-combining. The teacher starts again by setting explicit objectives. Learners are to combine 2 or 3 sentences, having in mind the fact that hearing may generally result in short sentences. Learners could then compare different lengths of sentences, and the way they sound, i.e. the rhythm of the sentence. Using the ear and developing learners' awareness of how sentences feel can raise their consciousness of indicators of sentence correctness in this way (Kroll 1994; Stubbs 1996), provided students verbalise their sentences with some awareness of different alternatives and have some awareness of the consequences of making different language choices.

The teacher/learner exchanges focus on the complexity and cumbersomeness of lengthy sentences. This topic was emphasised because learners quite often write long sentences either because their control of punctuation (mainly fullstops) is poor, or because of L1 influence and/or because their thoughts are not clear. This follows from the widely-held assumption, certainly among teachers, that clarity of language is parallel to clarity of thought (Petrosky and Brosick 1979). By making students write long sentences, the teacher was attempting to concretise the feeling of unpleasantness, concerning examples of sentences which might be regarded too long. That is, the teacher was trying to encourage students to internalise judgements of appropriate and acceptable sentence type and length. This could, of course, be a double-edged sword which again emphasises discourse and pedagogic features in tension: the teacher here wants to discourage overlong complex sentences, since these too often contain errors, but she is aware that sentence length (T-units) is a measure of writing maturity and is often held to be one implicit measure of academic quality. She wants students to focus on sentence-combining, yet to internalize judgements of clarity in relation to appropriateness. The teacher is trying to shift the learner/writer position to learner/reader position. The incapacity to make such shifts is said to be one of the
defective aspects of poor writing of learners (Kroll 1978). Further, the teacher uses comparison as another means to make learners aware of their own mistakes. Comparing styles of the same text is implicitly a way of teaching and making learners more aware of rhetoric (Kroll 1994), studied through the analysis of theme/rheme. The researcher does not mean that long sentences, as a rule, are defaults. Rather she wants learners to be aware of the fact that good writing does not necessarily need complex or long sentences. This is the reason why the study-texts by Hemingway and Gibran were chosen. This is a point she emphasised often during the sessions when learners combined sentences. The teacher also points out the fact that transitions are sentence-initial devices, while conjunctions are linking devices to join compound or complex sentences. Ultimately perhaps, the students may learn that more advanced writing effectively combines longer, more complex sentences with shorter, simpler ones in styles which include the element of variation. However, these lessons focus on only two features of this complexity: simplicity and combinations of the simple now.

The class session continues with a student who reads his correct sentence. The teacher makes a literary comment rather than a linguistic one. She said, *Hemingway uses short sentences, except when the action is long. Then he lengthens his sentences.* This is an attempt by the teacher to draw attention to formal stylistic features of the literary texts, following those who hold that the gap between linguistics and literary criticism is to be bridged (Sinclair in Brumfit and Carter 1986; Talif 1995).

In the teacher's didactic method, there are 14 declarative initiations out of a total of 55 declaratives, interrogatives and follow ups. That is, (N=55) 25% of the initiations are declaratives (Appendix 11). The teacher believes that in this particular setting the didactic method is most appropriate. What is to be emphasised in a teaching/learning situation is how to provide learners with the right balance of different kinds of opportunities and guidance rather than the choice of a specific method of teaching (Mercer 1995).

A further sentence is read, and the teacher focuses on the fact that a conjunction is needed to combine two independent sentences. This is in contrast to one of Hemingway’s sentences, and a learner points out this contradiction. Perhaps this is an
inappropriate approach where the teacher presents a model yet requests a different sentence-combining approach. However, due to the particular purpose set i.e. teaching sentence-combining, this was done. Pedagogically, this selection of one aim (simplicity and combinations of the simple) is justified, but it conflicts with other equally justified aims (eg. complexity). One can also add that in an authentic situation models do not always coincide with the objectives of language teaching. This procedure widens the learner’s knowledge, by exposing them into the different possibilities of combining sentences. The teacher adds, *And I want to torture you and show you when sentences are long, they are difficult to understand.* The teacher does not mean it literally. What she means is to put the learner(writer) in the position of the teacher/reader. In fact, when the student’s sentence is compared to the author’s, the students recognise that the sentence is unpleasant because of its length, required through sentence-combining. This might sound as if it is contradicting the purpose of sentence-combining. But seeing the other side of the coin can also be a valid pedagogical device. Besides, the way sentence-combining was used reveals sentence progression, for learners can increase or decrease the density and complexity of the sentences (see figure 3.3).

Another sentence is read by the student and compared with the original one by Hemingway:

S: When they came around a bend, a dog came out barking and ahead were the lights of the shanties where or (in which) the Indian barkpeelers live. (194)

H: *They came around a bend and a dog came out barking. Ahead were the lights of the shanties where the Indian barkpeelers live.* (196)

The dramatic implication of a sentence may be lost when the sentence is a long one (Kane 1986; Burton and Humphries 1992). Ford and Thompson (in Trangott et al. 1986) speculate that when conditionals follow independent clauses, one reason could be because they are loaded with heavy and important meaning. However, the opposite view is held by Oshima and Hogue (1991). As the teacher requested the sentences to be combined, the emphasis that the original writer had wished to stress changed.
However, the ability to write with more advanced rhetoric requires more advanced language development, which is beyond the scope of this particular course.

Punctuation is reviewed in the second sentence of the sentence-combining correction session. Both the author’s and the student’s sentences are read and compared.

S: Inside on a wooden bunk lay a young Indian woman that had been trying to have her baby for two days, while the men moved off up the road, sat in the dark and smoked out of range of the noise she made.

H: Inside on a wooden bunk lay a young Indian woman. She had been trying to have her baby for two days. The man had moved off up the road to sit in the dark and smoked out of range of the noise she made. (202)

It is interesting to observe that learners’ ears are apparently guiding them now to distinguish between better written sentences, and they expressed their opinion by saying, *It is better.* That is, they are articulating an internalised judgement that Hemingway’s sentence sounds better (although without specifying the reasons for this in detail). Some writers recommend that students read out loud their essays (Kroll 1994; Stubbs 1996) as a device to promote such internalised judgements and to take learner/reader position referred to earlier. Again the intention of the researcher, in making the learners write long sentences, is not to contradict practice and theory, but to give the students a reader’s view.

In the following sentence, the teacher chooses to emphasize tenses, a problem that learners often face:

S: When the doctor mounted on the edge of the lower bunk and looked in. the Indian was laying with his face to the wall, his throat cut from ear to ear and the blood was flowing down into a pool. (205)

H: He mounted on the edge of the lower bunk with the lamp on one hand and looked in. The Indian lay with his face to the wall. His throat had been cut from ear to ear. The blood had flowed into a pool.
Many learners use the past continuous rather than simple past, and the teacher explains tense sequence as well as its logic. That is, the use of past perfect means that the action took place before another prior action, both being in the past. To make sure her point is understood, she reads a sentence and asks learners to fill in the blank of the sentence read:

T: ...So, his throat cut and blood ....
S: ...(hesitant) flowed down.

As learners compared their sentence with the author’s, some said that short sentences are easier to comprehend and less complex to write, while this is clearly by no means always the case, the students’ statements here showed some understanding of the pedagogic point in hand. It is worth mentioning, at this point, that learners seem to have acquired an aspect of rhetoric though this is an indirect outcome of the study.

The second part of the Sentence-combining Test is mainly linking sentences with conjunctions rather than subordinators. The researcher believes that having two parts in the test encourages students to be aware of different approaches of sentence writing.

The following is a sample of the second part in the Sentence-combining Test.

S: The young Indian stopped, blew out his lantern and they all walked on along the road.

H: The young Indian stopped and blew out his lantern and they all walked on along the road. (220)

A student mentions that she wrote her sentence the way the original writer did, that is, with 2 conjunctions, while the researcher following Oshima and Hogue (1991) approach requested the use of conjunction at the end of items in a series. Here, a contradiction between theory and practice has occurred again. The teacher accepted the learners’ argument (which is logical), but explained the rules and requirements of LAU.
The 3rd sentence in part II of the Sentence-combining Test is as follows:

S: He was smoking a pipe, and the room smelled very bad. (224)

H: He was smoking a pipe. The room smelled very bad.

It is interesting, at this point, to take account of the student’s comment on the meaning that results from linking or not linking sentences. A student said, *I think he didn’t connect the sentences because there is no relation between the two sentences.*

One observes from the student’s comment that he shows understanding of the link between syntax and semantics. In other words, he realised the importance of cohesion and, in this particular case, its relation to coherence. Coherence changes with the use of cohesive devices, and as Carrell (1982) commented, cohesion is not coherence. This issue besides being part of cohesion and coherence pertains to rhetoric, and should be part of the longer term of language teaching. Bridging the gap between linguistics and literary criticism, as mentioned earlier, is held to be beneficial to academic teaching, and one of the purposes of the inclusion of literature in language teaching.

The difference between the author’s sentence and the student’s is semantic. That is, *the room smelled bad*, some of the students said, *because of blood*, others said *because it is a shanty*. The majority of the students realized that it smelled bad because of poverty. The two other sentences were written as the author wrote them. However, the last one is as follows:

S: He was satisfied with his hand when he went in and went to work.

H: When he was satisfied with his hands, he went in and went to work. (251)

In sum, the sentence-combining correction session reveals that different learning/writing strategies have been encountered theoretically and practically. Grammar and punctuation have been viewed in context. Different approaches to sentence writing have been tackled along with a glimpse of issues in rhetoric and literary criticism. Some problems have also been faced in this session, although they have hardly been resolved. For example, the difficulty, sometimes, of harmonising
between practice and theory; the practice of giving some ill-formed responses due to different schemata in the teacher's and learners' minds; the elicitation of information assumed to have been acquired in previous courses; and the fluctuation of coherence when cohesive devices are added, changed or deleted.

Looking in retrospect at the sentence-combining correction, the researcher observes (then) that her method as teacher was didactic. With hindsight a less didactic approach could have been used. However, as it has been stated previously, writing is a multidimensional construct. Viewing these constructs, in those specific circumstances, the didactic method seemed more appropriate. Perhaps other methods could have been explored, that is, ask learners to combine sentences to form a paragraph as Strong (1994) did at an advanced level. Due to time limit, the above procedure was shelved though this bridges the gap between sentence-combining and essay performance. Furthermore, a method using sentence-combining and vocabulary should have been thought of, and hence used to consolidate and interrelate both skills that are essential variables in the experiment.

As argued previously, the sentence-combining correction session can also be seen as an inevitably unbalanced attempt to resolve classroom discourse and pedagogic tensions. These are, however, probably irreconcilable in a single session.

5.4.6 Reading Comprehension
In the following class hour, there is more interaction between students and teacher than in the vocabulary session. One notices that at the beginning two initiations are made by the teacher and two responses by the students, that reveal a lack of comprehension regarding the text (Appendix 11).

T: You were supposed to read this at home. And I am sure that some of you read it and some didn't. Those who have read it. Can you give me an idea of the story?

T: How many read it?

S: I tried, I didn't get the subject of the story.

S: It has no point.

T: Alright. OK. Let's put it this way...
Analysing this segment using the well known model of initiation, response and follow up (IRF) (Sinclair and Coulthard 1978) yields:

T:11 _ T:12 _ S:R1 _ S:R2 _ T:F

By initiation is meant teacher’s probing; response means learner’s answer, and follow up means comments after the answer (Sinclair and Brazil 1982). Two initiations are needed to get a verbal response of the students addressed. The responses are rather cognitive ones, enhancing the teacher to attend to something. Their pedagogical function is to fulfil the expectation of soliciting moves (Sinclair and Coulthard 1978). The follow up of the teacher could be interpreted pedagogically as a move to clarify the situation at hand, that is, to synthesise and expand on the problem.

In fact, the teacher’s response to the problem is a change of pedagogical approach and the use of role-play as a teaching process. She hopes then that the learners’ lack of comprehension of Hills Like White Elephants would be eased. Hemingway’s style is concise and relatively sparse in description or the use of adjectives (Levin in weeks 1962; Carter 1988) which might render comprehension slightly difficult, if one is not familiar with the style. The objective of role-play (reading the story in roles) is to create an authentic situation which could help comprehension, besides the fact that it is a social learning process in its own right (Wagner 1976; Carter and Long 1991; Clarke 1991). The teacher requests a volunteer, in order not to embarrass learners by choosing a reluctant participant. As role-play takes place, student/teacher interaction in the classroom is more fluent and the pattern becomes more regular.

The dialogue is as follows:

T: Alright. OK. Let’s put it this way. It has no point, and it is a famous
author who has written it. (...)
T: OK Fady. You play the role of the man.
T: Now, the girl. Cynthia what about you?
T: Narrator?

T: Let me explain something. We know from the story that there are many labels on the luggage. What does this signify?

S: They travel a lot.

T: Yes, they travel a lot. (10)

T: What about the setting? Do you know what setting means?

S: Time and place.

T: Yes!

S: It is at the train station.

T: What about time?

S: Noontime.

T: How is it in Spain at noon?

S: Very hot.

T: Yes! very hot.

T: Why do you think the author chose a station? Try to imagine what a railway station means.

S: It is a place where something is going to happen.

S: Either you say goodbye or you stay.

T: Why do you think it is noontime? What happens at noon? Take the sun.

The structure is as follows:

I ___ NVR (non verbal response)
I ___ (NVR)
I ___ (NVR)
I ___ (NVR)
I ___ R ___ F (8)
I ___ R ___ F ___ R
I ___ R
I ___ R ___ F
I ___ R ___ R
I ___ (pause)

The exchange structure starts with the teacher’s initiation and a nonverbal approval response from the student (the student raises his hand as a sign of willingness). A further initiation from the teacher elicits an imposed response, which takes the form of a question: Now, the girl. Cyntia, What about you? It is note worthy that here all Is and Fs are from the teacher, all Rs are from the students. Then the interaction seems
smoother as the response is followed by a follow up which takes the form of a repetition of the response: *Yes they travel a lot.* The follow up is a *move* which has 2 functions: *elicitation* where the teacher wants the students to say more about what they have read, and *follow-up* where the researcher acknowledges the learners’ remarks on the difficulty they are facing. At this point the emphasis of the teacher is mainly to encourage that learners say more (to elaborate) (Sinclair and Coulthard 1978).

Furthermore, most of the teacher’s initiations are questions which are used to elicit learners’ responses aiming at inductive learning or what could be called *explication de texte*. In fact, Sinclair (1991) uses this approach in teaching literary text to university students. Inductive learning which could also be called *discovery-learning* is likely to lead to good retention (Mondria and De-Boer 1991).

**Table 5.10**: Teacher/learners’ interaction on comprehension questions (part 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>initiation</td>
<td>form</td>
<td>answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>4D 7int</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5.11**: Teacher/learners’ interaction on resuming comprehension (part 2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>initiation</td>
<td>form</td>
<td>answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>6D 6int</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: D : declarative excl: exclamation Ng: negative int: interrogative

The quantitative analysis of the Comprehension Questions on the text, *Hills Like White Elephants*, could be divided into two parts: Part 1 (table 5.10) quantifies the need for follow ups, and the learners’ answers reveal a lack of understanding. Perhaps this is due to lack of comprehension of the text. In part 2, (table 5.11) learners seem to
come to terms with the text. The quantification in part 1 (table 5.10) includes 11 initiations on behalf of the teacher versus 12 initiations in part 2 (table 5.11). The first part also comprises 14 answers and 3 pauses on behalf of the students versus 35 answers and 1 pause on behalf of the students; 10 follow ups from the teacher (table 5.10) versus 17 follow ups in table 5.11. However, follow ups (in parte 2) imply approval. From the number of students’ responses and the type of follow ups, which basically shape up, edit and evaluate learners’ answers, it can be concluded that learners understand Hemingway’s story better. This puts more emphasis on the importance of comprehending and learning the assigned vocabulary items within the context of study-reading of literary texts.

One notices 3 pauses (table 5.10) as a response from the students. The first pause is related to the question concerning the setting:

T: Why do you think it is noon time? What happens at noon? Take the sun.
S: ...(pause)

The second pause is related to the name of the main male character, and the third pause is related to whether the author has forgotten to name the male character.

T: What is the name of the man?
S: Eh! ...
T: Do you think that Hemingway forgot to give him a name? (27)
S: ...(pause)

The teacher’s questions seem to require extratextual knowledge, and the situation is unusual. Characters do have names in stories. In this particular case the main character is referred to, just as the American. In fact, the teacher follow up is a possible answer: It symbolises, maybe, the Americans! Perhaps biographical knowledge of the author could have helped learners in answering questions that need extratextual knowledge. Furthermore, research on teaching observes the importance of interactional timing that involves classroom discourse directly. This is Rowe’s observation (1974; 1986) concerning wait-time. The time a teacher gives a student to answer a question. Rowe’s research showed that pauses between I and R,
and between R and F were functional: by increasing these wait-times, students were enabled to think and participate. Their answers were better, of a wider range, and more student were involved when wait-times were longer. However to asses the precise functions of the pauses here is difficult, even though the teacher is the researcher.

In the view of the researcher, the *wait-time* needed in this context is rather related to comprehension: the pause allows time for understanding. This is initiated by teacher’s probing, stimulating various kinds of talks, or what Neo-Vygotskian term the *zone of proximal development* (ZPD), which stresses the socio-cultural foundation of learning. The teaching-learning relationship, in this view, thrives in shaping knowledge and meaning through talk in interactive tasks (Dixon-Kraus 1996).

Initiation takes place, concerning the female character in the story. No more pauses on behalf of the learners. Students attempt to answer: *The girl.* *(Then)*, in fact, the teacher was not fully aware of the research on *wait-times*. Therefore, she was not employing changes in the length of wait-time as Rowe suggests. However, these were pauses which the teacher respected (i.e. did not interrupt). Perhaps, *learning insight* is taking place or what Vygotsky termed internalization is being activated (Dixon-Kraus 1996). One notices also, a certain rheme/theme pattern in the student/teacher interaction:

S: *Very hot.*
T: *Yes! very hot*

That is, T _ R
Tm _ R

S: *the girl*
T: *She is the girl. Not a woman. Why?*
S: *She is a teenager.*

That is, T
T _ R. T _ R. Tm
T _ R

The pattern is formed by repetition. These repetitions, taken over by the teacher, have an intonation of approval yet suggest the expectation of another answer. Repeating the reply with a low raising intonation suggests also that there is another answer and that the teacher awaits it (Sinclair and Coulthard 1978).
At this point, there is an attempt on behalf of the teacher to draw the attention of learners to vocabulary. The teacher uses an inductive approach through initiations in question forms. Not many of the target vocabulary words have been uttered by the students yet. The teacher by saying *it is a place where something is going to happen* is using circumlocution, hoping that learners will come up with the word *junction*, one of the assigned vocabulary items.

The different examples of I-R-F patterns are shown in the figure 5.3.

### Figure 5.3. Examples of I-R-F patterns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initiation</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Follow up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>question</td>
<td>answer</td>
<td>shape up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elicitation</td>
<td>pause</td>
<td>evaluate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>informative</td>
<td>choice</td>
<td>acknowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>instructive</td>
<td></td>
<td>elaborate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>approve</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Resuming reading comprehension

As Comprehension Questions are considered sufficient at this point, Role-play is resumed. The teacher, by asking specific questions, directs the discussion towards the mood of the story. The exchanges at this point start in the following manner:

T: Yes, we are always talking about drinks. (43)
S: It's a routine.
T: Imagine yourself being with your girlfriend. If you keep talking about drinks, what does it mean?
S: Lack of interest.
S: Boring.
T: The second point. What is the 2nd point about?
S: The operation.
T: Ah! What kind of operation?
S: It is unclear.
S: .... (unclear answer)
S: Military operation.
Again, all Is are from the teacher; all Rs are from the students. The exchange follows this pattern:

I _R (43)
I _R _R
I _R
I _R _ _ _ R

It is observed that a crucial expression *to suck the air out* was not understood by the students although the mood context is present. This could be due to the students' social and cultural background. Abortion and the means of abortion are not common topics to talk about, in general, in Lebanon. Sociocultural relationships are an important factor to be taken into account if meaning in texts is not to be misinterpreted (Carter and Long 1991), and if teaching/learning is to take place (Mercer 1995). However, the teacher sets learners back into the desired track through *metacommunication* (metacommunication makes teachers communicate about classroom communication) (Stubbs 1983). Generally, this means teachers use talk to control the pupils' talk, but it can be used to make learners aware of language and how to use talk in different ways (Cortazzi in Kitson and Merry 1997). This is done by repeating the answer of the main character. *Nothing is going to happen.* In spite of this misunderstanding, learners' responses on reading comprehension are more numerous and varied. 51% of the initiations are interrogatives. This was a conscious decision on the part of the teacher at the time for interrogatives motivate active learning. They constitute a primary means of engaging learners' attention, promoting verbal responses and evaluating learners' progress (Chaudron 1988; McCarthy 1991; Coulthard 1992).

For instance, the teachers' interrogative focus learners' attention on the logical sequence of events. The teacher's answer implies that it cannot be a military operation if *nothing is going to happen.* This comment promotes and triggers further responses until one student answers interrogatively, *Is it abortion?* which in fact is a progress in comprehension. Reading comprehension and vocabulary learning are interrelated (Laufer and Nation 1995; Meara in Brown et al 1996).
After tuning learners in, a further attempt is made by a student to understand the text. Again the discussion that follows reveals a different cultural understanding, that is, a girl can not be pregnant.

In this segment, learners’ attention was mainly focused on comprehending the text, and no target vocabulary words were uttered by the students. Learners were mostly struggling with the text helped by the inductive pedagogical method (i.e. questions) that solicits cognitive responses (Sinclair and Coulthard 1978).

Then the teacher directs the exchanges towards the main issue represented by the title, Hills Like White Elephants. Cut it out is the first target vocabulary phrase that is expressed by the students. Follow ups seem more frequent at this stage. But they are utterances of approval or encouragement to expand on the idea that they have started. Encouragement takes the form of repetition such as in the following passage. For example:

S: No
T: No. so who is somehow upset because she is talking about hills like white elephants?
S: The American
T: The American. What did we say ‘white elephants mean’?
S: Children
T: Children. What does it mean?

Repetition is used by the teacher to accumulate significance (Hoey 1991). Here this signifies encouragement that learners are on the right track. Some responses from the students follow without any teacher’s initiation. In fact, five responses take place between students, and the word junction, one of the target vocabulary words, is used productively and spontaneously by a student, whereas a previous attempt was not successful:

S: instability
S: junction
S: commitment
S: He wants the child and she doesn’t.
S: No. No. She wants the child and he doesn’t. He is the one that keeps telling her, it is a simple operation. Nothing is going to happen. I am going to stay next to you.
It is noticeable that the opportunity for learners to contribute to the discussion is narrow until this point. There is apparently no student-to-student interaction. Here, however, the students clearly interact with each other. While the first few contributions might all be separate responses directed to the teacher, rather than directed to the immediately preceding student utterance, the fifth contribution clearly denies the one before it, showing evidence that here, at least, there is student to student interaction. The teacher, at this point, has withheld any follow ups, to allow the student-student mini-discussion. In miniature, learners influence the course of the guided construction of knowledge (Mercer 1995). Perhaps one can suggest that learners here are working within the zone of proximal development (ZPD), through which the more expert party in the interchange helps to complete and extend the actions and insights of the less expert one (Hicks 1996).

As one can see, the following pattern of exchange becomes rather regular: T/S; T/S; T/S; T/S; T. The exchanges include 2 pauses by the students which again might be interpreted as hesitation, and one pause by the teacher, used as an oral cloze procedure to provoke a student to complete the teacher’s utterance. Long-term retention of vocabulary is facilitated by asking students to fill in the gap in writing (Osimo 1991), but the approach has been used in an oral context here.

T: And we will be...(90)
S: ... as we were before.
T: which means, happy or unhappy?
S: Happy.
T: Alright. So what is the idea of the baby causing?
S: Problems and unhappiness.
T: Why is the setting the station?
S: Either she would say goodbye or ...
T: Yes. It is a transition. It is either yes or no. (class session ends)

Looking in retrospect to the analysis of the vocabulary session, the teacher-researcher sees critically good and less good aspects of her teaching. She used different approaches (aural/oral, visual and tactile) though these are limited, considering (among
others) the possibility of concordance and databases. However, a choice needs to be
made within the setting of a postwar condition of Lebanon, where the research was
undertaken. That is, recently developed strategies were not available then besides the
fact that it was already a miracle to keep universities and schools open in conditions of
political instability and social and economic reconstruction. Furthermore, as vocabulary
had been neglected in the learners' experiences of English learning, its vestigial results
were still carried out regardless of the availability of textbooks with some emphasis on
vocabulary, let alone the fact that vocabulary selection used might not fit the learners
and methodology might not exist.

It is observed also that at the first encounter the teacher used 63% of her talk
instructively. Although giving instructions and being didactic contribute more
positively to L2 acquisition (Chaudron 1988; Mercer 1995), perhaps again a less
didactic approach could have been used. However, the researcher believes that
culture, which tends to spoon-feed learners and does not give freedom nor the
responsibility implied by freedom, would have less guarantee of positive results. On the
other hand, if the teacher's method had been that of a typical session in an English
teaching session at the University of Leicester, for example, complaints on behalf of the
learners would have resulted, due to the different multidimensional constructs of
language teaching within a different culture, as the researcher presumes.

The meaning of affixes is a further aspect of teaching vocabulary that the
teacher-researcher did not consider. Although the chosen words do not seem to fall
into affixes, this procedure should have been thought of, for it coincides with the need
of the learner's metacognitive and vocabulary awareness (Van Lier 1996; Altman in
Coady and Huckin 1997), and ease the complexity of vocabulary teaching. A further
aspect that the teacher became aware of is the use of a word list within a textual context
chunk. This approach induces repetition with a context and assumes facility in
retention. However, production of these words has to be tested to reconfirm the above
statement, which in fact has been done.
• Vocabulary Learning and Reading Comprehension

The following part of the text is crucial to the understanding of the story. In the transcript the teacher resumes reading then stops to ask questions. The point at which the teacher stops in the reading depends on the content of the passage. The initiation focuses on exchanges which tackle the main issue in the story: whether the girl will go through abortion or not. The exchanges teacher/student are again smooth, and learners seem to get the gist of the issue. A sample of the exchange is the following: T/S; T/S; T/S; T/S; T/S; T.

T: What did the girl do? (131)
S: She smiled at the American.
T: Yes. How did she smile?
S: Brightly.
T: Yes, brightly. What does brightly mean?
S: Happily.
T: Why?
S: Because the train is coming.
T: What does this mean?
S: She is going to do the operation.
T: Most probably. The decision has been taken. She has decided. She's happy the train has come...

Actually, the response of the teacher, Most probably. The decision has been taken. She has decided. She’s happy the train has come... is an ill-formed response (Taylor and Cameron 1987). It is what the researcher calls the dialogue of the deaf. The researcher’s interpretation of the smile is that the girl has decided not to abort but to leave the American, whereas the student meant that the girl has decided to abort as the American implicitly whishes her to do. These two opposite interpretations might be interpreted with reference to the established notion of schemata (Carrell 1983) on the background knowledge of readers’ comprehension. No problematization arose since none of the participants i.e. teacher/student realised the ill-formed answer at that time. In retrospect, this is a loss of opportunity pedagogically. Besides, the teacher’s interpretation is not canonical (Carter and Long 1991). Furthermore, the teacher’s
role is to provide situations in which students are permitted to draw and examine inferences by constant reference to the text. Students should experience the excitement and pleasure of discovery rather than being told what to discover (Talif 1995). In fact, the ending of *Hills Like White Elephants* is ambiguous. This facilitates the potential for different interpretations, and is a source of motivation. Perhaps the *ill-formed* answer then is no more an *ill-formed* one.

The session of teacher/learner interaction on vocabulary and reading comprehension shows that 8 initiations, on behalf of the teacher, are declaratives, that is, 42%. The rest (57%) of the initiations are interrogatives and incomplete declaratives that constitute a means of attracting learners' attention, focusing the learners' participation and promoting their verbal responses (Appendix 11).

The exchange ends with the teacher, summing up the plot and asking the students to give a possible different interpretation of the general sequence of events. In the pilot study done by the researcher at AUB, students enjoyed *Hills Like White Elephants* because the teacher accepted different interpretations, and here, at least, the element of tolerance of different interpretations seems to have enhanced students' motivation.

However, before any group discussion took place, the teacher reviewed the vocabulary. This time the teacher hardly used initiations. Words seemed to flow easily. It seems that learners are more confident in their comprehension of the text, and perhaps this is the reason why target words were uttered easily and not many initiations were needed. The following is a sample of the exchanges at this point in the transcript:

T: (...) *Let us review the words that we have encountered. What did they have on their bags?* (141)

S: *Labels*

T: *OK*

S: *Tracks*

T: *OK, tracks. He carried the bags to the other track.*

S: *Brightly.*

T: *Yes, she smiled brightly (...).*
Learners say the words, and the teacher makes sentences with them. This reverses a more obvious approach in which teachers give the words for learners to put into sentences. However, this enhances the production of learned words since students still hear them used in appropriate contexts.

This is, in fact, problematic as a closer reading of the transcript shows. The exchange is governed by the contextualising frame of let's review the words that we have encountered. From their pauses, the students apparently interpret this as let's list the words: their single word utterances simply list, labels, tracks, brightly. While the first of these answers the teacher's question (What did they have on their bags?), this question operates within replies to the framework of the review the words replies framework. Evidence of this is seen in the students' later replies which are non-sequitors to the bag question, and can only be construed as let's review responses (they are target words). The teacher fills out the track response, and links it to the previous labels response (He carried the bags to the other track), since the students do not follow this expansion. Given this, and their original listing, one might conclude that for the students let's review means let's list; such teacher/student differences in concepts of vocabulary review might be of a potential seriousness. Furthermore, this might be a modelling response to encourage the use of words in context. Perhaps the teacher is attempting to aid production, but in this lesson extensive or active student production does not occur (unless the occurrence is mental and hence hidden from the teacher), and the production summed up in: the learned word, the researcher believes. When the teacher/learner effort is made in face-to-face interaction, then interaction is suggested to be productive (Krashen 1985).

In the transcript there, then follows a paragraph of instructions that the teacher gives to students on the objectives of teaching vocabulary. Also, the teacher reminds learners about the different genres that could be used in essay writing as well as the organization of an essay.

The following diagram, showing a common composition structure, was drawn on the blackboard:
The mathematical formula (shown previously), as used by the teacher in her teaching experience, is assumed to appeal to systematic reasoning and logical analysis. As most students are studying sciences, and sciences are highly regarded in Lebanon, the teacher wished to associate this schema outline of one kind of writing with science. Learners are also tested on their understanding of the method of developing essays, in other words, of American composition genre. Hence, the teacher exchange is as follows:
T: You can also develop through comparison and contrast. And then again, in the topic, I will compare and contrast. And the 3rd possibility could be ...?

S: Causes and effects.

Learners were also tested on their understanding of essay organization (Oshima and Hogue 1991). Such organization had been taught to learners in a previous course. However, learners needed to be reminded that the university requires clearly structured essays in academic writing. Sometimes learners are admitted into English III without having taken English II. In this transcript, when the teacher asks the difference between a thesis statement and topic sentences (Th St and Ts), there are two pauses of hesitation as students consider the difference between thesis statement and topic sentence. The exchange is as follows: T; T/S; T/S; T/S/S; T/T/S; T. What the teacher requested here for the students to verbalise is previous knowledge which they were assumed to have acquired earlier. No further emphasis will be put on this issue since the teacher is testing the students’ knowledge on what she assumes they know rather than on what she has taught. Looking in retrospect at this matter, one may say that if this had been tackled otherwise, the validity of testing the material taught would have been in jeopardy. Teachers generally test what has been taught not what is assumed to be known.

T: Now, here, causes would be the CI. (162)
T: How is the Th St different from the TS?
S: .... (pause)
T: TS would be equal to ...
S: ...(pause)
T: Is it the same theme?
S: No.
S: Equal.
T: Equal sure. Otherwise, you will have a different essay. T: Theme plus ...
S: One cause.
T: Yes. Theme plus cause one....
5.4.7 Conclusion

In sum, looking in retrospect to the teaching of the teacher-researcher, some by-products were observed such as a glimpse of literary criticism, revision of punctuation in context, genre and organisation in the writing task.

It was also observed in the transcript that the teaching started with a high percentage of instructive interaction (63%) but decreased to 33% informative interaction.

Again in the transcript segments associated with vocabulary revision and sentence-combining correction, the researcher finds her revisions didactic. Perhaps a less structured approach would arouse learners' metacognitive awareness to ease the complexity of vocabulary learning. Further, other methods of sentence-combining could have been experimented with, but due to time limits, this was shelved. Finally, teachers should be quite aware to test what they teach rather than what they assume the learner should know.

A further problem arose. The one type of vocabulary mistakes the researcher did not account for is referential errors (such as wait brightly) in the use of learned vocabulary. Such mistakes would perhaps be solved through exposure to the target language. How much exposure might be needed is another issue. Some other problems were also encountered such as the difficulty sometimes of harmonising between practice and theory; some ill-formed responses due to different schemata in the teacher/learners' mind, and different coherence concepts.
CHAPTER SIX: FURTHER DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the Counterbalancing Experiment, the Attitudinal Questionnaire and Patterns of lexis in essay performance. The experiment comprised 5 Pretests, 3 Midtests and 5 Posttests for both Experimental and Control Groups. The results are computed using a Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (Mancova) among other tests (figure 4.1). The Attitudinal Questionnaire comprises 4 parts which probe the learners' responses on the following:

- Their views concerning the teaching of vocabulary and sentence-combining
- Their views concerning the different aspects of the texts in the treatment versus the different aspects of the texts in the syllabus
- The rate of the learners' essay improvement
- Their views about the teacher's knowledge, and the teaching methods. (As the Quantitative Research was a Counterbalancing Experiment, the Questionnaire was given after the Midtests and after the Posttests.)

