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Introducing Authentic Materials to Develop Students'
Academic Writing Style.
The case of second year Students of English at Batna
University.

Thesis submitted for the requirements of Doctorat Es-Sciences in
Didactics of English.

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I

Dedication

To my Dear Parents

To Omar, my husband

To my kids : Abdelmalek,

Lina and Soundous,

To my sisters and bothers: Salima, Fahima, Sabah, Yassmine,

Zohir, Bilel and Sami

II

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ABSTRACT

Modern theories in Education advocate the combination of the teacher's power of transmitting knowledge with some other facilitating tools and equipments .In the case of foreign language teaching, the inclusion of authentic materials proved its efficiency and gained large support among its users. The primary aim of this research is to investigate one of the most controversial and problematic subjects in the domain of English language teaching. It aims at developing the academic writing style using authentic written texts as teaching inputs in grammar with second year students of English at the University of Batna .Following a combination of an experimental and descriptive approach, we could confirm the hypothesis that in a course consisting of grammar as theoretical framework, academic style can be developed through exposure to authentic language. The main significant results obtained in the field of our investigation converge to recommend that teaching writing can also be the fruit of combined courses . In a context where native language is the primary input, complementarity of objectives fosters learning. To the students, continuous exposure to authentic materials will likely help them discover other aspects of the foreign language which are not always part of the academic programs.

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Introduction

Statement of the problem

The common belief among English language teachers is that authentic material proved its efficiency in teaching languages when it is exploited particularly by teachers of listening and/or speaking. Chan (2004) argues that for this purpose, authentic materials are among the best ways to bring the natural language of native speakers into the classroom to be used for different purposes and by different people. Particularly, in the oral language aspects, very useful resources are available for language teachers not only to facilitate learning but also to make the course interesting and motivating.

This belief seems to be now debated, and more arguments are given to support the idea that teaching writing can also be conducted using novel and challenging techniques than the ordinary ways. The challenge here is to find some common ground between different teaching courses that can help both teachers and learners to attain educational objectives. Approaching native speakers' language proficiency in writing is the promised level of the communicative skills set as the primary aim of teaching English as a foreign language in general and of written expression courses in particular. When considering that modern trends in this field are supportive of the

cooperative nature of language teaching, it became an urgent necessity for language teachers to benefit fully from the works of language researchers. In the context of writing, the necessity became really a priority, simply, because learners' need of writing in the target language is their ultimate objective.

These facts, added to my personal experience, support my own view of the complementarity of teaching the different language skills, on one hand and of using authentic materials as new teaching techniques in courses that do not target writing as a primary objective on the other. In theory, it is through written expression that learners gain both knowledge and performance in style and mainly the academic one, and it is in that course that most researchers advocate the use of authentic materials (Dakin,1973; Hubbard,199; Harmer,2001 and Lee & Van Patten ,2003). In practice, however, I realized as a teacher of grammar and linguistics, that developing students' academic writing style in the English department at the University of Batna might be achieved not necessarily through written expression modules.

Theoretically, learning grammar is the direct path a student has to follow to become familiar with the language system and its structural specificities. Nevertheless, practice shows that introducing authentic written texts in grammar instruction fulfills more than one

function. On one side, students visualize the grammatical properties of the language in a native and authentic way. On the other, such an exposure makes learners experience some sort of interconnectedness between different language aspects leading to different language skills. These elements, associated with the actual level of writing witnessed among students, gave us enough substance to claim that teaching writing academic style does not fully undergo the prescribed methodology to reach the targeted objective. The situation seems problematic in the English department and therefore it is worth investigating. Bearing this in mind, two questions seem worth asking:

1-to what extent can the use of authentic written texts in teaching grammar a significant degree of effectiveness in developing students' level of writing style? and;

2-to what extent can a number of the writing style components be taught in a combined course involving grammar and writing?

Hypotheses

The main hypothesis we set for this study is that introducing authentic written texts in teaching grammar courses to second year students is likely to raise these students' skill of writing in general and of academic style in particular. On the one hand, students will find more interest and motivation as the course differs from the ordinary

way. This will entail learning not only of grammatical points but aspects related to native language style and use of the language. On the other hand, while exposed to authentic contexts, learners will be aware of the different stylistic devices employed by the authors. Teachers themselves work in a guided environment which simplifies the discrete points of the course presented in a natural context.

The other hypothesis is that the skill of writing may be better developed in a combined course that uses grammar as a theoretical part and writing as a practical one. Instead of teaching separately the two components of writing, a combined course would achieve better results.

Objectives

The main objective of investigating the issue of introducing authentic materials to develop writing style to second year students of English language is set in the general perspective of verifying our hypotheses. In addition, we would like also to reach a number of objectives that we summarize in the following points:

- To show that exposing learners to authentic written texts while learning grammar develops not only knowledge of grammar but also notions of style, and that combined courses lead to better results on communicative abilities in general;

- To suggest some teaching recommendations concerning the use of authentic materials in different courses to develop and integrate both writing skills and writing styles.

Structure of the thesis

The thesis consists of six chapters distributed in three parts. Part A reviews relevant literature related to the issue under investigation and presents it in three chapters. Chapter one discusses the main theoretical considerations relate to the issue of writing in English as a foreign language. Chapter two is mainly devoted to the elements of style and stylistic features comprising academic writing ,while chapter three focuses on the general framework of authentic materials in general and written texts in particular.

Part B deals with the methodological design followed by the researcher during the investigation.

Part C presents the field work results obtained through the quantitative and qualitative studies in two chapters. Chapter one shows the results of the experiment carried out on the role of authentic texts in developing writing style. Chapter two provides the analysis of the students responses on the questionnaire on the light of which some recommendations are made .

Part A: Literature overview

Introduction:

This part presents in a synthesized way the most important notions' highlighted in the general theories set for foreign language education in general and English teaching in particular. Writing, authentic material and style are the main points mentioned here, for they are important variables in our work. Indeed, a discussion of these elements is essential in that it will serve us as standards against which data collected in field work will be measured and compared. Other points of value in academic writing like the components of style and stylistic features are, also, highlighted and theoretically discussed in this part. We wish to inform the reader that the type of style our work is concerned with is restricted only to the academic one. Including all the other types of style leads us to include and deal with other elements and variables which will certainly intricate our respondents and which are not essential in the present study .

A.I. General considerations on writing

The ability to write well is not naturally an acquired skill; it is usually learned or culturally transmitted as a set of practices in formal instructional settings or other environments (Burns and Sinfield 2008). Writing skills have to be practiced and learned through experience.

Writing also involves composing, which implies the ability either to tell or retell pieces of information in the form of narratives or description, or to transform information into new texts, as in expository or argumentative writing.

A person's writing vocabulary is a limited set of words s/he can use in writing unlike in speaking where the speaker has a wide range of vocabulary stock. The writing vocabulary is stimulated by its user. A lot of times, both writing and speaking vocabularies are combined and they can complete each other; for example, if a speech is prepared in a paper, the person will not have the need to think about what to say. All of the thinking was already done before hand and put into the form of what has been written.

Writing is a method used to represent a certain language in visual form. It is the symbolic representation of speech. To Emig (1977) writing means "originating and creating a unique verbal construct that is graphically recorded"(P.05) while to Picas (2001), the symbolic representation of speech should be combined following certain defined conventions, to create words, clauses, sentences and texts. Writing is rather a complex process that enables writers not only to explore thoughts and ideas, but also encourages thinking and learning as it motivates communication and makes thought available for

reflection (Ghaith 2007). This is true especially when we know, as teachers, that the learners of English as a foreign language face immense difficulties to turn out the mental symbolic pictures of their ideas to produce a piece of writing that exactly respects the conventions of spelling, punctuation, grammaticality and coherence.

A.I.1.Thinking and writing

According to most psychologists, writing shows evidence of reflective thinking in academic context (Burns and Seinfeld 2008). To learners, reflective thinking usually involves looking back at something, an event, an idea, or object, analyzing the event or the idea and carefully deciding what the event or the idea means for one's progress as a learner. In this respect, an increasing number of courses require students to write reflectively. Reflective writing may be an occasional requirement or it may be a core feature of most of all academic assignments. Reflective writing should be more elaborated than other kinds of writing. Students are usually asked to write in different topics, but sometimes not to the same depth as that expected in good reflective writing at a university level.

Reflective writing is generally more structured especially if done in discussion with others (Byrne ,1979). In assignments that require writing, however, tutors normally expect to see carefully-structured

writing. According to Hughey et al.(1983), Reflective writing can be broken down into three parts: specification, interpretation and outcome.

A.I.1.a.specification

Generally, specific tasks are shared out amongst members of the class. Initially, the tasks are not seen as equally difficult by all learners in terms of what happened and what is being examined. In this part, brainstorming raises different ideas to be cross-discussed and questioned by the group members.

A.I.1.b . Interpretation:

Many studies have demonstrated that cooperative learning experiences encourage higher achievement (Carmen, 2006). Although very useful to many students, cooperation between learners is sometimes at risk because of the notion of interdependence. In human and social studies, group interaction has been mentioned as an intricate variable which teachers have to observe continuously. Other traits of personality may interfere and make the group works in favour of extrovert students, for instance, at the detriment of introvert ones. Meanwhile, positive interdependence can also take place and all the group members benefit from each other's experience and reflection.

A.I.1.c. Outcome:

Basically, learners differ in predispositions, aptitudes and experience. Some of the learners may achieve a successful outcome, but still need tutoring to improve their achievement. Continuous support encourages them act positively in cooperation when tasks are shared out.

To Carmen (2006), When learning ways of structuring reflective writing, students are likely to recognize the following points:

- Reflection is an exploration and an explanation of events – not just a description of them.
- Genuinely reflective writing often involves revealing anxieties, errors and weaknesses, as well as strengths and successes. In fact, it is often essential, as long as both teachers and learners show some understanding of possible causes, and explain how they plan to improve.
- It is normally necessary to select just the most significant parts of the event or idea on which learners are reflecting. If learners try to tell a whole story, they are likely to use up their words on description rather than interpretation.

A.I.2.Synthesising

Synthesizing means creating something new by bringing together many different pieces of information. It involves using and putting together diverse skills, abilities and knowledge to accomplish a particular new task. According to Chelsa (2006), synthesizing is considered as one of the highest order thinking skills because it requires the ability to summarize, generalize, argue, organize, design, and to explain the reasons for.

Psycholinguists like Newmeyer and others (1996), say that when we perceive pieces of information, our thinking starts to take shape. We begin to use our strategies such as activating our schema, making connections and asking questions. When we synthesize, our thinking is supposed to change. Some psychologists believe that when we synthesize, our thinking blossoms (Fisk, 1971, Lindgren (1976) Newmeyer 1996). They say that whenever we perceive any additional information we feel that both our schema and thinking are growing. Thus any learner exposed to any new information he/ she is replacing his /her actual thinking by a new one leaving behind all wrong misconceptions and beliefs. Therefore the learner's current schema foundation and any element of knowledge added would help the learner synthesize, henceforth his schema grows and changes.

The challenge for any teacher is to make learners aware of this process and train them to go forward for better achievement. This thinking skill is one of the most fundamental objectives in learning at an advanced level. Perhaps, the main skill that may help learners to build and amend the success in writing is synthesizing. However, it rests upon the teacher to raise their awareness, train them and help better use appropriate strategies for better achievements.

A.I.3.Dynamicity of Writing

Writing is a process that requires intellectual operations like: thinking, organizing, developing, revising and editing. The writer writes, revises, corrects, and then writes again (Emig.1971). For Crowhurst (1988), the writing process is: ‘the thinking process that goes on during writing’(P.07). This is what explains the difficult aspect of the writing skill to most learners. Some researchers, like Grabe and Kaplan (1996) see writing as: ‘ a set of skills which must be practiced and learned through practice’’(P.06).Mastering writing means to be proficient in dealing with grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation. Learning to write well is arguably a complex task. Becoming a proficient writer is more complex and requires experiences that make the sense and importance of written communication clearly apparent. In the view of contemporary research in this field, many arguments are stated to support the idea that

good writing instruction requires and makes use of active involvement and engagement to ensure the joy, pleasure, and appreciated value of writing (Gambrell.2006).In the social and daily life ,writing which is a communicative tool, plays an important role to keep ties between people. It has a number of uses and has an important functional role in our lives. Its visible form reveals a sense of everlasting medium and provides ideas and thoughts with a degree of permanence.

A.I.5.The Functionality of Writing

As a form of communication, students use writing to interact with their teachers on a number of tasks and express ideas, plans, and commitments. For them, writing is a primary medium through which they demonstrate their understanding and interpretation of concepts and theories already discussed in previous courses. Almost all these tasks, though unrelated in purpose, require the use of the composing skills learned in the writing class.