Furthermore, (Partial r) Correlation is used to find out whether there is any correlation between students' performances on the 3 variables: Essay, Vocabulary and Sentence-combining. The patterns of lexis include the study of links, bonds, ratios of bonds to links and types of repetitions in the essays of the treatment and Pretest/Posttest of both Groups.

The chapter is organised as follows: Sections 6.1 - 6.1.3 report the Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (Mancova) in the Pretest, Midtest and Posttest; Sections 6.2 - 6.2.2 analyse the results of the Attitudinal Questionnaire after the Midtest and the Posttest; Sections 6.3 - 6.3.4 analyse the results of Essays and their correlation with vocabulary and sentence-combining; finally Section 6.4 includes the study of patterns of lexis.
6.1 The Multivariate Analysis of Covariance

6.1.1 The Pretest

Counterbalancing Experiment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group A</th>
<th>Group A'</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Experimental)</td>
<td>(Control)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B</td>
<td>Group B'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Control)</td>
<td>(Experimental)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.0 is a reminder of the Experimental design used. The choice of the tests used is determined by the fact that the sample is less than 30 (N=25) in the experiment, and that more than 2 unrelated variables are involved. Hence, the use of paired and unpaired T-tests and Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (Mancova) to explore differences among variables (Tuckman 1994; Bryman and Cramer 1996). Mancova is appropriate to account for differences in the responses due to unique characteristics of the respondents (Hair, Anderson and Tatham 1995). In the case of this study, Group B had learners who lived abroad (see chapter 5). This might have led to some specific characteristics which Mancova takes account of. Further, a paired T-test is used to measure whether there is any significant difference between matched subjects, and an unpaired T-test is to measure the significant difference between independent subjects. T-test is also a robust test used to measure the significant difference of parametric and nonparametric data (Heyes et al. 1994).
Table 6.1: Multivariate Analyses of the Pretests of Group A and B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Grp. A</th>
<th>Grp. B</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig. of F.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest General Sentence-combining (PRGENSC)</td>
<td>Obs. Means 34.24</td>
<td>Obs. Means 43.52</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest General Vocabulary (PRGENVC)</td>
<td>Obs. Means 47.52</td>
<td>Obs. Means 57.36</td>
<td>9.72</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest Gibran and Hemingway Vocabulary (PRG&amp;HVC)</td>
<td>Obs. Means 33.80</td>
<td>Obs. Means 46.76</td>
<td>9.72</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest Essay (PRESSAY)</td>
<td>Obs. Means 61.72</td>
<td>Obs. Means 61.28</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.794</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p < .05

Table 6.1 reveals the results of the Pretests of Group A and B. The results of Mancova show that Group B did better, in general, in the Pretests. The difference between Group A & B is significant in three out of the five tested items. That is, General Sentence-combining (GENSC p = .037); General Vocabulary (GENVC p = .003); and Gibran and Hemingway Vocabulary (G&HVC p = .001). All three results are in favour of Group B. This seems to show that Group B (control) is more advanced in some skills of the English language.

However, there is no significant difference between Group A and B in the Pretests for G&H sentence-combining and Essay Writing. The latter is a focus of this study and since there are no significant difference for these 2 features, this can be taken to mean that the 2 Groups are similar, concerning these central variables. Yet, the 2 Groups differ significantly regarding General Vocabulary and G&H Vocabulary.

6.1.2 Midtest

The results in Table 6.2. of Mancova in the Midtest (MT) show a significant difference in favour of Group A (GENVC p = .035) and the third essay (THRDESSAY p = .018).
This may be the result of the treatment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Grp. A</th>
<th>Grp. B</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig. of F.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obs. Means 57.40</td>
<td>Obs. Means 59.68</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obs. Means 62.56</td>
<td>Obs. Means 58.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Essay (THRDESSAY)</td>
<td>Adj. Means 70.60</td>
<td>Adj. Means 64.92</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obs. Means 69.80</td>
<td>Obs. Means 65.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05*

However, there is no significant difference in the results of the Midtest of the General Sentence-combining (table 6.2) in spite of the previously mentioned significant result in favour of Group B (table 6.1). In other words, Group A experimental reached the same level as Group B in General Sentence-combining as a result of the treatment.

6.1.3 Posttest

Table 6.3 displays the results of the Posttest of Group A' and B'. The results of Mancova in the Posttest show that there are significant differences in GENVC and GENSC respectively (p = .006; p = .043) in favour of Group B'. This significant difference was also evident in the Pretests (GENVC p = .003 and GENSC p = .037) seen in table 6.1 again in favour of Group B'.
This seems to show that Group B' was again significantly more advanced in General Vocabulary as it was in the Pretest in spite of the fact that Group A did significantly better in the Midtest General Vocabulary (GENVC p = .035 in table 6.2). Perhaps General Vocabulary learning needs more than 8 weeks of treatment to maintain a long term effect. The same hypothesis seems to be applicable to General Sentence-combining (GENSC), since there is again a significant difference in the Posttest in favour of Group B' (GENSC p = .043), whereas there was none in the Midtest (table 6.2). However, there is no significant difference between Group A' and B' in Gibran and Hemingway Vocabulary (table 6.3) although this difference existed in the Pretest in favour of Group B (table 6.1). The result of the Posttest reconfirms that Group B is more advanced, and that if Group A improved in the Midterm, it is probably due to the treatment.

It is worth recalling that 8 weeks had passed before Group A' was administered the Posttest, whereas Group B' was administered the Posttest directly after the treatment. This was inevitable and in the nature of the Counterbalance Design. In spite of this lapse of time, there is no significant difference between both Group A' and B' in G&H

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Grp. A'</th>
<th>Grp. B'</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig. of F.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Posttest Essay (PSESSAY)</td>
<td>Adj. Means 70.35</td>
<td>Adj. Means 70.21</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obs. Means 71.20</td>
<td>Obs. Means 69.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest General Sentence-combining (PSGENSC)</td>
<td>Adj. Means 64.99</td>
<td>Adj. Means 67.29</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obs. Means 67.08</td>
<td>Obs. Means 65.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obs. Means 59.32</td>
<td>Obs. Means 65.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obs. Means 78.84</td>
<td>Obs. Means 75.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest Gibran &amp; Hemingway Vocabulary (PSG&amp;HVC)</td>
<td>Adj. Means 72.25</td>
<td>Adj. Means 76.43</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obs. Means 72.16</td>
<td>Obs. Means 76.52</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
vocabulary and G&H sentence-combining, the two subskills targeted on in the treatment to improve Essay writing. The two subskills, vocabulary and sentence-combining seem to have a relatively long term effect.

6.2 The Attitudinal Questionnaire Results
The Attitudinal Questionnaire has been used as a qualitative technique to counterbalance the limitations of the quantitative design. It includes a quantitative scale measure and qualitative open-ended questions which give learners the possibility to express their attitudes towards the treatment and the content of the syllabus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syllabus</th>
<th>Treatment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Why We Fall in Love</td>
<td>2. Indian Camp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Diogenes and Alexander</td>
<td>3. On Reason and Passion and On Work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.1 At Midpoint
Figure 6.1 presents the texts used in the treatment and those used in the syllabus. After the learners were given the Midtest, they were asked to fill out a Questionnaire (see Appendices 1 & 2). Among the questions in Section II, students were asked in open-ended questions to make suggestions for the improvement of the course up to this midterm point (see table 6.4).
Table 6.4 displays these suggestions, according to the division between Group A and B at midterm point. Both Group A and B wanted the inclusion of oral skills, recognised the importance of rewriting and requested or approved vocabulary learning. Rewriting which relies on teachers feedback is wanted and necessary (Muncie 2000). Further, 6 subjects in Group A gave general approving comments, whereas 20 subjects in Group B made specific requests or gave suggestions. In other words, more subjects in Group B (control) had requests and suggestions. The requests include vocabulary teaching, sentence-combining teaching, more reading and more essay writing (the first two are, of course, the focus of the experiment).

- The Rating of Part III of Group A and B

Four questions of Part III of the Attitudinal Questionnaire request the learners to rate on a scale, of a low 1 to a high 10, the following:

1. I rate the improvement of my essays at this point in the course as...
2. The teacher's knowledge of the subject is ...
3. The teacher likes the material she teaches.
4. The teacher's teaching method is ...

Table 6.4 Suggestions made by Group A and B at midterm point

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables in Group A</th>
<th>no. of Ss</th>
<th>Variables in Group B</th>
<th>no. of Ss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Include oral skills in the course</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Inclusion of oral skill in the course</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of rewriting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Importance of rewriting</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Include articles from magazines</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Request vocabulary learning</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approve choice of texts &amp; teaching</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Suggest to work on sentence-combining</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension as well as oral skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Suggest different topics to read</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have improved</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Suggest more stimulating essays</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Suggest to have an essay as practice for essay writing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Suggest not to stick to the syllabus writing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Suggest more reading to improve</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Request more essay writing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Questions 3, 4, and 5 are included to monitor the possibility of any biased attitude or general change of approach of the researcher as teacher across the groups (as seen by the students) since the researcher had to teach both experimental and control groups. Students' responses to these items were compared across the groups using a T-test. The results of this comparison are shown in table 6.5.

Table 6.5: T-test related to Part III questions 1, 3, 4 & 5 of the Attitudinal Questionnaire at Midpoint

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Quest.</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. of Cases</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-Tail Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Q4Essay</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Q1Essay</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5.84</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Q1Knowl</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9.56</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Q2Knowl</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Q2Inter</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9.76</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>.433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Q3Inter</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9.60</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Q3Method</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.92</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>.776</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Q4Method</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.80</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p < .05

N.B. The same questions were given to both groups, but the numbers presented in table 6.5 are different because the number of questions varies in these 2 groups.

Table 6.5 shows that there is a significant difference concerning question 1 (p = .012), *rating the improvement of the learner's essay*; question 3 (p = .027), *rating the teacher's knowledge of the subject* in favour of Group A. Again the students' perception corresponds to the results of the Midtest of Essay 3 (p = .018 shown in table 6.2). The significant difference related to question 3 in favour of Group A may be due to the fact of studying and practising vocabulary and sentence-combining. This may have given the impression to students that the teacher is more knowledgeable in the method used in the treatment. Alternatively, the students may have detected a possible particular interest of the teacher in these topics. However, if this is experimental bias, it should show up on question 4 results also i.e. whether *the teacher liked the material she taught*. As shown
in table 6.5, it does not do so since there is no significant difference here. Furthermore, question 5 states how good was the teacher's teaching method. There is no significant difference on question 5 either. These results support the interpretation that the element of subjectivity is, as far as can be gauged, minimal.

Question 2, in Part III of the Attitudinal Questionnaire, gives the learners the possibility of making suggestions for the improvement of the course up to this point (i.e. midpoint). Table 6.6 lists the suggestions of learners, comparing those of Group A and B. Only 6 out of 25 learners, in Group A, but 19 out of 25 in Group B commented.

Table 6.6 Suggestions made by Group A and B, question 2 in Part III of the Attitudinal Questionnaire at Midpoint

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables in Group A</th>
<th>no. of Ss</th>
<th>Variables in Group B</th>
<th>no. of Ss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ask for the inclusion of oral skills in the course</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ask for the inclusion of oral skills in the course</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mention the importance of rewriting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Mention the importance of rewriting</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask for the inclusion of articles from magazines</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Request vocabulary learning</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approve the choice of texts and the teaching of vocabulary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Suggest to work with sentence-comb.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension as well as the oral skill have improved</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Suggest different topics to read</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total 6</td>
<td>Suggest to have an essay as a practice for essay writing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Suggest not to stick to the syllabus</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Request more essay writing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Suggest more reading to improve</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total 19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Again the small number of suggestions (6 out of 25 students) in Group A might mean that students believe there is no need for suggestions i.e. they are relatively content with the course. One notices that 4 is the highest number of subjects to make the same suggestions in Group B, but the second to the highest is 3 and those learners request vocabulary learning and more essay writing. Grabe and
Kaplan (1996) mention that taking into account learners' suggestions is an important factor in the improvement of essay writing. So teachers should take into account this fact.

- Attitude of Group A and B' Towards the Treatment

Part I of the Attitudinal Questionnaire is related to learners in the experimental Group A & B' (Appendices 1 & 4). It involves 11 questions concerning the learners' attitude towards the treatment. 6 out of 11 questions probe the learners' attitude towards vocabulary teaching; the remaining 5 ask about sentence-combining. The vocabulary questions are as follows:

1. *Underlining the vocabulary in the reading text helps focusing my attention on the word underlined.*
2. *Giving me a list of the words with an explanation helps me learning these items.*
3. *Oral vocabulary revision in the classroom helps me retaining words.*
4. *Fill in the blank exercises help me producing words that I have learned.*
5. *Word matching helps me using vocabulary in the essay.*
6. *Writing sentences with matched words make me concentrate on the structure of sentences.*

The purpose of the T-test is to find out whether there is any significant difference in the attitude of both experimental Group B' and A towards vocabulary teaching in the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. of Cases</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-Tail Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B'</td>
<td>Quest1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td></td>
<td>46.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Quest1</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B'</td>
<td>Quest2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td></td>
<td>40.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Quest2</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Table 6.7, there is no significant difference between both experimental Group B' and A in any of the six questions probing learners on their perception concerning the teaching of vocabulary. In other words, the response of the 2 Experimental Groups is relatively constant irrespective of the content of the syllabus or primacy/recency of the treatment. Apparently, the students have consistent perceptions about the vocabulary teaching and learning strategies tested no matter what they are taught, even when such teaching intends to include an emphasis on vocabulary.

Furthermore, the five following questions (questions 7-11) elicit both Experimental Group B' and A perceptions, concerning the teaching of sentence-combining. The questions are as follows:

7. Sentence-combining (S-C) helps me writing sentences with fewer sentence structure mistakes.
8. S-C helps me writing complex sentences.
10. S-C makes me aware of different possibilities of writing sentences.
11. S-C does not help me writing complex sentences.

Again a T-test was used to compare the groups' responses to these items. The results are shown in Table 6.8.
It is interesting to notice that this time there is a significant difference between Group B' and A. This difference concerns question 7 asking whether sentence-combining helps writing sentences with fewer sentence structure mistakes. The significant difference is in favour of Group A ($p = .024$). Perhaps this is due to the fact that Group B' did significantly better in the Pretest of the General Sentence-combining ($p = .037$ in table 6.1), and therefore, they did not need much the sentence-combining subskill, whereas Group A, less advanced, gave higher response to question 7. This result confirms the test of North American survey which was carried in Freshman English at Miami University. 69% of the students, at Miami University, approved of sentence-combining as an approach to writing, and 72% confirmed that it helps them increase their writing skills (Daiker et al. 1978).
On the other hand, there is no significant difference between Group B' and Group A (both experimental) in the last four questions, 8, 9, 10, and 11, concerning sentence-combining. The result of questions 8 and 11, which state respectively, *S-C helps me writing complex sentences; S-C does not help me writing complex sentences*, though similar in content, have been used to check on the authenticity of the learners' answer. The results seem to indicate that learners answered the questions quite conscientiously. However, it may be surprising that the students do not feel that sentence-combining helps with writing complex sentences, since this is arguably a main purpose of sentence-combining practice exercises and, as the reference to the survey mentioned above shows, there is some evidence to support this purpose.

6.2.2. Results of the Attitudinal Questionnaire at End Point

- Attitude of Group A' and B' Towards Other Factors

After both Group A' and B' were given the Posttests, they were also given an Attitudinal Questionnaire in which they were asked to rate again the improvement of their essay, on a scale ranging from a low of 1 to a high of 10 (table 6.3). (Learners have always known their Essay grades since they had to rewrite and resubmit. However, it is the first grade of the essays that was counted for the present study). The question is as follows:

1. *I rate the improvement of my essays at this point in the course as ...*

Table 6.9 presents part III of the Attitudinal Questionnaire and includes three questions, rating the teacher knowledge, liking and method of teaching to control any bias of the researcher since the teacher and the researcher are the same person. The questions are as follows:

3. *The teacher's knowledge of the subject is*

4. *The teacher likes the material she teaches.*

5. *The teacher's teaching method is...*
Table 6.9 reveals a significant difference (p = .008) in favour of Group A' for question 1. In spite of the fact that Group A' had finished the treatment 8 weeks before the Posttest was given, the perception of their essay improvement was better than that of Group B'. This may be a further indication that timing of Group B' was inappropriate.

Two learners of Group A came back to the researcher, after the course was over, and told her that they were still using the treatment method in their other English courses as well as other subjects, and that the results were good. This reinforces the interpretation of the T-test result for question 1, which is that Group A perceived some benefits for the treatment and that this perception was maintained through the rest of the semester. Perhaps one may say that the treatment, which seemed to boost the moral of the subjects, is also a motivating agent.

- The results of the T-test (table 6.9) show that there is no significant difference concerning the teacher's knowledge of the material taught to Group B' and A'. These results indicate that there was little or no bias concerning the students' perception of the teacher's approach. On the other hand, table 6.9 reveals that there is a significant difference in favour of Group A', on question 5, concerning the
method of teaching \( p = .039 \).

In the opinion of the researcher, the latter result is due to the fact that Group A' was still under the impression of the method used in the treatment 8 weeks previously, whereas Group B' was still under the impression of the method used in the syllabus before the treatment was given. Alternatively, Group A could have continued to use the method of the treatment which produced this impression. This could, also, be a recency effect for Group B but not for A. Furthermore, the end of the semester was near, and learners were often absent and busy catching up with courses in their major and preparing for exams. The first impression seems to be the last forgotten.

A further question is related to suggestions for the improvement of the course.

14 out of 25 learners in Group B', but 7 out of 24 in Group A' made the suggestions categorized in Table 6.10. The larger number of respondents in Group B' Experimental, contrary to when Group A' was experimental, again reconfirms the possibility that the first impression is the last forgotten.

Table 6.10 Suggestions made by Group B' and A'  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables in Group B'</th>
<th>no. of Ss</th>
<th>Variable in Group A'</th>
<th>no. of Ss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The treatment helps essay writing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Request more texts to study</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The inclusion of oral skill</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Approve the topics chosen for writing composition</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request more essay writing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary and sentence-combining help improving essay writing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Requests more discussion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay correction is important</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Regarding the texts studied</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request the continuous study of vocabulary</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Considers rewriting as an excellent mean for improving essay writing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>14</strong></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Requests more texts from the Treatment and less from syllabus | 1 |
Complains about the number of vocabulary tests | 1 |
Request more exercises on vocab. and sentence-comb. | 1 |
| **Total** | **7** |
If one compares the suggestions of Group A’ and B’ after they had both been through the syllabus and the treatment, one notices that both groups request further study of vocabulary and sentence-combining. Six subjects in Group B’ mention the teaching of vocabulary and 2 subjects suggest the teaching of sentence-combining and vocabulary, whereas 1 learner in Group A’ requests vocabulary and sentence-combining. Perhaps the 43% (N=6) of the learners in Group B’, who ask for the continuation of vocabulary teaching, are able to differentiate between studying vocabulary or not, while Group A’ (i.e. A), which started with the treatment, is more aware of vocabulary and continued autonomous vocabulary learning. Another common suggestion is the importance of rewriting as a mean of improving discourse. Many writers, as a matter of fact, recommend rewriting (Zamel 1985; Richards 1990; Kroll 1994; Muncie 2000). However, as the discussion of the results of comparing students’ perception of sentence-combining (see table 6.8) showed, it is not clear cut that all students see the benefit of sentence-combining i.e. perhaps they do not see that sentence-combining exercises as rewriting activities designed to improve essay writing or that sentence-combining is more beneficial to less advanced learners.

Enjoyment of Texts Studied in the Treatment and the Syllabus by Group A’

Section III of the Attitudinal Questionnaire investigates the subjects of Group A’ on their enjoyment of the texts studied in the treatment as well as the syllabus and the reason for their enjoyment. The purpose of the T-test is to show whether there is any significant difference between the enjoyment of the texts studied in the treatment and those studied in the syllabus. The results are displayed in table 6.11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. of pairs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-Tail Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A’</td>
<td>Hills</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>.614</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A’</td>
<td>Eskimo</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A’</td>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>.640</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A’</td>
<td>Love</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.11 reveals no significant difference between the enjoyment of the first text given in the treatment, *Hills Like White Elephants*, and the text of the syllabus, *Women in the Eskimo World* in Group A'. However, there is a highly significant difference (p = .001) in favour of text 2 in the syllabus, *Why We Fall in Love*.

In the view of the researcher, the title of text 2 is sufficient to understand the reason for this significant difference: the theme of falling in love is of major interest to university students who at undergraduate level at LAU are really all young adults who have arrived at university straight from school. This interest might be the cause of their preference.

There is also a highly significant difference (p ≤ .001) in favour of text 3, *Diogenes and Alexander* in the syllabus. The researcher remembers the complaints of some students in Group A concerning the difficulty of comprehending the parallel text in the treatment, *On Reason and Passion* and *On Work*. Learners thought that the text was philosophical and considered this a cause for complaint. However, this is no reason to discard valuable texts. The less the literature is seen as relevant to the students, the more the teacher has to find ways to link it to the learners (Carter and Long 1991), provided that there are sound reasons for choosing the text in the first place.

- Enjoyment of The Texts in the Treatment and the Syllabus by Group B’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. of pairs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-Tail Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B'</td>
<td>Hills</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>.624</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>.328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B'</td>
<td>Eskimo</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>.676</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B'</td>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>.741</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>.714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B'</td>
<td>Love</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1.090</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Again the purpose of the T-test in table 6.12 is to find out whether there is a significant difference between the enjoyment of the texts studied in the treatment and those studied in the syllabus. The results indicate that Group B' had different levels of enjoyment of the texts studied in the syllabus and the treatment. It also shows no significant difference in the enjoyment of text 1 and text 2 which are:

- text 1, *Hills Like White Elephants* (treatment) versus *Women in the Eskimo World*
- text 2, *Indian Camp* (treatment) versus *Why We Fall in Love.*

However, Group B', in contrast to Group A', enjoyed text 3, *On Reason and Passion* and *On Work* significantly more (p = .022). It is recalled that Group B was more advanced and this may be the reason for not finding the text difficult or philosophical.

- Reasons for the Enjoyment of the Texts in the Treatment by Group B' and A'

Section III of the Attitudinal Questionnaire also includes the reasons for the learners' enjoyment concerning the texts studied in the treatment. These are categorized as shown in table 6.13.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for enjoyment</th>
<th>Text No. of Ss</th>
<th>Reasons for enjoyment</th>
<th>Text No. of Ss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hills Like White Elephants</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Find the topic interesting</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoy the text for its possible variety of interpretation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Approves of the text because it requires deep</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoy the simplicity of the style</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Likes the different possibilities of interpreting the text</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoy the social problem that the text presents</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 2</td>
<td>No. of Ss</td>
<td>Text 2</td>
<td>No. of Ss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian Camp</td>
<td>Enjoys the knowledge on medical ethics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Indian Camp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoys the text because it improves his/her essay writing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Think that the story is uninteresting</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoys the author</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Think that the story is interesting</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoy the social problem presented in the text</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Enjoy the moral of the story</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not find the topic interesting</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Enjoys the text because of the new vocabulary</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find the topic interesting</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text 3</th>
<th>No. of Ss</th>
<th>Text 3</th>
<th>No. of Ss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>On Reason and Passion</td>
<td>FInd the topic interesting and important</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>On Reason and Passion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consider Khalil Gibran as their favourite author</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Thinks that the text teaches how to think</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dislike the philosophical topic</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Likes the text because it teaches vocab.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Dislike the reading because it is philosophical</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Find the text difficult to understand</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| On Work | Find the topic interesting and important | 10 | On Work | Think it is an interesting topic | 5 |
| Consider the author as their favourite | 3 | Think it makes them value work | 4 |
| Dislike the philosophical top | 4 | Likes the text because it teaches vocab. | 1 |
| | 17 | Thinks the text is difficult to understand | 1 |
| | | Dislikes the topic | 1 |
| | | | 12 |
Table 6.13 shows that 22 learners in Group A’ and 20 learners in Group B’ gave reasons for the enjoyment of the text 1, *Hills Like White Elephants*. Some reasons are common to both. Both groups find *Hills Like White Elephants* interesting (55%, N=11 in Group B’ versus 68% (N=15) in Group A’) and both enjoy different possibilities of interpretation.

On the other hand, 2 subjects in Group B’ are aware of and mention the simplicity of Hemingway’s style, and 2 subjects in Group A’ are aware of the new vocabulary acquired. Awareness is a means of learning (Van Lier 1996; Andelman in Coady and Huckin 1997; McDonough 1999). Five out of 20 subjects in Group B’ mention the social problem in the short story as one source of enjoyment, whereas none mention this factor in Group A’. Perhaps 25% (N=5) in Group B’ is a low percentage, but one needs to consider the Lebanese culture which considers extra marital sex a taboo. The fact that some students in this group spent most of their school years abroad might explain their greater awareness of the social problem in text 1.

On *Indian Camp*, text 2 in the treatment, 18 learners in each Group A’ and B’ gave reasons for their enjoyment. There are some common reasons between both Groups. 78% (N=14) in Group A’ versus 78% (N=14) in Group B’ enjoy *Indian Camp*. Again 1 subject in Group A’ is aware of the new vocabulary learned, and 1 subject in Group B’ is aware of the strategies used for the improvement of essay writing.

19 subjects in Group A’ commented *On Reason and Passion* and 12 *On Work*, and 19 subjects in Group B’ commented on *On Reason and Passion* and 17 on *On Work*. That is, 58% (N=11) of Group A’ versus 68% (N=13) of Group B’ enjoyed text 3. 58% is quite a high percentage if one considers the fact that Group A grumbled about the difficulty of understanding a philosophical text. Perhaps this percentage also reveals that in spite of their difficulties, learners enjoy such a topic if they are helped in comprehending it. In addition, 68% corresponds to the significant difference (p = .022) in favour of Group B’, concerning the enjoyment of text 3, of the treatment (table 6.12).
On the other hand, 32% (N=6) and 17% (N=2) of Group A' found *On Reason and Passion* and *On Work*, respectively, difficult, while 68% (N=13) and 59% (N=10) of Group B' found respectively *On Reason and Passion* and *On Work* interesting. Again 1 subject in Group A' mentions his/her awareness of vocabulary learning in both texts.

- Reasons for the Enjoyment of the Texts in the Syllabus by Group B' and A'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>No. of Ss</th>
<th>Reasons for enjoyment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women in the Eskimo World</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It introduces different traditions</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>It introduces different traditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finds the text easy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>It teaches vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find the text boring</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Dislikes the topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why We Fall in Love</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Think it an interesting topic</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Enjoy the scientific analysis of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoy the sc. analysis of the topic</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>the topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not understand the text</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Think it is an interesting topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dislike the analysis of the topic</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>It teaches vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Dislike it because they disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>with the author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diogenes &amp; Alexander</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoy the text because it deals</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Find the topic interesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with well known characters</td>
<td></td>
<td>Like the text because of the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoys the text because it is</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>comparison bet. the charact.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a historical event</td>
<td></td>
<td>Likes the text for its identification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoys the excerpt because</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>with the character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he/she understands it</td>
<td></td>
<td>Dislike it because of no new vocab.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoys the text because it deals</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with justice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finds the text uninteresting</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.14 shows the reasons that Group A' and B' gave for enjoying the texts in the syllabus and the texts. As displayed in table 6.14, an equal number of subjects (19) in Group A' and B' commented on text 1 in the syllabus, *Women in The Eskimo World*. In fact, 89% (N=17) of Group A' and 68% (N=13) of Group B' like the novelty in the customs presented in the text. However, 26% (N=5) of Group B' and 5% (N=1) of Group A find the topic boring. Perhaps the comment boring reconfirms the fact that the more advanced learners (i.e. Group B') prefer more challenging texts.

20 subjects in Group A', and 22 subjects in Group B' commented on text 2 in the syllabus, *Why We Fall in Love*. 68% (N=15) of Group B' and 85% (N=17) of Group A' enjoyed the scientific analysis of the topic and found it interesting.

On *Diogenes and Alexander*, text 3 in the syllabus, 8 subjects in Group A', and 14 in Group B' commented. More learners in Group A', that is 88% (N=7) enjoyed the text in the syllabus versus 43% (N=6) of Group B'.

- One observes as a result of the learners' suggestions that what is liked by Group A' is less liked by Group B'. Again, it might be assumed that learners' liking and disliking depends in part on their linguistic capability and maturity, knowing that Group B' is more advanced (table 6.1).

- Choice and Rating of Texts by Group B' and A'

Section V of the Attitudinal Questionnaire entails the choice and rating of 4 texts of what learners have studied in the treatment and the syllabus in English III. (Most of the learners in both Groups did not rate their choice but chose the texts.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Group B'</th>
<th>Group A'</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Hills Like White Elephants</em></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>(TI)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Why We Fall in Love</em></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>(St)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>On Reason and Passion</em></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>(TI)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>On Work</em></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>(TI)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Indian Camp</em></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>(TI)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Women in the Eskimo World</em></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>(St)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Diogenes and Alexander</em></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>(St)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: TI: treatment text; St: syllabus text
Table 6.15, which displays the choice of texts by Group B’ and A’, reveals that the highest number of subjects in Group B’ chose two texts from the treatment, *Hills Like White Elephants* and *On Reason and Passion*, and one text from the syllabus, *Why We Fall in Love*. The 4th choice is *On Work*, part of text 3 in the treatment. The choice of *On Reason and Passion* and *On Work* by Group B’ corresponds to the significant difference (p = .022 in table 6.12) in favour of the texts studied in the treatment. This fact reconfirms that learners in Group B, who are more mature, like different kinds of texts. On the other hand, the choice of, *Hills Like White Elephants* and *Why We Fall in Love* do not correspond to the results which reveal no significant difference (table 6.12) in the enjoyment of texts studied in the treatment and the syllabus by Group B’.

One also notices that Group A’ which complained about the difficulty of text 3 in the treatment, *On Reason and Passion* and *On Work*, rated *On Work* at the bottom of their rank ordering, according to choice of the treatment texts. In fact, T-test results of Group A’ concerning the enjoyment of text 3 in the syllabus is highly significant (p = .000 in table 6.11). The highest number of subjects, chose text 1 in the syllabus, *Women in the Eskimo World*, and two texts in the treatment, *On Reason and Passion*, along with *Hills Like White Elephants* as their first 3 choices. However, T-test results of Group A’ concerning the enjoyment of text 2 (table 6.11) reveal a highly significant difference (p = .001) in favour of the text studied in the syllabus, *Why We Fall in Love*. The rating of Group A’ contradicts the result of the T-test concerning text 2. Perhaps learners were distracted. Learners have other things in mind, sometimes, than being students (Allwright and Bailey 1991).

In sum, it is interesting to note that the Attitudinal Questionnaire, which probed subjects’ attitude towards the treatment highlighted that both Group A and B’ need vocabulary as a subskill to the teaching of essay performance and that learners, in general, requested rewriting. However, sentence-combining is more appreciated by less advanced learners. Group A, after the Posttest, rated 2 out of 3 texts from the treatment as their main choice. Perhaps, time has played its role. It is also interesting again to observe that first impression is the last forgotten.
6.3 The Essay Analysis

6.3.1 Posttest Essay (A' and B')

Mancova is computed to find out whether there is any significant difference between the Posttest Essays of both experimental Group A' and B'. The result is shown in table 6.15'. The result reveals no significant difference between Group A' and B', that is, between the experimental and control group, although there had been a significant difference in the Midtest Essay in favour of Group A (experimental) (p = .018 in table 6.2). It is important to observe that the treatment in essay writing, which is the main objective of the experiment, seems to have a relatively long term effect. (Group A had finished the treatment 8 weeks before the Posttest was given.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group A'</th>
<th>Group B'</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Posttest Essay (psessay)</td>
<td>Adj. Means 70.35</td>
<td>Adj. Means 70.21</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obs. Means 71.20</td>
<td>Obs. Means 69.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, one might question the fact that if the treatment is effective, why is its effectiveness not revealed in Group B’ Posttest Essay? The researcher's interpretation is that timing was inappropriate. Learners were by that point in the semester demoralised because of the poor grades they had been receiving in spite of the fact that the teacher was telling them that the teaching method would change in the second part of the experimental design. The fact that some students received low grades can be related to self-esteem. Maslow (1970) and Child (1993) allocate a prominent position to self-esteem and self-actualisation in the hierarchy of human needs. Both believe that confidence in oneself and the need for respect from others are crucial in providing a base for intellectual pursuits. Thus, it is possible that receiving low grades led to low self-esteem which might have affected later classroom performance and the later posttest questionnaire. Further, the end of the semester was close and learners in Group B’ were often absent preparing for exams, missing some of the vocabulary and sentence-
combining exercises. The focus of the learners' attention was on the courses of their major studies rather than on English. All these factors contributed to the actual results.

6.3.2 Inter-rater Reliability
As essay correction tends to be subjective, inter-reliability was obtained by using a second scorer, and the average of both scores is used, in spite of the fact that there is a high correlation in the essay correction of both raters (r = .975 in Appendix 15').

6.3.3 Other Essays (A and B; A' and B')
i. Essays of Group A and B
Mancova is computed again to study whether there is any significant difference in the results of the treatment essays of Group A and B. There is a significant difference in Essay 3 (THRDESSAY p = .018; p = .021 in favour of Group A and B' respectively in table 6.16).

figure 6.2 Charts representing results of essays in the treatment (A and B; A' and B')

Key: Numbers in the y axis represent grades.
Figure 6.2 represents in a chart form the results of the essays in the treatment of both Group A and B and A' and B'. In the second chart, Essay 2 of the control Group is visualised as better than its equivalent in the experimental. However, the difference is not significant.