Of course, words are the vehicles to express our thoughts which we then measure against our experience and that of others. The mind is forced to examine our perceptions and thoughts to establish a pattern of what is meaningful and to help us make some sense of our lives and the world around us. Writing can help discover gaps in our understanding and flaws in our thinking. It can tell us when we need to gather additional information

or insights, when we need to rethink a question, or when we need to discard a belief or idea (Gambrell.2006). Of course, besides being an external activity through which we communicate with others, writing also serves our inner selves. Thus, when we write we are also discovering something about who we are and what we believe. Writing will be processed according to models established in our minds and becomes a way of clarifying our knowledge and our ideas, defining our problems, understanding and solving them adequately.

Writing constitutes one of the basic goals frequently held by student-writers to succeed in the academic world. They need to demonstrate their knowledge, their understanding of subject matters and their ability to communicate that knowledge and understanding intelligently to another person. It is through writing in most of the cases that they do that .In the teaching/learning environment, they are required to write, essays research papers, and sit for written examinations to show that they know and understand the thoughts of others and can synthesize the new knowledge into their own thinking (Hughey et al.1983). Their success is determined, at least partly, by how efficiently meaning is conveyed through their written performances. Demonstrating that they possess a certain knowledge of the subject matter is not always enough; the ability to produce well-

written papers in a comprehensible writing style will better ensure their academic success .

Research data from second language learning suggest that writing also serves to foster development in other modes of language. For second language learners, writing becomes a means to improve their language skills. As learners seek to present and explain their ideas and writing, they search for precise word choices and suitable structures to frame their ideas. Writing enables them to expand other areas as they work to develop fluency in their language. As they search for evidence to support a point of view or position on an issue, their reading skills are enhanced. Through reading, their writing skills are reinforced. They begin to acquire a feel for the readers' expectations which in turn influence each student's writing process (Hughey et al 1983).

A.I.6.The Process of Writing.

Clifford (1991) is among the prominent authors who discussed the issue of processing writing. To him, the sequences involved in the writing as a whole are chronologically organized and generally follow three stages which he summarizes in the following points:

- Generating the message, the topics, content, event..
- Organizing the ideas; the way in which they are sequenced
- Finding the language and writing conversation, grammar, vocabulary and punctuationetc

He adds that it is through writing that a writer can discover ideas and organize them. The writer's competencies of the writing process lead obviously to conveying the message well to the reader.

Scarcella and Oxford (1992) who were also interested in the processes involved in writing have adopted the "Tapestry Approach & 'Process-oriented Teaching'" and found that students could develop effective writing strategies and gain needed practice through different writing phases. According to them, any writing activity involves finding a topic and goes first through thinking about it in a way that ideas are generated, shaped, refined, and organized. Then, considering the audience and the purpose of the writing task, what remains is only finding and writing down the best words that express the ideas. Gorell (1992) shares this opinion and argues that in order to be considered as communicative, accurate, fluent, and cohesive, a piece of writing must have a situation which involves a writer, an audience, and a purpose. Still according to this same author, writing is a productive skill that takes into account the wider picture of communicative purpose, cultural content and context of the writer.

In fact, writing in a foreign language reflects the communicative competence of the learners and his command of the target language system through manifesting mastery of grammar, vocabulary, and reading. This is

what makes of writing an integrated skill that requires students to take into consideration sub skills like:

- cohesion :whether and to what extent sentences are connected,
- coherence: the unity of the topic,
- relevance: learners' ability of the use of appropriate words in appropriate contexts,
- punctuation and grammar; and
- communicative competence : the ability to communicate ideas in a native form style.

A.I.6.1.The writing stages

When psychologists study the formulation of some solutions to problems, they typically indentify three activities: planning the solution, carrying out the plan and reviewing the results to meet the criteria for a good solution.

Harmer (2004) believes that there are three main and well-known phases of writing:pre-writing, writing and rewriting and they are not one-time processes. As their texts grow and change, writers plan, transcribe and review irregular patterns. The process requires accumulating discrete words or phrases first, then reflecting upon structure, and further developing what message to say. It can be thought of as a kind of retrospective structuring

movement in which one moves back once he reaches the end and retries a better start.

According to Perl (1979), the reading back and the sensing forward have a clarifying effect. Rereading or backward movement becomes a way of assessing whether or not the words on the page adequately capture the original sense intended. This form of constructing simultaneously involves a sense of discovery. Writers know more what they mean only after having written it. In this way the explicit written form serves as a window on the implicit sense with which one has begun.

A.I.6.2. Prewriting

Prewriting has been defined as all the activities (such as reading the topic, rehearsing, planning, trying out beginning, making notes) that students were engaged in before they wrote what was the first sentence of their first draft (Raimes 1985). According to Hayes (1978), “rewriting [...]is used to mean specifically any of the structured experiences which take place either before or during the writing process and which influence active participation on the part of the student in thinking, writing in groups etc”(P.76). Murray (1984) calls this stage of the writing process rehearsing which he thinks is more accurate than prewriting to describe activities that the student undertakes in this stage.

During this stage of the writing process the writer, in the mind and on the page ,prepares himself or herself for writing before knowing for sure that there will be writing. There is a special awareness in the writer's new material and information before it is made clear how it will be used. When it seems there will be writing, this absorption continues, but now there is time for experiments in meaning and form, for trying out voices, for beginning the process of play which is vital to making effective meaning. The writer welcomes the unexpected relationship between pieces of information from voices never heard before by the writer.

In prewriting phase, which takes most of the writing time, the writer focuses on that subject, spots an audience, and chooses a form which may carry his subject to his audience. Prewriting may include research, note-making, outlining, and planning. In Murray's 1984 view, the most effective way of using prewriting is to guide students through each activity in the classroom rather than just lecturing or telling them about how activities should be conducted.

Writing is basically a process of communicating something to an audience. If the writer has nothing to say, obviously writing will not occur. Prewriting activities therefore provide students with something to say. They help them generate ideas, encourage a free flow of thoughts and assist learners to discover both what they want to say and how to say it on

process. Spack (1984) also asserts that prewriting techniques teach students to write down their ideas quickly in new forms. This helps their fluency, as they are able to think and write at the same time.

According to Flower (1981), inexperienced or incompetent student-writers tend to slow down their pace of writing by insisting on a perfect essay from the outset. They try to put down exactly the right word into the right phrase, and to put the right phrase in the right sentence and so on. Such students tend to hinder their own fluency and cause themselves what Flower (1981) calls “writers block”; that is, they get stuck at a point in the writing process and cannot go on. Most students who suffer from this problem can benefit from prewriting activities where they are required to generate materials, ideas, bits of texts, etc. to use in their writing later.

A.I.6.3. Writing (Drafting)

Writing is the act of producing the first draft. Murray (1980) calls this stage of the writing process drafting. For him drafting “is the most accurate term for the central stage of the writing process, since it implies the tentative nature of our written experiments in meaning”(P 85). The writer drafts a piece of writing to find out what it may have to say. The writing physically removes itself from the writer. Thus, it can be examined as something which may eventually stand on its own

before a reader. This distancing is significant because each draft must be an exercise in independence as well as discovery.

This stage is the fastest part of the process, and the most frightening at the same time, as it is the writer's commitment. According to White (1988), the students usually deal with writing the first draft with a sense of urgency and momentum, with little or no concern to accuracy and expression. The important thing seems to be to get the ideas on paper, with questions of organization and correction coming later.

In contrast, Zamel (1983) reports about a long survey on different levels of students writing and says that :“...generally, students devoted the greatest proportion of time to the creation of their first drafts, during which they dealt with the substantial content” further he adds: “..subsequent drafts reflected a greater number of changes in vocabulary, syntax and spelling and therefore required less composing time” (P.174). Time should be devoted to the final draft because it is this draft that will be evaluated. This stage of the writing process requires the students to think rather on matching sentences through transforming ideas into concrete linguistic representations on the paper.

A.I.6.4.Rewriting (Revising)

Rewriting or revising can be described as a repetition of writing as an attempt to refine what is already there as a product . In this perspective, Sommers (1980) thinks that rewriting means changing what has already been produced as a first version . In the same respect, Nold (1981) holds a similar opinion and goes beyond to add that revising is not a sub process in the same way as planning, transcribing and reviewing are. Rather, it is the re-transcribing of the text already produced.

In revising, writers add or delete elements of the text – letters, punctuation, words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs because they have evaluated them as inappropriate or inaccurate and examine other alternatives to change them. Murray(1978) says that “writing is rewriting”(p.43) while Maimon et al (1982) conclude that “successful papers are not written, they are rewritten”(p.24). Students re-transcribe because they have decided, after reviewing the product, that portions of it are not what they had intended to say or not what their reader (teacher) needs. In order to re-transcribe, learners must be able to generate a more acceptable solution.

Students often associate rewriting to failure because they cannot produce perfect copy effortlessly at the first try. However, it is through

enough drills on rewrite activities (which take much more effort and time) that students can work on and improve particular pieces of writing which in turn boosts their confidence as writers by showing them that rewriting is not failure. They learn that they need to rewrite in order to develop and improve their writing

In fact writing and rewriting is a process of discovery. This means that writers often start writing without knowing exactly all of what to say, and, as they write their preliminary drafts, they discover what is needed and what is worthless to say. Then, they go over their drafts and rewrite and edit them into words that more adequately express their ideas in a process that seems to be quite a natural and even inevitable part of the writing process. Although, rewriting is very important in the process of writing, teachers often claim that students usually do not make good use of it. As will be shown later in the field work results, often, students write a draft with many good ideas but poorly developed because they are not shown how to explore these ideas further or given the opportunity to do it.

A.I.7 Writing,vocabualry and Learning Strategies

A.I.7.1. Vocabulary and writing

Writing fosters and reinforces vocabulary skills as English as a Foreign Language (EFL) writers endeavor to make suitable word choices

for their writing. In addition, the spelling system of English demands that the writers master a stock of morphological information not required in the speech system (Byrne 1979). Recognition of these morphological structures enables learners to build their vocabularies more quickly as they visualize word development. Grammar skills are enhanced as EFL writers make decisions about the form in which to present ideas (Hughey et al 1983). EFL students must apply their knowledge of sentence patterns, frequently visualized as isolated rules, to shape their ideas into acceptable and effective sentences. They actively use knowledge of coordinating and subordinating structures, for example, to emphasize or deemphasize ideas. In so doing, they can easily put into practice the theoretical information they have been given.

A.I.7.2.Learning Writing Strategies

Learning strategies have been classified and categorized in various ways by different researchers. While, for instance, Rubin (1981) proposed a scheme that classifies the learning strategies into two broad groups, O'Malley and Chamot, (1990) categorized them into three types; Cognitive, Metacognitive and Socioaffective strategies. The cognitive strategies suggested by these researchers involve interacting with the material to be learnt, the second type of strategies refer to thinking about the learning process, planning and monitoring the task and evaluating how

well one has learnt. Socioaffective strategies mean interacting with other persons or using affective control to assist learning task.

Oxford's(199) taxonomy remains one of the most accepted and comprehensive classification. She suggests two classes and six major groups of language learning strategies (LLS) and provides this diagram to summarize the taxonomy.

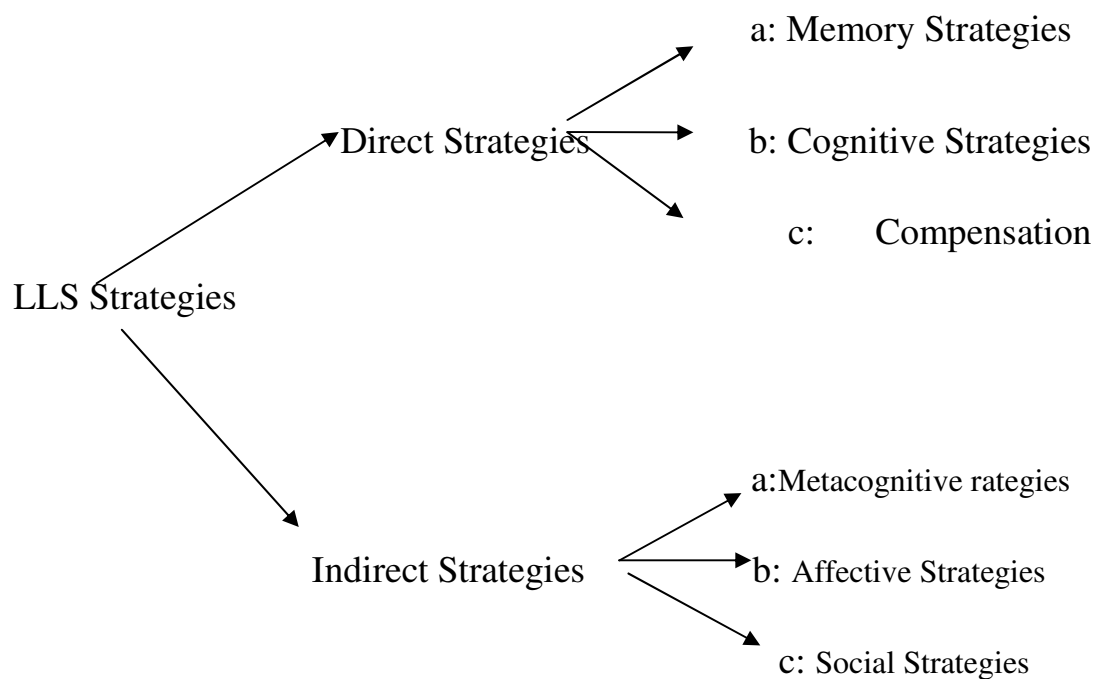


Figure 1:the Learning Strategies (from Oxford, R L (1990, p.16)

Oxford model of language learning strategies consists of six categories, classified as direct: memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies. Those strategies directly involve the target language in the sense that they require mental processing of the language. The indirect class of strategies involve Metacognitive,

Affective and Social strategies. Indirect strategies “provide indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy and other means” (Oxford, 1990, p.151). Based on a series of research projects, Oxford produced the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), as an instrument to assess language learning strategies. This instrument has been widely used by a lot of vocabulary learning strategy researchers.