Table 6.16 Results of Essays in the Treatment (A and B; A’ and B’)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Grp. A</th>
<th>Grp. B</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Essay 1</td>
<td>Adj. Means 65.57</td>
<td>Adj. Means 63.87</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obs. Means 65.52</td>
<td>Obs. Means 63.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obs. Means 67.16</td>
<td>Obs. Means 67.76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 3</td>
<td>Adj. Means 70.60</td>
<td>Adj. Means 64.92</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obs. Means 69.80</td>
<td>Obs. Means 65.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Grp. A’</th>
<th>Grp. B’</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig. of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Essay 1</td>
<td>Adj. Means 68.57</td>
<td>Adj. Means 69.63</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obs. Means 69.62</td>
<td>Obs. Means 69.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 2</td>
<td>Adj. Means 73.27</td>
<td>Adj. Means 71.57</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obs. Means 73.96</td>
<td>Obs. Means 70.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 3</td>
<td>Adj. Means 71.62</td>
<td>Adj. Means 74.50</td>
<td>5.70</td>
<td>.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obs. Means 72.68</td>
<td>Obs. Means 73.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.16 displays the results of the essays of both experimental and control groups. The result shown in table 6.16 is significant in Essay 3 only. This could be due to the fact that learners needed time to be aware of the procedure used in the treatment or perhaps the procedure needs a lapse of time to be effective. However, the Attitudinal Questionnaire of Group A towards improvement in the essay is significant (p = .012) after the treatment and continued to be so until the Posttest (p = .008 in tables 6.8 and 6.9) although the results of the Posttest Essay reveal no significant difference between Group A’ and B’ (table 6.15'). Again, the researcher wishes to emphasize that how subjects
perceive themselves as learners is an important factor, for the urge to learn L2 cannot be
taken for granted.

ii Essays of Group A’ and B’

The result of Essay 3 in favour of Group B’ (p = .021 in table 6.16) is important. It
reconfirms the fact that the treatment is effective as it is the case with Group A (table
6.2), but time is needed. However, the mere fact that Group A’ (control) performed on
Essay 1 and 2 as well as Group B’ (experimental), since there is no significant difference
in Essay 1 and 2, suggests again that the treatment has a relatively long term effect.

Yet some limitations of the study are encountered. The treatment should have
been carried on a longer period of time. It was also noticed that two poor learners in
Group A’ got back to their old habits after the treatment was over, i.e. writing run-on-
sentences and fragments. When the teacher talked to these students, they both admitted
that it is easier to revert to old habits. Johns (in Hamp-Lyons 1991) confirms that some
learners revert to old habits under time pressure. In these two cases, habit seemed to
have become a second nature.

Another limitation is that there was no possibility of checking whether this
phenomenon is also true of Group B’ because of the nature of the Counterbalancing
Experiment. Had the Counterbalancing Method not been used, a further cumbersome
aftermath result, the Midtests, could have been avoided, and the possibility of checking
whether other learners revert to old habits could have been checked.

Also the perception of learners in Group B’ on the improvement of their Essays
in the Attitudinal Questionnaire is not significant. It is significant to Group A’ (p = .008
in table 6.9). It seems that learners in Group B’, had a hard time forgetting the results of
their essays before the treatment and continued to view themselves as doing poorly. The
first impression seems the last forgotten. In fact, a learner’s self-image may be more
influential in learning than factors such as intelligence quotient (IQ) or the difficulty of
the subject (Lembo 1972; Child 1993).
6.3.4 Correlation Between Vocabulary, Sentence-combining and Essays

- Group A

Before any Essay was given to Group A, students were taught and tested on Vocabulary (VOC) and Sentence-combining (S-C). Also care was taken to have both Vocabulary and Sentence-combining Tests corrected and given back to students so that learners could become aware of and learn from their mistakes before the Essay writing. Three Vocabulary Tests, three Sentence-combining and three Essays are respectively part of the treatment.

Partial r correlation has been used to calculate the correlation between these variables because of the inclusion of more than two variables, that is, Vocabulary, Sentence-combining and Essay Performance. This test allows the researcher to examine the relationship between two variables while holding one or more variables constant (Bryman and Cramer 1996). However, as the researcher is interested in the correlation of Sentence-combining and Essay, Vocabulary and Essay, the other possibility (i.e. correlation of vocabulary and sentence-combining) was deleted from the tables of Correlation. The results of the Partial r correlation are displayed in table 6.17.

Table 6.17: Correlation of the three variables of Group A, in texts 1, 2 and 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatment</th>
<th>No of Cases</th>
<th>Treatment 1</th>
<th>Treatment 2</th>
<th>Treatment 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ess1</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>Ess2 1.000</td>
<td>Ess3 1.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc1</td>
<td>r=.326</td>
<td>Voc2 r=.630</td>
<td>Voc3 r=.334</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p=.056</td>
<td>p=.000</td>
<td>p=.051</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sc1</td>
<td>r=.237</td>
<td>Sc2 r=-.123</td>
<td>Sc3 r=.404</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p=.127</td>
<td>p=.279</td>
<td>p=.022</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p < .05

Table 6.17 reveals no significant correlation between Essay Performance and Vocabulary in treatment 1. Also there is no significant correlation between Sentence-combining and Essay Performance in treatment 1. A plausible interpretation of these results is that learners took some time to be aware of the link among Vocabulary, Sentence-combining and Essay Performance although the researcher kept on restating the purpose of the treatment. Furthermore, the Attitude of learners concerning sentence-combining and
Essay performance in the Attitudinal Questionnaire is almost the same as the result of the correlation with the exception of question 7 which probes whether sentence-combining helps writing sentences with fewer sentence structure mistakes \((p = .024)\) in favour of Group A (tables 6.8 & 6.17).

The results of the Correlation of the three variables: Essay Performance, Vocabulary and Sentence-combining, on text 2, Indian Camp, reveal a high correlation between Vocabulary and Essay Performance \((r = .630)\), but none between Sentence-combining and Essay Performance (table 6.17).

Again the lack of significant correlation in Treatment 2 between sentence-combining and essay is perhaps due to the fact that learners need more time to be aware of this link. It reinforces comments made earlier in relation to table 6.10, that students do not all see any benefit of using sentence-combining to write different types of sentences. However, the high significant difference and correlation between vocabulary and Essay 2 reveal a progress and an awareness among learners. This again shows that the study of vocabulary, one of the two subskills, seems beneficial to essay performance, the purpose of the research.

Furthermore, there is no significant correlation between vocabulary and essay performance in treatment 3, but an improvement in the level of correlation between sentence-combining and essay performance \((Sc3 \ r = .404)\) in table 6.17. Perhaps the lack of significant correlation in Vocabulary and Essay performance is due to the fact that learners found some difficulty in Text 3 although there is a significant difference in the Essay performance of this text \((p = .018)\) in table 6.16. Alternatively, the vocabulary chosen did not necessarily coincide with the essay topic, in terms of the students’ awareness of relevance and possible vocabulary use or in terms of individual differences.

- In sum, although the Correlation between Vocabulary and Essay Performance is inconsistent in the three treatments of Group A, it is significant in treatment 2
Perhaps by improving the rate of vocabulary production, there will be better consistency in vocabulary results (Ellis 1986). Individual variation in L2 vocabulary skills and the factors that might lead to such variation need to be considered (Johns in Hamp-Lyons 1991; Schouten-Van Parren in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996). The above statement may explain the inconsistency of the correlation results.

Group B'

**Table 6.18:** Correlation of the three variables of Group B' in texts 1, 2 and 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatment 1</th>
<th>Treatment 2</th>
<th>Treatment 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ess1 1.000</td>
<td>Ess2 1.000</td>
<td>Ess3 1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc1 r=.492</td>
<td>Voc2 r=.105</td>
<td>Voc3 r=.321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p=.006</td>
<td>p=.309</td>
<td>p=.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sc1 r=.238</td>
<td>Sc2 r=-.020</td>
<td>Sc3 r=.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p=.126</td>
<td>p=.462</td>
<td>p=.412</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.18 introduces the correlation of the three variables of Group B' in texts 1, 2 and 3. The results of the Correlation of the three variables: Essay Performance, Vocabulary and Sentence-combining of text 1, *Hills Like White Elephants* in Group B' reveal a significant correlation between Vocabulary and Essay Performance in treatment 1 (r = .492) (table 6.18). However, there is no significant correlation between Sentence-combining and Essay Performance. Again the researcher believes that the same interpretation of the results of Group A could apply to Group B'. That is, perhaps learners need more time to be aware of the link between Sentence-combining and Essay Performance.


- In sum, the results of the three Treatments of Group B' are negatively consistent. There is a correlation in Treatment 1 in vocabulary, no correlation in Treatment 2 and 3 (table 6.18). Vocabulary is a difficult aspect of language competence to measure (Meara 1996; Coady and Huckin 1997; Zimmerman 1998), and vocabulary chosen by students’ writers varies significantly with topic type (Reid in Kroll 1990), regardless of the fact that learners know more words than what they produce. In addition, the correlation between Sentence-combining and Essay performance is not significant in all 3 Treatments. However, as there was a significant difference in Essay 3 of both experimental Group A and B', one may assume that vocabulary and sentence-combining subskills contributed to the significant difference in this essay, regardless of the inconsistency of the results. Perhaps to obtain a correlation between sentence-combining and Essay performance more time is needed.

- What one can add to the above mentioned factors is the instability of learners' responses which is a problem from the point of view of the reliability of test results (Read 1993; Andelman and Rogers 1996). In addition, some writers claim that writing skills in one situation do not necessarily transfer to another situation (Purves 1988; Hamp-Lyons 1991).

### 6.4 Patterns of Lexis in The Treatment of Group A and B'

#### 6.4.1 Patterns of Lexis in Group A

After analysing the 250 essays according to different criteria (see Chapt.5), the patterns of lexis were analysed using the model developed by Hoey (1991). This model focuses on the role of vocabulary in cohesion in texts through detailed examination of specific
categories of lexical repetition. The use of this model of lexis was chosen since vocabulary teaching was one of the subskills used in the study (the other being sentence-combining). Hoey's (1991) model of patterns of lexis is an innovation in research on vocabulary with implications for the teaching of lexis. By looking for the links, bonds, ratios of bonds to links and specific types of repetition used in the students' writing, the research can follow the progress of learners in their use of lexis and cohesion in essay performance.

A paired T-test was used to see whether there is any significant difference in the links and bonds of the 3 treatments and whether there is any significant difference in the ratio of bonds to links. Any differences in the patterns of bonding will be indicative of differences in the overall quality of the writing since the use of Hoey's (1991) model is based on the premise that the greater the number of bonds the more mature or advanced the writing is, at least at the level of lexical cohesion. Any differences in the ratio of bonds to links may be further indications of progress towards more mature bonding. Since Hoey (1991) sets the admittedly arbitrary criterial level that 3 links will equal one bond, it is of interest to see how far the learners in the present study will have linking that is not actually bonding, i.e. of 1 or 2 links between particular sentences. Moreover, a paired T-test was also used to see whether there is any significant difference in the lexical types of repetition used in the essays of the 3 treatments. As most of the types used in the excerpts included synonyms and simple repetition, it is assumed that learners will use these, among others, in their essays.

Table 6.19 T-test results of Group A, concerning links, bonds and ratios of patterns of lexis in the 3 texts of the treatment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. of Pairs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-tail Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>TL1</td>
<td>31.00</td>
<td>8.11</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>42.84</td>
<td>9.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>TB1</td>
<td>8.88</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TB2</td>
<td>16.52</td>
<td>7.63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>TL2</td>
<td>42.84</td>
<td>9.69</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TL3</td>
<td>36.04</td>
<td>9.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.19 reveals clear significant differences across the variables displayed. There is a significant difference (p = .001) in the links comparing treatment 1 and 2. **Indian Camp**, has a significantly higher mean score. In fact, the correlation of the three variables (essay, vocabulary and sentence-combining) of Group A in treatment 2 revealed a high correlation between lexis and essay writing (r = .630, table 6.17). Furthermore, treatment 2 also revealed a high significant difference in the bonds (p = .001) and ratio of treatment 1 and 2 (p = .005) and 2 and 3 (p = .004) both in favour of **Indian Camp**. It is interesting to observe that all 3 results are in favour of treatment 2. Since lexical cohesion forms multiple relationships and reflects part of cohesion in a text (Hoey 1991) and since the essays also seem to be communicative and coherent, this result can be taken as a measure of what learners have achieved in treatment 2.

Although the 250 essays of Group A and B' were analysed, three essays in both groups were chosen arbitrarily for further detailed analysis to give examples of actual links and bonds in the students’ texts. (Although the ratio can be calculated both ways ratio/bond or bond/ratio, in this study the latter has been adopted because of the number 0 bond in some essays.) These extracts, are therefore qualitative illustrations, and representative of the 25 target essays, taken from the beginning, midle and end of the 3 treatments and Pretest/Posttest essays. The essays of the same participants were
followed up in all through the study. Essay 1 in treatment 1 revealed mostly adjacent links and 3 adjacent bonds of 3 links each (Appendix 8). For example, sentences 3, 4 and 5.

*Hills Like White Elephants is one of his writings that displayed a problem between a couple (3). This problem was that the girl wanted to keep the baby and the American wanted to make an abortion (4). In my opinion, the couple would separate for several reasons, and thus the girl wouldn’t do the operation (5).*

The total number of links is 38 and the number of bonds is 3. Cohesion exists, in the essay of learner 1, and the links, which are adjacent, produce strong relations (Hoey 1991).

Essay 7 in treatment 1 has most of its links adjacent such as in sentences 7, 8 & 9.

*Many events in the story prove that the couple will not separate (7). Jig enjoys her boyfriend because they sit together and have many drinks (8). She does not say anything when her boyfriend says it is just to let the air in (9).*

The total number of links is 26 and the number of bonds is 2. Both bonds are nonadjacent. Again, the writer of essay 7 has mostly adjacent links, and as stated with the previous learner, cohesion is central and strong.

Essay 20 in treatment 1 has mostly adjacent links, 2 adjacent bonds and 1 nonadjacent, each of 3 links.

*When she smiles back at him, that smile reflects someone who has a clear consciousness of not sacrificing a baby’s life for a person who loves her conditionally (12). Had she decided to go for the abortion, she will be crying and feeling ‘not fine’ because she will be doing something against her beliefs (13).*

The total number of links is 36 and the number of bonds is 1. This does not differ much from the two other essays of treatment 1 (Table 6.20). It seems that the general tendency of the 3 learners in treatment 1 is toward adjacent links and bonds, which means cohesion is rather central and linear. This coincides with what the teaching aimed at, that is, the writing of rather simple sentences, which is equivalent to adjacent links rather than links with a larger range in more complex sentences.

As the essays of the same participants are studied in treatment 2, one finds that Essay 1 of the first participant has again most of its links adjacent, such as in sentences 2, 3 and 4, and it has 2 nonadjacent bonds of different links.

*The operation was very hard (2). We’ll discuss the causes of the exaltation of the doctor at the end of the operation and the reasons for the staying of Uncle Georges (3). The doctor felt exalted after the operation for many reasons (4).*
The total number of links has slightly decreased in treatment 2 of participant 1 (37 vs 38), as well as the number of bonds (2 vs 3). The decrease, in both cases, is minimal and not much can be said. These comparisons are displayed in Table 6.20.

Essay 7 of the second learner increased the number of links (45 vs 26) and the number of bonds (3 vs 2 nonadjacent bonds in Table 6.20 and Appendix 8). This means that cohesion shows a measured increase with this learner in treatment 2, and improvement is clear. Furthermore, besides the adjacent links, there are more links that are nonadjacent. For instance, sentence 12 has nonadjacent links with sentence 5.

Furthermore, due to this outstanding operation, he thought that he will be famous and therefore, he would be recognised in the medical journal (5). First performing the cesarean with a jack-knife without anaesthetic, second the need to be recognised in the medical journal (12).

Although these sentences are nonadjacent, they are virtually coherent, for it is clear that the performance of a cesarean with a jack-knife is what is meant by outstanding operation. The second part of sentence 12 i.e. the second need corresponds to he would be recognised in the medical journal in sentence 5.

Essay 20 of the third writer of treatment 2 still has most of his/her links adjacent and 2 nonadjacent bonds. Although learner of essay 20 still has adjacent links, which might be the outcome of simple sentences, his bonds are nonadjacent, that is, they reflect long-distance connections in the text (Hoey 1991). For instance,

Nick's father, the doctor, felt exalted after he finished the operation (4). I don't blame neither the doctor nor Uncle George for their behaviour (12).

These sentences are not adjacent, the connection is a long distant one bridged by the lexis, doctor and exalted. The total number of links in Essay 20 is almost the same as in treatment 1 (37 vs 36), and the number of bonds is the same (2 vs 2).

In treatment 3, Essay 1 of the first writer has more links (45 vs 37), more bonds (4 vs 2 nonadjacent) than in treatment 2, and most of the links are adjacent.

If we compare the 2 concepts, we will find that both of them are concepts of life (2) As for work, for example, life means nothing without work (3). Although links are still adjacent in treatment 3, bonds are nonadjacent. One assumes that adjacent links produce strong relations and the nonadjacent bonds more interest (see
Essay 7 of the second writer decreased slightly the total number of links (42 vs 45) but kept the same number of bonds, 2 of which are nonadjacent. Again most of the links are adjacent except for a few such as sentence 9 which has 6 nonadjacent links with sentences 2 to 7.

_In contrast, Gibran finds reason a complement to Passion and without their equilibrium in man's life, one is lost or in vain_ (9)

In fact, sentence 9 could be considered a central sentence, having many nonadjacent links. Essay 20 of the third learner of treatment 3 increased his total number of links (51 vs 37), and the number of bonds (3 vs 2). The links are more scattered, of more interest, and therefore produce a wider cohesion of multiple relationships.

Hoey (1991) stated that adjacent sentences produce strong relations and satisfactory prose, provided there is an effective difference in those sentences. As most of the sentences in Group A are adjacent, one assumes that sentences comprise strong relations. However, the aim of the teaching was to teach learners to write mainly simple sentences, and they were presented with texts by Gibran and Hemingway that used this procedure.

Concerning the types of repetition used, the 3 learners used mostly simple repetition which is rather "text-forming repetition", since repetition refers to the same 'object' (Hoey 1991). For instance, sentences 3 and 4 in treatment 2 of subject 3 in Essay 20 (Appendix 8). Further, as the topic of the essays is determined, the reference is predetermined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatment 1 links</th>
<th>Treatment 2 links</th>
<th>Treatment 3 links</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bonds</td>
<td>ratio</td>
<td>bonds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ratio</td>
<td>ratio</td>
<td>ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 1 38 3(adjac) .08 37 2(nonadj) .05 45 4 (nonadj) .09</td>
<td>Essay 7 26 2(nonadj) .08 45 3(nonadj) .07 42 1(2nonadj) .07</td>
<td>Essay 20 36 3(nonadj) .08 37 2(nonadj) .05 51 3(nonadj) .06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The ratio of bonds to links in treatment 1 and 2; 2 and 3 of Group A is significantly different in favour of treatment 2 (p = .005; p = .004 in table 6.19). Perhaps this is due to the fact that the topic of essay 2 lends itself to the use of a larger number of words, and the teaching started its effect. The significant difference of links, bonds and ratios in favour of treatment 2 means that learners seem to have used their knowledge of taught lexis effectively.

Further, one may claim that since bonds are significantly higher in treatment 2, sentences in treatment 1 and 3 may be marginal, meaning that what they have to say does not build lexically upon what has gone before nor does it provide the lexis for subsequent statements (Hoey 1991). Maybe the lack of significance in bonds in treatment 1 is due to the fact that learners did not grasp yet the purpose of the teaching, whereas they did in treatment 2. However, there is no significant difference in the bonds of treatment 3. Treatment 3, involving a rather philosophical topic, might have been difficult for less advanced learners to grasp the nonlinear semantic relationship. In fact, treatment 3 has used the least number of vocabulary taught (29% in table 5.5).

Among the types of repetition mostly used in the three treatments is simple lexical repetition and synonyms. Table 6.21 introduces different types of repetition in text 1 and 2 of the treatment of Group A, and table 6.22 displays the results of text 2 and 3 of Group A.

**Table 6.21** T-test results of Group A concerning types of repetition in texts 1 and 2 of the treatment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. of Pairs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-tail Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Hsyn1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>14.80</td>
<td>7.01</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Isyn2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>14.60</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Hcrl1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Icrl2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Hsr1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>11.92</td>
<td>6.19</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Isr2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20.72</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.22 T-test of Group A, concerning types of repetitions in texts 2 and 3 of the treatment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. of Pairs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-tail Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hspp1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Rspp2</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hscp1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.83</td>
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<td>.112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Rscp2</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hanto1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Ranto2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
- Hsyn: H.L.W.E. synonym
- Isyn: Indian Camp, synonym
- Hcr: H.L.W.E. complex repetition
- Icr: Indian Camp, complex repetition
- Hspp: H.L.W.E. simple partial paraphrase
- Ispp: Indian Camp, simple partial paraphrase
- Hanto: H.L.W.E. antonym
- Ianto: Indian Camp, antonym
- Hsr: H.L.W.E. simple repetition
- Isr: Indian Camp simple repetition
- Hcp: H.L.W.E. complex paraphrase
- Icp: Indian Camp, complex paraphrase
Tables 6.21 and 6.22 show two highly significant results. T-test revealed a high significant difference (p ≤ .001) in the use of simple lexical repetition in treatment 2, Indian Camp, (comparing treatment 1 and 2) and high significant difference in the use of synonyms in favour of treatment 2 (p ≤ .001) (comparing treatment 2 to 3). These results are assumed to be the effect of the sample texts by Hemingway and Gibran studied in the experiment. Simple repetition was mostly used by Hemingway and Gibran (tables 4.3 and 4.10). Hence, beside the significant difference in Essay 3 of the Experimental Group A (table 6.16) which revealed that the treatment was effective, the study of pattern in lexis and the type of repetition mostly used in treatment 2 and 3 (simple lexical repetition and synonym respectively) are also evidence for the effectiveness of the treatment.

Yet excessive repetition does not necessarily make satisfactory prose (Hoey 1991). What matters is the kinds of repetition, how they form clusters of ties (bonds) across stretches of text, and therefore how such bonds structure the cohesion of a text. Perhaps this more sophisticated repetition is the case with advanced learners or professional writers, but it is recalled that these participants are less advanced in their English. They are at a stage in which it is essential to write sentences with no fragment, run-on or sentence structure (see chapter 3). One may also argue that the density of repetition linkages between sentences is a measure of their closeness of connection (Hoey 1991). It is actually one of the purposes of vocabulary teaching in the present study to promote the use of the patterns of lexis referred to above. Hemingway himself was accused of excessive repetition in his writings, but others retorted that his writing involves elegant repetition (Fenton in Benson 1975).
Learners at LAU have been taught to use a topic sentence as they write paragraphs. The learning of topic sentence has taken place in a previous course (see Transcript Analysis chap. 5), and it is followed in North American universities. A topic sentence is defined as a topic-opening (Hoey 1991), and is the first sentence in a paragraph. It also has links to the following subsequent sentences. As the study of topic opening is not an explicit purpose of this study, only the topic opening of paragraph 1 was analysed. It is assumed that if learners write a topic sentence in paragraph one, they will also write one in paragraph 2 of the essay. Further, a topic opening is a means of securing cohesion in discourse. If one looks at the opening sentence of learner 1 in treatment 1, one finds the following: *In my opinion, the couple would separate for several reasons, and thus the girl wouldn't do the operation* (5). The words *several reasons* have sequent links whereby the learner gives the reasons for the decision taken by the girl (Appendix 8). The word *first* in sentence 6 gives the first reason. Sentence 9 gives another reason for the girl's decision. Hence, sentence 5, which is linked adjacently to sentences 6, 7 & 8 support the claim of being an opening sentence.

Again subject 2 and 3 of essays 7 and 20, in treatment 1, follow the same procedure in their opening sentence and their opening sentence has subsequent links. *Many events in the story prove that the couple will not separate* (sentence 7, learner 7). The paragraph of this sentence is to state the events that prove that the couple will not separate, and the learner actually did give the needed supporting ideas (Appendix 8). That is, sentence 7 is linked to sentence 8 which gives one reason for the couple not to separate. Sentences 10 and 11 give further reasons.

The same applies to sentence 4 by subject 3 of essay 20 in treatment 1. *From the very beginning, we know that the woman is finding every reason why abortion will not work.* In fact, the reason why abortion will not work is given subsequently through continuous adjacent links in sentences 5, 6 and 7 (Appendix 8). The same learners proceeded the same way in treatment 2. Subject 1, sentence 4: *The doctor felt exalted after the operation for many reasons.* The reasons followed subsequently in the adjacent links. Subject 2 of essay 7, sentence 4: *The doctor sought exaltation because he performed a cesaerian on an Indian squaw without any anaesthetic and he used primitive instrument such as a jack-knife* (Appendix 8).
Subject 2 of essay 7 included in the topic opening one of the causes, which is performing a caesarian and the use of primitive instruments. This is faulty according to Oshima and Hogue (1991), for the causes should be part of the paragraph and not the topic-opening. However, it is Hoey's (1991) definition that is taken into consideration in the study of patterns of lexis. Subject 3 of essay 20 missed the topic opening in sentence 4. This sentence has its links rather in the previous sentence (Appendix 8). *Nick's father, the doctor, felt exalted after he finished the operation.* The links *operation, felt, doctor, exalted* are all linked to sentence 3, and the opening sentence did not add any new information and had no subsequent links (Hoey 1991).

In treatment 3, subject 1 in Essay 1 started also with a topic-opening. *If we compare the two concepts, we will find that both of them are concepts of life (2).* In fact, learner 1 proceeded then by comparing the two concepts: *Reason and Passion* and *Work* in the subsequent sentences 3 - 8. Subjects 2 and 3 of essay 7 and 20 in treatment 3, also have a topic opening whose links are subsequent. *The similarities between Passion and Reason and Work are intrinsic (sentence 2, learner 2).* *There are many ideas in common between the 2 texts* (sentence 5, learner 3).

In sum, in Group A, there is a significant difference in the links and bonds of treatment 2, comparing treatment 1 and 2 (p = .001; p = .001) and treatment 2 and 3 (p = .002). The ratio of bonds to links is also significant, comparing treatment 1 and 2, and 2 and 3, both in favour of treatment 2, *Indian Camp* (p = .005; p = .004 in table 6.19). This supports the interpretation that vocabulary teaching, one of the two subskills, has served its purpose. Lexis has been used successfully in links and more strongly in significant bonds, in the target vocabulary as well as other lexis. Perhaps this reconfirms the effect of the teaching of target words. There is also an opening sentence that is linked to subsequent sentences among learners' essays chosen arbitrarily. An opening sentence produces cohesion and a form of organisation, two basic elements needed in essay performance.

In the type of repetition, simple repetition and synonyms were highly significant (p ≤ .001; p ≤ .001) in favour of treatment 2, comparing treatment 1 and 2; 2 and 3 (tables 6.21 & 6.22). Again one may assume that learners have learned from the excerpts
presented as samples and have used the mentioned types of repetition among which is simple repetition, the highest in order of importance. It is recalled that the texts by Hemingway and Gibran used mainly simple repetition and synonyms (tables 4.3 & 4.10).

Two of the participants revealed an increase in the number of links in treatment 3 as compared to treatment 2 (table 6.20). Further, 2 participants increased the number of bonds. Although the purpose of the study was to teach learners to write simple sentences, learners ended up with few nonadjacent links, which is considered of more interest and reveal further maturity in essay writing.

6.4.2 Patterns of Lexis in The Treatment of Group B’ and Its Comparison With Group A
The same procedure has been used with Group B’ Experimental to find out whether there is any significant difference among the 3 essays in the treatment concerning links, bonds and ratio of bonds to links as well as the types of repetition used. The results of the T-test are displayed in table 6.23.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. of Pairs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-tail Sig</th>
</tr>
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</tr>
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<td>2.54</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B’</td>
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<td>.20</td>
<td>.18</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.25</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.23 shows again that the difference in links and bonds is significant in treatment 2, *Indian Camp*, comparing treatment 1 and 2 ($p = 0.026$ for links and $p = 0.028$ for bonds). However, there is no significant difference in the ratio of bonds to links in treatment 1 and 2 ($p = 0.272$), but there is a high significant difference in the ratio of bonds to links in treatment 2 and 3 ($p \leq 0.001$) in favour of treatment 2, *Indian Camp*. The same result was found concerning the ratio of bonds to links in treatment 2 and 3 of Group A (table 6.19). Perhaps this reconfirms what has been said of Group A. That is, the topic based on *Indian Camp* lends itself to the use of more repetition of lexis, not any kind of lexis, but lexis that produces cohesive writing and organization. By organization is meant combination of elements perceived by learners to form a pattern (Hoey 1991). In fact, more target vocabulary was used in treatment 2 than in treatment 3 in both Group A and B' (i.e. 32% in Group A and B' table 6.24). Yet, when the experiment was undertaken, the difference was significant in Essay 3 of both Group A and B' ($p = 0.018$; $p = 0.021$, table 6.16). Hence, it is recalled that writing is a multidimensional construct and requires lexis among other factors (Carter and Nash 1995; Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Fulcher 1997; McDonough 1999).

If one looks at the correlation of the three variables (essay, vocabulary and sentence combining) of Group B', one observes an inconsistency in the results as compared to the significant difference of the links and bonds. There was a correlation of vocabulary and essay performance in treatment 1 ($r = 0.492$ table 6.18) but none in the 2 other treatments, whereas there was a significant difference in the links, bonds and ratio of bonds to links respectively in treatment 2, *Indian Camp* ($p = 0.026$; $p = 0.028$; $p \leq 0.001$ table 6.23), comparing treatment 1 and 2; 2 and 3 respectively. It is recalled that the researcher believes the timing of the experiment of Group B' was inappropriate (see chapter 5). Further, it is probable that Hoey's model (1991), which includes a wider scope of lexis,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>B'</th>
<th>R2</th>
<th>25</th>
<th>0.25</th>
<th>0.17</th>
<th>.000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( p \leq 0.05 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
TL: total links 1: *H.L.W.E.*
TB: total bonds 2: *Indian Camp*
R: ratio 3: *On Reason and Passion; On Work*
allows a larger scope of results since repetition has several categories.

Again a study of 3 arbitrarily essays in Group B’ was carried out in a detailed analysis, and the essays of the same participants were followed up in treatment 2, 3 and the Pretest/Posttest. Essay 1 in treatment 1 had several adjacent links and few nonadjacent ones. That is, most of the links are central. For instance, sentences 7, 8 and 9.

Instead of that she kept smiling at him and that means that she would stay with him (7). The last point can be seen in the last sentence of the text, when the American asked about her feeling, she replied saying that she was fine and there was nothing wrong with her (8). In conclusion, the girl is going to abort the baby and stay with her man because she loves the American (9).

The total number of links is 29 and there are 4 bonds, two of which are nonadjacent (in table 6.25). Essay 7 of subject 2 (in treatment 1) also has most of its links adjacent such as sentences 5, 6 and 7:

The second argument is reflected in her reaction when she was drinking the Anis del Toro (5). She said that her drink that was placed on a felt pad tasted like liquorice and this is the way with everything and more than that it tastes like absinth (6). Here we see how she is very upset and do not want to accept the idea of abortion (7).

The total number of links is 22 and the 2 bonds, of different links, are nonadjacent.

Essay 20 of the third learner in treatment 1 has more adjacent links than learner of Essay 7. For instance, sentences 5 and 6.

The lady was totally satisfied by her decision to keep the baby (5). This fact can be proved by the following supporting ideas (6).

The total number of links is 31 (more than the 2 other participants) and the number of bonds is 2 (nonadjacent), summing up to less bonds than learner 1 of essay 1 (in table 6.25). Although bonds are less numerous in the case of participant 20, links are on the increase. Probably the pattern of lexis, reflected in the links, is more widely spread than among the other participants.

Following up the same participants in treatment 2, Indian Camp, one finds that participant of Essay 1 had adjacent links but quite a few nonadjacent ones such as sentence 6 which is adjacent to sentence 5 but has some of its lexis linked to sentences 4, 3 and 2 in a nonadjacent way (Appendix 8).
From my point of view, Nicks father was over the moon after the operation that he had made, due to some reasons (4). Furthermore, he was thinking of being famous and that can be seen in the third paragraph when he told Uncle George that doing a cesarean with a jack-knife and stitch it up with nine foot gut leader will make him enter the medical history (6).

The total number of links increased by 2 in treatment 2 (31 vs 29), but the bonds decreased (1 vs 4 bonds, in table 6.25). The fact that participant 1 in treatment 2 has some adjacent and nonadjacent links reveals a scope of lexis pertaining to central and marginal sentences. Both make the reader’s task easier in providing information without which the theme might be open to misunderstanding.

Essay 7 of the second learner has again adjacent links and some nonadjacent ones (Appendix 8). For instance, sentence 13 is linked to 11, 9 and 3.

Finally, the cause for Uncle George to stay, is to wait for the nurse to come to the Indian camp (11). In conclusion, these are the main causes for the doctor to be exalted and for Uncle George to stay in the shanty (13).

The total number of links has increased in treatment 2 of participant 2 of essay 7 (31 vs 22), but the number of bonds of different links decreased (in table 6.25). Again the links of this participant are more scattered than in the previous essay, and lexis more numerous.

Essay 20 of the third learner has adjacent links and few nonadjacent ones (Appendix 8). For instance, sentence 10 is linked to 9, but it is also linked to 7 and 8.