Schmidt (1997) who adopted this classification in his framework says that memory strategies are essentially related to how students remember information via making connections between them. They are specific actions used by learners to create mental links that will allow new information to enter and remain in long-term memory in an orderly string, while other techniques create learning and retrieval via sounds as rhyming, images as a mental picture of the word itself or the meaning of the word, or a combination of sounds and images. These strategies are related to the different individuals personal ways of storing new information in the mind and making them available for future use.

Cognitive strategies enable students to process information and structure them in direct ways. Examples include: analyzing, summarizing, reasoning, note-taking, synthesizing and finding

similarities between first and foreign languages structures and models. Another direct strategy is the compensation strategy which is used to enable students to compensate for limited knowledge in some fields of the language. Compensation strategies used for speaking and writing are often known as one form of communication strategies. For instance, gesturing for speaking or guessing based on the context for listening or reading.

Metacognitive (indirect) strategies are used to manage the learning process and deal with tasks. They include identifying one's preferences and needs, planning, monitoring and evaluating the learning process.

Affective strategies include, for instance, identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, success, failure and rewarding oneself. In the field of psychology for education, these strategies are considered of great significance in L2 proficiency.

Social strategies involve learning through interaction with others and understand target culture. They include asking for cooperation with other partner, asking for clarifications, showing interest in learning about the culture of native speakers. Such strategies can have positive or negative impact on the learning process because of fear of failure.

Despite the fact that Oxford's classification is considered to be the most comprehensive, there is still some disagreement about the several ways of naming and classifying language learning strategies (Ellis, 1994). There is still a degree of overlap between these categories because in some cases the same strategy can be classified under different categories. Aware of this point, Oxford (1990) herself reported that "there is no complete agreement on exactly what strategies are; how many strategies exist, how they should be defined, demarcated and categorized; and whether it is-or even will be-possible to create a real scientifically validated hierarchy of strategies" (P.17).

A.I.7.3.Strategies for Learning writing Vocabulary

Vocabulary learning in writing is of great importance since vocabulary is a key unit in building up the final written product. The learning of vocabulary items is not simply a matter of committing words to memory, but how to expand the knowledge of one's vocabulary and use it in appropriate situations as well. learners encounter new words in different situations; they may encounter the new words through the language of other learners or through leaning materials. Vocabulary learning strategies, therefore, should include strategies for knowing as well as for using a word (Ellis, 1994). Hence,

study of vocabulary learning strategies is considered mainly as an important step in second language or foreign language learning.

Nation (1990) thinks that students generally learn new words in two stages. The first stage is when language learners hear or read a new word. They usually know and recognize it, but are unable to use it in their speaking or writing. The second stage is when they are ready to use the word, it becomes their active vocabulary though it is not an easy or simple task to be able to use new words. Rather, it is a long and time-consuming process. Language learners need to learn and know how to store and practice new words by using different types of vocabulary learning strategies (Nation, 1990). This may be because no single strategy has been proved to be the best of all or to be better than another. As such, each strategy for vocabulary learning is appropriate for its purpose (Oxford, 1990; Schmitt, 2000).

Nation (2001) states that vocabulary learning strategies are part of language learning strategies which in turn are part of general learning strategies. According to him, a strategy must:

- Involve choice, i.e. there should be several strategies to choose from;
- Be complex, i.e. there should be several steps to learn;
- Require knowledge and benefit from training; and

-Increase the efficiency of vocabulary learning and vocabulary use (p.217)

Earlier, Sokmen,(1997) concluded that : “vocabulary learning strategies are basically actions made by the learner in order to help them to understand the meaning of a word, learning them and to remember them later” (P.237) .The main goal of studies on vocabulary learning strategies is to discover how words are learnt and what part is played by different processes. According to O’Malley and Chamot, (1990):“training second language learners to use learning strategies concentrates mainly on learning vocabulary” (P.07),.

Vocabulary learning strategies according to (Ellis,1999) are specific strategies for language learning. Accordingly, vocabulary learning strategies are one aspect of the overall learning strategies. This goes in the sense that most of the strategies presented above in Oxford’s(1990) taxonomy fit also into this vocabulary learning strategies, such as memory strategies, and can be used for vocabulary learning tasks.

Each language learner needs to deal with a wide range of vocabulary learning strategies which are specific to his own way of thinking. He adapts these strategies and shapes them to set his own way in order to learn and enrich his vocabulary; acquiring at the end a

large number of words with their meanings, and knowing how to produce and use them. Different types of learning aims require different use of vocabulary learning strategies. The strategies differ depending on whether the learner's aim is to understand the language; both in reading and listening, or to produce it in both speaking and writing. Accordingly, this involves the selection and choice of the most appropriate strategy from a range of known options and deciding when to shift to another one. In this respect, Schmitt (2000) employs simple words to say the most in the least: "good language learners do many things such as use a variety of strategies, structure their vocabulary learning, review and practice target words and so on" (p.133). In a less simple manner, Gu and Johnson (1996) state that successful strategy users need a strategy for controlling their strategy use.

A.I.7.4.Strategies transfer

The early studies on learning strategies in first language contexts found out that it was very hard for students to transfer strategies to new tasks. Recent research shows that there is a significant increase in transfer because teachers tend to help students understand their own learning processes and metacognition.

Language learning strategy experts as O'Malley & Chamot (1990) and Wenden (2002) argue for the very vital role of

metacognition knowledge and metacognitive learning strategies in language learning. Harris (2004) who confirms this illustrates with results of a research conducted through semi- structured interviews with a group of adolescents in their second year foreign language in schools in London. The students have been exposed to second language instruction in their English classes. They were asked to make judgments on different strategies; whether every strategy was useful only for learning English, only for learning a foreign language , for learning any language , or not useful at all.

The results showed that high attaining students used more metacognitive strategies and made some transfers of strategies from their English class to their foreign language class. However, low attaining students were less likely to use metacognitive strategies or make transfers from English. To bring his research to its conclusion, Harris suggest that the more students were proficient and effective learners, the more they were likely to make transfers of strategies they were formerly exposed to.

A.I.7.5. Current models for teaching writing strategy

A number of models for teaching learning strategies both in first language and second language contexts have been developed for the last two decades. For example, Chamot & O'Malley (1990), Cohen (1998)

and Grenfell and Harris (1999) and Chamot (2005). These instructional models share many features. Most of the models agree on the importance of developing metacognitive understanding of the value of learning strategies and that such process is facilitated through teacher demonstration and modeling. A good illustration is given in table (1.p.34)

SSBI* Model (Cohen, 1998)	CALLA** Model (Chamot, 2005; Chamot et al., 1999)	Grenfell & Harris (1999)
Teacher as diagnostician: Helps students identify current strategies and learning styles.	Preparation: Teacher identifies students' current learning strategies for familiar tasks.	Awareness raising: Students complete a task, and then identify the strategies they used.
Teacher as language learner: Shares own learning experiences and thinking processes.	Presentation: Teacher models, names, explains new strategy; asks students if and how they have used it.	Modeling: Teacher models, discusses value of new strategy, makes checklist of strategies for later use.
Teacher as learner trainer: Trains students how to use learning strategies.	Practice: Students practice new strategy; in subsequent strategy practice, teacher fades reminders to encourage independent strategy use.	General practice: Students practice new strategies with different tasks.
Teacher as coordinator: Supervises students' study plans and monitors difficulties.	Self-evaluation: Students evaluate their own strategy use immediately after practice.	Action planning: Students set goals and choose strategies to attain those goals.
Teacher as coach: Provides ongoing guidance on students' progress.	Expansion: Students transfer strategies to new tasks, combine strategies into clusters, develop repertoire of preferred strategies.	Focused practice: Students carry out action plan using selected strategies; teacher fades prompts so that students use strategies automatically.
	Assessment: Teacher assesses students' use of strategies and impact on performance.	Evaluation: Teacher and students evaluate success of action plan; set new goals; cycle begins again.

Table 1: Models for Language Learning Strategy Instruction (Adapted from Harris, 2004)

* Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction

** Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach

All these models not only insist on providing an opportunity for strategy training, so that learners would use them autonomously, but also suggest that students should check how well a strategy they have used was efficient. Moreover, they would choose strategies for a task and actively transfer strategies to new tasks. Models of language learning strategy instruction insist on developing students' knowledge about their own thinking and strategic processes and encouraging them to adopt strategies that will improve their language learning and proficiency.

These Three models begin by the identification of students learning strategies through certain activities such as; questionnaire completion, involving students in a discussion about familiar tasks and giving reflections on the used strategies once the task is over. These models favour teachers' modeling of the new strategy and hence making strategy instruction evolving. The Chamot (2005) model is recursive so that both teachers and students would have the option of revisiting the prior instructional phases as needed. However, the Grenfell and Harris' model (1999) sets the students work through the cycle of six steps, and then begins a new cycle. Meanwhile, Cohen (1998) model assigns the teacher a variety of roles so that he would help students learn to use the strategies that are appropriate to their

learning styles.

The Grenfell and Harris model favours initial familiarizations with the new strategies, then students begin to make personal action plans to improve their own learning. However, the Chamot model builds in a self-evaluation phase for students to reflect on their use of strategies before doing on transfer of strategies to new tasks.

Current models for language learning strategy instruction are based on developing students' knowledge about their own thinking and strategic processes and encouraging them to adopt strategies that will improve their language learning and proficiency.

A.I.8. The Writing Skill and Teaching Approaches.

Most Foreign language teachers agree that there is no one answer to the question of how to teach writing in EFL classes. There are as many answers as there are teachers and teaching styles, or learners and learning styles. The shift in focus in writing research from the product to the process approach has initiated much attention to the teaching of writing as an expressive act besides being a problem-solving activity (Carter 2003). This view was later followed by the genre-based approach, with its analytical description of the text, focusing on the social context of its creation and the communicative purpose it intends to achieve (Laurie 2003). It highlighted certain linguistic and structural

conventions explicitly enabling the learner to discriminate and make appropriate decisions leading them to write more effectively for various purposes and varied audiences. Writing has been a major concern of several theorists and specialist in foreign language education. It gained, and sometimes lost, significant attention according to the overall teaching aim set in the theory. Meanwhile, it remains still a point of convergence of most approaches that target communicative proficiency in the foreign language. A short mention of some teaching approaches and how they tackled the issue of writing seems important here.

A.I.8.1.The Product Approach

This approach is “a traditional ...in which students are encouraged to mimic a model text” (Steele.2004.P.26). It is a form-based approach focusing on what is produced by a student after assigning him a writing task. The Product Approach to writing focuses on the end result of the act of composition. Here, the aim is to see the correctness and grammaticality of the produced pieces of writing. Teachers can provide support for learners during the composition in order to avoid mistakes. Moreover, some writing models are given to be strictly imitated. In these cases, the model texts are read, then important features of the target structures are highlighted. After that, students are asked to produce their own writing pieces, just copying what was given. The

main objective of the Product Approach is accuracy in writing, neglecting students' own freedom to write or communicate. As it is a product-based, this method seems not to highly value the inner mechanisms that students manipulate to end up writing correctly. Rather, and depending on the already set objective, what is more required and evaluated is the final production.