He even sewed the incision with a tapered gut leader, and he was sure to publish this story in a medical journal which will make him famous (7). Moreover, such an important mission made him happy for he will have the chance to write it in a medical journal, which definitely leads to fame (8). On the other hand, Uncle George decided to stay in the camp for one reason (9). He thought that after such a hard operation the woman will need intensive care (10).

The total number of links increased (33 vs 31) as well as the bonds which are nonadjacent (5 vs 2).

In treatment 3 of Group B', learner of Essay 1 had adjacent and nonadjacent links. The total number of links has slightly increased (32 vs 31), but the number of bonds was equal (1 bond in both cases). For instance, sentence 10 is linked to sentence 9, but it is also linked to sentences 6 and 5.

He used some vocabulary in both stories such as soul, love, God, pain and so on (6). In addition, we can see that on the last
paragraph when he said that if you in your pain call your
birth your affliction written upon your brow (10).

Learner in Essay 7 had adjacent links and more nonadjacent ones (in treatment 3). Sentence 8 is linked to 7 and linked in a nonadjacent way to sentences 6 and 3.

Therefore, in his book the Prophet, anyone who has read the
texts, Reason and Passion versus Work, can tell that they
have many similarities and dissimilarities (3).
For instance, in the text Reason and Passion, he was
answering the priestess (6). Another similarity is
that both texts are taken from his famous book the Prophet (8).

The total number of links is the same in treatment 3 (31 vs 31) but there are no bonds (0 vs 1, Appendix 8).

Essay 20 of the third learner had again adjacent links (in treatment 3) and more nonadjacent ones. For instance, sentence 16 is linked to sentences 12, 9 and 4.

There are 3 similarities between the texts, Reason and Passion and Work (4).
First, these two texts have different topics (9). In conclusion, both text Reason and Passion and Work have some similarities as well as some dissimilarities (16).

The total number of links is also the same (33 vs 33), but the bonds decreased (1 vs 5). The 3 participants of Group B' have fewer bonds in treatment 3, but almost the same number of links, compared to treatment 2. Also, the percentage of vocabulary taught which was used in treatment 3 is the lowest among the 3 Essays in both Group A and B' (29%, Group A; 24% Group B') as shown in table 6.24. The absence of significant difference in links, bonds, ratios of bonds to links and the lowest percentage of target words used may reflect some difficulty in the text. In fact, Group A expressed their liking of text 3 in the syllabus rather than text 3 in the treatment (table 6.11), but this did not apply to Group B'.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group A</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Group B'</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H.L.W.E.</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>H.L.W.E.</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian Camp</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>Indian Camp</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On Reason and Passion</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>On Reason and Passion</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On Work</td>
<td></td>
<td>On Work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Comparing the types of links that the 3 subjects in Group A and B' used in the 3 treatments, one may state that Group B' used more nonadjacent links than Group A. Nonadjacent links are of more interest and reflect mature writing (Hoey 1991) because they signify the ability to construct cohesive links over longer distances and hence to sustain meaning over such distances in the structuring of text. However, the aim of the researcher was to let learners write according to the style of Hemingway and Gibran, that is, to use simple sentences which correspond to adjacent links (Appendix 8). It seems that the 3 learners in Group B' did not follow the pattern taught to them the same way Group A did. Perhaps because Group B' is more advanced, learners felt more confident in breaking the pattern assigned. In fact, Group B' used more subordinate sentences as revealed in the analysis of T-units of the learners' essays (table 5.9).

The ratio of bonds to links in treatment 1 and 2 of Group B' is not significant, but it is highly significant between treatment 2 and 3 in favour of treatment 2, Indian Camp (p \( \leq .001 \), table 6.23). And yet, the results of the experiment revealed a significant difference in Essay 3 of Group B' and A as well (p = .021; p = .018 in table 6.16). Perhaps one may conclude that since results of links, bonds and the ratio of bonds to links are significant in favour of treatment 2, Indian Camp, whether comparing treatment 1 and 2 or 2 and 3, this text with its lexis lends itself to the teaching of vocabulary. One may also suggest that the genre (i.e. causes) stimulates further the use of vocabulary. Further, the use of repetition in patterns of lexis creating cohesion seems to have been achieved by learners in treatment 2, knowing that cohesion is the product of lexical relations (Hoey 1991). Almost the same results apply to Group A (table 6.19).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatment 1</th>
<th>Treatment 2</th>
<th>Treatment 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 1</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 (nonadj.)</td>
<td>1 (.14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 2</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 (nonadj.)</td>
<td>1 (.09)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 (nonadj.)</td>
<td>5 (adj) (.15)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.25 Links, bonds and ratio of the 3 participants of Group B' studied in detail
Table 6.26 shows the results of Group B’ concerning types of repetition in texts 1 and 2 of the treatment. A T-test revealed a high significant difference in the use of simple lexical repetition in treatment 2, *Indian Camp* (p \( \leq .001 \), table 6.26). This result is the same as in Group A. However, the result of Group B’ was also significant in simple partial paraphrase (p = .045) and complex paraphrase (p = .003, table 6.26) in favour of treatment 1, *H.L.W.E.*, comparing treatment 1 and 2. These two results were not significant in Group A. Perhaps the significant difference in the numerous types of repetition found in Group B’ is another proof of learners being more advanced since they have used more varied types of repetition.

**Table 6.26** T-test results of Group B’, concerning types of repetition in texts 1 and 2 of the treatment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. of Pairs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-tail Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B’</td>
<td>Hsyn1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.36</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Isyn2</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.08</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B’</td>
<td>Hcr1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.606</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lcr2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B’</td>
<td>Hsr1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>13.88</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Isr2</td>
<td></td>
<td>20.76</td>
<td>6.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B’</td>
<td>Hspp1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.045</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ispp2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B’</td>
<td>Hcpl1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lcp2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B’</td>
<td>Hanto1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lanto2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
Hsyn: H.L.W.E. synonym
Isyn: Indian Camp, synonym
Hanto: H.L.W.E. antonym
lanto: Indian Camp, antonym

p < .05
Table 6.27 T-test results of Group B’, concerning types of repetition in texts 2 and 3 of the treatment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. of Pairs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-tail Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B’</td>
<td>Isyn2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7.08</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rsyn3</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P’</td>
<td>Icr2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rcr3</td>
<td></td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B’</td>
<td>Isr2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20.76</td>
<td>6.44</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rsr3</td>
<td></td>
<td>19.08</td>
<td>6.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B’</td>
<td>Ispp2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rspp3</td>
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<td>1.48</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B’</td>
<td>Icp2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rcp3</td>
<td></td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P’</td>
<td>Ianto2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ranto3</td>
<td></td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05

Table 6.27 displays the results of Group B’, concerning types of repetition in texts 2 and 3 of the treatments. Comparing treatment 2 and 3 of Group B’, the T-test revealed a significant difference in the use of synonyms in favour of treatment 2, *Indian Camp*, and a significant difference in the use of antonyms respectively in favour of treatment 3, *On Reason and Passion* and *On Work* (p = .005; p = .013).
One may assume that the genre used in treatment 3, that is type of essay i.e. comparison and contrast, lends itself to the use of antonyms. However, if this is so, then Group A should have also had a significant difference in antonyms, which is not the case (see tables 6.21 & 6.22). One may then conclude that antonyms are more easily perceived and used by more advanced learners.

On the other hand, both Group A and B' used significantly simple repetition in favour of treatment 2, Indian Camp, comparing treatment 1 and 2 (p ≤ 0.01, Group A table 6.21; p ≤ 0.01, Group B' table 6.26), but Group B' used synonyms significantly too (p = 0.05, table 6.27) in favour of treatment 2, Indian Camp. This again may show that both Groups modelled the pattern presented to them in the texts by Gibran and Hemingway.

Although Hoey (1991) weighs simple lexical repetition highly, he stated that excessive repetition does not necessarily make satisfactory prose if there is no effective difference in it. Perhaps the prose used by Group B' in treatment 2, since synonyms were also significant, is more satisfactory than the prose used by Group A. Yet this point is arguable since Hemingway used mostly simple repetition.

If one looks at the opening sentence of the 3 participants in Group B', one observes that participant of Essay 1 (treatment1) has the following as an opening sentence with some elements missing (Oshima and Hogue 1991). These elements (i.e. three points) are found in sentence 4. From my point of view, I believe that the girl is going to do the operation even if she does not like to, in order to save her relationship with the American whom she is in love with (3). Furthermore, I have three points from the text that can support my idea (4). The topic sentence should have been as follows: There are 3 points that support the idea that the girl is going to do the operation even if she does not like to. Also according to Hoey (1991) the apparent opening here is not in fact an opening sentence because it is not linked to the next sentence (i.e. sentence 4). However, the best evidence to know how sentences are linked is found in the readers for themselves (Hoey 1991).

On the other hand, the same participant in treatment 2 included the basic points of what is called a controlling idea in the opening sentence (see Chapter 4). This, of course, is considered as an improvement. From my point of view, Nick's father was over the moon after the operation that he had made due to some reasons (4). The controlling idea is some reasons. Again participant 1 in treatment 3 included the basic points or controlling idea
in the opening sentence. *Comparing between the Reason and Passion and On Work* we can see two major similarities among them (4) (Appendix 8). One can assume then that participant 1 became aware of what is part of an opening sentence. Further, the opening sentence in treatment 2 and 3 have links with subsequent sentences.

In treatment 2, *Nick's father* (sentence 4) is linked to later sentences through the reasons that the participant gives. The same applies to participant 1 in treatment 3. The word *similarity* (sentence 4) relates the words *first one* in the following sentence which in fact means the first similarity. First means also that there is a second similarity that, actually, comes in the subsequent sentence.

Essay 7 of the second learner, in treatment 1 of Group B', had no opening sentence according to the criteria used (Oshima and Hogue, 1991). He/she started his paragraph by stating directly the first argument, *The first argument is when she said while she was waiting with the American in the station for the train that the hills look like white elephant.* However, according to Hoey (1991) sentence 3 is linked to the following one by the words *first argument* which also assumed subsequent arguments. However, in treatment 2, participant 2 of essay 7 had an opening sentence according to both authors Hoey (1991) and Oshima and Hogue (1991). *First of all, the doctor was very happy due to the success of the operation* (4). This sentence is linked to sentences 5, 6 and 7 through adjacent links *doctor, cesarean* and *he* (Appendix 8). Again learner 2 of essay 7, in treatment 3, had an opening sentence. *First of all, the two texts share striking similarities* (4). The paragraph of this opening sentence is assumed to state the similarities, which it does in the adjacent sentences 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 (Appendix 8).

Essay 20 of the third learner, in treatment 1, again had the controlling idea in the sentence following the opening sentence. *The lady was totally satisfied by her decision to keep the baby* (5). *This fact can be proved by the following supporting ideas* (6). Sentence 5 has a bond of 3 links related to the preceding sentence (Appendix 8), and one lexis, *decision*, linked to the sequent words *this fact* (6). However, according to Hoey (1991), this is an opening sentence since it is related to sentence 6. Yet, one could consider sentence 6 as an opening sentence according to Oshima and Hogue (1991) since this one states that the following sentences will prove that the lady will keep the baby. *This fact can be proved by the following supporting ideas* (6). In fact, sentence 7 starts with *first* which gives the first
supporting idea followed by other facts. With the second sentence being rather the opening sentence, one can mention Stern (1976) who casts doubt on the validity of the assumption that all paragraphs begin with a topic sentence.

On the other hand, essay 20 of the third learner (in treatment 2) has sentence 5 as an opening sentence which clearly contains the controlling ideas needed according to both authors (Hoey 1991; Oshima and Hogue 1991). *There are several causes that made the doctor exalted* (5). The causes were given subsequently in the 3 following adjacent sentences, 6, 7 and 8 (Appendix 8). Words such as *first of all, second* are used to enumerate the causes. *Moreover* is also used though Hoey (1991) considers transitions as directional and not as links; certainly they are not part of the system of lexical repetition. In treatment 3, participant 3 of essay 20 stated clearly the opening sentence: *There are three similarities between the texts, Reason and Passion and Work* (4). The similarities follow in the adjacent sentences 5 and 6 and 7. Again subject 3 of essay 20 used the same directional words that he used in treatment 2 to state the similarities. That is, *first of all, second and third* (Appendix 8).

In sum, Group B' had a significant difference in the links of treatment 2 (p = .026), comparing treatment 1 and 2, and again in treatment 2 (p = .015), comparing treatment 2 and 3. Further, a significant difference also existed in the bonds in favour of treatment 2, comparing treatment 1 and 2 (p = .028) and a high significant difference in favour of treatment 2, comparing treatment 2 and 3 (p ≤ .001) (see table 6.23). Since almost the same results appear in both Group A and B' experimental, concerning significant difference in links, bonds and ratios of bonds to links, one may conclude that treatment 2, *Indian Camp*, with the topic and genre used was the most appropriate for the teaching of lexis in essay performance. Further, learners seem to have achieved cohesion significantly in treatment 2 through the product of lexical relations which produce a form of organization reflected also through opening sentences.

The types of repetition are significant, concerning simple repetition (p ≤ .001) in favour of treatment 2 and complex paraphrasing (p = .003) in favour of treatment 1, comparing treatment 1 and 2 (tables 6.26 & 6.27). Simple partial paraphrase is also significant (p = .045), but in favour of treatment 1, comparing treatment 1 and 2. Simple
repetition is highly rated as a cohesive device provided there is an effective difference between repetitions (Hoey 1991). The aim of the researcher was to guide learners to follow the pattern used in the sample texts, that is, the use of simple repetition and synonyms. Hence, the significant results of these types of repetition seem satisfactory.

Further, one observes that the 3 participants of Group B’ studied in detail, had fewer bonds in treatment 3, On Reason and Passion and On Work (in table 6.25). In fact, there is a significant difference in the bonds of treatment 2 (p = .028), comparing treatment 1 and 2, and a high significant difference in the bonds of treatment 2 again (p ≤ .001), comparing treatment 2 and 3, (see table 6.23). This implies that learners in both Group A and B’ were able to see the semantic relationship between sentences in a nonlinear way and produce it in their essay. However, this was not the case in treatment 1 and 3 which means that sentences were rather marginal. Although marginal sentences do not build lexically upon what has gone before or in subsequent statements, they (especially in the case of a philosophical topic) provide some information for understanding the main theme (Hoey 1991). For instance, participant 2 of essay 7 who had no bonds in treatment 3, wrote the following sentence which through the use of comparison clarifies the main theme. The last similarity is the presence of many metaphors related to nature, for example, he compares the reason and passion to the rudder and sails of the seafaring soul (9). In fact, sentences have more meaning than the sum of their parts. This view underpins all work on discourse (Hoey 1991).

Concerning the sentence opening, 1 of the 3 learners of Group B’ started his paragraph in treatment 1 with no opening sentence (Hoey 1991) but wrote an opening sentence in treatments 2 and 3. If Group B’ is compared to Group A, one observes that subject 3 of essay 20 (treatment 2 of Group A) did not write an opening sentence as subject 1 (treatment 1 of Group B’) did not either. This is shown in table 6.28.

Although writing an opening sentence was not the purpose of this study, learners were reminded of its importance (see Chapt.V) and included it in their essays. In the opinion of the researcher, opening sentences harness learners towards the linking of sentences and shape organisation in essay performance. Hoey (1991) seems to agree since he considers topic opening as a means of securing cohesion.
Table 6.28 Opening sentence of the 3 participants in Group A and B’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group A</th>
<th></th>
<th>Group B’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 1</td>
<td>yes yes yes</td>
<td>Essay 1</td>
<td>no yes yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 7</td>
<td>yes yes yes</td>
<td>Essay 7</td>
<td>yes yes yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 20</td>
<td>yes no yes</td>
<td>Essay 20</td>
<td>yes yes yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: An opening sentence is the 1st sentence in a paragraph that has links to following and subsequent sentences.

6.5 Patterns of Lexis in the Pretest/Posttest of Group A and B’

6.5.1 Patterns of Lexis in Pretest/Posttest of Group A

The pattern of lexis was used in the Pretest/Posttest of Group A as well, to see whether there is an improvement in the use of links, bonds and ratios of bonds to links.

Table 6.29 T-test results of Pretest/Posttest of Group A concerning links, bonds and ratios

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. of Pairs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-tail Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Prlink</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24.20</td>
<td>6.57</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pslink</td>
<td></td>
<td>35.64</td>
<td>10.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Prbnd</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Psbnd</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.36</td>
<td>6.56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Pratio</td>
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<td>0.13</td>
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<td>.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Psratio</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
Prlink: pretest link
Pslink: posttest link
Prbnd: pretest bond
Psbnd: posttest bond
Pratio: pretest ratio
Psratio: posttest ratio

Table 6.29 shows the T-test results of the Pretest/Posttest of Group A. The T-test results show a high significant difference in links and bonds respectively in favour of the
Posttest ($p \leq 0.001; p = 0.004$), but no significant difference in the ratio ($p = 0.200$). The significant difference in bonds revealed that learners’ sentences relate to each other in a nonlinear way, which is a characteristic of mature writing. Hence, one may assume that learners’ discourse matured although the purpose of the treatment was to help learners to write grammatical and coherent sentences.

Looking at the Pretest/Posttest essays of subjects of essays 1, 7 and 20 in Group A, one finds the following: The links in the essay of subject 1 have more than doubled in the Posttest (45 vs 18), and the number of bonds had more than tripled (7 vs 2, in table 6.31). Further, there are more nonadjacent links in the Posttest. If nonadjacent sentences of subject 1 Posttest are put next to each other, the following will be given:

> They (private phone companies) will compete the government and affect the economy of the country (13). In conclusion, the causes and effects of living in a country with no proper telephone communication are very serious (15).

The above sentences which are normally coherent through links are virtually coherent when placed next to each other. Sentence 15 reflects the results of the statement in sentence 13 (Appendix 8).

However, if one puts next to each other the 2 nonadjacent sentences of the Pretest of subject 1 and compares them to the nonadjacent sentence of the Posttest, the following will result:

> This shortage of electricity has a lot of causes (4). Since electricity is very important this shortage has a lot of effects on the people (7).

Although these two sentences have links, they are not virtually coherent as the Posttest sentences are. Some sentences are needed to bridge the gap of cohesion.

Essay 7 of the second learner (in Group A) has also more than doubled the number of links (38 vs 14) and increased the number of bonds (3 vs 2) in the Posttest. There are also more nonadjacent links in the Posttest. For example, sentence 10 is linked to sentence 8.

> People are being deprived from telephone communication and this is leading them to exhaustion (8). Unworking telephones, hurt people if sometimes at night they need help, and the result is that they cannot communicate with anybody (10) (Appendix 8).
Hence, one may claim that sentence 9 can easily be omitted since cohesion exists without it. Essay 20 of the third learner also doubled the number of links in the Posttest (58 vs 25) and increased the number of bonds (5 vs 2 in Table 6.31). However, essay 20 of subject 3 has most of its links adjacent in the Posttest such as

In other words, there are many reasons which caused bad telephone communication that caused many problems as well (7). First, there are no proper telephone communication in Lebanon due the several reasons (8).

Subject three of essay 20 had more adjacent links than the 2 other learners although he also had nonadjacent ones. Perhaps this subject did not feel confident and therefore, reverted back to the simple procedure taught.

The type of repetition that learners used in the Pretest/Posttest of Group A was not different from the treatment as shown in Table 6.30.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. of Pairs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-tail Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Prsyn</td>
<td>25</td>
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<td>1.77</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pstsyn</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prcr</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pstcr</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prspp</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pstpp</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prsr</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18.08</td>
<td>5.82</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pstsr</td>
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<td>24.52</td>
<td>10.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prcp</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pstcp</td>
<td></td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There is a high significant difference in the use of synonyms and simple repetition respectively in favour of the Posttest ($p \leq 0.001$; $p = 0.005$ in table 6.30). These types of repetition were also significant in the treatment. However, there was a significant difference in the use of antonyms in favour of the Posttest ($p = 0.001$, table 6.30), whereas there was no significant difference in the use of antonyms in the treatment of Group A (tables 6.21 & 6.22). The significant difference in the use of antonyms in the Posttest may be considered as an improvement since an additional significant type of repetition enriches essay performance. Antonyms are used in comparison and contrast genre which is a more difficult genre (Kroll 1994).

Looking at the opening sentence in the Pretest/Posttest of the 3 subjects in Group A, one observes that the essay of subject 1 had an opening sentence in the Pretest and Posttest. In the Pretest the sentence is, *This shortage of electricity has a lot of causes* (4). In fact, this sentence is linked to the following one by the word *shortage* which was repeated in the subsequent sentence through the pronoun *it* (sentence 5). Again, the same subject had an opening sentence in the Posttest which is *There are many causes behind the improper telephone communication* (4). The subsequent sentence started with the synonym, *...causes...* which also assumes other causes to follow.

Essay 7 of the second learner had the following sentence as an opening sentence in the Pretest, *Because of the war the government did not collect taxes and it was difficult to buy fuel* (4). This is not an opening sentence neither according to Hoey’s (1991) criteria nor to Oshima and Hogue (1991). In fact, sentence 4 has no link to subsequent sentences. It just has a link to sentence 1, *Lebanon went through many problems after the war among which was*
the problem of the infrastructure (1). Further, in the Posttest subject 2 of essay 7 had no opening sentence according to Oshima and Hogue (1991) because this subject included in the opening sentence one of the reasons, which was supposed to be part of the paragraph. He/she also added other reasons in the same paragraph such as In addition to this during the war, a lot of cables were destroyed by bombs, and were not repaired at all (5). According to Hoey (1991) the first sentence of a paragraph is an opening sentence if it has sequent and subsequent links. Sentence 4 has 2 subsequent links, this and war (Appendix 8). Hence, it can be considered an opening sentence.

Essay 20 of the third learner had sentence 3 as an opening sentence. One of the causes is the war which cut the electricity wires by shelling the city (3). This sentence is linked to sentences 4 and 5. However, according to Oshima and Hogue (1991), the opening sentence includes a cause, provided no other new causes are included in the same paragraph. In sentence 5 of the same paragraph, learner 3 of essay 20 included the following new cause: The other cause of Electricity shortage is maintenance which the government can't pay (5). In the Posttest, subject of essay 20 had an opening sentence according to both Oshima and Hogue and Hoey. First there are no proper telephone communication in Lebanon due to several reasons (8). Sentence 8 is linked to sentences 9, 10 and 11 (Appendix 8) which give the reasons for the lack of proper telephone communication. Table 6.31 reveals links, bonds, ratios and opening sentences in the Pretest/Postest of Group A.

Table 6.31 Links, bonds, ratio and opening sentence in the Pretest/Postest of Group A

<p>| | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td></td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Links</td>
<td>Bonds</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
<td>Links</td>
<td>Bonds</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 20</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opening</td>
<td>Essay 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Essay 7</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence</td>
<td>Essay 20</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In sum, Group A reveals that cohesion improved significantly in the Posttest as shown in the results of links and bonds (p = .000; p = .004; see table 6.29). However, there was no significant difference in the ratio of bonds to links in the Pretest/Postest.
Yet, there is evidence that learners' essays mature since there is a significant difference in bonds which indicates that learners' writing is more cohesive. There is also a significant difference in the use of synonyms \( (p \leq .001) \), simple repetition \( (p = .005) \) and antonyms \( (p = .001) \) in the Posttest of Group A (Table 6.30). Simple repetition has the highest order of importance, synonym comes third and antonym comes fifth (Hoey 1991). Again these results reveal an improvement in learners' performance and reconfirms the interpretation that the texts used as samples were effective in improving vocabulary. Cohesion and organisation are also reflected through the use of opening sentence in the Pretest and Posttest of the 3 subjects.

### 6.5.2 Patterns of Lexis in the Pretest/Posttest of Group B'

Again the pattern of lexis was used in the Pretest/Posttest of Group B' to see whether there is a significant difference in the links, bonds and ratio of bonds to links.

Table 6.32 T-test results of Pretest/Posttest of Group B', concerning links, bonds and ratio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. of Pairs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-tail Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B'</td>
<td>Prlink</td>
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<td>23.84</td>
<td>7.35</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Pslink</td>
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<td>6.86</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B'</td>
<td>Prbnd</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Psbnd</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.08</td>
<td>6.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B'</td>
<td>Pratio</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Psratio</td>
<td></td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td></td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
- Prlink: pretest link
- Pslink: posttest link
- Prbnd: pretest bond
- Psbnd: posttest bond
- Pratio: pretest ratio
- Psratio: posttest ratio

Table 6.32 shows the results of the Pretest/Posttest of Group B', concerning links, bonds and ratio of bonds to links. The T-test revealed a high significant difference in the links in favour of the Posttest \( (p \leq .001) \), but no significant difference in the bonds or ratio. Again the significant difference in the links in the Posttest shows that learners' essay is
more cohesive, a feature necessary for good essay performance. This is assumed to be the results of the treatment.

If one looks at the Pretest/Posttest of learners of essays 1, 7 and 20, one finds the following: The links in the essay of learner 1 have doubled in the Posttest (28 vs 14), but the number of bonds is the same (1 vs 1 in \textbf{table 6.34}). However, most of the links are nonadjacent in the Posttest such as sentence 5 and 7.

\textit{First, most of the educated people decided to emigrate from Lebanon in order to survive (5). Secondly, during the war, the Lebanese pound had fallen rapidly and that made an inflation (7).}

Although these sentences are nonadjacent, they are cohesive as they state the reasons pertaining to the main idea, providing some necessary aid information. (It is recalled that both Pretest and Posttest Essays had no study of any skills, that is, no vocabulary or sentence-combining teaching.)

Essay 7 of the second learner had also more links in the Posttest Essay (33 vs 29), but again the same number of bonds (1 vs 1). Most of the links were nonadjacent in the Pretest. For example,

\textit{During the war, the ships were not able to reach the Lebanese area to deliver the fuel to the company of electricity (5). Many skilful engineer have escaped and the one who remains in Lebanon were not able to go to their work (7).}

One observes that these links lack cohesion. These sentences are marginal in that the use of lexis for what they have to say do not provide enough lexical cohesion. It is assumed that sentence 5 is the first cause since sentence 6 starts with \textit{the second cause}. However, it cannot be assumed that \textit{skilful engineer} and \textit{employee} are synonyms unless subject 2 of essay 7 did not pay attention to the difference in meaning, being under pressure.

The participant of Essay 20 had, as had the 2 previous ones, more links in the Posttest (38 vs 32), more bonds in the Posttest (3 vs 2) and more bonds than the 2 predecessors. Again the student of Essay 20 has more nonadjacent links in the Pretest. For instance,

\textit{Many employees were not paid their salaries (9). As a result, a lack of maintenance for all machines in those industries will follow (11).}
These two sentences are not linked through lexical cohesion. If 2 nonadjacent sentences of the Posttest of the same learner are compared, the results are:

Furthermore, many professional workers might break down the cables so that people will have to tip these employees to fix the damage (8). This (no telephone and no business) lead to a low standard of living (11).

This, in sentence 11, refers to lack of telephone which refers semantically to cable. That is, telephones need cables. Hence, as it is the case in the Posttest of subject 2 of essay 7, sentence 11 provides additional information to sentence 8 by the use of the word cable which the reader can interpret as a superordinate that takes over. Therefore, nonadjacent sentences, in the Posttest, are more strongly linked than the Pretest sentences of the subject of essay 20.

The types of repetition that learners used in the Pretest/Posttest did not differ much from those repetition used in the treatment.

Table 6.33 T-test results of Pretest/Posttest of Group B', concerning types of repetition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Variables</th>
<th>No. of Pairs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-tail Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prsyn B'</td>
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<td>1.72</td>
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<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pstsyn B'</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>2.04</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prcr B'</td>
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<td>1.01</td>
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<td>.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pstcr B'</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1.11</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prspp B'</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td>.057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pstpp B'</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prsr B'</td>
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<td>6.99</td>
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<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pstsr B'</td>
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<td>25.76</td>
<td>6.47</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prcp B'</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
<td>.327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pstcp B'</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As is shown in table 6.33, there was a high significant difference in the use of simple repetition and synonyms respectively in favour of the Posttest ($p \leq 0.01; \ p = 0.06$). Furthermore, there was a significant difference in the use of antonyms in favour of the Posttest ($p = 0.031$) as was the case in the antonyms between treatment 2 and 3 of Group B’ ($p = 0.013$ in table 6.27).

If one considers the texts of Hemingway and Gibran, one finds that simple repetition is used mostly, then comes synonyms (tables 4.3 & 4.10). Hence, the criteria used in the study (Chapt. 4) and Hoey’s (1991) fit the results of the types of repetition in the treatment and Pretest/Posttest. Although repetition does not always in itself make satisfactory prose, it is reminded that learners were not at a stage of considering whether their prose was satisfactory or not. They were at a stage of writing grammatically correct and coherent sentences. The traditional advice to avoid repetition needs to be couched with special care if it is not to interfere with the development of mature writing skills (Hoey 1991).

Looking at the opening sentence in the Pretest/Posttest of the 3 participants in Group B’, one finds that subject of Essay 1 had no opening sentence in the Pretest. In fact, the whole paragraph was one sentence. *As everyone knows, electricity comes from two major resources which are, the fuel and the water, and because of the overuse and manufacturing of car factories and machines, the percentage of the fuel around the world is in danger as of running out of it and that is the first cause of electrical shortage* (3). *On the other hand, the same participant had an opening sentence in the Posttest. First of all, there were two major causes for the telephone shortage* (4).

Subject of Essay 7 had an opening sentence in the Pretest and Posttest respectively. *The causes for the shortage are mainly two* (3). *The causes for the breakdown of
telephone are mainly two (3). The same pattern of sentence is used in the Pretest/Posttest. Although the pattern seems a stereotype, the researcher believes that this is needed at the less advanced stage. Later, learners will be more confident and develop a more mature and personal style (figure 3.1). This statement is based on her 15 years of teaching experience.

Subject of Essay 20 did not have an appropriate opening sentence in the Pretest because the learner wrote, *Electricity shortage in Lebanon is due to a major cause, which is the war (3)*, whereas in the same paragraph he/she introduced another cause, *Second, most of the time, Lebanon has suffered from the lack of fuel (7)*. In fact, the opening sentence should have included 2 major causes rather than *a major cause*. However, as the opening sentence is linked to the next sentence and subsequent ones, Hoey (1991) would consider it as an appropriate one. Further, subject of essay 20 had, in the Posttest, an opening sentence according to the criteria of Hoey (1991) and Oshima and Hogue (1991) since the controlling ideas, *several causes*, are part of the opening sentence, and since this sentence has links with the next and subsequent sentences. *Living in a country without proper telephone communication has several causes* (3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6.34</th>
<th>Links, bonds, ratio and opening sentence in the Pretest/Posttest of the 3 subjects in Group B’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pretest</strong></td>
<td><strong>Posttest</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Links</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 7</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 20</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opening Sentence</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 7</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 20</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In sum, considering links, bonds and ratio of bonds to links of learners in Group B’ Pretest/Posttest, one observes that learners improved significantly in the links of the Posttest Essay (*p = .000* in table 6.33), but not in the bonds. Furthermore, there was no significant difference in the ratio of bonds to links, whereas there was a significant difference in the ratio of treatment 2 of Group B’ (*p = .000* in table 6.23). Perhaps this is due to the fact that learners had to draw on their personal knowledge to use the
vocabulary pertaining to the Pretest/Posttest topic. Hence, the importance of vocabulary teaching and a metacognitive approach. One also notices that all three participants had an opening sentence in the Posttest Essay, whereas 1 of them did not have one in the Pretest (table 6.34).

The 3 participants whose essays have been analysed in detail had more links in the Posttest, equal number of bonds in the Pretest/Posttest except for participant of Essay 20 who had 1 more bond in the Posttest. Although nonadjacent links are of more interest (Hoey 1991), it is interesting to notice that learners of Essay 7 and 20 went back to the writing of adjacent ones in the Posttest (Appendix 8). Perhaps learners go back to a simple procedure when they face some difficulties. The researcher considers this fact an achievement, for her purpose was to teach learners that writing does not necessarily need to be complex (see Chapter 3). Subject 1 had no opening sentence in the Pretest, but had it in the Posttest Essay as all the others.

6.6 Comparing and Interpreting the Results of the Pretest/Posttest of Group A and B’

Table 6.35 shows the significant results of the patterns of lexis in the Pretest/Posttest of Group A and B’ and the results of the 3 participants studied in detail. Comparing the results of the Pretest/Posttest of Group A and B’, one observes:

- Both Group A and B’ had a high significant difference in the links in favour of the Posttest (p ≤ 0.001; p ≤ 0.001 in table 6.35). One may conclude that metacognitive learning of vocabulary is acquired due to the treatment.
- Group A had a significant difference in the Posttest bonds (p = 0.004 table 6.35), whereas Group B’ did not. This reconfirms the assumption that timing of Group B’ was inappropriate though this group was more advanced.
- Both Group A and B’ had no significant difference in the ratio of bonds to links (in tables 6.29 & 6.32). Perhaps this provides the claim that knowledge of vocabulary is essential to essay writing, knowing that no target vocabulary teaching has taken place in the Pretest/Posttest.
- There was a significant difference in favour of the Posttest of both Group A and B’ respectively in the synonyms (p ≤ 0.001, p = 0.006), in simple repetition (p = 0.005;
p ≤ .001) and in antonyms (p = .001; p = .031 in Table 6.35). Learners seem to have modelled the study-reading of literary text presented to them and improved further since there was a significant difference in the use of antonyms.

- There was a significant difference in the simple partial paraphrase (spp) in favour of the Posttest of Group A only (p = .041 in Table 6.35).

- The essays of the 3 subjects analysed in detail in Group A and B' increased the number of links in the Posttest. All 3 participants in Group A increased the number of bonds in the Posttest, but participants in Group B' had equal number of bonds except for the participant of essay 20.

- All 3 participants in Group A and B' had an opening sentence in the Posttest, but one in Group B' had no opening sentence in the Pretest. The use of an opening sentence is a further approach towards organization and cohesion since it guarantees the links of next and subsequent sentences (Table 6.35).

Table 6.35 Significant results of the Patterns of Lexis, types of repetition in the Posttest of Group A and B' and the results of the 3 participants studied in detail.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of Pairs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-tailSig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pslink</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>35.64</td>
<td>10.50</td>
<td>24 .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psbond</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.36</td>
<td>6.56</td>
<td>24 .004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Types of Repetitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2-tail Sig.</th>
<th>2-tail Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pstsvn</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pstsr</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pstpp</td>
<td>.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pstanto</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Links</td>
<td>Bonds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 1</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 20</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Opening Sentence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Essay 1</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Opening Sentence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Essay 7</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 20</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Posttest B’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of Pairs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>2-tailSig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pslink</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>32.44</td>
<td>6.86</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psbnd</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6.08</td>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Types of Repetitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2-tail Sig.</th>
<th>2-tail Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pstsyn</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pstsr</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Links</th>
<th>Bonds</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
<th>Links</th>
<th>Bonds</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Essay 1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 7</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 20</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Opening Sentence

| Essay 1 | Yes | Yes |
| Essay 7 | Yes | Yes |
| Essay 20 | Yes | Yes |

**Key:**

- Pslink: Posttest link
- Psbnd: Posttest bond
- Pstsyn: Posttest synonym
- Pstsr: Posttest simple repetition
- Pstpp: Posttest partial paraphrase

### 6.7 Conclusion

Tables 6.36 and 6.37 summarise the quantitative, qualitative and the patterns of lexis in terms of significant results and a list of the conclusive points of the study:

#### Table 6.36 Significant results of the Counterbalancing Experiment. Patterns of Lexis and types of repetition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>GENSC</th>
<th>GENVC</th>
<th>G&amp;HVC</th>
<th>G&amp;HSC</th>
<th>Essay 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pretest</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grp. B</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Midtest</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grp. A</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td></td>
<td>.018</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Posttest</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grp. B’</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Correlation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grp. A</td>
<td>voc2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grp. B’</td>
<td>voc1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$r = .630$

$r = .492$
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patterns of Lexis</th>
<th>Types of Repetitions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grp. A</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TL2</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TB2</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pslink</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psbnd</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Grp.B’**       |                      |
| TL2              | .015                 |
| TB2              | .001                 |
| R2               | .001                 |
| Pslink           | .001                 |

| **Grp. A**       | **2-tail Sig.**      | **Grp.A**       | **2-tail Sig.** |
| TL2              | .001                 | Isyn2           | .001           |
| TB2              | .001                 | Isr2            | .001           |
| R2               | .005                 |                 |                |
| Pslink           | .001                 | Psstsyn         | .001           |
| Psbnd            | .004                 | Psstpp          | .041           |
|                  |                      | Psstr           | .005           |
|                  |                      | Pstanto         | .001           |

| **Grp.B’**       | **2-tail Sig.**      | **Grp.B’**      | **2-tail Sig.** |
| TL2              | .015                 | Isyn2           | .005           |
| TB2              | .001                 | Isr2            | .000           |
|                  |                      | Hsppl           | .045           |
|                  |                      | Hcp1            | .003           |
|                  |                      | Ranto3          | .013           |
| Pslink           | .001                 | Psstsyn         | .006           |
|                  |                      | Psstr           | .001           |
|                  |                      | Pstanto         | .031           |

Key:
- Pslink: Posttest link
- Psbnd: Posttest bond
- TL2: Total link treat.2
- TB2: Total bond treat.2
- Ranto3: Ratio antonyms treat.3
- Hsppl: HLWE complex paraphrase treat.1
- Hcp1: HLWE partial paraphrase treat.1

Table 6.37: Significant results of the Attitudinal Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Group A</th>
<th>Group A’</th>
<th>Group B’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quest. 7 (whether s-c helps writing sent. with fewer sent. str. mistakes)</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rating the improvement of the learners’ own essays</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rating the teacher’s knowledge of the subject</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rating the improvement of the learners’ own essays</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probing the teacher’s method</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoyment of text 2 (syllabus)</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoyment of text 3 (syllabus)</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoyment of text 3 (treatment)</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• The pretest results reveal that Group B did significantly better in 3 out of the 5 Pretests (GENSC, p = .037; GENVC, p = .003; GHVC, p = .001 in table 6.36).

• The midtest results reveal that Group A performed significantly better in GENVC (p = .035) and in Essay 3 (p = .018 in table 6.36), regardless of the fact that it was less advanced. These results may be the outcome of the treatment, which used the two subskills, vocabulary and sentence-combining.

The posttest results reveal that Group B’ did significantly better again in GENVC (p = .006) and GENSC (p = .043) as it did in the Pretests (table 6.36). However, there is no significant difference between Group A’ and B’ in GHVC (table 6.3) although this difference existed in the Pretest. Perhaps General Vocabulary and General Sentence-combining learning need more than 8 weeks of treatment to maintain a long term effect (8 weeks had passed before Group A’ was administered the Posttests as a result of the nature of the Counterbalancing Experiment). In spite of this lapse of time, there is no significant difference between both Group A’ and B’ in the Posttest of GHVC and GHSC (table 6.3). That is, sentence-combining and vocabulary, the 2 subskills worked to improve Essay performance. Again this might demonstrate the effectiveness of the treatment, and its relative long term effect.

The Attitudinal Questionnaire, one of the treatment techniques in triangulation, probed learners’ perception on different questions.

• Group A reveals a significant difference (p = .012 in table 6.37) in perceiving themselves as improving in Essay writing. One may assume again that since their perception corresponds to the significant difference in Essay 3 (p = .018 in table 6.36), this may be due to the treatment. Eight weeks after the treatment was over, Group A’ rated itself significantly different (p = .008 in table 6.37).

• The attitude of both Group A and B’ towards the treatment reveals that the results of the 6 questions concerning vocabulary are consistent irrespective of the content of the syllabus or primacy/recency of the treatment (table 6.7). The treatment could have easily not been a counterbalanced experiment, and further investigation on its long term effect could have been carried.
• The 5 questions concerning sentence-combining in the Attitudinal Questionnaire are not significant at the exception of question 7, probing whether sentence-combining helps writing sentences with fewer sentence-structure mistakes (p = .024). The significant difference is in favour of Group A which may suggest that sentence-combining is more helpful to less advanced learners, and that more advanced ones perceive different needs (tables 6.8 & 6.37).

• Enjoyment of the texts studied as part of the syllabus and the treatment also reveals that advanced learners enjoy different topics compared to less advanced learners. Group A’ reveals a significant difference concerning 2 texts given in the syllabus (Why We Fall in Love and Diogenes and Alexander; p = .001 and p ≤ .001 respectively in table 6.37). On the other hand, Group B’, which is more advanced, preferred Gibran’s extracts, On Reason and Passion and On Work (p = .022 in table 6.37). However, when rating the choice of texts, Group A’ rated On Reason and Passion (rather than Why We Fall in Love in table 6.15) equally to Hills Like White Elephants. This difference might be the result of time which gave learners the possibility of thinking of the philosophy of Gibran.

• There is a high correlation between Essay 2 and vocabulary in Group A (r = .630), but none between sentence-combining and Essay 2 (in table 6.17). The results of the 3 variables in Group A seem inconsistent. The instability of learners’ responses is a problem from the viewpoint of reliability (Read 1993; Anderman and Rogers 1996).

• The Correlation of the 3 variables in Group B’ is different. There is only a significant correlation between vocabulary and Essay 1 in Group B’ (r = .492 in table 6.36). Yet there is a significant difference in Essay 3 of the treatment in both Experimental Group A and B’. Again this assumes that the treatment with the 2 subskills is effective and its effectiveness is relatively long.

Summing up the comments given by learners in the Attitudinal Questionnaire that both Group A’ and B’, after having gone through the treatment and the syllabus, agree on two main points.

• The importance of rewriting.

• The importance of vocabulary teaching.
Group A kept its high spirit beyond the treatment period, whereas Group B', which started with the syllabus and then the treatment and which is more advanced in some of the subskills (as shown in the Pretests and Posttests) retained a poor self-image.

The results of the patterns of lexis show that

- In Group A, links, bonds and ratio of bonds to links are significantly different respectively in favour of treatment 2 ($T_{12} p = .001; T_{b2} p = .001; R^2 p = .005$ in table 6.36). Learners seem to have achieved lexical cohesion in this treatment.

- Simple lexical repetition and the use of synonyms are highly significant respectively in treatment 2 of Group A ($p < .001; p < .001$ in table 6.36). Subjects seem to have modelled their writing on the texts by Hemingway and Gibran set as a sample.

- Learners in Group A whose essays have been studied in detail reveal that all 3 learners have increased the number of links in treatment 3 compared to treatment 1. Bonds also increased in treatment 3 compared to treatment 1, except for subject 7 (in table 6.20).

- Learners had an opening sentence except subject 20 in treatment 2. However, this subject wrote an opening sentence in treatment 3 (in table 6.28).

- In Group B', links, bonds and ratio of bonds to links are significant respectively in favour of treatment 2 ($T_{12} p = .026; T_{b2} p = .026; R^2 p = .006$ in table 6.23).

- Simple repetition ($p = .000$) is highly significant in treatment 2 of Group B', but complex paraphrase and simple partial paraphrase are respectively significant in treatment 1 of Group B' ($p = .003; p = .045$ in table 6.26). There are more significant types of repetition in Group B' than Group A. Perhaps this reconfirms the fact that Group B' is more advanced.

- The 3 learners in Group B', whose essays have been studied in detail, increased their links consistently in the 3 treatments, but decreased the number of bonds in treatment 3 (table 6.25). However, lexical cohesion seems to be in progress among the 3 learners.

- The Posttest of Group A has a significant difference in links and bonds respectively ($p < .001; p = .004$ in table 6.36). Improvement has taken place and there is evidence that learners' discourse has matured since bonds reveal that sentences relate to each other in a nonlinear way.
• The 3 learners whose essays have been studied in detail have more than doubled their links and increased the bonds in the Posttest (in table 6.31).

• All three subjects in Group A had an opening sentence in the Posttest.

• The types of links are more numerous in the Posttest (Group A) than in the treatment. The significant ones are synonyms (p < .001), simple repetitions (p = .005) and antonyms (p = .001) (in table 6.36). The additional significant type of repetition in the Posttest is a further reconfirmation of the improvement as well as the enrichment of essay performance.

• The Posttest Essay of Group B' reveals a high significant difference in links (p < .001) but not in the bonds or ratio (in table 6.36).

• The 3 participants, whose essays have been analysed in detail, have increased their links in the posttest but not the number of bonds with the exception of subject 3 of essay 20 (in table 6.34).

• All three participants of Group B' had an opening sentence in the Posttest essay. However, participant 1 had none in the Pretest but made it up in the Posttest (in table 6.35).

Finally, one may draw the following inferences:

• If the timing of Group B' had been more appropriate and learners' self-image better viewed, those learners would have achieved better, taking into account that they were more advanced learners in the first place.

• The Attitudinal Questionnaire reveals that less advanced learners prefer texts that are more direct and less philosophical (in table 6.37).

• Learners achieved significantly in the texts that they found slightly difficult. Hence enjoyment needs not always to be inhibited by linguistic difficulty since a text can itself be an incentive to overcome linguistic barriers. Yet, one should not forget the role that the teacher has to play in such circumstances (Brumfit 1985; Carter and Long 1991; Carter and Nash 1995), and that time may play the role of a scaffolding agent.

• Perhaps some texts and discourse genre lend themselves to more lexical cohesion as is the case in treatment 2. In fact, Mosenthal (1985) and Hoey (1991) agree to this view.

• It is assumed that the number of taught vocabulary, which was the largest in treatment 2, contributed significantly in links and bond results in both Groups.
As 2 of the subjects in Group A and B', whose essays have been studied in detail reverted back to adjacent links in the Posttest, one may assume that subjects learned to go back to simple structure when facing difficulties. It is recalled that learners had to draw on their personal lexical knowledge in the writing of the Pretest/Posttest Essay.

Hence, the results of the patterns of lexis in the text assume that learners in the experimental Group A and B' improved their production of vocabulary and cohesion as a result of the experiment. Those results reconfirm the results of the Multivariate Analysis (table 6.16) and the results of the Attitudinal Questionnaire. Further, the significant difference in the bonds proves the nonlinear links, which is a characteristic of mature learners. One can also assume that learners modelled their writing on the texts by Gibran and Hemingway since the types of patterns revealed a significant difference in the simple repetition and synonyms as was the case in the modelled texts. The use of synonyms could be considered as an index of growth (Stotsky 1983) as antonyms could, since both Groups had significant results in those types.
CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION

Chapter seven draws conclusions from this study. It is subdivided into three main parts: 1. a summary of the main results; 2. a discussion of limitations of the study; 3. recommendations for further research.

This study has investigated the teaching of writing through the use of vocabulary and sentence-combining. Those 2 subskills have been taught implicitly through study-reading of literary texts and explicitly through a variety of strategies used to teach vocabulary and sentence-combining.

The study is worthwhile since it has used vocabulary, still neglected in Lebanon, and a difficult skill to teach and measure. It is also worthwhile for its use of sentence-combining that has been commonly shelved in Lebanon though quite commonly found in textbooks. The significant results underline the importance of the study within a context of subjects lacking the motivation of learning an L2 and the widely held claim that teaching writing is relatively difficult.
7.1 Summary of Main Results

7.1.1 Initial Analysis

**COUNTERBALANCING EXPERIMENT**

Figure 4.1 shows again the design used in the Counterbalancing Experiment whose aim is to investigate the following hypothesis:

_Learners who are taught Vocabulary and Sentence-combining within the context of study-reading texts in literature will perform better in their Essay than those who are taught writing without Vocabulary and Sentence-combining within the context of study-reading texts._

It is acknowledged, however, that in both cases the topic of the Essays is an outcome of the study-reading texts in literature.

The Counterbalancing Experiment was chosen to control the primacy and or recency effects of the syllabus on learners. Yet this design had its drawback and difficulties. The Posttests were assigned to Group A 8 weeks after the treatment was over, due to the nature of the experiment. Further, when Group B became experimental i.e. B', the semester was at its end, and learners were busy catching up with their major courses that they consider more important, hence, missing some sessions. Also the
nature of the experiment required tests to be carried out as Pretests, Midtests and Posttests which made learners feel miserable and nervous. It also made the teacher feel uncomfortable because, in her opinion, tests should not be cumbersome and they might affect the output results, let alone the fact that there is a syllabus to follow. In addition, the administration had its reservations in accepting to alter the syllabus. However, in spite of the difficulties faced, a number of significant results have been obtained and displayed in table 7.0.

**Table 7.0 Pretest Results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>X of Grp.A</th>
<th>X of Grp.B</th>
<th>Sig of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRGENSC</td>
<td>34.24</td>
<td>43.52</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRGENVC</td>
<td>47.52</td>
<td>57.36</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRGHVC</td>
<td>33.80</td>
<td>46.76</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
- PRGENSC: pretest general sentence-combining
- PRGENVC: pretest general vocabulary
- PRGHVC: pretest Gibran and Hemingway vocabulary

In the Pretests, Group B (control) performed significantly better in 3 out of 5 Pretests. That is, General Sentence-combining (GENSC p = .037); General Vocabulary (GENVC p = .003); and Gibran and Hemingway Vocabulary (G&HVC p = .001) (table 7.0).

7.1.2 Multivariate Analysis

**Table 7.1 Midtest Results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>X of Grp.A</th>
<th>X of Grp.B</th>
<th>Sig of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MTGENSC</td>
<td>62.04</td>
<td>58.96</td>
<td>.375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTGENVC</td>
<td>62.38</td>
<td>54.70</td>
<td>.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THRESSAY</td>
<td>70.60</td>
<td>64.92</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
- MTGENSC: midtest general sentence-combining
- MTGENVC: midtest general vocabulary
- THRESSAY: third essay (in the experiment)
Table 7.1 shows the significant difference of 2 out of 3 Midterm tests of Group A. It is interesting to observe that although Group B (control) was more advanced, Group A did significantly better in GENVC \( (p = .035) \) and Essay 3 \( (p = .018) \) as a result of the treatment. The results also imply that since Group A caught up in GENSC, Group A progressed on this measure more than Group B, from the baseline. Hence, the results imply that teaching with the two subskills, vocabulary and sentence-combining within the context of study-reading texts, gives better results (tables 6.1 & 7.0).

Table 7.2 Posttest Results of Group A' and B'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>X of Grp A'</th>
<th>X of Grp B'</th>
<th>Sig F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PSGENSC</td>
<td>64.99</td>
<td>67.29</td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSGENVC</td>
<td>59.16</td>
<td>65.44</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSGHVC</td>
<td>72.25</td>
<td>76.43</td>
<td>.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSGHSC</td>
<td>78.43</td>
<td>76.21</td>
<td>.404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSESSAY</td>
<td>70.35</td>
<td>70.21</td>
<td>.945</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: PSGENSC: posttest general sentence-combining  
      PSGENVC: posttest general vocabulary  
      PSESSAY: posttest essay  
      PSGHVC: posttest Gibran Hemingway vocabulary  
      PSGHSC: posttest Gibran Hemingway sentence-combining

Table 7.2 displays the significant and interesting results of the Posttest.

- Although the Midtest results revealed that Group A caught up with Group B (control), in the Posttest Group B' regained its apparent supremacy in General Vocabulary and General Sentence-combining respectively \( (p = .006; p = .043 \) in table 7.2). Perhaps acquiring general vocabulary and general sentence-combining need more than the time allocated to the treatment.

- The nonsignificant difference in the PSGHVC could still be considered as an improvement in favour of Group A' since they have apparently closed the significant gap since the Pretest.
Further, the nonsignificant difference in the result of the Posttest Essay between Group A' and B' is a possible proof of long term effectiveness of the treatment, since Group A performed as well as Group B' eight weeks after input.

7.1.3 Essay Analyses

Table 7.3 Results of the analysis of the 3 Essays in the treatment of Group A & B'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Variable</th>
<th>Sig F</th>
<th>Group Variable</th>
<th>Sig F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Essay 1</td>
<td>.416</td>
<td>Essay 1</td>
<td>.464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 2</td>
<td>.287</td>
<td>Essay 2</td>
<td>.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay 3</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>Essay 3</td>
<td>.021</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.3 reveals the results of analysing the essays in the treatment of both groups.

There is a significant difference in Essay 3 of the treatment in both Group A and B' respectively (p = .018; p = .021 in tables 7.3 and 6.16) but none in the first two essays. These results may reflect that learners need some time to become aware of the procedure used regardless whether they are advanced or not. Perhaps one could consider this lapse of time as the point of readiness or using Vygostky’s term *the zone of proximal development* (ZPD).

The results of the analysis of the uses of lexical and cohesive devices and syntax of the Essays in the treatment of Group A and B' are charted in table 7.4. These features display the lexical and syntactic devices which are part of the two subskills, vocabulary and sentence-combining.
### Table 7.4 Results of features analysed in Essays in the Treatment and Pretest/Posttest of Group A & B’

#### Group A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatments</th>
<th>Percentage of lexical &amp; cohe. dev.</th>
<th>Treatments</th>
<th>Percentage of lexical &amp; cohe. dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>66%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Group B’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatments</th>
<th>Percentage of lexical &amp; cohe. dev.</th>
<th>Treatments</th>
<th>Percentage of lexical &amp; cohe. dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(NtA)</td>
<td>5 out of 10 (CA)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(NtA)</td>
<td>6 out of 12 (CA)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Percentage of Syntax (NtA)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatments</th>
<th>Percentage of Syntax (NtA)</th>
<th>Treatments</th>
<th>Percentage of Syntax (NtA)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>frag.</td>
<td>run-on</td>
<td>sent. struct.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Percentage of Syntax (NtB’)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatments</th>
<th>Percentage of Syntax (NtB’)</th>
<th>Treatments</th>
<th>Percentage of Syntax (NtB’)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>frag.</td>
<td>run-on</td>
<td>sent. struct.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### T-units & Average of Pretest Posttest Other features the 3 treatm.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatments</th>
<th>Percentage of NtA</th>
<th>Percentage of CA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>main cl.</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subord. cl.</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>correct sent.</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatments</th>
<th>Percentage of NtB’</th>
<th>Percentage of CB’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>main cl.</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subord. cl.</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>correct sent.</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
- NtA: Total number of sentences in Group A
- NtB’: Total number of sentences in Group B’
- CA: Correct number of sentences in Group A
- CB’: Correct number of sentences in Group B’

- The total average of clutter words of both Group A and B’ is the same (N=9, 3% vs N=10, 3%). Yet, this percentage is low. Perhaps clutter words were not much of a problem, because learners were taught vocabulary. In fact, the percentage of clutter words increased in the Posttest of both Group A and B’ respectively (4% and 5%) probably because learners had to draw on their own knowledge to use lexis.
• It is interesting to observe that Group A has a higher total average of vocabulary use (in the 3 treatments), a higher total average of correct conjunctions and transitions respectively (N=130, 43% vs N=118, 39%; N=188, 63% vs N=134, 45%; N=62, 21% vs N=49, 16%). Again this might reconfirm that timing of Group A was more appropriate, regardless of the fact that it was less advanced. Perhaps the self-confidence of Group A reflected in the Attitudinal Questionnaire also affected these results.

• The use of appropriate syntax seems to be slightly harder to acquire than that of lexis when learners are less advanced. Group B' had a less total average of the number of run-ons and sentence structures respectively (N=9, 3% vs N=13, 4%; N=16, 5% vs N=20, 7%). Nevertheless, the difference between these 2 groups is 1%.

• It is important to notice the decrease in the number of syntax of Group A in the Posttest as compared to the Pretest, concerning all three elements (i.e. fragment, run-on and sentence-combining), knowing that this group was less advanced. Further, Group B' decreased its number of run-on sentences but kept the same percentage of the number of fragments and increased the number of sentence structure. Perhaps this is the result of more advanced learner who allow themselves some freedom in writing and end up with syntax mistakes. This observation stems from the researcher experience who noticed that self-confident learners tend to abide less by academic writing.

• T-units revealed that the total average of correct sentences and subordinates in the treatment is more numerous in Group B', though learners were asked to use simple sentences if possible. One cannot deny that teaching learners to use simple sentences is a paradox, for complex sentences are acknowledged by most writers as part of mature writing. This is shown through the results of the analysis of writers’ T-units in Group B', detected as more advanced.

• Other marked themes were more numerous in the treatment of Group B'. Again this is assumed to be a sign of more mature writing.
Both Group A and B' used conjunctions wrongly initially, but they both reduced its use in the Posttest. Hence, one may infer that the treatment, which discouraged the use of conjunctions at the beginning of sentences, had a positive result.

Summing up the above concluding points, one may state that the treatment has significant results on both Group A and B', regardless of the possible influencing variables of primacy/recency or groups of advanced/less advanced learners, and regardless of the fact that the Posttest was administered to Group A 8 weeks after the treatment. The results of the study are also important for it reveals that writing, which is viewed by L2 learners in Lebanon, as a difficult task, could be overcome by the use of the 2 subskills (vocabulary and sentence-combining) within the context of reading text and within the setting of the teachers' metacognitive knowledge of the objectives set.

7.1.4 Analysis of Pattern of Lexis

Table 7.5 Significant results of the Patterns of Lexis in the treatment and Posttest of Group A and B'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patterns of Lexis</th>
<th>Types of Repetition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grp. A</strong></td>
<td><strong>Grp. A</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-tail Sig.</td>
<td>2-tail Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TL2 .001</td>
<td>Isyn2 .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TB2 .001</td>
<td>Isr2 .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2 .005</td>
<td>Hspp1 .013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pslink .001</td>
<td>Pstsyn .006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psbnd .004</td>
<td>Pstsr .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pstanto .031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grp. B’</strong></td>
<td><strong>Grp. B’</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-tail Sig.</td>
<td>2-tail Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TL2 .015</td>
<td>Isyn2 .005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TB2 .001</td>
<td>Isr2 .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2 .001</td>
<td>Hspp1 .045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pslink .001</td>
<td>Pstsyn .006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pstsr .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pstanto .031</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is interesting to observe that there is a significant difference in the links, bonds and ratios of bonds to links respectively in both Group A and B' in treatment 2 (A, 
\[ p = .001; p = .001, p = .005; B' p = .015; p \leq .001; p \leq .001 \] in table 7.5). This perhaps implies that treatment 2, which used cause as a genre, is mostly appropriate. Further, the percentage of vocabulary used in treatment 2 is higher than treatment 3 (in table 6.24).

It is also interesting to see that the same type of repetition (i.e synonym and simple repetition respectively) is significant in treatment 2 of both Group A and B' (A, \[ p \leq .001; p \leq .001; B, p = .005; p \leq .001 \]). These results may reconfirm the fact that learners modelled the sample texts used in the treatment. Yet, Group B' also has other types of repetition in treatment 1, that is, simple partial paraphrase \( p = .045 \); complex paraphrase \( p = .003 \) and in treatment 3, antonym \( p = .013 \) in table 7.5). Again this may reconfirm that Group B', being more advanced, used a wider range of types of repetition.

It is also interesting to observe that both Group A and B' had a high significant difference in the links of the Posttest \( p \leq .001; p = .001 \). However, only Group A had a significant difference in the bonds \( p = .004 \) in table 7.5). This is somehow unexpected since it is Group B’, the more mature one, which is assumed to show links that are nonlinear and long range distant. Again timing might be the reason for such a result.

In fact, the types of repetition used in the Posttest of Group A are more numerous and indicate improvement and maturity in discourse (synonym \( p \leq .001 \); simple partial paraphrase \( p = .041 \); simple repetition \( p = .005 \); antonym \( p = .001 \)). The Posttest of Group
B' had 3 significant types of repetition (synonyms, \( p = 0.006 \); simple repetition \( p \leq 0.001 \); antonyms, \( p = 0.031 \) in Table 7.5).

Summing up the results of the patterns of lexis, one can draw the conclusion that the patterns of lexis reconfirm that the treatment had a positive effect in terms of lexical cohesion which is an outcome of vocabulary, one of the taught subskills. Lexis, in the subjects' essays is shown to be prominent because of the role and significant difference of the different types of repetitions across sentences. Further, the different types of repetitions may also indicate that learners acquired more than what was presented to them in the text. What goes in mind of the learner and what we know of it is just the tip of the human iceberg.

7.2 Limitations of the Study

No research study is perfect, and most educational researchers are bound to find limitations with the methods they use. Some of the drawbacks of this study are the following:

- The large number of tests and their triple use was cumbersome especially for learners who believed they were being overtested. Unlike theoretical designs of research, the human face of it is sometimes difficult and challenging to subjects as well as to the researcher.

- The timing for the second experimental Group B' was inconvenient. Learners were approaching the end of the semester and were absent during some class sessions, let alone the more general impression that some of these L2 learners are far from being interested in learning L2. They consider their major as their chief and ultimate goal.

- Starting with the syllabus built a low self-image with learners of Group B', which made them feel they were poor achievers although results proved the contrary. Had the design not been a counter balancing one, learners might have not built a low self-image and perhaps better results would have been the outcome.

- The nature of the Counterbalancing Experiment led the Posttest to be administered to Group A 8 weeks after the treatment. However, this design allowed the
researcher to test the effectiveness of the treatment on a relatively longer period of time

- The time of the experiment was short. Had both Group A and B been Experimental simultaneously, effects of the experiment would have been analysed further, comparison of learners’ regression would have been investigated in and reliability better determined.

- It was difficult sometimes to harmonise theory and practice. The texts chosen often started sentences with conjunctions, whereas learners were asked not to start sentences in this way, but this is apt to happen in authentic situations.

- Although one of the purposes of sentence-combining was to teach learners to write simple sentence, sometimes this issue was problematic. Philosophical topics such as the texts in treatment 3 lend themselves to rather complex sentence writing. The paradox of teaching sentence-combining by using study-texts which have simple sentences is resolved through the notion of appropriacy (chap.4).

- The number of subjects (50) though a valid sample, was not necessarily representative of the larger population of the university, context, time span, reading of Hemingway and Gibran texts, vocabulary target and sentence-combining techniques were relatively limited.

- The correlation of the three variables: vocabulary, sentence-combining and Essay performance might have had better results if more time had been allotted to the experiment. However, much more goes into the learners’ mind than the observable superficial characteristics.

- It is also difficult to measure exactly what words have been acquired through vocabulary learning, keeping in mind the dichotomy between comprehension and production, the variety of genres and topics, the instability of the learners’ responses and the fact that learners know more than what they produce. These might problematise the reliability of test results. Further, the number of vocabulary items was limited so that conclusions can only be drawn with caution.
• The different texts used to measure vocabulary had their limitations. For example, distractive items in a multiple choice test could be easily mistaken for the correct ones, considering the fact that learners are L2 subjects.

• If vocabulary to be taught are similar in form or content, this renders learning more difficult. If they are difficult to utter, this again renders learning more difficult (Read 2000). These issues, at the time of the experiment, were not known to the researcher.

• Clutter words, which have been considered as errors in the study, may be strategies suitable for teaching (Read 2000).

• In the Classroom Transcript Analysis, the third aspect of the triangular technique, some problems were encountered such as the ill-formed responses due to the different teacher/learner’s schemata, different coherence patterns revealed through the use of different cohesive devices and classroom discourse and pedagogic tensions are perhaps inevitable.

• The patterns of lexis used on the 250 essays of learners might be too insubstantial to test many claims. Alternatively, Hoey’s model (1991) is exploratory here since it has mostly been used on texts in books rather than on students’ essay performance. Nevertheless, the best evidence of cohesion in a text is found in the readers for themselves, and to a certain extent, cohesion among lexis differs from person to person (Hoey 1991).

7.3 Issues Arising From This Study

7.3.1 Action Research

If the researcher considers the main issues in Action Research discussed in Chapter I, she finds that the 2 essential points emphasised by Stenhouse (1981) have been followed. That is, the actual study followed a scientific procedure, and the researcher has, as much as possible, followed a critical-reflective ownership of the process and the results.

Furthermore, the topic of the study has been experienced as a problem by the researcher. The idea of the teacher-researcher is of crucial importance for the future
development of the profession and the curriculum in general (Giroux and McLaren in Pookewitz 1987).

As a result of this, the researcher study was partly action research since the topic was rooted in daily teaching routines, and the research is basically committed to emancipate individuals from the status quo. Yet, some problems were faced: the texts chosen for the experiment interfered with the syllabus, and there was difficulty in getting approval from the administration.

In her applied field of research, the researcher followed some of the framework stated by Gebhard et al. (in Richards and Nunan 1990). That is, the approach included analysing transcripts of lessons, an uncommon practice in Lebanon, samples of students’ written work and, among other frameworks, analysing textbook materials to inspect sentence-combining methods that have been used.

However, as a result of her personal reflection on research, she realised that not all teachers would like to carry out a rigorous and systematic inquiry of scientific procedures nor are all teachers skilled in analysis and introspection beside the fact that some see the process as an extra load to their normal work (Hollingsworth 1997). Perhaps Teacher Centers, as described by Gebhard (in Richards and Nunan 1990) can serve as a substitute to research. Teacher-researchers have also to consider the limitations of the research impact since action research may be conducted in the context of one’s own students, schools or universities (James and Ebbutt in Nixon 1981). In fact, Action Research is one of the several routes to professional development.

Research in Lebanon and specifically action research is rarely practised or encouraged. Professional development rather takes the form of meetings to discuss the syllabi and anchor essay of students. What remains a major problem is the tactful way of presenting changes to the administration and the difficult task of convincing teachers of meeting the needs of learners in the universities of Lebanon.

However, as a result of the collaboration between LAU and the University of Leicester and the celebration of LAU 75th anniversary, a day conference was presented and teachers from schools and universities were invited to give a 20 minute workshop based on Action Research (LAU 2000). In fact, Action Research has reconfirmed my
belief in the importance of introspection or self-reflection on one’s work whether academic or not and on one’s actions at the end of the day.

7.3.2 Vocabulary Teaching

There are areas which are still considered problematic in the vocabulary research here, one of which is the extent to which individual differences affect vocabulary acquisition and the relationship between strategy use and proficiency (Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Aitchison in Anderman and Rogers 1996; McDonough 1999), and there is much more to learn about vocabulary knowledge than the associative links between L2 and its equivalent word in L1. Words as such, for content and form reasons, could be more difficult to acquire than other words (Read 2000). Also few studies make comparisons between learners from different backgrounds acquiring the same L2 (Channel 1988; McCarthy 1992; Bensoussan in Arnaud and Bejoint 1992; Aitchison in Andelman and Rogers 1996; McDonough 1999). Some authors believe that the teaching of vocabulary is still neglected and learners need different learning strategies (Zimmerman 1998; McDonough 1999). Further, poor achievers show little awareness of learning new words and no interest in learning words in context (Ahmed in Meara 1989; Read 2000).

The correlation of vocabulary and Essay performance has shown some inconsistency in the Counterbalancing Experiment. It is also commonly recognized that there is an asymmetry between comprehension and production. Comprehending an item does not necessarily guarantee its production in the writing skill and learners know more than they produce. And yet, assessments of progress in a language often include an estimate of the number of words a learner produces (Purves and Purves 1986; Linnarud 1986; Nattinger in Carter and McCarthy 1988; Engber 1993; Laufer and Nation 1995; Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996) as is the case in both universities, AUB and LAU.

Unless teachers and administrators look with an open mind at these problems; unless teachers moniter learners towards self-evaluation strategies which contribute heavily to the ability of being an autonomous learner, the range of academic language use in an L2 at university level and others, is too tedious and complex a dragon to slay.
(Shaughnessy 1979; Purves and Purves 1986; Nation 1990; Hatch and Brown 1996; Van Lier 1996; Coady and Huckin 1997; McDonough 1999).