A.I.8.2.The Process Approach

The process approach to writing initially stemmed from the fundamental issue of L1 writing but with a shift in emphasis from the text to the writer and on the cycle of writing activities which are involved in text production as a whole (Tribble,1996,p.37). Later, researchers on L2 writing like Raimes (1985) and Arndt(1987) (cited in Kaur 2005) highlighted the fact that writing as an activity entails also the writer or learner to move through well structured and known stages of developing the text from the initial moment of thinking to write up into the last stage where the product is final. At this point, one can easily understand that cognitive strategies are central to the working of this approach. The process approach considers writing as a creative act which requires time and positive feedback to be done well (Kroll 1990). In process writing, the teacher finds himself required to smoothly alter his role from being the source of knowledge to a facilitator of learning.

The teacher needs to move away from being an evaluator on which students success and/or failure depend to an audience and a reader, responding to both the content of what students write and how they write it. Students should be encouraged to think about audience: whom are they writing for? What does this reader need to know? They also need to realize that what they put down on paper can be changed: things can be deleted, added, restructured, reorganized, etc.

According to Jordan (1997), the Process Approach developed as a reaction to the restrictions of the Product Approach. Unlike the latter, the former enables learners to clearly decide about their own writing by means of discussion, tasks, drafting, feedback, and informed choices. Still in the view of Jordan, such activities play a great role in encouraging students to be responsible for making improvement themselves. The teacher can provide students with advice on how to improve their initial ideas to stimulate their creativity and get them thinking how to approach a topic.

The Process Approach makes the student more creative, imaginative, purposeful, interested in writing on different topics, and personal in their writing. That approach also focuses more on the content rather than on the form (Steele, 2004). In general, Process Approaches to writing exploit all possible ways to render the varied

classroom activities as much fruitful to students as possible. They promote the development of language use: brainstorming, group discussion, re-writing and give students considerable freedom.

While most researchers commonly agree on the positive aspect of applying this approach to teach writing, some disagreement, however, is remarked on the number and naming the stages that it should go through. Tribble (1996) says that there are four stages in writing according to the Process Approach: prewriting, composing/drafting, revising, and editing, and that these stages are recursive (non linear), whereas Zamel (1982) for example, sees that'' planning is not a unitary stage but a distinctive thinking process which writers use over and over again during composition''(p.206). Flowers (1981), however, claims that writers, when re-writing, are trying to anticipate their readers' expectations. In all circumstances, the process approach seems to gain much advantage than the product approach .A comparative summary of this issue is given in table 2. (P.41).

Table2: comparison between the Product and the Process Approaches

PROCESS WRITING	PRODUCT WRITING
Text as a resource for comparison	Imitate model text
Ideas as starting point	Organization of ideas more important than ideas themselves
More than one draft	One draft
More global, focus on purpose, theme, text type,i.e., reader is emphasized	Features highlighted including controlled practice of those features
Collaborative	Individual
Emphasis on creative process	Emphasis on end product

Source :<http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/product-process-writing-a-comparison>

A.I.8.3.The Genre Approach

The Genre Approach, which is according to Swales, (1990) a combination of the product and process approaches, consists of modeling a target genre for the students, then constructing a joint text between the teacher and the student, and at last the latter create their own texts. It is a kind of creative writing relying on different genres.

The teacher can lead the student to be able to write joke, a poem, a short story, a biography, a novel, a newspaper article.....etc

A.I.8.4.Guided writing

Controlled composition which some researchers in the field refer to as guided writing has its origins in the audio-lingual method of second language learning. Basically, a controlled composition consists of a written model with directions for conversions or specific language manipulations in rewriting the model. In Hyland's (2003) opinion, the degree of control lies both within the model and the type of manipulation the student is asked to execute on the model

While moving from guided to free writing, learners should follow a systematic framework. First, they are given sentence exercises, then paragraphs to copy or manipulate grammatically by changing interrogatives to affirmatives, present to past and so on (Raimes 1985). Following this type of writing, it becomes in the reach of most students to write a great deal and at the same time avoid making writing errors. The text produced by the students becomes a collection of sentence patterns and vocabulary items-a linguistic artifact- a vehicle for language practice.

A.I.8.5.The Free-writing Approach

Researchers in the field of foreign language education have stressed the importance of the quality of writing rather than the quantity. Teachers, however seem to have approached the teaching of writing differently by assigning vast amounts of free writing on a given topic with few considerations of the product quality. Students need to find expression for their experience in the target language and exploit them better. In theory, students on the intermediate and advanced levels need much practice in writing free compositions (Hyland, 2003). In practice, English department students write only when they are asked to. A more appropriate and useful guideline for writing is probably to have the student write as many free compositions as the teacher can reasonably correct.

Conclusion

Research presents writing as a complex task that requires and makes use of both linguistic and cognitive abilities. The difficulties of such a task are mainly due to the strategies that students have to adopt and adapt to convey what was a psychological representations in their minds into a concrete symbolization of ideas through drafting and writing. Whether in free or in guided writing, students have to follow prescribed stages that enable them tailor a final product ready to consume. Difficulties do not always lie in learning the language system itself, they may result from the way teachers have prepared and presented it to learners.

A.II. The Writing Style

A.II.1.definitions

In writing, style refers to the manner in which an author chooses to write to his or her audience. This means also that style reveals something about both the writer and the audience, and shows how the writer perceives the audience . Cali (2002) believes that a writer's style is what sets his or her writing apart and makes it unique. In her own words: "style is the way writing is dressed up (or down) to fit the specific context, purpose, or audience". Still according to her, choice of a conceptual writing style molds the overall character of the work. In writing situations, this occurs through changes in syntactical structure, parsing prose, adding diction, and organizing figures of thought into usable frameworks.

To Myers (1992) the situation requires knowing exactly what should be said or written and for what type of occasion .This is what he means when he says: "style is not a matter of right and wrong but of what is appropriate for a particular setting and audience"(p.56). Sentence fluency, appropriate setting and audience all contribute to the style of a piece of writing. How a writer chooses words and structures sentences to achieve a certain effect is also an element of style. When Thomas Paine wrote "These are the times that try men's souls," he

arranged his words to convey a sense of urgency and desperation. Had he written “These are bad times,” it’s likely he would not have made such an impact! Cali (2002)

It is currently a common belief among writers and readers that style is usually considered to be the province of literary writers. Novelists such as Ernest Hemingway and William Faulkner and poets such as Emily Dickinson and Walt Whitman are well known for their distinctive literary styles. They find and place words by ways unknown to most of us, and achieve impact on all of us. Non literary writers like journalists, scientists, historians, and mathematicians also have distinctive styles, and they need to know how to vary their styles to fit different audiences. (Susan2004).

In Media for example, a narrative report of a general culture documentary magazine that uses the first-person style for informational purposes looks different from the objective third-person expository style of a scientific research journal that presents the latest advances in information technology. While the audience of the documentary magazine does not need to be necessary possessing certain prior knowledge on the topic, the scientific journal seems to be addressing a targeted population tacitly selected.

Calie (2002) quotes (Myers 1992:150) and illustrates this same idea by the following two passages:

Passage 1:

“Experiments show that Heliconius butterflies are less likely to ovipositor on host plants that possess eggs or egg like structures. These egg mimics are an unambiguous exampl of a plant trait evolved in response to a host-restricted group of insect herbivores.”

Passage2:

“Heliconius butterflies lay their eggs on Passiflora vines. In defense the vines seem to have evolved fake eggs that make it look to the butterflies as if eggs have already been laid on them.”

The two passages were written by the same author on the same topic with the same main idea, yet they have very different styles. Each style is appropriate for a particular audience. The idea remained the same in the two passages but the audience changed. The first passage was written for a professional journal read by other biologists, so the style is impersonal, using technical terminology appropriate to and understood by professional audience. The second passage, written for a popular science magazine, uses a more dramatic style, setting up a conflict between the butterflies and the vines, and using familiar words

to help readers from non-scientific backgrounds visualize the scientific concept being described.

A.II.2 Academic writing styles and its types

In the field of writing in general, and style in particular, a great deal of style types is recognised. A number of them is not related mainly to the academic and teaching learning scene. The journalistic, the literary, the scientific, the historical are only a few examples of the myriad of the stylistic types. In this research work, and as stated earlier in the introduction, we shall be limited for research objectives and requirements, only to the academic one.

A better approach to define style is, perhaps, to acknowledge that there is no one totally satisfactory definition of a writer's style that reflects his personality, his own manner, his voice and his way to approach his audience and readers. Nevertheless, according to most researchers, we can isolate and easily distinguish four distinct types of a writing style that is generally known as academic style.

A.II.2.1.Descriptive Style:

The descriptive essay is genre of writing through which writers describe something object person, place, experience, emotion, situation, etc. In class situations, it is believed that this genre allows for a great

deal of artistic freedom and encourages the student's ability to create a written account of a particular experience (Baker2010) .

According to Calie (2002), who investigated and compared types of essays, among all the other types of writing, descriptive essays generally enable deeply involved and vivid experience for the reader. Myers (1992) adds that great descriptive writers achieve this outcome not through facts and statistics but by using detailed observations and descriptions. According to many other researches, most successful descriptive writings share four main common steps (Strunk, William, and White, E. B. 2000).

A.II.2.1.a. Specification of the topic.

In description, students are expected to tell their readers (teachers) what their senses are taking in. They need to be aware of whatever they are writing about; what exactly do they see ,what do they hear, without neglecting the other senses. In fact, as Wood (1999) put it, one of the most common mistakes in descriptive writing is to let sight take over the whole description.

A.II.2.1.b. Vivid language.

The main goal of the descriptive essay is to put a sensory experience into words in a way to make readers feel like they are themselves involved in the scene. This is not an easy skill that students especially of a foreign language can master quickly. It will require them to learn some new vocabulary ,and precisely employ each word to mean what conveys with a high degree of authenticity the described scene. Details are important elements in description. But what is more important is the accuracy of the image they represent and transmit to the reader who obviously sees what the writer shows him.

A.II.2.1.c. Idea .

Idea is the central element here. During the whole process of writing the writer's mind is continuously warranted by questions as to whether or not the idea is clearly presented. This is what the whole description will be built around. Which details are chosen and in what language employed to convey them depend on this.

A.II.2.1.d. Order.

Descriptive writings generally follow a natural starting point based on the topic described. In describing a whole scene, it's usually best to work from big to small (Strong, William. (2001). We often describe the trees in the forest before the insects, for example. With a

house, we would start at the front door. The use of transition words facilitate the flow of the ideas and help the student to move from one detail to the next easily. A good mastery of basic grammatical concepts of sentence structure together with elementary notions of writing assist students to move onward into acquiring the secret mechanisms of organizing writing in general. It is sometimes poetic in nature in which the author is specifying the details of the event rather than just the information of what event happened.

A.II.2.2. Expository Style :

Expository writing is used to explain, give information, or comment on given facts (Strong, William. 2001). In this type of writing, the text is organized around one topic and developed according to a pattern or combination of patterns. Expository writing is a subject-oriented writing style, in which the main focus of the author is to relate, with a high degree of impersonalisation, telling about a given topic or subject and leaving out his personal opinions. The writer of an expository text, still according to these same authors, cannot assume that the reader or listener has prior knowledge or prior understanding of the topic discussed. Since clarity requires strong organization, one of the most important mechanisms to improve skills in expository writing is gained better through improving the organization of the text.

In Kirk's (1990) opinion, more than one pattern may be used within an expository essay. The writer may use for instance description where he describes a topic by listing characteristics, features, and examples. He provides details about how something really looks, feels, tastes, or smells. The author can also list items or events in numerical or chronological order like in sequential writing where details of how events and or action occur. Comparison, cause effect, and problem solution patters are other patterns used in expository writing.

Expository writing is understood to be the standard academic writing that is used in a lot of academic settings (William, 2001). Exposing and analyzing trends in prose is the stylistic technique of expository writing, and when compared to technical writing, it can be much more creative, and artistic. In this style of writing, the writer attempts to persuade someone to agree with a certain opinion or an argument. The writer is asked to state relevant facts and figures and does not include his own opinions. William (2001) asserts that the facts in themselves are not of the only importance in expository writing. Most of the emphasis is on deriving how something works through analysis, explanation, and exposition of these facts.

A.II.2.3. Persuasive /Argumentative style:

Persuasive writing is a form of nonfiction writing that encourages careful word choice, the development of logical arguments, and a cohesive summary (Laurie 2003). Persuasive style contains justifications and reasons to make someone believe on the point the writer is talking about. It is mainly intended for persuading and convincing on the writer's point of view. Persuasive writing, unlike expository writing contains the opinions, biasness and justification of the author. Both expository and persuasive writing, however, require critical thinking on the part of the writer and the reader. Indeed, on the one hand, the writer –especially in a student's case- needs to be able to clearly present information in a format which will be logical to the readers. On the other hand, the reader, himself needs to be prepared to think about the information presented. In both cases, readers should always draw their own conclusions after thinking critically about the information.

In a persuasive writing, the author's final goal is to win the reader's full agreement. This style includes a series of arguments, many of which are reinforced with facts which support the author's point of view. In its more classical form, this style of writing includes an introduction, which acquaints readers with the topic to be discussed

followed by a body, with the set of the arguments, and a conclusive part to restate the most important points.

A.II.2.4. Narrative Writing:

The purpose of a narrative type of writing is to describe a *story* written about a personal experience. In narrative writing, the author places himself as the character and brings you to the story. During the process of writing a narrative, the students (author) learns ways to articulate personal experience to inform and entertain others. According to Strong (2001), good narratives display the following characteristics :

- involve readers in the story by actually recreating incident for them than to simply tell about it.
- relate events in sequence through creation of specific scenes set at actual times and in actual places.
- told from a point of view; usually the author's point of view.
- focus on connection between past events, people, or places and the present ;and
- include detailed observations of people, places, and events.

Novels and short stories are among the best examples of narrative writing style. Within the academic context, students are encouraged to develop a sense of art in narrative writing, which urges them to exploit their imagination and creativity to its utmost. In trying to do this,

students will be acquainted with stylistic features to launch the reader in a virtual presence in the story.

A.II.3. Elements of academic style

The writer needs to tailor style to fit with the situation he is evolving in. For example, in writing a letter, one would use a different style for a letter of complaint or a letter of condolence. A letter of complaint would require a business style to be taken seriously, while a letter of condolence would be more effective using a conversational tone. It is obvious, also, that one cannot reply to a commercial letter with an emotional appeal. It has to be essentially factual, focused, and brief, taking into consideration the facts and nothing beyond. Generally, students learn these differences in writing at intermediate levels. At advanced levels, however, these basics seem to be already gained and learners should go beyond to acquire more professional writing styles.

To achieve a good academic style, writing should be clear and concise and the writer makes sure that he gets the ideas over in a comprehensible form. (Strong, 2001) says that to do that successfully, writers should ensure that the text meets at least four main points.

A.II.3. 1. Sentence form.

A sentence may state the main idea first and then modify it, or it may contain information to prepare the reader before stating the main proposition. The most important thing to remember is generally to try to avoid everyday language and informal words. Written products are final and, compared to spoken language, there is no way to re-explain to a remote reader what was intended by the writer. He has to get the reader to manage to infer the expected meaning with no assistance.

A writer has to be careful not only to the density of the sentence but also the distribution of its units. Generally, a periodic sentence places the main point in the middle or at the end of the sentence. In the former case, the main point is modified by subordinate clauses before and after its position in the sentence. Here, the meaning is not totally understood unless the reader reaches the sentence end. It is this type of sentences that is frequently used by proficient writers and it is this same type of sentences that our learners fail to master. In the latter case, the main point is modified by preceding subordinate clauses. Depending on either one of the orders chosen by the writer, phrases, and clauses are arranged in the order which highlights what is more important to express, and focuses the attention on the main idea.

Within the rules of grammar, the writer can arrange words in many ways, but stylistic choices may be influenced also by the type of

the discourse and the general culture of the time (Williams,2007). While in modern writing, the loose sentence has been favored in most modes of written discourse, in classical times, writing which emphasized more the periodic sentence held equal or greater favor, and during the Age of Enlightenment, the balanced sentence was favored by writers (William2001). In technical writing, too, using different styles to express the same idea may lead the reader to understand that the use of different text writing and organization types was intended to modify or carry additional meaning.

A.II. 3. 2.Word choice

At an advance level of language learning, students learn to visualize themselves in the setting they are describing each time they are asked to write, and brainstorm words that concisely convey vital elements of that setting. Good choice of words: active verbs, concrete nouns, specific adjectives help the reader visualize the sentence and follows the writer in the flow of the idea he is generating. A good illustration is given by O'Connor in (Williams,2007):

“If you ride, think of a horse’s gait: walk, trot, canter, gallop. If you’re musical, use your toe or an imaginary baton to mark the tempo: adagio, andante, allegro, presto. Think of an oncoming

train, the waves of the sea, wheels on a cobblestone street.” (p.56)

Appropriate choice of words produces a voice in writing which is an element of style that reveals the writer's personality. A writer's voice can be impersonal or talkative, authoritative or reflective, objective or passionate, serious or funny etc... Proficient writers are concise and precise, choosing the exact word to convey meaning. They use adjectives carefully and adverbs rarely, letting their nouns and verbs been the main grammatical categories do the work.

In oral language, too, diction which is the writer's distinctive vocabulary choices and style of expression (Lynch,1988), can also affect the writer's style. Argumentative and expository writings, for instance, frequently make use of a set of register (a specific range of words in a language related to a specific issue) in which the subject matter is commonly discussed. By contrast, narrative and descriptive texts are generally more flexible and more tolerant to the vast variety of words.

Still according to (Strong (2001), academic writing styles are also achieved through words that contribute to the flow of a sentence. In fact, polysyllabic words, alliteration, and consonance can be used to

create complex sentences in reading and may lead to break up the rhythm of a sentence.

A.II. 3. 3. Coherence vs. Cohesion

In text analysis, linguists are often concerned with making distinction between the terms 'cohesion' and 'coherence'. It is generally on the basis of the agreement and relationship of these two terms that texts make complete senses as meant by their authors. Many linguists and particularly sociolinguists have approached the theme of sentence and text meaning in language. For instance, Halliday (1994) relates the difference between coherence and cohesion in terms of internal and external relations of a clause. According to him, coherence is

"the internal [resource] for structuring the clause as a message", including the notions of 'theme' and 'information', while cohesion is particularly related the external relationship between clauses and clause complexes, which are independent of grammatical structure.(Pp.308-309)

Not quite differently, Brinker (2005) mentioned the same point of analysis. What he adds is that “the textual structure can be analyzed both on a grammatical and on a thematic level” (Pp.21-22). Still in the

view of Brinker, grammatical analysis takes into account the syntactic-semantic relations between sentences which lead to achieving cohesion, while thematic analysis looks more into the logic-semantic relations established between propositions of the text.

Other researchers like de Beaugrande and Dressler (1992) specify that cohesion is the grammatical and lexical linking within a text or sentence that holds a text together and gives it meaning. In other words, one can easily distinguish between two types of linguistic relations that compose cohesion: grammatical cohesion which is based on structural content, and lexical cohesion which is based on lexical content and background knowledge.

A.II. 3. 3.1. Cohesive devices.

What raises conflicting debates among researchers is whether or not cohesion is a sufficient criterion for textual coherence? This question caused much concern on the functional connection between cohesion and coherence and seems controversial enough to shape disagreements. Halliday and Hasan (1976) are of the opinion that cohesive devices create coherence in texts. Even more, they believe that "cohesion is the only source of texture"(P. 9), and identify five general

categories of cohesive devices that create coherence in texts: reference, ellipsis, substitution, lexical cohesion and conjunction.

- Anaphoric reference occurs usually to avoid repetition of something or someone already mentioned in a near previous discourse. In cases like these , pronouns are used instead of naming again .
- Cataphoric reference in written text happens when something or someone is introduced in the abstract before it is later on identified. Like in the example: "Finally comes, our favorite football player,... it's Ronaldo!"
- Ellipsis is another cohesive device (Halliday and Hasan 1976). According to these authors, ellipsis occurs when words are omitted from a phrase which has to be repeated . Like in “ It is not a gorilla...just a baboon ” where (*it* and *is* are omitted from the sentence : It is not a gorilla it... it is just a baboon
- Substitution: like in ellipsis, in substitution also words are omitted but replaced by their equivalents. In most of the cases, these involve the use of relative pronouns like in: “ I chose the red color which I prefer ,instead of I chose the red color .I prefer the red color “ or in “ Which movies you like?_ I like the action ones” where *ones* is used instead of repeating *movies*.

- Conjunction. The use of conjunctions like *then*, *however*, *in fact*, and *consequently* make the transition from one sentence to another smooth and the reader sets up relations between sentences and clauses and how they express meaning.
- Grammatical cohesion. This is achieved when texts are produced with respect to logical and structural rules that govern the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in any given natural language. Such rules include morphology and syntax mainly , and are often complemented by phonetics, phonology, semantics, and pragmatics. (Michael (1991)

The idea held by Halliday and Hasan that coherence presupposes cohesion as its main and sometimes unique component seems to be challenged by other researchers. Hellmann (1995; Brown & Yule 1993 cited in Brinker (2005) are of an almost opposite view. To them, a text can be coherent without being cohesive, and vice versa. Thus, the reader can still perceive coherence in a sequence of clauses and sentences even if the semantic and syntactic ties connecting them are missing”.

Kehler (2002) says that sometimes it is the reader (or listener) who tries to find out the possible connections between the sentences to make them appear in a logical stream of idea. Logical relations between

propositions from the common theme and its consequences help readers infer meanings. Even if the sentences are unrelated linguistically they still may become coherent.

A.II. 3. 3.2. Coherence Relations

Coherence relations are also called propositional relations (Mann & Thompson (1986)). They are sense relations between parts of a sentence or between sentences in a paragraph or between paragraphs in a text. These relations are inferred and decoded by the reader as theme (topic) and propositions pertaining to the same theme. They help the reader to establish a global image of what the text is about. Brinker(2005) refers to these relations as types of thematic development. He suggests a number of types; the most important of them are:

- **Description:** a theme is divided into its main constituents .The constituents can be situated in space and time, a description of a process that is generalized or repeated , or a description of either a living creature or an object
- **Narration:** especially found in recounting of everyday situations, in newspaper articles, in narratives etc.; the elements in a narrative are usually ordered according to the linear order of the events described.

- **temporal relation:** a temporal relation between the theme and its propositions is sometimes set by the writer explicitly through cohesive devices or can be implicitly inferred by the reader through coherence relations.
- **cause-effect-relation :** a link that is logically deduced from the relationship between the theme and its propositions as in expressing results or consequences.
- argumentation:** the speaker or writer introduces an argument and backs it up by supporting facts or other pieces of evidence.

Danes (1970) has already discussed the issue of theme and rheme in sentence structure and distinguished several kinds of what he called thematic progression. According to him, the types of a thematic progression in and between the sentences of a text depends on whether a theme remains constant, is split up, or changed from one sentence to the next. While researchers like Brown & Yule(1993) agree with Danes(1970) and use the terms *theme* and *rheme* as equivalent to *topic* and *comment* respectively, Halliday(1994) makes some exceptions and argues that topic is “rather a specific kind of theme and more a matter of information structure than of coherence”(p.38). Further, he argues that the theme is not always a nominal group but can also be an adverbial group or prepositional phrase.

A.II. 3.4. Sentences fluency

Sentence fluency is the flow and rhythm of phrases and clauses that leads to coherence (Danes ,1970). A variety of sentences with different lengths and rhythms achieve different effects and produce different styles. For instance parallel structures within sentences and paragraphs are used to reflect parallel ideas. This is an easy task for expert writers and for natives also. They avoid loose sentences, deleting extraneous words and rearranging their ideas for effect

In the case of foreign language students, teachers of writing have to focus on training learners to know how to avoid monotony by varying their sentence structures depending on the theme they are writing about. Many students initially write with an informal and oral style, adding words to the end of a sentence in the order they come to their minds. This wordy style is often described as a “word dump” where everything in a student’s mind is dumped onto the paper in no particular order (Wood,1999). Meanwhile, one advantage of writing over speaking is that writers can return to their words, rethink them, and revise and adjust them to their planned purpose and effect they want to achieve. Academic styles results when writers, mainly students, choose their words carefully, delete redundancies, make vague words

more specific, and use subordinate clauses and phrases to rearrange their ideas for the easiness of reading.

A.II. 3.5. Sentence combining

One of the most effective methods for helping students achieve coherent paragraphs and essays is sentence fluency. In practicing sentence combining activities, students expand short sentences into fluid passages by using appropriate linkers and sentence connectors. Training learners well in these activities develops their skill of writing and refines their personal styles. Sentence combining helps students move away from the short, broken up simple sentences of beginning writers toward longer, more complex sentences. These activities can also help students learn to tighten up their sentences and to rearrange them to achieve different effects. Researchers of EFL writing skills like Strong (2001) advocate the use of sentence-combining activities to study the stylistic choices that professional writers make.

In a more practical way, the center for academic Success at the university of Birmingham proposes a detailed outline for students to achieve academic writing style. It consists of the following steps.

1-avoid some aspects of informal English

- do not! use contractions (eg it's, he'll, it'd etc): always use the full

form (it is/has, he will, it would/had).

- do not use colloquial language or slang (eg kid, a lot of/lots of, cool)

- always write as concisely as you can, with no irrelevant material or

“Waffle”.

- generally avoid "phrasal verbs" (e.g. get off, get away with, put in etc): instead, use one word equivalents.