7.3.3 Sentence-combining

Several different approaches to writing have been discussed. Each approach has advantages and drawbacks. Some would fit better in certain circumstances than in others, some would fit learners but not others. Hence, it is wiser to say there are no such thing as the writing approach, but rather there are writing approaches, for writing strategies are not universally successful (McDonough 1999).

In the light of the findings of the study and in the light of the instructional contexts suited to the institution where the researcher works (LAU) and the needs of the students working in English as an L2 or L3 language, the teaching of writing through reading and the use of the two subskills, one of which is sentence-combining, is thought to be an appropriate means of writing instruction. As a result of sentence-combining, the topic is explored with more ease; the introduction, development and conclusion of a text are more carefully considered. Preparation for the writing experience, among which the researcher believes are vocabulary and sentence-combining, may be particularly important for adult learners who may have developed a fear of writing in a foreign language (Kizza 1993; Thonhauser 1999). Further, there are good reasons why traditional pedagogic grammar has held sway, even with the advent of the communicative revolution. Contextual awareness of grammar helps the development of discourse (Hughes and McCarthy 1998).

It is not assumed that sentence-combining activities and vocabulary will act as a panacea to the problems of writing nor is the reading/writing approach. There is more to writing than language skills. However, it is hoped that this approach would lighten the burden of learners by providing them with interesting content that they can draw from, and that sentence-combining and vocabulary techniques focus their attention on two components of form, that would lead writing towards clarity in expression.
7.3.4 Using Literature

Sentence-combining and vocabulary form an integrated part of study-reading texts in literature. There is a general consensus that literature is an object worth studying (Talif 1995; Maley 1997), and for optimal learning to take place, students should be interested in the choice of the material, for interest leads to motivation (Hazenberg and Hulstijn 1996; Muncie 2000). These two subskills have been studied by the researcher within the context of English university level and among learners whose desire to learn and specifically to write in an L2 cannot be taken for granted (Pfaff 1987; Birdsong 1989; Ringbom 1987; Thonhauser 1999).

Yet a paradox arose from the writing of sentences. Although by simple sentence the researcher meant developing the use of different syntactic format such as simple, compound and/or complex sentences, some topics need the use of complex sentences. In the view of the researcher learners at this stage do not need to write about complex topics or perhaps these complex topics could be simplified in their writing. And yet the views of teachers, in general, consider simple writing as poor writing. Here again a dichotomy between practice and theory arises. This is apt to happen as it did with Hemingway whose style was considered, by some critics, as simple and monotonous. And yet simple writing needs not be childish writing. In fact, both Gibran and Hemingway demonstrate how simple language goes with profound writing.

7.3.5 Implications

There is no doubt that vocabulary teaching is a must for academic achievement, and the importance of this subskill needs to be restored in practice as it has been in research and theory, taking into account the possible asymmetry between comprehension and production and word complexities. Sentence-combining seems to be unrecognized or considered traditional by many researchers and teachers though commonly found in textbooks. However, in this study it appears as an essential subskill if used with specific objectives within the context of paragraph and essay performance. Then this approach becomes generative. Both vocabulary and sentence-combining are essential parts of
essay performance that need to be taught to contribute to the ability of becoming an autonomous learner.

Looking in retrospect to the classroom analyses, the researcher's method was basically didactic, traditional rather than teaching communicative. However, in a culture where learners are spoon-fed and are hardly being aware of responsibility, the didactic method is best suited.

7.4 Recommendations for Further Investigation

Further investigations may be carried out, concerning the following:

- The types of referential errors in vocabulary as well as the remedy for such errors were not accounted for.

- In classifying the mistakes of learners as fragments and run-ons, further types of mistakes, were labelled sentence structure. These could be studied and analysed (using contrasting analysis of L1) to produce exercises like those used for fragment and run-on in Oshima and Hogue (1991).

- Lexis must take a central place in our language syllabuses in terms of practice.

- The writing course should be coordinated with other courses so that writing is seen as an essential university requirement. Hence, learners will value writing, and this motivation will then stimulate learners whose need of learning the language is dubious.

- It has been noted that textbooks, in general, use sentence-combining as an independent entity rather than an integral part of reading/writing. It is preferable to have sentence-combining exercises as an integral part of reading/writing development.

- To some extent, the same can be said about vocabulary. As long as there is a possible dichotomy between comprehension and production, textbooks should provide exercises for both.
• Since research emphasizes the effect of L1 on L2 and that some psychometric and assessment of L2 vocabulary are different, perhaps L2 vocabulary learning should also have a frequency count based on different criteria.

• Most studies in language learning have been cross-sectional with the exception of a few (Altman in Coady and Huckin 1997), and little is known about the longitudinal acquisition of second language writing skills (Fulcher 1997; McDonough 1999). What is observable in the classroom is just the tip of the human iceberg. Perhaps further longitudinal studies should be carried within formal as well as informal learning situation, for learning takes place both in the classroom and in the natural environment. Then, a condition of confluence of opportunity may result (Altman in Coady and Huckin 1997).

• The very nature of experiments leads to the fragmentation of a study. Hence, elements such as motivation, self-image and learners’ objectives are neglected. This study shows the importance of self-image and motivation for positive results and long term improvement. Hence, the need in practical terms for a rapprochement of different fields such as linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics etc...

• There is more to writing than the sum of separate parts. This view underpins all work on discourse (Hoey 1991; McDonough 1999).

• Finally, the researcher hopes that her study, which has focused on two subskills that are in need but neglected field in Lebanon, has contributed to the raising awareness of the responsible to the fact that sentence-combining and lexis are part of the backbone construct of writing. To be learned effectively, both vocabulary and sentence-combining are to be taught within a framework of study reading texts, awareness, need and autonomy.
7.5 Concluding Comments
As long as the multidimensional constructs of writing are not pinned down, and as long as language learning is a vastly complex task tightly interwoven with sociolinguistics, psycholinguistic development among others, emphasis should be drawn on making learners aware of the learning strategies and what learning procedures fit them best as individuals, for awareness is a means of promoting learning. Furthermore, there is a continuous need of motivating L2 learning, for the urge of learning is not there to the same extent as it is in L1, and there is a need for a continuous reflection on classroom experience ploughed back into practice by the teacher-researcher and wisdom of practice.

Furthermore, it seems that studies on L2 mental lexicon are not followed through, questions raised remain unanswered, arguments sketched remain undeveloped and proposals advanced unsubstantiated, continuity of treatment and perseverance of reflection on the part of researchers are of absolute necessities if any hope of making significant advances is to be reached (Singleton 1999).

Finally, referring back to complaints from subject specialists which have and still are hammering the ears of English instructors at the English Department of AUB and LAU, one may retort that since language teaching is currently viewed as a multidimensional construct, it is unjustified to support the claim that teachers are the sole cause of any problems. A conference on Multilingualism and Multiculturalism in Lebanon (LAU 1999) drew the attention on the fact that some signs and labels written in English in multilingual contexts contain errors. This may be seen as steps in the erosion of standards, especially because they are public, visible and relatively permanent (Cortazzi 1999). Perhaps, the researcher believes, that this public erosion is also a reflection of a certain laisser-aller of actual times. This erosion of standards seem to take place in England as well. Children's English and Math are below average as compared to other industrial countries. Parents are displeased and moving their children to Grammar Schools (BBC 2000).
And if changes are to take place, since we live in a relative universe which seeks adjustment, the pendulum of changes is to keep swinging between the Old and the New.

The Old, for it has passed the test of time.
The new, for we still have much to learn.
SPECIAL NOTE

THIS ITEM IS BOUND IN SUCH A MANNER AND WHILE EVERY EFFORT HAS BEEN MADE TO REPRODUCE THE CENTRES, FORCE WOULD RESULT IN DAMAGE
Appendix 1

Pretest/Midtest/Posttest

General Sentence-combining

Combine the following cluster of sentences by means of meaningful conjunctions (eg. and), relative pronouns (eg. who) and subordinators (eg. as, while).

Follow the indication next to each cluster. Delete words if necessary and punctuate appropriately.

Here is an example:

Our Constitution guarantees certain rights.
+
The rights are inalienable.
It does not guarantee 'the right to die.'

Answer:
Our Constitution guarantees certain rights which are inalienable, but it does not guarantee 'the right to die'.

I. 1. Doctors take the Hippocratic oath. The oath obliges them to sustain life. The oath obliges them not to practice mercy killing.

2. Hospitals sometimes demean patients. The patients are hopelessly ill. The patients want to die with dignity.

3. This fact causes concern. The concern is among many Americans. The Americans want to exercise choice. The choice is in how they live. The choice is in how they die.

4. 'Living wills' are increasingly popular. Technology produces unwanted outcomes.

5. Many Americans see suicide as an option. The percentage is two-thirds, to be exact. The option is defensible. The option is for patients. They have no hope for improvement.
Appendix 2

Pretest/Posttest

Gibran and Hemingway Sentence-combining

Combine the following cluster of sentences by means of meaningful conjunctions (eg. and), relative pronouns (eg. who) and subordinators (eg. as, while).

Follow the indication next to each cluster. Delete words if necessary and punctuate appropriately.

Here is an example: Our Constitution guarantees certain rights.

relative pron. + The rights are inalienable.
conjunction It does not guarantee 'the right to die.'

Answer: Our Constitution guarantees certain rights which are inalienable, but it does not guarantee 'the right to die'.

1. You feel this way.
   I don't want you to do it. (subordinator)

2. I wouldn't have you do it.
   You didn't want to. + I know it is perfectly simple. (conjunct.)

3. You will be happy.
   Things will be like they were + I do it. (subordin.)

4. They walked up from the beach through a meadow.
   The meadow was soaking wet with dew. (relat.pron.)

5. The logging road was much lighter.
   The timber was cut away on both sides. (subordin.)

6. His father washed his hands carefully.
   Nick talked. (subord.)
7. The water was heating. The doctor spoke to Nick. (subord.)

8. I don't hear her screams. Her screams are not important. (subord.)

9. Babies are supposed to be born head first. Sometimes they are not. They make a lot of trouble for everyone. (subord. + conj.)

10. They followed the young Indian. The Indian carried a lantern. (relat. pron.)

11. Your soul is oftentimes a battlefield. Your reason wages war against your passion. Your judgment wages war against your passion and appetite. (relat. pron. conj.)

12. Reason alone is confining. Passion, unattended, is a flame. Its burns to its own destruction. (conj. relat. pron.)

13. Let reason direct your passion. Passion may live through its own resurrection. (subor.)

14. The storm comes. The mighty wind shakes the forest. Lightning and thunder proclaim the majesty of the sky. Let your heart say in awe, 'God moves in passion'. (subor. + conj.)

15. You have been told that work is a curse. Labour is a misfortune. (conj.)

16. You work. You may keep pace with the soul of the earth. To be idle is to become stranger to the season. (subor. + subor.)
17. ...You work. (subor.)
   You fulfill a part of earth's furthest dream.

18. I could be the peacemaker in your soul. (relat.
   I might turn the discord into melody.  + pron.
   + conj.)
   I might turn rivalry into melody.

19. To work in marble. (Link anyway you wish)
   Find the shape of the stone.
   It is nobler than ploughing the soil.

20. You cannot work with love. (Link anyway you wish)
   You can work with distaste.
   It is better to sit at the gate of
   of the temple and take alms of those
   who work with joy.
Appendix 3

Pretest/Midtest/Posttest

General Vocabulary

This is a vocabulary test. You must choose the right word to go with each meaning. Write the number of that word next to its meaning.

1. brass — cloth worn in front to protect your clothes
2. apron — stage of development
3. lure — state of untidiness or dirtiness
4. phase
5. plank
6. mess

1. circus — speech given by a priest in a church
2. lens — seat without a back or arms
3. nomination
4. sermon — musical instrument
5. stool
6. harpsichord

1. apparatus — set of instrument or machinery
2. compliment — money received by the government
3. revenue — expression of admiration
4. scrap
5. tile
6. ward

1. bruise — agreement using property as security for a debt
2. export
3. ledge — narrow shelf
4. mortgage — dark place on your body caused by hitting
5. shovel
6. switch

1. blend — hold tightly in your arms
2. devise — plan or invent
3. embroider — mix
4. hug
5. imply
6. paste
1. blaspheme --- give care and food to
2. endorse --- speak badly about God
3. nurture --- slop or slide
4. overhaul
5. skid
6. straggle

1. auxiliary --- full of self-importance
2. cancel --- helping, adding support
3. dubious --- hot tempered
4. morose
5. pompous
6. temporal

1. cater --- small and weak
2. cumbersome --- easily changing
3. interminable --- endless
4. puny
5. volatile
6. wicker

1. dregs --- worst and most useless parts of anything
2. flurry --- natural liquid present in the mouth
3. incentive --- confused mixture
4. jumble
5. saliva
6. truce

1. resident --- being away from other people
2. casualty --- someone killed or injured
3. froth --- noisy and happy celebration
4. haunch
5. revelry
6. seclusion

Use the following words in sentences to show your knowledge of the meaning. You may use a definition instead of a sentence if it is easier or a synonym.

Here is an example: book
I read a book every month (sentence).
or A book is sheets of paper put together as a thing to be read (definition).

a chair = a seat (synonym)

abstract
interlock
nuclear
process
quote
reign
bore
digest
evolve
graph
fulfill
strata
compile
utter
withdraw
legislate
reluctant
survey
Pretest/Posttest

Gibran and Hemingway Vocabulary

This is a vocabulary test. You must choose the right word to go with each meaning. Write the number of that word next to its meaning.

1. flow down
2. look off
3. aggregate
4. allude
5. cut out
6. concentrate

1. exhaust
2. track
3. absinthe
4. wine
5. detriment
6. liquorice

1. shanty
2. faction
3. bunk
4. placenta
5. fluid
6. in labour

1. move
2. roll over
3. shove off
4. illuminate
5. scrub
6. import

1. peroxide
2. anesthetic
3. squaw
4. paraffin
5. fossil
6. log

1. illuminate
2. string
3. tip
4. injure
5. sag
6. inundate
1. bass  --- an oar movement
2. instance  --- the back end of a boat
3. intimacy  --- fish
4. stroke
5. locomotion
6. stern

1. reminiscently  --- prevent from movement
2. still  --- recalling
3. maternal  --- short and rough blows
4. perpetual
5. mature
6. choppy

1. plead  --- stitch
2. prevail  --- path
3. sew  --- turn
4. trail
5. postulate
6. bend

1. priestess  --- lack of agreement
2. refutation  --- one who reconciles others
3. discord  --- female clergy
4. resident
5. reverberation
6. peacemaker

1. prohibit  --- move upward
2. wage  --- make (war)
3. toss  --- float
4. drift
5. procure
6. provoke

1. confining  --- sailor's job
2. skeleton  --- restricting
3. spectrum  --- a blade used to steer a ship
4. rudder
5. seafaring
6. territory

1. resurrection  --- brought back to life
2. symptom  --- soft grey powder
3. ashes  --- bird
4. velocity
5. phoenix
6. stationary

1. mindful  --- powerful
2. weary  --- thoughtful
3. tangible  --- tired
4. thermal
5. vital
6. mighty
1. submission  --- words said secretly
2. whisper  --- calamity
3. index  --- yield
4. cure
5. instance
6. leisure

1. furthest  --- stupid
2. cogent  --- nothing
3. debatable  --- distant
4. dumb
5. colloquial
6. naught

1. brow  --- plant
2. nay  --- forehead
3. impulse  --- a negative response
4. matrix
5. reed
6. ax

1. texture  --- static
2. judgment  --- peacefulness
3. random  --- decision
4. serenity
5. sibling
6. idle

Use the following words in sentences to show your knowledge of the meaning. You may use a definition or a synonym if it is easier.

label
bead
felt
razor
jack-knife
chill
oar-lock
mist
meadow
lantern
battlefield
melody
breath
appetite
unattended
pace
procession
misfortune
sweat
urge
Appendix 5

*Indian Camp*  
Hemingway

**Vocabulary**

- lake shore vs seashore
- rowboat drawn up: moved to the shore
- shoved the boat off: push it into the lake
- stern of a boat: end
- oar-locks: device to hold the oar in place
- mist: dark weather
- choppy stokes: sharp blows of an oar
- the boat was beached: moved on the beach
- a meadow, soaked wet with dew: a field wet with early morning moisture
- lantern: a case for holding light
- trail: path
- logging road: a road with wood on its sides
- blow out his lantern: put off
- came around a bend: a turn
- shanties (shanty town): living place of poor people
- a wooden bunk: a wooden bed
- an axe: a tool to cut down trees
- being in labour: a state a woman goes thr. before giving birth
- anaesthetic: substance producing the inability of feeling pain
- rolled over against the wall: turn towards
- to scrub his hands: wash thoroughly
- held the woman still: not letting the woman to move
- squaw bitch: a curse addressed to the Indian woman
- stitches to put in: to stitch a wound
- smiled reminiscently: smiled as recalling an incident
- to put peroxide on the hand: to put antiseptic
- to feel exalted: to feel happy
- jack-knife: pocketknife
- to sew with tapered gut leaders: to sew with a thin piece of intestine
- sagged the bunk: sink the wooden bed
- razor: cutting instrument
- tipped the Indian's head: tilt, overturn
- trail his hand: hand down
- a bass jumped in the water: a fish
- chill of the morning: coldness
- hurt badly

**Cloze Test (classwork)**

The Indian woman bit Uncle George on the arm and Uncle George said, __________. Uncles George looked at his arm. The young Indian smiled __________.  
*I'll put some __________ on that,* the doctor said.
Doing a Caesarian with a ________ and sewing it with ________ leaders, Nick’s father felt _________. However, his feelings changed as he mounted on the edge of the lower bunk to look at the father who had ________ his foot ________ with an _________. The Indian lay with his face to the wall. His throat had been cut from ear to ear and his blood ________ the bunk. Not much could be done at this point. Nick and his father left the ________ and the Indian ________ the boat. Nick sat in the ________ and ________ his hand in the water. He felt warm in the sharp ________ of the morning.

Sentence-combining (classroom work)

1. The two boats started off in the dark. (conj.) + Nick heard the oar-locks of the other boat (relat. pron.) It was quite a way ahead of them.

2. The Indian rowed them. (relat. pron.) The Indian worked very hard.

3. Uncle George was smoking a cigar in the dark. (sub.) The young Indian pulled the boat way up on the beach.

4. They walked up from the beach through a meadow. (relat. pron.) The meadow was soaking wet with dew.

5. Then they went into the woods. They followed a trail. (conj.) + The trail led to the logging road. (relat. pron.) + The logging road ran back into the hills. (relat. pron.)

Vocabulary Test

Match an item from column 1 with an item from column 2 and write 10 sentences.

eg. logging road Indian
    The Indian walked on the logging road leading to the camp.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lake shore</td>
<td>he heard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meadow</td>
<td>the father lay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oar-locks</td>
<td>injured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stern</td>
<td>the Indian woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shoved the boat off</td>
<td>Nick’s father</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blow out</td>
<td>soaked wet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a wooden bunk</td>
<td>the doctor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an axe</td>
<td>blood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shanties</td>
<td>Indian</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
was in labour
anaesthetic
to scrub his hands
jack-knife
to stitch
sagged the bunk	the Indians
tipped the head
to beach
Nick and his father
a lantern
they walked
the operation

Sentence-combining Test

I. Combine the following cluster of sentences in any way that suits you provided the combination is logical and meaningful.

1. Nick and his father got in the stern of the boat.
The Indians shoved it off.
One of the Indians got in to row.

2. They came around a bend
A dog came out barking
Ahead were the lights of the shanties
The Indian barkpeelers lived in.

3. Inside on a wooden bunk lay a young Indian woman.
She had been trying to have her baby for two days.
The men had moved off up the road.
They sat in the dark and smoked out of range of the noise she made.

4. The doctor mounted on the edge of the lower bunk and looked in.
The Indian lay with his face to the wall.
His throat had been cut from ear to ear.
The blood had flowed into a pool.

II. Combine the following cluster of sentences according to the instruction next to it.

1. The young Indian stopped. (conj.) 4. Babies are supposed to be born head first.
He blew out his lantern. Sometimes they are not.
They all walked on along the road.

2. He was smoking a pipe. (conj.) 5. He was satisfied with his hands. (sub.)
The room smelled very bad.
He went in and went to work.

3. The woman in the kitchen motioned to the doctor. (relat. pron.)
The water was hot.
Appendix 6

On Reason and Passion

G. K. Gibran

Vocabulary Clues

prefixes
compound words
Transition
wds in context + (take into account the topic)

priestess a clergywoman
battlefield a field in which a battle takes place
to wage (war) to engage in
rivalry enmity
discord notice the prefix (dis), opposite of accord
melody musical phrase
peacemaker a person that works for peace
nay no, denial
rudder a piece of wood or metal that serves to control direction
sails the sails of a ship
seafaring mariner’s calling
standstill static
confining to restrict
unattended notice the prefix (un). Not looked after
resurrection to rise again from the dead
phoenix a bird
ashes cinder
consider to think about with care
judgment a formal decision given by a court
appetite the desire to eat
mindful aware, bearing in mind
poplars kind of tree
serenity tranquility
storm disturbance
mighty powerful
awe fear
a breath (n) to breath
toss to throw
drift driven unintentionally

Cloze Exercise (classwork)

The __________ spoke again and asked to speak about Reason and Passion. Your soul is often a __________ upon which your reason and your __________ __________ war against your passion and appetite.

I could be the __________ in your soul and turn the __________ and rivalry of your elements into oneness and __________.
3. You have always accepted the seasons that pass over your fields. (sub.)
   You would accept the seasons of your heart.

4. Pain is the bitter potion. (relat. pron.)
   The physician within you heals your sick self. +
   Trust the physician, and drink his remedy in silence and tranquility. (trans.)

5. Your soul is oftentimes a battlefield. (relat. pron.)
   Your reason and your judgement wage war against your passion and your appetite.

6. If your sails or your rudder be broken, you can but toss and drift. (conj.)
   You will be held at a standstill in mid-season.

Sentence-combining Test

1. Combine the following sentences into one sentence. Use the direction next to each cluster of sentences.

   1. You yourselves are also the peacemakers.
      I shall help you. (sub.)

   2. Your rudder and the sails of your seafaring soul are broken. (sub.)
      You will be tossed and drifted. +
      You will be held at a standstill. (conj.)

   3. I would have you consider your judgement and your appetite as two loved guests in your home
      You would not honour one more than the other. (conj.) +
      He who is more mindful of one guest loses the other. (conj.)

   4. You are a breath in God's sphere.
      A leaf in God's forest. +
      You too should rest in reason and move in passion. (conj.)

   5. The hand of the physician is heavy and tender. (comb. as y. wish)
      It is guided by the tender hand of the Unseen.

   6. You could keep your heart in wonder at the daily miracles of your life. (comb. as y. wish)
      Your pain would not seem less marvelours than your joy.
Appendix 7

Words likely to be used in the Pretest/Posttest Essays

**Pretest**

**Essay Topic:** In a well developed essay, state some of the causes and effects of electricity shortage in the past few months.

- repair
- monetary problem
- power plant
- fuel
- pollution of generators
- maintenance
- specialists
- spare parts
- infrastructure
- membership

**Posttest**

**Essay Topic:** In a well developed essay, state some of the causes and effects of living in a country with no proper telephone communication.

- maintenance
- infrastructure
- communication
- destruction
- cable
- telephone box
- go to the central
- to call
- cellular
- private company
- fix/repair
- telephone line
Ernest Hemingway, a famous writer, was known for his interesting writings (1). He was clever in presenting his ideas in a very convenient style (2). *Hills Like White Elephant* is one of his writings that displayed a problem between a couple (3). This problem was that the girl wanted to keep the baby and the American wanted her to make an abortion (4).

In my opinion, the couple would separate for several reasons, and thus the girl wouldn’t do the operation (5). First, the girl didn’t stop dreaming of having the baby (6). She was always arguing with him about that (7). For example she looked once at the mountains and told him that they looked like white elephants, and that meant that she was trying to make him understand how much she desired the baby (8).

Moreover, the girl loved the baby more than the American, while he loved her and wanted her more than the baby (9). For example, he told her that I love you and want you alone and not with anyone else (10). Well, if she loved the American more, she wouldn’t have bothered him by arguing (11). Furthermore, when the American put the luggages into the other track of the station, he came back to find her smiling because she had made her mind up and decided happily that she should do just the thing that please her, and chosen the one who loved more and desire very much, that is the baby (12). Or else, she would have been very sad to lose the one who have been desire (13).

In conclusion, the couple will certainly separate because the girl decided to keep her baby that she loved very much (14).
Hemingway is a very important writer who wrote many novels and stories (1). Hills Like White Elephants is one of his well known stories (2). The characters are lovers but they face a problem (3). The girl is pregnant but she wants to keep the baby (4). The American did not want the baby (5). The couple will remain together and will not separate (6). Many events in the story prove that the couple will not separate (7). Jig enjoys her boyfriend because they sit together and have many drinks (8). She does not say anything when her boyfriend says it is just to let the air in (9). She also told the American, “I will do it because I don’t care about me(10). If she makes an abortion, this means that they will stay together”(11).

As a conclusion, many events in the story show that the couple will not separate (12). If people love each other, they should sacrifice(13).
The story *Hills Like White Elephants* shows how a couple can have different opinions in important issues and how these opinions change the whole couple relationship (1). While the man wants his girlfriend to have an abortion, she is convinced that this is not a solution and is willing to take the risk of being separated (2). The following facts prove it (3).

From the very beginning, we know that the woman is finding every reason why abortion will not work (4). She has doubts that this will bring them happiness again and she asks that question many times (5). Although her boyfriend tells her that he will respect her decision, he clearly tells her that he loves her now (6). As if her decision will impact his love to her (7). He indirectly tells her that the one condition for him loving her is to do this abortion (8). She picks the message and gets annoyed when he insists that he will respect whatever decision she will make (9). Hence, she gets very upset and demands that he stops talking (10). When he leaves her for few minutes to put the bags, she gets few minutes for herself to make a definite decision (11). When she smiles back at him, that smile reflects someone who has a clear consciousness of not sacrificing a baby’s life for a person who loves her conditionally (12). Had she decided to go for the abortion, she will be crying and feeling “not fine” because she will be doing something against her beliefs (13).

In summary, every couple gets to a point where real matters take over and this is where the relationships is redefined and possibly different courses are taken (14).
The doctor and Uncle Georges went to the shantytown to help a woman to give birth (1). The operation was very hard (2). We'll discuss the causes of the exaltation of the doctor at the end of the operation and the reasons for the staying of Uncle Georges (3).

The doctor felt axalted after the operation for many reasons (4). First of all, he has done an operation without any anesthe tic to relieve the mother (5). He used primitif material to operate with: a jack-knife and tapered gut leaders (6). Furthermore, the operation was very successful and this will lead him to fame because the details of the operation will be printed in a journal (7). Therefore, it's clear that the doctor is enjoying his achievement (8).

Many causes led Uncle Georges to stay in the shantytown (9). Due to the suicide of the husband, he decided not to leave in order to help the mother (10). Another reason for his staying is the fact that the nurse won't come until tomorrow morning (11). Finally, the most important cause is the fact that he loves the Indians and would like to help them (12). During the operation, he was always sitting by her side, holding her hand (13). Therefore, we notice that Uncle Georges cares about the Indians and this is why he decided to stay (14).

In conclusion, many causes can be given for the doctor's exaltation and the staying of Uncle George (15). But a main contrast appears here, the doctor's main worry is to be famous, whereas Uncle Georges is only trying to help and support the Indian woman (16). In my opinion, the doctor is very cruel and has no human feelings in contrast to his brother who is a very loving person (17).
In the text *Indian Camp*, Hemingway portrays an incident in an Indian camp where a squaw is about to give birth (1). The main characters are a doctor, his son Nick and Uncle George (2). In the following essay I shall state the causes of the doctor's exaltation and the reasons that encouraged Uncle George to remain in the Indian Camp (3).

The doctor sought exaltation because he performed a Cesarian on an Indian squaw without any anesthetic and he used primitive instruments such as a jack-knife (4). Furthermore, due to his outstanding operation, he thought that he will be famous and therefore, he would be recognised in the medical journal (5). This also led him to be exalted (6).

On the other hand, two main reasons led Uncle Georges to stay in the camp (7). He liked the Indians and this was clear when he gave the Indians who rowed their boats cigars (8). Moreover, because the father committed suicide, Uncle Georges thought he could play the nurse until the following day (9). These are the reasons that encourage Uncle George to stay in the shanty (10).

In sum, Hemingway's text states the reasons for the doctor's glorification (11). First performing the cesarian with a jack-knife without anaesthetic, second the need to be recognised in the medical journal (12). As to Uncle Georges, he stayed in the shanty town because he liked the Indians (13).
The doctor and Uncle George had different attitudes in the story, Indian Camp (1). These differences were represented through distinct actions (2). The doctor felt exalted after the operation for some reasons, while Uncle George stayed at the camp for different reasons (3).

Nick’s father, the doctor, felt exalted after he finished the operation (4). It was for him a great accomplishment (5). He did the cesarian with the appropriate medical instruments, but this time he did it with a jack-knife (6). He even sewed the incision with a tapered gut leader, and he was sure to publish this story in a medical journal which will make him famous (7).

Uncle George, on the other hand, stayed in the camp because he was very kind man (8). He felt sorry for the Indian woman’s husband and for the woman who needed care after the cesarian (9). He likes the Indian and that is why he gave them cigars (10).

In conclusion, both the doctor and Uncle George had their reasons for their different causes (11). I don’t blame neither the doctor nor Uncle George for their behaviour (12). Doctors usually accommodate with their job (13). They keep their feelings out of it (14).
There are some similarities and dissimilarities in the two concepts, *Passion and Reason* and *Work* that Gibran wrote about (1).

If we compare the two concepts, we will find that both of them are concepts of life (2). As for *Work*, for example, life means nothing without work (3). By working you can test the pleasantness of living (4). You feel that you are wanted and successful (5). While for *Passion and Reason* in example, your soul is the ship, you are the leader, you passion is the rudder, and your reason is the sailor (6). The ship can move if one of these two, the rudder or the sailor, did not help it to (7). For this you can not live without both of them (8).

Moreover, the common thing between these two concepts is love (9). In *Work*, Mr Gibran said that you should love your work to live happily (10). While in *Passion and Reason*, he said that passion is love, but passion and reason should be equal in your soul (11). For this your love should be equal for both of them (12).

The dissimilarity between these two concepts is that the *Work* is circular but *Passion and Reason* is linear (13). The circular way of the *Work* begins with being urged (14). To be urged you must have knowledge (15). If you have knowledge, you will have work (16). And if you work, you must love it to live (17). But *Passion and Reason* is done in a line (18).

You the peacemaker are in the middle of these two things (19).

In conclusion, in the two concepts that Gibran wrote about, we can find some similarities and dissimilarities (20). I think that there are much more similarities to compare than to contrast (21).
In the following essay, we shall try comparing Passion and Reason with work to clarify the similarities and contrast between the two concepts (1).

The similarities between Passion and Reason and Work are intrinsic (2). That’s to say, Passion and Reason are similar to the sail and rudder of a man’s life (3). Should you leave one unattended, you’ll be lost at sea (4). Similarly, Gibran emphasizes that work is in vain if knowledge is absent (5).

In both prospects Passion and Reason and work, the author implies that they are complementary (6). In other words, Passion is the fuel for Reason and visa versa (7). Similarly, Gibran finds that love is the fuel for work, which binds you to yourself and to God (8).

In contrast, Gibran finds reason a complement to Passion and without their equilibrium in a man’s life, one is lost or in vain (9). However, if a man does not work, he is not productive and he cannot survive (10). In other words, if Passion and Reason are not leveled, a man is lost, but does not die as the case in work (11).

To conclude, Passion and Reason and Work are concepts that have similarities and contrast (12). They are both essential to the survival of the human being (13).
Gibran is very well known for his writings about concepts of life (1). In the past, it was considered a sin to read his books (2). But nowadays, his work has spread all over the world (3). In the texts Passion and Reason and Work, one can find similarities and contrast (4).

There are many ideas in common between the two texts (5). First of all, both Passion and Reason and Work are concepts of life (6). They are the essence of life (7). Furthermore, the concept of love is also a similarity (8). In Passion and Reason, love is included in passion; man needs love in order to survive and to obtain the peace of the soul (9). It is also present in the concept of Work because man needs love to work, it is something that pushes him to do better and better (10). Therefore, the similarities that are found in both texts are love and the fact that Reason, Passion and Work are essential to life (11).

On the other hand, a very important contrast appears between them (12). In Passion and Reason, the relation between Passion and Reason is linear (13). Whereas in Work we have a cycle life needs urge, urge needs knowledge, knowledge needs work, work needs love and love needs life (14). So we notice here that we have the cycle of the universe (15). Therefore, Work is cyclic, while Reason and Passion is linear (16).

In conclusion, the similarities and dissimilarities of the two concepts, Reason and Passion and Work are very clear (17). Both of them are essential to life and need love, but work is described as a cycle whereas Passion and Reason is a linear relation (18). In my opinion, Gibran has accomplished a marvelous work in his description of the two concepts (19).
Looking at the last 15 years of war in Lebanon, we find that it caused a lot of damage in different fields (1). Nowadays Lebanon is going through a stage of rebuilding the infrastructure that the Lebanese are facing in different things (2). Electricity shortage is a main cause of this rebuilding infrastructure period which has a lot of effects on people (3).

This shortage of electricity has a lot of causes (4). It started when the responsible people started working on the generators which need to be stopped to change parts in them or to put new modern ones (5). Since the electrical station can't provide electricity to the whole country because the useful power is very high the country needs larger generators, still the country is facing financial problems therefore it has to collect taxes to improve the electricity system in the shortest time it can (6).

Since electricity is very important this shortage has a lot of effects on the people (7). It is a waste of time since in our time most things work on electricity and everything stops when it is gone at the same time it is hard to climb up several times a day (8).
Lebanon went through many problems after the war among which was the problem of the infrastructure (1). Electricity is one of them and many caused this problem (2). Which also has many effects (3).

Because of war the government did not collect taxes and it was difficult to buy fuel (4). Therefore, electricity was often cut (5). Electricity plants needed maintenance the government did not have enough money for that (6).

Many effects were found (7). Generators were used and pollution was everywhere (8). Furthermore, generators created noise (9). Climbing the stairs was common because of no electricity (10). Big companies went to other countries because they presented better services (11).

Many problems Lebanon faced because of war (12). Lebanese citizens should understand and help the government (13).
In the last years and especially last few months electricity became a problem in Lebanon and caused damages in different fields (1). Electricity cut has many causes and many effects (2).

One of the causes is the war which cut the electricity wires by shelling the city (3). At night the city became dark and it was different to see when I walk home (4). The other cause of Electric shortage is maintenance which the government can’t pay (5). Power plants need spare part which needs money (6). And money is not found with the people and the government so the machines are not repaired (7).

Some of the effect of Electricity shortage is pollution from private generators that the people put on their balcony and climbing the stairs to get to the house (8). Also we couldn’t put food in the refrigerator and food spoiled very quickly (9). Without electricity we can’t do much (10).

These are the effects and causes of electricity shortage (11). Electricity shortage, make us lose a lot of time because we have to wait for the electricity to come to do a lot (12).
The telephone is considered to be one of the most important ways of communications nowadays (1). It is considered to be an essential instrument in our lives (2). However, living in a country with no proper telephone communication has some serious causes and several effects (3).

There are many causes behind the improper telephone communication (4). One of the causes is that most of the telephone cables are hanged in the streets in a disordered manner instead of being protected under the ground (5). When a rainy storm comes some of the cables are cut down (6). If a new building is under construction, the telephone boxes besides it are destroyed (7). A very important cause of the problem of telephones is that the telephone company of the government has no maintenance on the telephones and the telephones stay most of the time unfunctioning (8).

The effects which results from the improper telephone communication are very serious (9). With no telephones communication, people will be disturbed (10). Most businesses depend on telephone communication and without telephones they cannot function well (11). The absence of the proper telephone communication will allow private phone companies such as cellular phones companies to take advantage of the situation (12). They will compete the government and affect the economy of the country (13). With no proper telephone communication, people spend most of their day going from one place to another wasting their time in traffic jams instead of taking care of their business simply by using the telephone (14).

In conclusion, the causes and effects of living in a country with no proper telephone communication are very serious (15). The telephone has become very important in our lives, and living without it is like being isolated from the rest of the world (16).
Telephone is one of the most important communnication in the world (1). In the past few years. Lebanese people suffered a lot because of the nonworking telephones (2). I'll state in the following paragraphs, the causes and effects of living in a country with no proper telephone communications (3).

The causes of no proper communication came because during the past fifteen years of war, the government did not pay attention to the maintenance of telephone (4). In addition, to this during the war, a lot of cables were destroyed by bombs, and were not repaired at all (5). The infracturucture is not well done, especially because of the shortage of money (6).

There are several effects living in a country with no proper telephone communication (7). People are being deprived from telephone communication and this is leading them to exaustion (8). In other words, they leave their houses during their rest period because they have calls to complete (9). Unworking telephones, hurt people if sometimes at night they need help, and the result is that they cannot communicate with anybody (10). Private telephone effects on poor people because they cannot afford to buy (11).

The causes and effect of telephones are a lot (12). People are still paying the price of war (13). In my opinion, I think telephones are one of the most important thing in the life of all people (14).
The telephone has powerfully influenced our lives from the day it was invented (1). It aided not only business and managers but also people of all ages in their work (2). Actually, you can find the telephone in shops, offices, markets and houses which is an evidence of its importance (3). Usually, the telephone helps a person to communicate with another person without seeing him / her, and this saves much time (4). However, in Lebanon, there are no proper telephone communication due to several reasons (5). This caused many problems which made living in Lebanon harder than other countries (6). In other words, there are many reasons which caused bad telephone communication that caused many problems as well (7).

First, there are no proper telephone communication in Lebanon due to several reasons (8). The most important reason is that most of the people steal the lines of others and connect them to their telephones (9). This made it difficult for the people to fix their lines (10). Another reason, which caused bad telephone communication is that the constructions of some buildings made many cables fall down and without any repair (11). Moreover, the beginning of the civil war, in Lebanon, made it difficult for the government to fix the damaged cables (12).
Second, bad telephone communication caused many problems. One problem is the traffic jam. Because there are no telephones, people will use their cars in order to communicate with each other, and this causes traffic jam. Furthermore, in case of emergency such as fire, there will be no time at all for a help. Consequently, the fire will be more dangerous than before. In addition, if there is no telephone, the government will collect no money and no taxes. Therefore, the government will face a deficit for not taking money from the people.

In conclusion, there are many reasons that caused bad telephone communication. Also, this communication caused many problems. In my opinion, the government should find a solution because the telephone is very important in our lives. It is used not only for local use but also for worldwide use.
In the hills like white elephants which has been written by Hemingway, the writer is presenting one of the problems that any couple might face during their relationship (1). The article describes the argument between an American man and his girl who is pregnant about whether she will abort the baby or not (2).

From my point of view, I believe that the girl is going to do the operation even if she does not like to, in order to keep her relationship with the American whom she is in love with (3). Furthermore, I have three points from the text that can support my idea (4). The first point can easily be seen in the first paragraph when the girl told the American that she would do the operation because she did not care about herself (5). The second point is almost obviously in the last paragraph when she did not argue while the American was taking the labeled bags to the other track (6). Instead of that she kept smiling at him and that means that she would stay with him (7). The last point can be seen in the last sentence of the text, when the American asked him about her feeling, she replied saying that she was fine and nothing was wrong with her (8).

In conclusion, the girl is going to abort the baby and stay with her man because she loves the American (9). It is reasonably difficult for her to keep the baby and to lose his father (10).
The author in the text HLWE was trying to show us through the argument between the American and the girl, one of the problems that we could face in our society which is abortion (1). The girl, Jig, is not going to abort and there are many arguments in the text that reflect this (2).

The first argument is when she said while she was waiting with the American in the station for the train that the hills look like white elephant (3). From here we can notice how she really want to keep the baby (4). The second argument is reflected in her reaction when she was drinking the anis del toro (5). She said that her drink that was placed on a felt pad tasted like liquorice and this is the way with everything and more than that it tastes like absinthe (6). Here we see how she is very upset and do not want to accept the idea of abortion (7).

The third argument is when she refused to accept that everything will be fine if she accept what the American want such as it is a simple operation, and you do not have to be afraid (8).

In conclusion, these are the three main arguments that show that Jig is not going to abort (9).
People need someone to share their lives with (1). Some relationships tend to be successful (2). Some others end with tragedy (3). In Hemingway’s story, the girl Jig has decided to leave the American and not to abort (4).

The lady was totally satisfied by her decision to keep the baby (5). This fact can be proved by the following supporting ideas (6). First, when they were arguing about if they can have everything in life, the girl answered that they will wait and see (7). This explains that she is planning to deliver the baby, then she would know what will happen (8). Second, the sentence that announces the arrival of the train in five minutes was directed only to the lady (9). This means that the American is not leaving with her (10). As a result, she does not have to abort (11). Finally, when the man asked about her feeling, she answered that she is fine, and there is nothing wrong with her (12). This is to show the readers that the problem is not hers anymore, but the American’s because she has already decided to leave him (13).

In conclusion, Jig and her boyfriend were urged to separate from each other, for the girl does not want to abort (14). In my opinion, the American does not love Jig, for he wants her to abort (15).
In the Indian Camp by Hemingway, the writer is trying to show the kindness of the American men toward the Indian (1). The topic is presenting the doctor and his brother (George) who came to the shanty to help an Indian woman to deliver (2). However, there were some causes that led the doctor to be exalted and also made uncle George stay in the Indian camp (3).

From my point of view, Nick’s father was over the moon after the operation that he had made, due to some reasons (4). For one thing, he could save the life of the baby and his mother who had been in labour for two days (5). Furthermore, he was thinking of being famous and that can be seen in the third paragraph when he told uncle George that doing a cesarean with a jack-knife and stitch it up with nine foot gut leader will make him enter the medical history (6).

In addition, I believe that Uncle George had to stay at the shanty for two reasons (7). First, because nurses won’t come till the next mid-noon to take care of the squaw (8). Secondly, Uncle George will be much useful to help the woman than any other Indian due to his knowledge in medical things (9).

In conclusion, that was the causes that made the doctor happy and Uncle George stay in the shanty (10). In my opinion, they did a great work and the most important thing is that they were so cautious to come and help an Indian woman (11).
<table>
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<td>2</td>
<td>The author in this story Indian Camp was trying to show us the issue of life and death (1). On the other hand, the characters Nick, his father and Uncle George seem to be very liked by Indian people (2). Thus the causes that made the doctor exalted and made Uncle George stay in the Indian Camp are many (3). First of all, the doctor was very happy due to the success of the operation (4). Even though the woman was in labour, and she could not deliver normally, the doctor made a cesarean operation without using anesthetics (5). He scrubbed his hand with a cake soap (6). Then, he used medical instrument which had been boiled in a kettle (7). To illustrate, he used a jack-knife and he stiched the incisions with a gut leader (8). Another cause is that this unusual operation will make the doctor famous (9). It is an event to be put in the medical journal (10). Finally, the cause for Uncle George to stay, is to wait for the nurse to come to the Indian Camp (11). He was proud of his brother and this made him give cigars for the two Indians which is a symbol of his happiness (12).</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>In conclusion, these are the main causes for the doctor to be axalted and for Uncle George to stay in the shanty (13). In my opinion, it was a nice story because it reflects a friendship between the Indian and white people (14).</td>
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In each society, one can find different types of people (1). Some of them believe that help must be offered to everybody when it is possible (2). Some others think that they do not have to bother themselves to satisfy other's needs (3). However, in Hemingway's story, there are several causes that made the doctor exalted and Uncle George stay in the Indian Camp (4).

There are several causes that made the doctor exalted (5). First of all, the doctor is proud, for he could save two lives: the woman and her baby (6). Second, although the jack-knife, and stitched with gut leader, the doctor had succeeded in doing the operation with no anaesthetic (7). Moreover, such an important mission made him happy for he will have the chance to write it in a medical journal, which definitely leads to fame (8).

On the other hand, Uncle George decided to stay in the camp for one reason (9). He thought that after such a hard operation, the woman will need intensive care (10). Since there is nobody in the camp qualified to secure nursing he took the initiative to be near her (11).

In conclusion, the doctor was exalted for many reasons mostly is the success in doing the operation (12). However, Georges decided to stay in the camp to take care of the squaw (13). In my opinion, both the doctor and George have good manners because they decided to save and help the Indians (14).
Gibran Khalil Gibran was one of the best Lebanese writers who had a good reputation around the world (1). In the Prophet, Gibran gave us some suggestions to be taken for our life experience (2). He presented his book by several texts which have some similarities and dissimilarities between them (3).

Comparing between the reason and passion with On Work we can see two major similarities among them (4). The first one is that both texts have been written by the same writer and at the same way (5). He used some vocabulary in both stories such as: soul, love, God, pain and so on (6). The second similarity is quite obvious when he talked about pain and its effect on us (7). He mentioned that on the first text by saying that your is the breaking of the shell that enclosed your understanding (8). Furthermore, we can realize the same on the other text (9). In addition, we can see that on the last paragraph when he said that if you in your pain call your birth your affliction written upon your brow (10).

However, the dissimilarity between the two texts would be due to two causes (11). The first cause is the difference of the topic between the two stories (12). In On Work, the main idea is to show how work is useful and important to our life (13). Whereas the main idea of the second text is to present the reason and the passion and also the power of God (14). The second cause is when Gibran present work as the soul and the sail of work (15). However, we see different point of the view on the second text (16). When he said that reason and passion is the rudder and the sail of the soul (17).

In conclusion, Gibran gave us a very interesting book which can be read by all people because of the worth of suggestions and causes (18).
Gibran Khalil Gibran is a famous author due to his beautiful writing (1). It is close to perfection (2). Therefore, in his book the Prophet, anyone who has read the texts, Reason and Passion versus Work, can tell that they have many similarities and dissimilarities (3).

First of all, the two texts share striking similarities (4). Gibran is the same author for both (5). For instance, in the text Reason and Passion, he was answering the priestess (6). Likewise, he was answering the ploughman in Work (7). Another similarity is that both texts are taken from his famous book The Prophet (8). The last similarity is the presence of many metaphors related to nature, for example he compares the reason and passion to the rudder and sails of the seafaring soul (9). Similarly, he asks the reason to compare work with love as one as he weaves the cloth with threads of the heart (10).

Although there are many similarities, the two texts contrast in the following dissimilarity (11). Reason and Passion are linear (12). You need them both, unless you don’t, you will toss and drift (13). Also you have to treat them equally as you treat your guests, and passion must be as higher as reason (14). On the other hand, work leads to urge which leads to knowledge, then love and again work (15). It is a kind of a cycle (16).
Gibran is a famous Lebanese writer (1). He used to write wonderful stories in both languages, Arabic and English (2). There are some similarities and some dissimilarities between the two texts, Reason and Passion and Work (3).

There are three similarities between the texts, Reason and Passion and Work (4). First of all, both texts are written by the well-known writer, Gibran (5). Second, these two texts are chosen from his famous book, the Prophet (6). Third, Reason and Passion and Work discuss basic concepts of life (7).

On the other hand, the text, Reason and Passion and Work have the following dissimilarities (8). First, these two texts have different topics (9). Moreover, according to Gibran, Reason and Passion must be linear (10). This means that people must know how to balance between their feeling (11). However, work is a cycle according to him (12). Need leads to knowledge, and the last vain save if there is work (13). Finally work is empty with no love (14). As a result, work, accompanied by love, will definitely make people bind to themselves and to God (15).

In conclusion, both texts Reason and Passion and Work have some similarities as well as some dissimilarities (16). In my opinion, reason is more important than passion, and work is essential for everybody (17).
Electricity is one of the most useful and important energy that the human use, and without electricity lots of things can stop (1). Doing its duties, and here in Lebanon and especially during the war we had such a horrible electricity shortage and most of the time we had to spend days without it, so what is the causes and effects from the electrical shortage (2).

As everyone knows, electricity comes from two major resources which are the fuel and the water, and because of the over use and manufacturing of car factories and machine, the percentage of the fuel around the world is in danger also of running out of it and that is the first cause of the electrical shortage (3).

Another cause of it, is the population of humanity is increasing dramatically and all of us is in need of this energy, so what is happening here is that the demand of using the electricity is much bigger than the supply or what we can offer or produce from it (4).

Therefore, because of the electricity shortage there must be some effects as well (5). Nowadays mostly everything in the world is operated by computers and you can imagine how dangerous it will be when we are going to run out from this energy...everythings will be effected such as hospitals, hotels, factories and so on, and there will be lots of losses and damges (6).

So, in conclusion, electricity is a very important power and we have to save it, so what I suggest to do is that we have to find another type of energy to be replaced and not to use it in a consumption way (7).
For the past few years, the electricity in Lebanon has been truly damaged due to the war, and this latter has cost Lebanon a lot of money to rebuild a new network (1). In addition to the war, there have been many causes and effects of electricity shortage in Lebanon (2).

The causes for the shortage are mainly two (3). The first cause is due to the lack of fuel oil which is a basic substance to produce electricity (4). During the war, the ships were not able to reach the Lebanese area to deliver the fuel to the company of electricity (5).

The second cause is caused by the lack of employee (6). Many skillful engineer have escaped and the one who remains in Lebanon were not able to go to their work (7).

The effects of electricity shortage were mainly two (8). The first effect is reflected in the financial situation of the country (9). Many factories have closed and most of them were not able to pay salaries for the employees (10).

The second effect is shown in the daily life of the people (11). For example they were not able to keep the food in the refrigerators (12).

In conclusion, the causes and effects of electricity shortage were catastrophic on the country and I hope that the electricity return again because it is so hard to live without it (13).
Since the beginning of the 19th century, electricity has become one of the essential everyday aspects (1). However, there are many causes and effects of electricity shortage in Lebanon (2).

Electricity shortage in Lebanon is due to a major cause, which is the war (3). A war in a country leads to electricity shortage for the following reasons (4). First of all, Lebanon under occupation means that the enemy's aim is to put pressure on this country (5). Pressure includes attacking not only the infrastructure, but also electricity industries (6). Second, most of the time, Lebanon has suffer from the lack of fuel (7). This lack was due to the shortage of money needed for buying it (8). Third, many employees were not paid (9). Therefore, they found that they are not obliged to bother themselves and go to work (10). As a result, a lack of maintenance for all machines in these industries will follow (11).

On the other hand, there are several effects of electricity shortage in Lebanon (12). During this period, all electrical machines were out of service such as refrigerator, washing machines, air conditions, and elevators (13). Thus, Lebanese has suffered a lot for they had to wait for the electricity in order to do their stores (14). As a student who has a disability, I had to go up and down stairs everyday to go to school (15). Moreover, many people had to have their own generators (16). As a result, negative efforts regarding air pollution and noise will result (17).

Generally, electricity shortage in Lebanon was mainly because of the war, and it had several negative effects (18). In my opinion, this was a hard experience for Lebanese (19).
Telephone is one of the most important and useful technology which the human has created (1). Although we are living in a big planet, telephone could make it much easier and faster to communicate between us (2). During the civil war in Lebanon, telephone had been effected due to some causes which created some effects (3).

First of all, there were two major causes for the telephone shortage (4). First, most of the educated people decided to immigrate from Lebanon in order to survive (5). In addition, that made a lack of specialized engineers in the communication field (6). Secondly, during the war, the Lebanese pound inflation had fallen rapidly and that made an inflation (7). Due to this inflation, people could not afford to purchase telephone lines or their equipments (8).

All these causes effected the Lebanese society and its economics (9). For one thing, tourism percentage who came to Lebanon during the war was very low (10). Furthermore, without telephones most of the business will be closed down because as everyone knows business now means time (11). In addition without the telephone all business will be waisting their time and gaining lots of losses (12).

In conclusion, these were the causes and the effects of living in a country without proper telephone communication (13). In my opinion, telephone is one of the aspect that make one country modern or not (14).
From the invention of the telephone by Graham Bell till now, the technology of telephone communication has reached a high performance (1). "Eventhough the telephone is a standard of equipment in most homes, there are many causes and effects of living in a country like Lebanon without proper telephone communication (2).

The causes for the breakdown of telephone are mainly two (3). The first cause is due to the stealing of lines (4). I remember my neighbor who used to steal a line from the telephone box (5). He opens the box and starts to cut from here and there like an expert telephone (5).

The second cause is due to the lack of maintenance (7). During the war, the qualified persons in solving telephone problems have left the country (8). Therefore, the persons who remains, were not at the level to solve these problems (9).

Despite these causes, the effects were economic and social (10). The first effect is reflected in the economic field (11). Many businessmen has left to cyprus to do their work (12). There, they have all the needs for their investments (13).

The second effect is shown in the society itself (14). Many families abroad were not able to communicate with their relatives (15).

In conclusion, these are the causes and effect of lack among many of living in a country where there is no proper telephone communication (16). I hope that this problem will not show again because without telephone, life would be boring and sad (17).
Communication is very essential for everybody all around the world (1). However, there are several causes and effects of living in a country without proper telephone communication (2).

Living in a country without proper telephone communication had several causes (3). First of all, a war in a country is a major reason, for the economy’s aim is to destroy the infrastructure (4). Second, when employees are not paid, they prefer to neglect their work (5). As a result, a lack of maintenance will follow (6). However, some people might steal others telephone lines (7). Furthermore, many professional workers might break down the cables, so that people will have to tip these employers in order to fix the damage (8).

On the other hand, there are many effects of living in a country without proper telephone communication (9). First, no telephone means that business is definitly out (10). This leads to a low standard of living (11). Second if someone is sick in the middle of the night, no one can call a doctor (12). As a result, people have to risk their lives (13). Third, each time people want to know about their relatives abroad, they have to go to a central operator and call (14). Finally, all the negative effects lead to decrease the tourism in a country (15).

In conclusion, living in a country without proper telephone communication has too many causes and effects (16). In my opinion, life is extremely difficult without communication (17).
The hills across the valley of the Ebro were long and white. On this side there was no shade and no trees and the station was between two lines of rails in the sun. Close against the side of the station there was the warm shadow of the building and a curtain, made of strings of bamboo beads, hung across the open door into the bar, to keep out flies. The American and the girl with him sat at a table in the shade, outside the building. It was very hot and the express from Barcelona would come in forty minutes. It stopped at this junction for two minutes and went on to Madrid.

"What should we drink?" the girl asked. She had taken off her hat and put it on the table.

"It's pretty hot," the man said.

"Let's drink beer."

"Dos cervezas," the man said into the curtain.

"Big ones?" a woman asked from the doorway.

"Yes. Two big ones."

The woman brought two glasses of beer and two felt pads. She put the felt pads and the beer glasses on the table and looked at the man and the girl. The girl was looking off at the line of hills. They were white in the sun and the country was brown and dry.

"They look like white elephants," she said.

"I've never seen one," the man drank his beer.

"No, you wouldn't have."

"I might have," the man said. "Just because you say I wouldn't have doesn't prove anything."

The girl looked at the bead curtain. "They've painted something on it," she said. "What does it say?"

"Anis del Toro. It's a drink."

"Could we try it?"

The man called "Listen" through the curtain. The woman came out from the bar.

"Four reales."

"We want two Anis del Toro."

"With water?"

"Do you want it with water?"

"I don't know," the girl said. "Is it good with water?"

"It's all right."
'You want them with water?' asked the woman.
'Yes, with water.'
'It tastes like liquorice,' the girl said and put the glass down.
'That's the way with everything.'
'Yes,' said the girl. 'Everything tastes of liquorice. Especially all the things you've waited so long for, like absinthe.'
'Oh, cut it out.'
'You started it,' the girl said. 'I was being amused. I was having a fine time.'
'Well, let's try and have a fine time.'
'All right. I was trying. I said the mountains looked like white elephants. Wasn't that bright?'
'That was bright.'
'I wanted to try this new drink. That's all we do, isn't it — look at things and try new drinks?'
'I guess so.'
The girl looked across at the hills.
'They're lovely hills,' she said. 'They don't really look like white elephants. I just meant the colouring of their skin through the trees.'
'Should we have another drink?'
'All right.'
The warm wind blew the bead curtain against the table.
'The beer's nice and cool,' the man said.
'It's lovely,' the girl said.
'It's really an awfully simple operation, Jig,' the man said. 'It's not really an operation at all.'
The girl looked at the ground the table legs rested on.
'I know you wouldn't mind it, Jig. It's really not anything. It's just to let the air in.'
The girl did not say anything.
'I'll go with you and I'll stay with you all the time. They just let the air in and then it's all perfectly natural.'
'Then what will we do afterwards?'
'We'll be fine afterwards. Just like we were before.'
'What makes you think so?'
'That's the only thing that bothers us. It's the only thing that's made us unhappy.'
The girl looked at the bead curtain, put her hand out and took hold of two of the strings of beads.
And you think then we’ll be all right and be happy.

I know we will. You don’t have to be afraid. I’ve known lots of people that have done it.

So have I,” said the girl. ‘And afterwards they were all so happy.’

‘Well,’ the man said, ‘if you don’t want to you don’t have to. I wouldn’t have you do it if you didn’t want to. But I know it’s perfectly simple.

‘And you really want to?’

‘I think it’s the best thing to do. But I don’t want you to do it if you don’t really want to.’

‘And if I do it you’ll be happy and things will be like they were and you’ll love me?’

‘I love you now. You know I love you.’

‘I know. But if I do it, then it will be nice again if I say things are like white elephants, and you’ll like it?’

‘I’ll love it. I love it now but I just can’t think about it. You know how I get when I worry.’

‘If I do it you won’t ever worry?’

‘I won’t worry about that because it’s perfectly simple.’

‘Then I’ll do it. Because I don’t care about me.’

‘What do you mean?’

‘I don’t care about me.’

‘Well, I care about you.’

‘Oh, yes. But I don’t care about me. And I’ll do it and then everything will be fine.’

‘I don’t want you to do it if you feel that way.’

The girl stood up and walked to the end of the station. Across, on the other side, were fields of grain and trees along the banks of the Ebro. Far away, beyond the river, were mountains. The shadow of a cloud moved across the field of grain and she saw the river through the trees.

And we could have all this,” she said. ‘And we could have everything and every day we make it more impossible.’

‘What did you say?’

‘I said we could have everything.’

‘We can have everything.’

‘No, we can’t.’

‘We can have the whole world.’

‘No, we can’t.’
'We can go everywhere.'

'No, we can't. It isn't ours any more.'

'It's ours.'

'No, it isn't. And once they take it away, you never get it back.'

'But they haven't taken it away.'

'We'll wait and see.'

'Come on back in the shade,' he said. 'You mustn't feel that way.'

'I don't feel any way,' the girl said. 'I just know things.'

'I don't want you to do anything that you don't want to do —'

'Nor that isn't good for me,' she said. 'I know. Could we have another beer?'

'All right. But you've got to realize —'

'I realize,' the girl said. 'Can't we maybe stop talking?'

They sat down at the table and the girl looked across at the hills on the dry side of the valley and the man looked at her and at the table.

'You've got to realize,' he said, 'that I don't want you to do it if you don't want to. I'm perfectly willing to go through with it if it means anything to you.'

'Doesn't it mean anything to you? We could get along.'

'Of course it does. But I don't want anybody but you. I don't want anyone else. And I know it's perfectly simple.'

'Yes, you know it's perfectly simple.'

'It's all right for you to say that, but I do know it.'

'Would you do something for me now?'

'I'd do anything for you.'

'Would you please please please please please please please stop talking?'

He did not say anything but looked at the bags against the wall of the station. There were labels on them from all the hotels where they had spent nights.

'But I don't want you to,' he said, 'I don't care anything about it.'

'I'll scream,' the girl said.

The woman came out through the curtains with two glasses of beer and put them down on the damp felt pads. 'The train comes in five minutes,' she said.

'What did she say?' asked the girl.

'That the train is coming in five minutes.'

The girl smiled brightly at the woman, to thank her.

'I'd better take the bags over to the other side of the station,' the man said. She smiled at him.

'All right? Then come back and we'll finish the beer.'

He picked up the two heavy bags and carried them around the station to the other tracks. He looked up the tracks but could not see the train. Coming back, he walked through the bar-room, where people waiting for the train were drinking. He drank an Anis at the bar and looked at the people. They were all waiting reasonably for the train. He went out through the bead curtain. She was sitting at the table and smiled at him.

'Do you feel better?' he asked.

'I feel fine,' she said. 'There's nothing wrong with me. I feel fine.'
Everybody was drunk. The whole battery was drunk going along the road in the dark. We were going to the Champagne. The lieutenant kept riding his horse out into the fields, and saying to him, 'I'm drunk, I tell you, mon vieux. Oh, I am so soused.' We went along the road all night in the dark and the adjutant kept riding up alongside my kitchen and saying, 'You must put it out. It is dangerous. It will be observed.' We were fifty kilometres from the front, but the adjutant worried about the fire in my kitchen. It was funny going along that road. That was when I was a kitchen corporal.

INDIAN CAMP

At the lake shore there was another rowboat drawn up. The two Indians stood waiting. Nick and his father got in the stern of the boat and the Indians shoved it off and one of them got in to row. Uncle George sat in the stern of the camp rowboat. The young Indian shoved the camp boat off and got in to row Uncle George.

The two boats started off in the dark. Nick heard the oar-locks of the other boat quite a way ahead of them in the mist. The Indians rowed with quick choppy strokes. Nick lay back with his father's arm around him. It was cold on the water. The Indian who was rowing them was working very hard, but the other boat moved further ahead in the mist all the time.

'Where are we going, Dad?' Nick asked.

'Over to the Indian camp. There is an Indian lady very sick.'

'Oh,' said Nick.

Across the bay they found the other boat beached. Uncle George was smoking a cigar in the dark. The young Indian pulled the boat way up the beach. Uncle George gave both the Indians cigars.

They walked up from the beach through a meadow that was soaking wet with dew, following the young Indian who carried a lantern. Then they went into the woods and followed a trail that led to the logging road that ran back into the hills. It was much lighter on the logging road as the timber was cut away on both sides. The young
Indian stopped and blew out his lantern and they all walked on along
the road.

They came around a bend and a dog came out barking. Ahead
were the lights of the shanties where the Indian bark-pedlers lived.
More dogs rushed out at them. The two Indians sent them back to
the shanties. In the shanty nearest the road there was a light in the
window. An old woman stood in the doorway holding a lamp.

Inside on a wooden bunk lay a young Indian woman. She had been
trying to have her baby for two days. All the old women in the camp
had been helping her. The men had moved off up the road to sit in
the dark and smoke out of range of the noise she made. She screamed
just as Nick and the two Indians followed his father and Uncle George
into the shanty. She lay in the lower bunk, very big under a quilt.
Her head was turned to one side. In the upper bunk was her husband.
He had cut his foot very badly with an axe three days before. He was
smoking a pipe. The room smelled very bad.

Nick's father ordered some water to be put on the stove, and while
it was heating he spoke to Nick.

'This lady is going to have a baby, Nick,' he said.

'I know,' said Nick.

'You don't know,' said his father. 'Listen to me. What she is going
through is called being in labour. The baby wants to be born and she
wants it to be born. All her muscles are trying to get the baby born.
That is what is happening when she screams.'

'I see,' Nick said.

Just then the woman cried out.

'Oh, Daddy, can't you give her something to make her stop screamin­
g?' asked Nick.

'No. I haven't any anaesthetic,' his father said. 'But her screams are
not important. I don't hear them because they are not important.'

The husband in the upper bunk rolled over against the wall.

The woman in the kitchen motioned to the doctor that the water
was hot. Nick's father went into the kitchen and poured about half
of the water out of the big kettle into a basin. Into the water left
in the kettle he put several things he unwrapped from a handker-
chief.

'Those must boil,' he said, and began to scrub his hands in the basin
of hot water with a cake of soap he had brought from the camp.

Nick watched his father's hands scrubbing each other with the soap.
While his father washed his hands very carefully and thoroughly, he talked. (5)

'You see, Nick, babies are supposed to be born head first but sometimes they're not. When they're not they make a lot of trouble for everybody. Maybe I'll have to operate on this lady. We'll know in a little while.' (1)

When he was satisfied with his hands he went in and went to work. (3) 'Pull back that quilt, will you, George?' he said. 'I'd rather not touch it.'

Later when he started to operate Uncle George and three Indian men held the woman still. She bit Uncle George on the arm and Uncle George said, 'Damn squaw bitch!' and the young Indian who had rowed Uncle George over laughed at him. Nick held the basin for his father. It all took a long time.

His father picked the baby up and slapped it to make it breathe and handed it to the old woman.

'See, it's a boy, Nick,' he said. 'How do you like being an intern?' Nick said, 'All right.' He was looking away so as not to see what his father was doing.

'There. That gets it,' said his father and put something into the basin.

Nick didn't look at it.

'Now,' his father said, 'there's some stitches to put in. You can watch this or not, Nick, just as you like. I'm going to sew up the incision I made.'

Nick did not watch. His curiosity had been gone for a long time.

His father finished and stood up. Uncle George and the three Indian men stood up. Nick put the basin out in the kitchen.

Uncle George looked at his arm. The young Indian smiled reminiscently.

'I'll put some peroxide on that, George,' the doctor said.

He bent over the Indian woman. She was quiet now and her eyes were closed. She looked very pale. She did not know what had become of the baby or anything.

'I'll be back in the morning,' the doctor said, standing up. 'The nurse should be here from St Ignace by noon and she'll bring everything we need.'

He was feeling exalted and talkative as football players are in the dressing-room after a game.
'That's one for the medical journal, George,' he said. 'Doing a Caesarean with a jack-knife and sewing it up with nine-foot, tapered gut leaders.'

Uncle George was standing against the wall, looking at his arm. 'Oh, you're a great man, all right,' he said.

'Ought to have a look at the proud father. They're usually the worst sufferers in these little affairs,' the doctor said. 'I must say he took it all pretty quietly.'

He pulled back the blanket from the Indian's head. His hand came away wet. He mounted on the edge of the lower bunk with the lamp in one hand and looked in. The Indian lay with his face towards the wall. His throat had been cut from ear to ear. The blood had flowed down into a pool where his body sagged the bunk. His head rested on his left arm. The open razor lay, edge up, in the blankets.

'Take Nick out of the shanty, George,' the doctor said.

There was no need of that. Nick, standing in the door of the kitchen, had a good view of the upper bunk when his father, the lamp in one hand, tipped the Indian's head back.

It was just beginning to be daylight when they walked along the logging road back towards the lake.

'I'm terribly sorry I brought you along, Nickie,' said his father, all his post-operative exhilaration gone. 'It was an awful mess to put you through.'

'Do ladies always have such a hard time having babies?' Nick asked.

'No, that was very, very exceptional.'

'Why did he kill himself, Daddy?'

'I don't know, Nick. He couldn't stand things, I guess.'

'Do many men kill themselves, Daddy?'

'Not very many, Nick.'

'Do many women?'

'Hardly ever.'

'Don't they ever?'

'Oh, yes. They do sometimes.'

'Daddy?'

'Yes.'