- avoid common but vague words and phrases such as get, nice, thing.

Your writing needs to be more precise.

- avoid overuse of brackets; don't use exclamation marks or dashes; avoid direct questions; don't use “etc”.

- always use capital letters appropriately and never use the type of language used in texting!

2-structure your writing carefully

- make sure you write in complete sentences.

- divide your writing up into paragraphs .

- use connecting words and phrases to make your writing explicit and easy to follow .

- check your grammar and spelling carefully.

3-make your writing formal and impersonal

- avoid too much personal language (I, my, we etc). Some tutors prefer you to avoid it completely. Never use emotive language; be objective rather than subjective.
- avoid being too dogmatic and making sweeping generalizations. It is usually best to use some sort of “hedging” language and to qualify statements that you make.
- you should consistently use evidence from your source reading to back up what you are saying and reference this correctly.
- avoid sexist language, such as chairman, mankind. Don’t refer to “the doctor” as he; instead, make the subject plural and refer to them as *they*. Avoid he/she, herself/himself etc.
- use nominalization; that is, try to write noun-based phrases rather than verb-based ones.

For example, instead of: *Crime was increasing rapidly and the police were becoming concerned*, write: *The rapid increase in crime was causing concern among the police.*

4-hedging/avoiding commitment

In order to put some distance between what you’re writing and yourself as writer, to be cautious rather than assertive, you should:

- avoid overuse of first person pronouns (I, we, my, our)
- use impersonal subjects instead (It is believed that ..., it can be

argued that ...)

-use passive verbs to avoid stating the 'doer' eg: (Tests have been conducted)

-use verbs (often with it as subject) such as imagine, suggest, claim, suppose

-use 'attitudinal signals' such as apparently, arguably, ideally, strangely, unexpectedly.

These words allow you to hint at your attitude to something without using personal language.

-use verbs such as would, could, may, might which 'soften' what you're saying.

-use qualifying adverbs such as some, several, a minority of, a few, many to avoid making overgeneralizations.

In general, academic writing tends to be fairly dense, with relatively long sentences and wide use of subordinate clauses. Remember, however, that your main aim is clarity, so don't be too ambitious, particularly when you're starting to write

A.II. 4. Other elements of style

A.II. 4.1. Connotation

The connotation of a word refers to the special meaning, apart from its dictionary definition, that it may convey (Cristal 2005). Connotation especially depends on the audience and how readers deal with connotative meanings. While for instance a dictionary meaning of the word cow denotes an animal of the ruminants family, its connotations vary according to the different values each society attributes to it. In a particular Algerian context, the concept of cow may mean satire, while to some Indian ethnic groups it reveals divinity. It is up to the author to provide context to guide the reader's interpretation.

The use of connotation may involve selection of a word to convey more than its dictionary meaning, or substitution of another word that has a different interpretation of a meaning. Even synonyms have different connotations: slender, thin, skinny express sameness in conceptual meaning but may convey different images to the reader's mind. The writer should choose the connotation, positive, negative, or neutral, that supports the mood . (Kirk (1990)

A.II. 4. 2.Punctuation

Generally, there is no perfect way of distributing punctuation marks in written texts. Although standardized, punctuation is generally left to the writer's intended meaning and to his selected writing style. Conveying different messages with the same language forms requires arranging words in different strings which -in turn- requires employing divers parses that use punctuation symbols differently. However in the academic contexts and mainly in language classrooms , a number of punctuation marks still cause doubt and confusion to students, such as where to put a dash or hyphen or is it a comma to use or a semi-colon. Because of these uncertainties, most students failure in writing partly originate in their incapacities to set a musical and rhythmical mode to their sentences .

A.II. 4.3. clichés

Some figures of speech are phrases that briefly describe a complicated concept through connotation(Nancy (2011). However, some of these phrases are used so frequently that they have lost their novelty, sincerity, and perhaps even their meaning. They are referred to as clichés or also called stereotypes, and came to mean such a ready-made phrase. They are often drawn from everyday experience

Typically pejorative, most "clichés" are not always true. David and Nims (1999) quote Salvador Dalí's harsh judgement : "*The first man to compare the cheeks of a young woman to a rose was obviously a poet; the first to repeat it was possibly an idiot (Pp.126,127).*

Whether a given expression has fallen into this category is a matter of opinion. A reader who knows, or is a member of, the target audience may have a strong opinion that one or the other alternative seems better-written.

Conclusion

Different writing goals require different writing styles. The writer needs to decide whether the goal is to inform, persuade, or entertain, and will then adapt the right style to fit with the situation he is evolving in. For example, In fiction writing, the style is tailored in a way as to represent the author's personal expression of these events that comprise the plot and the setting mood. Full of symbolism and imagination, the style incites the reader to a non-literal emotional understanding of the subject. As students develop their skill for different styles, they can compare the styles of different authors in the same genre, examine how writers change their styles for different audiences, and consider which styles are most effective for different audiences, genres, and contexts.

A.III.Authentic Materials in EFL Classrooms

Introduction

This chapter aims to answer the questions of when and how authentic materials should be used in EFL classrooms, and how cultural content may be included in the curriculum. To address these questions, the chapter is organized in two sections. In the first, the definition of authentic materials is given and some advantages and disadvantages of the use of authentic materials are also discussed. In the second section, the definition of culture is given and then, why and how cultural content should be used is discussed.

A.III.1.Defining Authentic Materials

The definitions of authentic materials are slightly different in literature. What is common in these definitions is exposure to real language and its use in its own community. Richards (2001) defines it as 'appropriate' in terms of goals, objectives, learner needs and interest and 'natural' in terms of real life and meaningful communication (p. 467). While according to Harmer (1983), authentic texts (either written or spoken) are those which are designed for native speakers: they are real texts designed not for language students, but for the speakers of the language in question. (p.146)

Jordan (1997) who refers to authentic texts as texts that are not written for language teaching purposes, thinks that authentic material may still be a significant educational tool if it increases students' motivation for learning as it makes the learner exposed to the real language. Morrow's (1977) definition states that authentic material is a "a stretch of real language, produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and designed to carry a real message of some sort'.(P.13)

Richards, (2001) (cited in Kilckaya 2004) holds a similar opinion and goes further to attribute some advantages to using authentic materials. He believes that if appropriately conducted , authentic materials make learners feel that they are learning the 'real' language , and summarizes their usefulness in the following:

- They have a positive effect on learner motivation.
- They provide authentic cultural information.
- They provide exposure to real language.
- They relate more closely to learners ' needs.
- They support a more creative approach to teaching.

Broadly speaking, one can understand that authentic materials are real language; produced for the native speakers; designed without the teaching purposes. In this sense, Harmer(1983) says that there are large amounts of authentic materials in our life such as newspaper

and magazine articles, TV and radio broadcast, daily conversations, meetings, documents, speech, and films. One of the most useful materials is the Internet. Whereas newspapers and other materials date very quickly, the Internet is continuously updated, more visually stimulating as well as interactive.

A.III.2.Types of Authentic materials

If we want to introduce authentic materials in language teaching, we need to classify them first because some of them are suitable for the teaching of reading and some are effective when prepared for the teaching of listening and speaking. According to Gebhard (1996), authentic materials can be classified into three categories.

-Authentic Listening-Viewing Materials: TV commercials, quiz shows, cartoons, news clips, comedy shows, movies, professionally audio-taped short stories and novels, radio ads, songs, documentaries, and sales pitches.

-Authentic Visual Materials: slides, photographs, paintings, children' artwork, stick-figure drawings, wordless street signs, pictures from magazine, ink blots, postcard pictures, wordless picture books, stamps, and so on:

-Authentic Printed Materials: newspaper articles, movie advertisements, astrology columns, sports reports, obituary columns, advice columns, lyrics to songs, restaurant menus, street signs, cereal boxes, candy wrappers, tourist information brochures, university catalogs, telephone books, maps, TV guides, comic books, greeting cards, grocery coupons, pins with messages, and bus schedules(cited in Lingzhu and Zhang,2010).

In all their types, authentic materials report what people say in real life, what native speakers say when talking to each other, how do they use spontaneously their native language, what expressions are repeated and which ones are rare. In short, it is the natives' genuine use of their language.

A.II.3.The need for authentic materials.

One of the good reasons for learning a new language is to get closer to its speakers, to understand them better and take part in their lives. This is what Ma (2005) calls integrative motivation. For students who have this motivation, authentic materials are highly effective ways of bringing the target culture closer; this is as near to participation as they will get without actually living in the country. Continuous and well planned use of authentic materials make

foreign students live virtually in the foreign language country and take part in its social life. The content of the materials may help them very much; it drills them discover aspects in the language which are not usually explained in the language classroom and this keeps their interest in the foreign culture alive (Ma, 2005).

Being able to cope with an English train timetable, to tell if they have the right ticket, to know which notices are important and addressed to them and which are not, all these are vital to their communicative purpose. Authentic materials are even more relevant for students who have the aim of going to the foreign country itself. If they are to evolve in the foreign society, they will have to get accustomed to all the trivial reading items that they will encounter every day. So if the students actually need to be able to communicate and interact socially in the target language environment, authentic materials seem an essential preparation for their task. (Shenzhen, 2009).

Of course, not all language students are willing to visit the foreign language culture, and are not interactively motivated. A question seems worth asking here: why should we use authentic materials with them? The point here is that there is a more subtle reason of a rather different kind. According to Newmann and Wehlage

(1993), the more there is a relationship with the real world where students live, the more a lesson gains authenticity. In addition to that foreign language teachers know that language syllabuses are representations of the target language, its structure and its culture. Achieving native language use is the far reaching aim set in language teaching curricula, however, inauthentic learning contexts make students miss some aspects of the language authenticity. This point is well stated by (McGrath, 2002) in clear terms: “the less authentic the materials we use, the less preparation learners will make for that real world” (cited in Shenzhen, 2009).

In other words, there may be gaps in the best of teaching programmes because there is still so much we do not know about English or about language learning. The only way we can make sure that we are giving the students all they need to know is by giving them authentic materials Kilickaya (2011). Still according to this same author, these materials will automatically include any important structure or vocabulary we have ignored. So it seems that spoken or written texts by native speakers are a vital way of bridging the gaps, and introducing the student to a virtual visit in the foreign language and society while he is still sitting on his classroom chair.

A.II.3.1. authentic materials and the level issue

Prior to the question of what authentic material to use is the question of at which level of the language the material should be used. While many researchers see that teachers may introduce authentic materials at all levels of instruction, Guariento & Morley cited in Kilickaya (2011) claim that at advanced level, the use of authentic materials is most appropriate for the classroom. This might be attributed to the fact that at this level, most students master a wide range of vocabulary in the target language and all of the needed structures to use and comprehend the language. They also note that at lower levels, the use of authentic materials may cause students to feel de-motivated and frustrated since they lack many lexical items and structures used in the target language.

Martinez (2002) is of a different opinion: He believes that the use of authentic materials is a burden for the instructors teaching beginning students, as they have to spend a lot of time to prepare for authentic materials regarding the ability level of the students. Contrarily enough, Chavez (1988) argues that according to empirical research findings, learners enjoy dealing with authentic materials since they enable them to interact with the real language and its use. He concludes that learners need pedagogical support especially in listening situations and when reading literary texts such as the provision of a full range of cues of auditory and visual including written language.

Indeed, learners feel better with authentic materials helping them involve in the 'real' language as long as we, as teachers, provide them with pedagogical support. In order to achieve this, we have a wide range of choices.

Martinez (2002) who thinks that although authentic materials may be too culturally biased and too many structures are mixed, causing weak students a hard time decoding the texts, still suggests that teachers may benefit from the use of authentic materials particularly for the learners to listen for the general idea of the information presented. He further adds that by using authentic materials teachers will have enough motivational tools to encourage students to read for pleasure, especially outside the classroom, topics of their interest. Again, this same author quotes Matsuta (2004) who says that that using audio-visual materials to raise students' comprehension is beneficial since it introduces them to materials such as popular and traditional songs which will help teachers to create a much more familiar environment.

As earlier as (1997), Jordan suggested that in the EFL-classes earlier stages, authentic materials should be introduced. Madden (2007) joins this idea but specifies that authentic materials should be used in accordance with students' ability. Of course, suitable tasks can be given to learners in which total understanding is not important at these levels.

What is more targeted is that foreign language students would be introduced to language authentic earlier in their linguistic experience. Delaying such an exposure to advanced levels will likely prepare them less in gaining expertise in the foreign language.

A.II.4. Authentic materials and selection problems.

There are of course a number of factors to consider when selecting the authentic materials to be introduced into the classroom. The most important of all is the extent to which the material is motivating or that the exercises that can be done with them are motivating Abbs (1980). Road signs such as 'End of urban clearway' may say nothing to non-drivers, and even to drivers may yield little that can be done in the classroom. The same can be said on petrol pump signs or the notices in railway trains. But something like the train timetable or the ticket presents things that are relevant to the students' knowledge of the foreign culture or to their functional needs when visiting it. They may also be used for various types of simulation activities and information processing activities in the classroom. Abbs thinks that newspaper headlines and the articles beneath them may give more general interest; while graffiti, for instance, may give an insight into a more popular side of life.

Another criterion of equal importance to the previous one is that the selected materials should not be temporary. If they are so, there will be little point in using them. Either the teacher has to use texts, article, and tools which are as up-to-date as possible or which have a timeless quality about them. Moreover, the materials have to be organized in some specific ways to fit with the teaching objectives. There is little knowledge that students may gain from disconnected bits of authentic language that are not linked to other aspects of the teaching (Cheung (2001). In concrete language use situations, efficient ways to make this link is through functional themes such as shopping, banking, getting a job, eating out...etc. It is on these topics that learners will discover, through listening or reading, real language used authentically by its speakers. Most of the expressions and phrases employed by the natives are rarely among the academic foreign language teaching programs. The authentic materials should not be taken by teachers as the point of the course, but a way of achieving that point.

From another perspective, authentic materials have to be selected in terms of their language and content. There are many things a native speaker says but foreign language teachers do not wish to introduce in their classrooms. Sometimes this is a question of cultural values and moralities. Their argument is that students should

see this kind of authentic language unless they have to. Of course, a teacher can always select and introduce best examples of the foreign language which agree with the learner's general setting and overall background. It is more a fact of adapting language to situations than adopting a language of a situation.

A.III.5. Factors to consider in material selection

Lingzhu and Zhang (2010) investigated this issue in depth and came with the conclusion that in selecting the authentic material to be used, teachers need to bear the following questions in mind:

1. Is the critical vocabulary in the recording (words central to an understanding of a topic) likely to be familiar to the listener?
2. To what extent does the task rely upon the ability to decode the linguistic content?
3. To what extent can the task be achieved without a full understanding of the linguistic content?

According to their investigation, Drivens' (1981) opinion postulates that the level at which authentic material will be introduced seems to be a crucial factor in selecting the material itself. Widdowson has also explored this point and as reported by Johns (1994), he thinks that for each level, "the use of 'simplified' texts is often recommended as a way

of ensuring that the language is authentic in purpose yet within the learner's grasp"(p.294).Spoken language is too complex to be introduced in the classroom in the first stage of foreign language learning. It is full of abbreviations, contracted forms and informal everyday expressions that learners have never heard or read.It is later on advanced levels that most the factors of the spontaneously spoken language come into action (Ma ,2005). So, for the lower level learners, we should provide easier materials such as the short headline type reports, audio and radio advertising, or short news broadcasts or children's songs.

For the intermediate levels, there is a wider range of choices. News reports, the slightly adopted movies, or even whole TV programs can be included. Compared to beginner or intermediate level learners, advanced level students are supposed to have the ability of dealing with the potential ambiguities met in the authentic materials and overcome possible difficulties with their linguistic competence and general culture.Teachers, too,can simplify the students task by selecting topics of general interest of the time like choosing some political problems and scandals, sports events, family issues as the teaching materials. These materials are ought be neither too formal like ceremonial formulae and political speeches, or too informal like gossip and family

quarrels. Both extremes will cause considerable difficulties for foreign language learners. Two other factors should be mentioned here:

a. Learners' interest in the topic

In the case of teaching listening comprehension, for instance teachers have to create interest in the topic at a pre-listening stage and how familiar the topic is to the students (Lingzhu2010). Next to creating motivation and raising students' interest in the topic is also another important factor that teachers should taken into consideration when selecting authentic listening materials. Still in the view of this author, it is necessary that teachers know their students' likes and dislikes on listening materials and recommends that a form of pre-course survey be conducted to select what most learners' favorite topics converge to before selecting the materials. In practical steps he suggests that the teacher gives each student a like-dislike form and asks them to fill it, and then makes a summary of the survey. It is in this way, according to him, that the selected materials may be accepted by most of the students and successful listening teaching may achieve.

b. Cultural appropriateness

Culturally bound words and expressions should be examined by the teacher prior to material introduction. The teacher's knowledge and

awareness of the similarities and differences between the two language cultures(native and foreign) helps him to decide as to what cultural specific content should he consider to reduce its comprehensibility to the learners and what other cultural backgrounds can potentially cause cultural offence.

A.III.6. Introducing authentic materials in the language classroom.

Different researchers who investigated the implications of using authentic materials in the classroom conclude that authentic materials are indeed a valuable part of the teacher's useful stock, and can do something that other materials are not capable of. It goes without saying that teacher who utilize these materials should, inevitably, use them in small amounts and carefully select and control them. Authentic materials are not designed for teaching purposes and therefore need well-thought out teaching exercises to be fully exploited.

Davies (1978) thinks that one essential factor in teaching authentic materials is whether the activities one uses are natural or not. Natural means those that the native speakers themselves use for dealing with the materials. One important type of natural activity, here, is

using the information in the text for some reason. According to Widdowson (1978), many kinds of information processing exercise can be devised for the classrooms that use some natural activity.

Teachers may wish to consolidate the transition from real to unreal activities with various comprehension exercises. Students may be given headlines and be asked to try to explain what they mean. Obviously, they are unlikely to be totally right, but the teacher can accept anything that conveys the grammatical and lexical essentials of the headline. In most of the cases, these structures pose problems for students unless the teacher exploits the grammatical and lexical richness of the authentic materials by various comprehension and discussion techniques.

In other types of activities, authentic materials are advantageous to the students thanks to their varied range of styles (McKay, 2000). Indeed, in language teaching, we adopt a single model of the language which has little or no variation according to the learner who is being taught, the topic discussed, the setting in which the language is being used, and all the other factors in stylistic variation. Students eventually need to be encouraged to form habitual strategies to regulate their language in the same way that the native speaker do.

Getting the students to become aware of style by directing their attention to it is in the view of MacKay (2000) another valid type of exercise even if it seems to be unnatural. This can be the case, for instance, of instructions chart on the petrol pump. Here students are told where these instructions occur and informed that the kind of English used is typical of that found in public instructions. The classroom activity may require the students, for example, to respond to situations where authentic materials are changing one style into another. The teacher may ask the student to transfer this knowledge to a written production equivalent to the one they have seen; write down some headlines you might see in tomorrow's newspapers; write some instructions for working a coffee machine etc (Ma, 2005). Foreign language students have never written newspaper headlines or designed a railway ticket. So teachers are asked to be very careful with many types of authentic material in expecting the student to do more than understand the material, use it for information, and recognize what kind of language style is involved.

A.III.6.1. Authentic materials and language authenticity

The notion of authenticity has been much discussed by many researchers in this field. Marrow(1977) relates it to “a stretch of real language, produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and designed to carry a real message of some sort”(p.13) . Harmer (1983) says that authentic texts (either written or spoken) are those which are designed for native speakers: They are real text designed not for language students, but for the speakers of the language in question. Nunan (1989) thinks that the term is widely employed that any material which has not been specifically produced for the purposes of language teaching can also be considered as authentic. According to McDonough and Shaw (1993), authenticity can be described as the following: “ a term which loosely implies as close an approximation as possible to the world outside the classroom(cited in Shenzhen,2009).

Whatever definition of authentic material is taken, foreign language teachers believe that research in this field has gained considerable value of importance and states that the use of these materials with their authenticity can be helpful in assisting the teacher's role. The advantages of using these tools a teaching inputs has widely been explored by many researchers whose conclusions seem to agree

on some common conceived benefits of the effects of language authenticity on foreign language learners:

A.III.6. 1.1.Exposing students to the real language

Lingzhua & Yuanyuan (2010) compared authentic with inauthentic materials and concluded that authentic materials have the advantage of exposing students to the real language used in real life. According to these two authors, this can be seen clearly by looking at the different features of the two kinds of materials. These different features can be summarized mainly into four aspects.

1. Different redundant features

Generally, students when they speak they tend to say more than what appears to be necessary to convey a message, or to express an idea. This is what appears less when using authentic material. This is called redundancy, and according to Ur (1984), the features of redundancy are utterances which may take the form of repetitions, false starts, re-phrasings, self-corrections, elaborations, meaningless additions or fills such as *I mean or you know, well, err*. Because of the occurrence of these redundancies, the materials are often not well organized. Speakers tend to produce ungrammatical utterances, to change their minds in mid-sentence and start again. This is less

observed in written materials where the student reads a passage from a newspaper or a sports magazine. Written products are supposed to be complete and free of redundancy, compared to recorded speech. The following extract by Harmer and Ellsworth cited in Lingzhu and Yuanyuan (2010) is taken from the utterances of a pop singer may show many of the characteristics of redundancy:

“Yes, um, it, it, it’s very demanding, um, it’s probably like a, an executive job, um, where you can’t come home at a certain nine-to-five, you can’t spend a lot of your time with people around you, you feel detached because you know, it’s like, I, I... I don’t necessarily have a schedule, I might work weekends, um, but... I don’t actually mind, but it’s like your family, your boyfriend, or your husband, or whatever, they can’t go to see you, it’s like last night, I, er, it’s like I was suppose to be going out to dinner with the old friend, you know with some old friends, and, I ended, I was still at the studio, and I said, oh I should be finished around seven, and of course eleven o’clock came, and I was still at the studio, and everybody was raving mad, and I got there while the...everybody was getting ready to leave the restaurant... Things like that does happen, you know you can’t, you...you are not tied to that, and because of that sometimes you feel you can’t do things that other people, nine-to-five, can do. You might have a day off at Tuesday, and all your nine-to-five friends have got to get up to work, so they don’t necessarily want to go out on the town the way you might want to on a Saturday, and so you find that a lot of the

time, to fit into this you're fr...you, you change, and because their schedules all fit yours..."

(Harmer and Elsworth, 1989:75)

The redundancy forms occurring in the above extract are classified by Lingzhu and Yuanyuan as:

- Tautology: *you know*
- Hesitation (filled pauses and empty pauses): *um, er...*
- False starts: *while the ...everybody; you're fr...you, you change*
- Repetition or stutter: *it, it, it's; I, I, I...*
- Self-correction; *you can't, you...you are not tied to that*

A.III.6. 1. 2. Different grammatical features

In the academic contexts, inauthentic materials are often used . These materials are characterized by a high level of the standard language they employ, mainly because they are ought to be models that foreign language students should follow. The differences in grammar between authentic and inauthentic materials can be reflected in the differences between the spoken language and written language. Brown and Yule (1983, cited in Lingzhu and Yuanyuan,2010) summarize these as :

- a)- most speakers of English produce spoken language which is syntactically very much similar than the written language(e.g. few subordinate clauses);
- b)- speakers often use incomplete sentences;
- c)- the vocabulary of spoken language is usually much less specific than that of written language;
- d)- interactive expressions like *well*, *oh*, *uhuh* features are used in spoken language;
- e) information is packed very much less densely in spoken language than written language.

In the view of these authors, the vocabulary used in authentic listening materials is different from that used in the inauthentic listening ones. People who are in continuous contact with these materials can clearly notice the difference in the choice of items used by written and spoken language. While the former tends to use the general nouns and the verb and conjunctions, the latter uses more colloquial and everyday vocabulary as speakers generally pay less attention to the cohesions and sentence correct grammatical structures. Richard (1983) gives concrete examples here: “well **you** know, there

was **this** guy, and here **we** were talking about, you know, girls, and all **that** sort of **thing** ...and **here's** were what he says..." (p.226)

Zhang (2001) illustrates this using the two extracts A and B (below from He.1993) and says that through comparison the differences in grammar between spoken language and written or between the authentic listening material and the inauthentic listening material are clearly seen. Extract A is from an authentic interview while extract B is from a teaching textbook.

Extract A

-Interviewer: ... Mrs. Bradly, you and your husband smoke cigarettes I see.

What about cigars ...a pipe ... do your husband...?

-Mrs. Bradly: Oh he's never smoked a pipe. He's is the restless, nervy type. I always associate pipe-smoking with people of another kind...the calm contented type... As for cigars I suppose he never smokes more than one a year-after his Christmas dinner. Of course I only smoke cigarettes.

-Interviewer: Right. Now let's keep to you Mrs. Bradly. When and why –if that's not asking too much-did you begin to smoke? Can you remember?