'Where did Uncle George go?'

'He'll turn up all right.'

'Is dying hard, Daddy?'

'No, I think it's pretty easy, Nick. It all depends.'

They were seated in the boat, Nick in the stern, his father rowing. The sun was coming up over the hills. A bass jumped, making a circle in the water. Nick trailed his hand in the water. It felt warm in the sharp chill of the morning.

In the early morning on the lake sitting in the stern of the boat with his father rowing, he felt quite sure that he would never die.
And the priestess spoke again and said:
Speak to us of Reason and Passion. 4
And he answered, saying:
Your soul is oftentimes a battlefield, upon
which your reason and your judgment wage
war against your passion and your appetite. 5
Would that I could be the peacemaker
in your soul, that I might turn the discord
and the rivalry of your elements into oneness and melody. 6
But how shall I, unless you yourselves be
also the peacemakers, nay, the lovers of all
your elements? 7

Your reason and your passion are the
rudder and the sails of your seafaring soul.
If either your sails or your rudder be
broken, you can but toss and drift, or else
be held at a standstill in mid-seas.
For reason, ruling alone, is a force con­fining; and passion, unattended, is a flame
that burns to its own destruction.
Therefore let your soul exalt your reason
to the height of passion, that it may sing;

And let it direct your passion with reason; that your passion may live through
its own daily resurrection, and like the
phoenix rise above its own ashes.

I would have you consider your judg­
ment and your appetite even as you would
two loved guests in your house.
Surely you would not honour one guest
above the other; for he who is more mind­
ful of one loses the love and the faith of both.

Among the hills, when you sit in the cool
shade of the white poplars, sharing the peace
and serenity of distant fields and meadows
—then let your heart say in silence, “God
rests in reason.”

And when the storm comes, and the
mighty wind shakes the forest, and thunder
and lightning proclaim the majesty of the
sky,—then let your heart say in awe, “God
moves in passion.”

And since you are a breath in God’s
sphere, and a leaf in God’s forest, you too
should rest in reason and move in passion.
Then a ploughman said, Speak to us of Work:
And he answered, saying:
You work that you may keep pace with the earth and the soul of the earth.
For to be idle is to become a stranger unto the seasons, and to step out of life's procession, that marches in majesty and proud submission towards the infinite.

When you work you are a flute through whose heart the whispering of the hours turns to music.

Which of you would be a reed, dumb and silent, when all else sings together in unison?

Always you have been told that work is a curse and labour a misfortune.
But I say to you that when you work you fulfill a part of earth's furthest dream, assigned to you when that dream was born,
And in keeping yourself with labour you are in truth loving life,

And to love life through labour is to be intimate with life's inmost secret.

But if you in your pain call birth an affliction and the support of the flesh a curse written upon your brow, then I answer that naught but the sweat of your brow shall wash away that which is written.

You have been told also that life is darkness, and in your weariness you echo what was said by the weary.
And I say that life is indeed darkness save when there is urge,
And all urge is blind save when there is knowledge,
And all knowledge is vain save when there is work,
And all work is empty save when there is love;
And when you work with love you bind yourself to yourself, and to one another, and to God.
And what is it to work with love? It is to weave the cloth with threads drawn from your heart, even as if your beloved were to wear that cloth.

It is to build a house with affection, even as if your beloved were to dwell in that house.

It is to sow seeds with tenderness and reap the harvest with joy, even as if your beloved were to eat the fruit.

It is to charge all things you fashion with a breath of your own spirit,

And to know that all the blessed dead are standing about you and watching.

Often have I heard you say, as if speaking in sleep, “He who works in marble, and finds the shape of his own soul in the stone, is nobler than he who ploughs the soil.

And he who seizes the rainbow to lay it on a cloth in the likeness of man, is more than he who makes the sandals for our feet.”

But I say, not in sleep but in the over-wakefulness of noontide, that the wind speaks not more sweetly to the giant oaks than to the least of all the blades of grass;

And he alone is great who turns the voice of the wind into a song made sweeter by his own loving.

Work is love made visible.

And if you cannot work with love but only with distaste, it is better that you should leave your work and sit at the gate of the temple and take alms of those who work with joy.

For if you bake bread with indifference, you bake a bitter bread that feeds but half man’s hunger.

And if you grudge the crushing of the grapes, your grudge distils a poison in the wine.

And if you sing though as angels, and love not the singing, you muffle man’s ears to the voices of the day and the voices of the night.
Appendix 11

Classroom Transcript

A. Vocabulary Teaching

The following is the first encounter with the text, *Hills Like White Elephants*. It is a vocabulary teaching lesson taped and transcribed.

*Hills Like White Elephants* by Hemingway was the text used for the focus of the discussion and as the source of target words. These 11 words are selected from the above mentioned text with the aim of using these words in the topic of the essay to follow. Furthermore, these vocabulary words are measured in terms of Cobuild Frequency Count (1994).

**T:** Let us start by underlining the vocabulary words that I have given you. Take the first paragraph, the 4th line, you have *string of bamboo beads*. Please underline. Now go to the line before the last in the same paragraph. You have the word, *junction*. Please underline. Junction means a meeting point. Now, keep going down until you reach the paragraph that starts with *the woman brought two glasses*. Can you see that? On this line you have *felt pads*. Please underline *felt pads*. Pad is a felt material on which you put a drink. After that, count 2 lines. One, two and you have *looking off*. Please underline *looking off*. Looking off means looking beyond, faraway. Now, go to page 375. On the 3rd line, you have the word *liquorice*. *Liquorice* means in Arabic. It is a plant with a sweet taste. You also have *absinthe* on the 3rd line. It is a bitter type of alcohol. Now, go to page 378, the last paragraph, the second line. You have, *the other tracks*. Underline *tracks*. There is still the word *label*. But I can't find it. Never mind. Let me go back to the vocabulary words that I have given you and explain them. (As the words were being explained, most of them were written on the blackboard.)

*A white elephant* is a gift of possession that may be rare or expensive but unwanted. Actually, it is the theme of this story.

*Beads.* *A string of beads*. It is a thread with beads.

*Junction* is a meeting point.

*Liquorice,* I said it. *Cut it out* means stop it. When you are angry, you say *cut it out*.

*Felt pad,* I explained. *Brightly* means happy.

*Track* means path. Do you know what path means? It is a small passage. *Absinthe* is a bitter strong alcohol and *label* is what you have on luggage or bottles that tells about the content of the bottle or the name of the owner of the luggage. You can have labels on bottles or on any other thing.

Now, let me tell you what we are going to do with these stories. We are going to study the vocabulary, and we are going to do some practice of vocabulary in class. Then, I am going to give you a quiz on the vocabulary we have studied. We are going to study the structure of the sentences in the story. We will analyze this in class through classwork, and then I will give you a quiz on sentence-combining. Once you know how the sentences are, and once you know the vocabulary, afterwards I'll give you an essay on the topic, *Hills Like White Elephants*. This will make writing easier for you, I hope. This is what we are going to find out. Whether teaching S-C and vocabulary make essay writing easier.
T: It might be or maybe...
S: She is young. Mentally.
T: Keep this in mind, and let us read. (35)

(Resuming reading comprehension)
Role-play reading is resumed and stopped by the teacher when she realizes that parts of the text are heavily loaded and need focusing upon.

T: What feeling do you get out of the reading? And what are they talking about?
S: They're talking basically about two things.
T: Yes!
S: Hills.
S: Drinks!
T: Yes! what did one of the couple say?
S: We are always talking about drinks.
T: Yes, we are always talking about drinks.
S: It's a routine.
T: Imagine yourself being with your girlfriend. If you keep talking about drinks, what does it mean?
S: Lack of interest.
S: Boring.
T: The second point. What is the 2nd point about?
S: The operation.
T: Ah! what kind of operation? (50)
S: It is unclear.
T: Yes. But there are hints to what the operation is about. Hemingway doesn't say things directly.
S... (unclear answer)
T: What did you say, Sylvie?
S: Military operation.
T: Military operation! Remember, it is she who is going to go through the operation, and he keeps on telling her, it is simple. Nothing is going to happen.
S: Is it abortion?
T: Ah!
S: But Miss, she is a girl!
T: Oh! a girl doesn't mean she is not a woman. A girl means...
S: Mentally. (60)
T: Yes, she is mentally a girl. And this proves the point that she is mentally a girl, not physically. This is the meaning of getting the air in. It sucks the embryo, Sylvie. So this is what he is talking about. Can you relate this conversation to the words hills like white elephants?
S: They remembered something in their relation.
T: Is it they?
S: She.
T: Ah! she. Where is it that he told her, cut it out?
You know. When you tell someone to cut it out. What does it mean?
S: Stop it.
S: That's enough.
T: Please, underline cut it out p.375 after absinthe. Are you happy when you say such a thing?
S: No.
T: No. So who is somehow upset because she is talking about hills like white elephants?
S: The American. (71)
T: The American. What did we say white elephants mean?
S: Something good you want...
T: Ah! something you want very badly, but once you get it, it has no more value. What did you say, May?
S: Children.
T: Children. What does it mean?
S: She is going to...
S: She is pregnant.
T: Alright. That is why she is going through the operation. This we know.
S: Instability. (80)
S: Junction.
S: Commitment.
S: He wants the child, and she doesn't.
S: No. No. She wants the child, and he doesn't. He is the one that keeps telling her, it is a simple operation. Nothing is going to happen. I am going to stay next to you.
T: What does she say afterwards?
S: Who started it?
S: What will happen afterwards?
T: And what does he say?
S: Nothing will happen and everything will be as it used to be.
T: And we will be... (90)
S...as we were before.
T: which means, happy or unhappy?
S: Happy.
T: Alright. So what is the idea of the baby causing?
S: Problems and unhappiness.
T: Why is the setting the station?
S: Either she would say goodbye or ...
T: Yes. It is a transition. It is either yes or no. (98)

C. Vocabulary Revision
T: I want you to refresh my memory with some of the words we have learned. Don't look at the list. Think of the story, and where we have reached until now.
Let's take the setting. We have a couple waiting at the railway station. OK.
T: There is a train coming and stopping at...
S: At the junction. (word written on the blackboard)
T: What is happening between the couple?
S: A conversation, a discussion, an argument.
T:...concerning what?
S: An operation.
S: A simple operation.
T: They also said that they have nothing to do except...
S: Drinking.
S: Drinking and talking about drinks.
T: If you notice, they have already tried 3 or 4 drinks. But they all taste... (110)
S: Liquorice.
T: Yes, and some of them taste...
S: Like absinthe.
T: You remember what we said about absinthe?
S: Bitter. (the word is written on the blackboard)
T: What's the name of the man?
S: Jack.
S: The American.
T: What's the name of the woman?
S: The girl. (120)
S: Jig.
T: Good. The girl was sitting, and she moved with her hand a
string of...
S: Beads.
T: String of beads. (the word was written on the blackboard)
T: Also the waitress comes and puts the drinks on...
S: Felt pads.
T: Yes, bravo. Alright. We are going to continue reading now. Do you understand the
story a bit more now?
S: Yes.
T: I want a narrator, the girl and the American and the waitress.
T: Yes, Mazen. You're the American. Choose your girl. Look around. (130)

Vocabulary Learning and Reading Comprehension
(Reading takes place, and the teacher goes back to comprehension and vocabulary whenever she
feels that the text needs explanation and whenever vocabulary to be learned is encountered)
T: What did the girl do?
S: She smiled at the American.
T: Yes. How did she smile?
S: Brightly.
T: Yes, brightly. What does brightly mean?
S: Happily.
T: Why?
S: Because the train is coming.
T: What does this mean?
S: She is going to do the operation. (140)
T: Most probably. The decision has been taken. She has decided. She's happy the train
has come. The train is a symbol of going somewhere. And she made up her mind.
I can give you another interpretation. I am going to give you 5 minutes to form groups
and discuss whether the girl is going to leave her boyfriend or not. Find arguments
sustaining your point of view. I want a group to discuss the idea that she is not going to leave him,
but she will get rid of the baby. And another group who believes that she is going to keep the
baby and leave him. But before let us review the words that we have encountered.
What did they have on their bags?
S: Labels.
T: OK.
S: Tracks.
T: OK, tracks. He carried the bags to the other track.
S: Brightly.
T: Yes, she smiled brightly. Later on, we are going to write essays. These are the
different parts of an essay. You have the introduction, and in it you have the background and the
thesis statement (A diagram was drawn on the blackboard). In the body, you have paragraphs and
each paragraph has a TS and supporting ideas (SI). Now. Essays can be developed in different ways.
They can be developed through illustration; and when I give you the topic, I will tell you illustrate.
You can also develop through comparison and contrast. And then again, in the topic, I will say compare and contrast. And the 3rd possibility could be...

S: Causes and effects.
T: Yes, causes/effects. These are not the only ones. There are many others. But this is basically what we are going to work at. Now let me explain what is part of the Th.St. I am going to use a mathematical formula. (this was drawn on the blackboard.)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Th ST} &= (\text{Theme} + \text{CIs}) \\
\text{TS}_1 &= (\text{Theme} + \text{Cl}_1) \\
\text{TS}_2 &= (\text{Theme} + \text{Cl}_2) \\
\text{Therefore: } &\text{ TS}_1 + \text{TS}_2 = \text{Th ST} \\
\text{Rest.} &= \text{TS}_1 + \text{TS}_2 = \text{Th ST}
\end{align*}
\]

T: Th.St. includes...
S: topic.
T: Yes, which means the theme ( ), plus what we are going to call...
S: controlling ideas (CIs).
T: If I say, illustrate whether Jig is going to leave the American. Where is the theme?
S: Leaving.
T: Alright. Leaving or not leaving the American.
T: Cl?
S: Reason.
T: Not reason because I didn't say reason. I said illustrate which means in other words, examples. This could be the Cl. Suppose I ask you, State the causes that made Jig leave the American.
S: Causes.
T: Now. Here, causes would be the Cl.
T: How is the Th.St. different from the TS?

....(pause)
T: TS would be equal to ...
......(pause)
T: Is it the same theme?
S: No.
S: Equal.
T: Equal sure. Otherwise, you will have a different essay.

....(pause)
T: Theme plus...
S: One cause.
T: Yes. Theme plus cause one. I just want to make sure that you understand the difference between Th.St. and TS. Now let's get to the conclusion. In the conclusion you have...
S: Restatement and opinion.
T: Yes. And the restatement is equal to...
S: Th.St.

(Class was over)

D. Sentence-combining correction

(next class hour)

T: I am going to give you back your S-C, and we're going to correct it. And I want you to see whether combining these 3 sentences is pleasant as a combination...
S: No. It was too long.
T: Alright. Yes. I have done it on purpose. I want to show you when you write long sentences, how unpleasant it becomes.
S: Very unpleasant.

T: Yes. It is very unpleasant. And the only way to show you, is to let you write them. We are going to compare them with the sentences in the text. Alright. And then, I am
going to point out at one thing. The transitional words are not used to combine sentences with. Transitional words are used to start sentences with. I mean by transitional words, furthermore, moreover, in addition etc... These are words that you can start a sentence with, while the others you can combine with. Could I have someone to read the first sentence?

S: Nick and his father got in the stern of the boat and the Indian who shoved it off got in to row.

T: Yes. OK. That's correct.

S: But this changes the meaning because in the sentence, there is one of the Indians...

T: Yes, most probably the meaning would change. You're right, Maria. Just for the sake of S-C, I'll accept it. Hemingway uses short sentences, except when the action is long. Then he lengthens his sentences. Alright. Let me tell you how I graded. Every sentence is 1 point except for no.3. No.3 has 2 pts. If you have some mistakes, then you get 1/2 pts. Go on Rana.

S: They came around a bend where a dog came out barking and ahead were the lights of the shanties in which the Indian barkpeelers lived.

T: This is one possibility. Anyone else?

S: They came around a bend, and a dog came out barking ahead were the lights of the shanties where the Indian barkpeelers lived.

T: You can't have barking and ahead without a word linking them.

S: We can have a fullstop. (190)

T: Yes, but I said, combine in one sentence. How can you have a full stop?

S: The writer has it.

T: I know. But I am teaching you to combine sentences and make one sentence. And I want to torture you and show you when sentences are long, they are difficult to understand. So you will not do this. Could I have some one else? Someone had a clever idea. OK, Wassim.

S: When they came around a bend, a dog came out barking and ahead were the lights of the shanties where or (in which) the Indian barkpeelers live.

T: Now. Could I have the author's way?

S: They came around a bend and a dog came out barking. Ahead were the lights of the shanties where the Indian barkpeelers live.

T: Why do you think the author had a fullstop after barking?

S: Two different ideas.

T: Of course two different ideas. But I combined them for the sake of S-C. That is why I keep on telling you that every idea is in a separate sentence. And when you start a new sentence, It means that it is a new idea. No.3. Can I have someone for no.3? OK, Ghina.

S: Inside on a wooden bunk lay a young Indian woman that had been trying to have her baby for two days, while the men moved off up the road, sat in the dark and smoked out of range of the noise she made.

T: Good. Let me repeat. (the sentence was repeated by the teacher.)

While, is a contrast. Therefore, we need a comma. You could have put whereas. While the men moved off up the road, sat in the dark and smoked out of range... Here, you have items in a series. That's why you need a comma. Let's see how Hemingway has written it. OK Maria. Could you read it?

S: Inside on a wooden bunk lay a young Indian woman. She had been trying to have her baby for two days. The man had moved off up the road sit in the dark and smoked out of range of the noise she made. (200)

S: It is better.

T: Of course, it is better. Definitely. The way I have asked you to do it is complicated.
That's why I keep on telling you, shorten your sentences. The shorter they are, the less mistakes you'll make. But you don't understand this until I make you do it. Can I have someone to read no.4? Let's see the tenses now. Some of you have done it nicely and some have forgotten to change the tense. But I didn't consider this as a mistake. *Had been* is the past perfect. You use the past perfect when you have two actions taking place at the same time, but one is before the other. Therefore, you need to change the tenses. Can I have someone to read the sentence? I mean someone who changed the tenses. OK, Cherine.

S: *When the doctor mounted on the edge of the lower bunk and looked in, the Indian was laying with his face to the wall, his throat cut from ear to ear and the blood was flowing down into a pool.*

T: *'His throat cut from ear to ear and the blood was flowing down...' If you say his throat cut, why did you say the blood was flowing? You need to have parallel structure. So, his throat cut and blood...*

S: *...flowed down...*

T: OK. Let's go to the beginning. Why did you say the doctor mounted on the edge of the lower bunk and looked in...? The Indian was laying. Why was laying? Why did you use the past continuous? You need the simple past. With *when*, it is the simple past. If you had *while*, you could have the continuous.

S: But *while* is a contrast.

T: *While* could be contrast or time. Two actions taking place at the same time. *While he is eating, I am explaining.* Let's read it from the text. (210)

S: He mounted on the edge of the lower bunk with the lamp on one hand and looked in (full stop). The Indian lay with his face to the wall (full stop). His throat had been cut from ear to ear (full stop). The blood had flowed down into a pool (full stop).

T: All of them are short sentences. Alright. Now. Is it more difficult when I don't give you any directions to follow?

S: No. It is easier.

S: It is easier.

T: It is easier not to give you any directions. Then you can do it the way you want. Alright. Let me have someone to read the second part. This was easy. Wasn't it?

S: Yes, because they were shorter.

T: I guess so. Also, I think that conjunctions are easier than subordinators. Can I have someone for sentence no.1?

S: The young Indian stopped, blew out his lantern and they all walked on along the road.

T: Let's read the text. Yes, Fadi.

S: *The young Indian stopped and blew out his lantern and they all walked on along the road.*

T: So he used two *and.*

S: I did it this way, and you count it as a mistake.

T: Alright. I'll correct it for you. But when you write your essays, leave the conjunction until the end when you have items in a series. This university follows slightly different rules of grammar. Mr Hemingway can break the rules, but not us. This time I won't count it as a mistake. *I ate an apple, an orange and a banana.*

No.2. Yes, Zaher.

S: He was smoking a pipe, and the room smelled very bad.

T: What about the author?

S: *He was smoking a pipe (full stop). The room smelled very bad.*

T: OK. Two different sentences.

S: I think he didn't connect the sentences because there was no relation between the two sentences.
T: Bravo. And I think he meant by this that smoking the pipe is not a result of the room smelling bad. What was the cause of the room smelling bad?
S: The blood.
S: The mood.
T: Shanty. What is the meaning of shanty?
S: Poor.
T: OK. What do you expect when it is a poor surrounding?
S: Dirt.
T: No. 3?
S: The woman in the kitchen motioned to the doctor that the water was hot.
T: How did the author have it?
S: The same.
T: OK. 4?
S: Babies are supposed to be born head first, but sometimes they are not.
T: OK. This is obvious. How did he do it?
S: The same.
T: Alright. The last one!
S: He was satisfied with his hands when he went in and went to work.
T: I think I have a typing mistake here. I have two went. Let's see the text.
S: When he was satisfied with his hands, he went in and went to work.
T: It is correct. Well, I guess Hemingway wants to emphasise routine. If I omit the 2nd went, would it be wrong? Read it Zaher.
S: When he was satisfied with his hands, he went in to work.
T: Well, Maya. Writers think of the rhythm of their sentences when they write. I'll read it the way you wrote it, and the way the writer did. Listen and tell me which sounds better. (Both sentences were read.)

E. Vocabulary Correction
T: I am going to give you back your vocabulary test which was not bad. I think really that you should have every time 10/10. The exercise we are doing should make the vocabulary enter your mind for good. I do expect all of you to have 10/10 and nothing less. Now, let me discuss the test. Don't give any definition. I didn't count it as a mistake this time, but another time I would. I didn't say in the direction to define the word. What I want you to do is to show me that you know the meaning of the word and that you know how to use it in a sentence because this is going to help you afterwards when you come to write an essay. In the essay, you are going to use the vocabulary and you are going to use the sentences. If you know them before, what do you think is going to happen to the essay?
S: It will be much easier.
S: Much easier.
T: I want you to have a look, and we'll see whether we can correct them orally. This time, I have considered the sentence structure as 1/2 a mistake. Next time I'll consider the whole sentence wrong. If you start with one tense, continue with the same tense. You can't say the American carried the bags to the other side of the track where he has a drink. It is wrong. If you listen to the sentence, you will realise that there is something wrong. Let us correct them. You don't look brightly you...
S: smile brightly
T: It's a shame! Later on, I am going to give you the average of this vocabulary. The
average of the boys and the girls. You're going to see the difference.
S: The girls are better?
T: Yes. 3 girls have 10/10, but only 1 boy has 10/10. Alright. cut it out. Yes, Read. (260)
S: The American angrily asked the girl to cut it out.
S: Liquorice. Yes!
S: The girl said that the drinks taste like liquorice.
T: Absinthe, yes Sylvie.
S: Suddenly, the things you have waited for so long taste like absinthe.
T: Felt pad. Yes Mustapha.
S: The waitress has put felt pads under the glasses.
S: Something that you have waited for brightly...
T: No, Sana. You can't wait brightly. You smile brightly. (270)
(Class hour was over)
Appendix 12
Cobuild Frequency Count (1994)

Absinthe 33
Abstract 1861
Accompany 1316
Accuracy 1980
Acquiesce 90
Add 16296
Affluence 252
Aggression 3299
Alcohol 5912
Anaesthetic 551
Anonymous 2003
Anterior 166
Apparatus 1154
Appetite 1702
Apron 459
Ashes 1242
Auxiliary 378
Awe 937
Axe 1271
Axis 778
Battlefield 1155
Beads 913
Bend 2162
Benefit 12667
Bitch 1247
Blaspheme 10
Blend 2348
Blow 7010
Boat 13232
Bore 2148
Brass 2176
Breath 5332
Brightly 1057
Bruise 195
Bunk 501
Business 64333
Cancel 1424
Candid 478
Casually 1757
Cater 732
Choppy 191
Circus 1826
Clock 8108
Collapse 7206
Comment 11116
Compliment 836
Configuration 350
Confining 172
Conjunction 1329
Consider 14641
Contaminate 122
Coordinate 580
Correlate 101
Crease 455
Cumber 424
Curse 901
Cut 42586
Cylinder 882
Dabble 113
Dark 16622
Deficiency 1743
Desolate 424
Devises 748
Digest 732
Discern 301
Discord 262
Discourse 823
Dregs 94
Drift 1685
Dumb 1155
Echo 1474
Elementary 1183
Embroider 45
Endless 2968
Endorse 1069
Episode 2262
Equipment 13525
Ethics 2013
Evolve 625
Expel 495
Export 5243
Felt 33841
Final 35612
Flurry 735
Found 68989
Fragrant 629
Froth 225
Frustrate 247
Frustrate 247
Fulfill 581
Fulfill 581
Furthest 310
Geometry 401
Gloomy 1588
Graph 509
Haunch 8
Horror 3725
Hug 757
Hypothesis 879
Idle 1097
Imperial 2932
Imply 1153
Incentive 2025
Indigenous 1095
Infinite 1020
Interlock 49
Interminable 311
Item 3458
Item 3450
Judgment 3675
Jumble 458
Junction 1463
Label 6005
Lack 15396
Lake 7614
Lantern 379
Ledge 477
Legislate 229
Lens 2942
Liquorice 112
Locate 1043
Logging 800
Lure 1234
Magnitude 866
Maternal 676
Meadow 984
Melody 1610
Mess 3905
Mighty 1751
Migrate 258
Mindful 337
Minimum 6681
Minor 5966
Misfortune 650
Mist 1255
Mix 7058
Morose 166
Mortgage 7811
Native 4901
Navy 7658
Nay 240
Negative 6460
Noisy 1619
Nomination 2302
Novelty 922
Appendix 13

THE SYLLABUS OF THE AUB - EEE
January 1994

Sections Number of Items Time Allott

1. Listening Comprehension 30 20
2. Grammar 30 20
3. Writing 30 20
4. Vocabulary 30 20
5. Reading 30 40

150 items 2 hours

LISTENING COMPREHENSION SYLLABUS

Part I : Restatement: Closest in meaning (8 items)
Part II : Appropriate Answer: Contextualization (7 items)
  1. Regular Usage
  2. Idiomatic Usage

Part III : Conversations and Mini-talks: Speaker, setting, context, topic, and message (15 items)
  1. Short Conversations
  2. Long Conversations and Mini-talks

GRAMMAR SYLLABUS

Part I : Grammatical Structures (20 items) chosen from the followi
  1. Articles 11. Subjunctive mood
  2. -ed/-ing 12. Reported speech
  3. Order of adjectives 13. Intensifiers
  5. Quantity expressions 15. Noun as adjective
  7. Modals (2 items) 17. Tenses (3 items)
 10. Tag questions 20. Special expressions
Part II: Usage
1. Transitional expressions
2. Phrasal verbs
3. Idioms
4. Prepositions

WRITING SYLLABUS

Part I: Sentence Sense
1. Rewriting: Construction shift
2. Sentence correction: Best version
3. Error recognition

Part II: Revision in Context: Passage Editing
Skills Tested
1. Organization
2. Sentence-combining
3. Usage (diction)
4. Development
5. Mechanics (punctuation, Capitalization, Quotations ...)
6. Sentence structure
   a. Pronoun form
   b. Pronoun shift
   c. Parallelism
   d. Tense
   e. Redundancy
   f. Complement
   g. Run-on
   h. Modifiers
   i. Agreement
   j. Word order
   k. Idiomatic usage

VOCABULARY

Part I: Meaning in Context
1. Sentence completion: One and two blanks
2. Synonyms: Underlined

Part II: Definitions
(6 items)

Part III: Shared Meaning Elements
1. Odd man in
2. Collocation
(9 items)
READING

Part I : Sentence Comprehension (12 items)
1. Restatements : Closest in meaning
2. Context : Sentence completion

Part II : Passage Comprehension (18 items)
1. One short passage
2. Two long passages

Skills Tested
1. Vocabulary in context
2. Reference
3. Interpretation
4. Main idea
5. Synthesis
6. Evaluation
Appendix 14

Attitudinal Questionnaire (Group A')

1. Rate (✓) the following texts as to whether they have helped you or not in the following matters:
   a. in understanding the meaning of unknown words.
   b. in using the vocabulary in my essays.
   c. in improving my essay writing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Women in The Eskimo World</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In understanding the meaning of unknown words</td>
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<th>Diogenes and Alexander</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
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II. Complete the following rating scale by circling the appropriate number.

1. I rate the improvement of my essays at this point in the course as

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2. Give one or two suggestions for the improvement of this course.

3. The teacher's knowledge of the subject is

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4. The teacher likes the material she teaches.

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5. The teacher's teaching method is

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NB Group B had only part I and II of this questionnaire

III. Tick (✓) the response that best fits your judgment and state in 1 or 2 sentences the reasons why you enjoyed or did not enjoy the following:

1. Enjoying Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hills Like White Elephants</th>
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</thead>
</table>

because:
2. Enjoying Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

*Women in The Eskimo World*

because: ________________________________

3. Enjoying Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

*Why We Fall in Love*

because: ________________________________

4. Enjoying Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

*Indian Camp*

because: ________________________________

5. Enjoying Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

*Diogenes and Alexander*

because: ________________________________

6. Enjoying Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

*On Reason and Passion*

because: ________________________________
7. | Enjoying | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>On Work</td>
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because:
1. Tick (✓) the response that best fits your judgement.

1. Underlining the vocabulary in the reading text helps focusing my attention on the word underlined.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

2. Giving me a list of the words with an explanation helps me learning these items.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

3. Oral vocabulary revision in the classroom helps me retaining words.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

4. Fill in the blank exercises help me producing words that I have learned.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

5. Word matching helps me using vocabulary in the essay.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

6. Writing sentences with matched words make me concentrate on the structure of sentences.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

7. Sentence-combining (S-C) helps me writing sentences with fewer sentence structure mistakes.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

8. S-C helps me writing complex sentences.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

10. S-C makes me aware of different possibilities of writing sentences.
    - Strongly disagree
    - Disagree
    - Agree
    - Strongly agree

11. S-C does not help me writing complex sentences.
    - Strongly disagree
    - Disagree
    - Agree
    - Strongly agree
II. Rate (✓) the following texts as to whether they have helped you or not in the following matters:
   a. in understanding the meaning of unknown words.
   b. in using the vocabulary in my essays.
   c. in improving my essay writing.

1. **Hills Like White Elephants**
   - In understanding the meaning of unknown words
   - In using the vocabulary in my essays
   - In improving my essay writing

2. **Indian Camp**
   - In understanding the meaning of unknown words
   - In using the vocabulary in my essays
   - In improving my essay writing

3. **On Reason and Passion**
   - In understanding the meaning of unknown words
   - In using the vocabulary in my essays
   - In improving my essay writing

4. **On Work**
   - In understanding the meaning of unknown words
   - In using the vocabulary in my essays
   - In improving my essay writing
III. Complete the following rating scale by circling the appropriate number.

1. I rate the improvement of my essays at this point in the course as

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2. Give one or two suggestions for the improvement of this course up to this point.

3. The teacher's knowledge of the subject is

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NB Group A had only part I, II and III of this questionnaire.

IV. Tick (✓) the response that best fits your judgement and state in 1 or 2 sentences the reasons why you enjoyed or did not enjoy the following:

1. Enjoying

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because:

2. Enjoying

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because:
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<th>3.</th>
<th>Enjoying</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Why We Fall in Love</strong></td>
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because: ____________________________

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<th>Disagree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Indian Camp</strong></td>
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because: ____________________________

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<th>5.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Diogenes and Alexander</strong></td>
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because: ____________________________

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<th>6.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>On Reason and Passion</strong></td>
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because: ____________________________

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<th>7.</th>
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<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>On Work</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

because: ____________________________

V. If the university suggests that you choose only four texts of what you have studied in English 5512, rate your four choices from the list below.

- Hills Like White Elephants
- Women in the Eskimo World
- Why We Fall in Love
- Indian Camp
- Diogenes and Alexander
- On Reason and Passion
- On Work
### Appendix 15'

**Correlation of Teachers' Essay Correction**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Number of pairs</th>
<th>Corr.</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AHPRESSY</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALPRESSY</td>
<td></td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Number of pairs</th>
<th>Corr.</th>
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<tr>
<td>BHPRESSY</td>
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<td>.970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BLPRESSY</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Number of pairs</th>
<th>Corr.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>.974</td>
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<tr>
<td>A'LPRESSY</td>
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<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Number of pairs</th>
<th>Corr.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B'HPSESSY</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B'LPSESSY</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Key:**
- AHPRESSY: A: Grp. A; H: marker 1; PRESSY: pretest essay
- ALPRESSY: A: Grp. A; L: marker 2; " "
- BHPRESSY: B: Grp. B; H: marker 1; " "
- A'HPSESSY A': Grp. A; H: " PSESSY: posttest essay
- B'LPSESSY B': Grp. B; L: marker 2; " "
Appendix 16

Background Information Questionnaire

(Inspired by J.M. Reid aiming at controlling variables among students)

Name: ........................................
ID Number: .................................
Age: ...........................................
Nationality: .................................
Sex: Male .......................... Female ...............
Father’s Education: ............................
Mother’s Education: ...........................
EEC or TOFEL Score : ............................
Placement Test (score): ...........................
Major: .............................................
University Level: Freshman .......... Sophomore .......... Junior .......... Senior ............
High school you came from: ....................
Second Language: English .......... French .......... Other ..........
Do you speak a foreign language at home? Yes ...... No ............
If yes, which one: .......................
Number of credits you are taking this semester: ....................
English courses you have already taken: Engl. 5511 (5 cr.) .......... Engl. 5511 (3 cr.)
...... Other ............
Grade received: ....................
Have you repeated any English course? Yes ............ No ............
Which one? .......................
Do you read English outside the classroom? Never ...... Sometimes ............ Often ............ Very Often ............
If yes, what kind of reading ? ....................
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