-Mrs. Bradly: Yes... I remember well. I'm third-two now...so I must have been...er...yes...seventeen...when I had my first cigarette. It was at a party-you know- at that age you want to do everything your friends do. So when my boyfriend-not my husband-when he offered me a cigarette I accepted it. I remember feeling awfully grown-up about it. Then I started smoking...let's see now...just two or three a day... and I gradually increased.(source <http://www.hl.co.uk/.htm#top>):

Extract B :

“Nearly all the sports practiced nowadays are competitive. You play to win, and the game has little meaning unless you do your utmost to win. On the village green, where you pick up slides and no feeling of local patriotism involved, it’s possible to play simply for fun: but as soon as the question of prestige arises, as soon as you feel you and some larger unit will be disgraced if you lose, the most savage combative instincts are aroused. Anyone who has played even in school football match knows this. At the intermediate level, sport is frankly mimic warfare. But the significant thing is not the behavior of the players but attitude of the spectators: and, behind the spectators, of nations who work themselves into furies over these absurd contests, and seriously believe—at any rate for short periods—that running, jumping and kicking a ball are tests of national virtue”. (same source.)

The result of the comparison of the above two extracts is shown in table (3) below:

Table 3: Comparison between extracts.

Extract A	Extract B
-Language: informal (some of the ungrammatical features of spoken)	Language: formal
sentence: <i>What about cigars ...a pipe ... do your husband...?</i>	- sentence: <i>What about cigars ...a pipe ... do your husband...?</i>
-Interactive expressions: <i>you know; let’s see it now</i>	-Interactive expressions: <i>you know; let’s see it now</i>

A.III.6.1.3.Different stylistic features

The stylistic features that authentic materials convey result often from the sociolinguistic background and identities of native speakers. As these materials are not intentionally produced for academic purposes, they contain varied elements of natural and spontaneous spoken languages and which are different from one dialect area to another according to people of different identities. Again Zhang's (2010) following quotation of Harmer and Elsworth (1989) may serve as a good illustration here:

“the man you have to watch is the one who becomes quietly belligerent, and you sort of take him gently by the elbow to lead him to the door and the next thing you know is thump-you’ve been you’ve been landed one, and of course without warning you have to collect your senses pretty quickly before he lands you another one!” (P.75)

The varieties of real and spontaneous spoken language from this example shows that a number of language forms and expressions like the underlined ones, are unusual to foreigners. Certainly language forms and structures of this sort do not appear in an English course book. However, the inauthentic listening material that has the characteristics of written language does not change very often.

A.III.6.1.4. Different environmental features

In the case of listening, authentic materials have background noise while inauthentic listening materials have no background noise. Lingzhu (2011) quotes Ur (1984) who has already tackled this issue and stated that “noise” is the opposite of redundancy. Still according to him, noise occurs when the listener cannot receive or understand information because of other elements interference. In an informal conversation, the listener may ask for a more clarification through repetition to compensate for the missed word or expression which might be caused by a temporary lack of attention or by the listener’s incompetency to understand it. These situations are very rare in the case of inauthentic listening materials which are designed and in a way as to suit the levels of the foreign language learners.

As already discussed, authentic listening and reading materials reflect natural foreign language use which can bridge the gap between the learners and the actual social reality. Continuous exposure to a well selected and appropriately used authentic material will undoubtedly foster students’ constant reception of the authentic input, and thus, will make it easier to communicate with native speakers in real life.

A.III.7.Authentic material and Cultural Content

One of the polymorphous concepts that language teachers find difficult to define is culture. Indeed, to many people culture is often

associated to many aspects of the human life as art, traditions, identity, language ...and so on. To others, however, culture is no one of these in particular but affects them all in a positive way. Macionis et al (2010) describe culture as an integrated system of learned behavior patterns which are characteristic of the members of a given society and which are not a result of biological inheritance. They believe that distinctions are made between the so-called culture including all the physical artifacts created by a society and the intangibles such as language, customs, etc. that are the main referent of the term culture.

Westerhuis (2001, as cited in Klickaya, 2010), has defined culture in simple terms as: "... the customs, values, laws, technology, artifacts and art of a particular time or people (p.56). Culture in English language teaching materials has been subject to discussion for many years. McKay (2000) thinks that the reason for the use of cultural content in classroom is for the supposition that it will foster learner motivation. Learning theories suggest that culture can be used as an important element in language classrooms, but many students find no direct interest and motivation to learn about the culture of the target language. Misrepresenting cultures by reinforcing popular stereotypes may cause foreign language students to develop a fear of assimilation by what they perceive as something strange to them (Guest, 2002)

Cases of mis-use and inadequate presentation of a foreign culture may also lead students to develop a strong resistance to the new language they are in. In foreign language teaching, Krashen (1982), calls this “avoidance” and says that when it happens it can influence the learner’s acquisition /learning process as whole. Also, in the view of (McKay2000), presenting and introducing foreign cultures as global and static entities, rather than fluid and dynamic, might result in failure in making cultural content an effective element in language learning and teaching.

A.III.7.1.How should we deal with cultural content?

Learning about the culture of the target language speakers requires tools that assist language learners in negotiating meaning and understanding the communicative and cultural texts in which linguistic codes are used. Indeed, knowing a language goes beyond the knowledge of grammatical rules, vocabulary items and pronunciation of these items. Successful language learning requires language users to know that culture underlying language in order to get the meaning across. As Tseng (2002) suggests, culture effects change according to individual perceptions. He believes that these changes however are vital for expanding an individual's perspective of the world.

The issue of cultural content in foreign language education

was of crucial interest to many educational researchers. Shanahan (1997), for instance, states that cultural content provides exposure to living language that a foreign language student lacks, while Rost (2002) considers that culture is not something consisting of facts to be learnt, but a helpful tool to make learners feel the need to speak and use the target language.

It results from this that cultural content is a helpful instrument in teaching and learning foreign language. This is true as long as problems arising from introducing culture into EFL classroom are dealt with effectively and teaching strategies and learning materials are chosen appropriately.

A.III.7.2. Techniques for Cultural Content integration

Compared to decades ago, language teachers can now have quick access to any form of authentic material at any time. With the advent and advance in information technology, the world becomes more tele-united than ever. Almost all the printed materials are on the internet in electronic forms and we can easily search anything anytime. As a result, we do not lack cultural content to use in our classrooms. The problem does not lie in the shortage of the material that is culturally bound but, on the contrary, in its over-availability which poses difficulties in choice and adaptation.

In this respect, Kodotchigova (2002) discussed the role of role-play in teaching culture for classroom, suggesting quick steps for classroom implementation as a technique. Before that, Cullen and Sato (2000) have suggested information sources, activity-types and selling-points and believe that they are practical techniques and a wide range of sources for teaching culture in the EFL classroom using authentic material. Prior to all, Jordan (1997.p105) listed many sources of cultural information. In his words:

- Newspapers: these are a good source of cultural information: local papers will give more of a flavor of everyday life in towns.
- Video: a number of published ELT video tapes are a good visual source of cultural information. (Today, we have CD/DVD versions of these video tapes, which provide us with better quality.)
- Talks/discussions: some topics may be suitable for giving information to students in a plenary session. Teachers can exploit sound stories to develop students' vocabulary and their writing ability through different activities and tasks such as: writing a composition, based on sound effects, guessing what is happening and where the sounds take place. They can include a dialogue between two or three people talking about something in the place where the sounds are.

- Role play/dramatizations: these can be used to initiate discussion and introspection.
- Culture quizzes/tests.

A.II.8. Advantages of applying authentic materials

Lingzhu (2010) summarizes the most effective ways of using authentic materials in a language classroom in many points. Authentic materials have many advantages compared to inauthentic materials. However, it does not mean that by choosing and using appropriate authentic materials in listening, for example, teachers can really improve students listening ability always. The most important thing is what kinds of methods are adapted to utilize these materials. As for the question of utility, Lingzhu (2010) thinks that utilizing authentic material in a language classroom may result in a number of benefits that can be categorized as:

A.II.8.1. Foreign culture Integrating

Language and culture interact with each other and the understanding of one influences the understanding of the other. In teaching , we can find that authentic materials, often have much cultural content that is closely related to the knowledge of the foreign language culture,society,and economy.(Berado,2006). Teachers often remark that students with limited general culture of the foreign country, face

difficulties in their general comprehension due to the lack this kind of knowledge. When the materials are unfamiliar to them, or too culturally bound, learners feel unable in most of the cases to infer the authentic meaning even if there are no complex and new words in the materials. They do not understand the meaning in depth, because of the lack of cultural information.

(Lingzhu,2010) gives a good example to illustrate this:

-“The path to November is uphill all the way”.

This can be an example of sentence from a report. November literally means “the eleventh month of the year”. But here it refers to the presidential election to be held in November. Without teachers’ explanation, students are usually unable to understand the meaning implied by the author, for it addresses a category of people whose age and cultural awareness enable them decode the content of the word November. In order to solve the problems, teachers are suggested to pay attention to culture content in language teaching.

In teaching speaking also, the goal is to help students to understand the “real speech” to communicate in real life. Rost (2002) says that second language listeners must try their best to cope with “genuine speech” and “authentic listening situation”. That is, listeners

must be able to understand natural listening speech to meet their own needs as members of the English-speaking community. However, many learners complain that authentic listening situations are too complex to make them naturally evolve in the foreign language community. To reduce this effect, Mendolsohn (1994) advises language teachers to provide listeners with strategies training. One of these is a technique consisting of training listeners' ability of starting listening from the middle. Based on facts, he thinks that if students listen to a conversation from the middle, they are expected to adjust to the conversation while trying to focus on the general idea being discussed at the same time.

As a strategy, listening from the middle is based on the idea of Mendolsohn (1995) and other researchers. Mendolsohn reported that in practical ways, he helped his students hypothesize by listening to an audio recorder of the middle of a medical procedure – part of a larger discussing about inferences. The goal of such strategies, if well manipulated, is to train learners to form a habit of inferring and guessing from what they hear and get meanings of what they did not hear. They start listening in the middle of a conversation by quickly making inferences about the setting, mood, interpersonal relationships and the topic. Madden(1979) applied the same technique and used the

audio recordings from his course texts. To make the task easier for students, the activity was chunked into three stages: presenting, while-listening, and post-listening.

A.III.8.2. acquiring background knowledge

Before introducing authentic materials that are too culturally based, teachers are asked to introduce some background information that prepare students for better understanding. The learners need sometimes to know about the names of countries, places, people's names and any other new items appearing in the texts, and which students at early stages of foreign language learning still do not assimilate well. In the case of English, this may include notions on western societies, their life and customs (Cullen and Sato 2000). The possible way for the teacher is to ask students to search the relevant information in advance and then share what they have found with the whole class. In this way, students may feel it easier to deal with the authentic materials and take advantage of its use.

Idioms are also important knowledge that learners have to know in any foreign language. They constitute a characteristic feature of the foreign language cultural aspects but are generally difficult to understand when they are borrowed to other contexts. Teachers know

that it is usually the difference in the contexts that hinders learners understanding of idioms and think that there is little advantage in using them. Indeed, some English idioms mean much more than the literal meanings of the words they are said through. One way to make learners understand them is that the teacher should explain the idioms and ask students to accumulate them.

A.III.8.3. Encouraging students' self-learning

Teachers' time of talk in class is limited. Researchers in foreign language and culture teaching point to the role of teachers who should raise students' cultural awareness, and encourage them to learn the target culture by themselves. Students are supposed to have discussions on their interested topics with their group members and prepare a report for the whole class. In this way, they can accumulate their information and learn more. Lingzhu (2010) conducted a thorough investigation on this issue and came out with a teaching term plan of culture learning. The plan can be used by foreign language teachers to help the learners develop learning strategies in dealing with the target culture. It emphasizes students' self-learning and can be better employed using the following procedure:

1. Divide the whole class into four groups.

2. The teacher provides four topics for each group. Students are encouraged to make research and select their own topics. After this, they should hold a discussion with their group members on the found information and decide how and who will give the report.
3. On the “report day”, students hand back their teachers reports. Instead of reading the report, the teacher may ask them to retell what they have prepared. The rest of the students should regard this class as a listening practice and respond to it after the report.
4. When the reporter finishes, students can ask whatever questions related to the report. If the reporter cannot give the answers, his/her group members may intervene.

Still according to Lingzhu (2010), students may benefit in two ways if they carry on this plan. First, in the report section, it is the students who really make the listening session rather than being themselves listeners to a teacher or other sources. A learner-made lesson like this raises considerably the students motivation and eagerness to take part in the task. Every student is getting involved in this process. Second, in the preparing process, students may read quite an amount of cultural information, and deal with various authentic materials. Their knowledge on

culture will soon be enriched. Doing this regularly, they may find that the authentic materials are no longer so difficult as they used to be. Even more, they will have already experienced in near-real cases interactions with high degree of language authenticity.

Conclusion

Authentic material generally means all sorts of materials which involve language naturally occurring as communication in native-speaker contexts of use. It includes also those selected contexts where standard English is the norm: real newspaper reports, for example, real magazine articles, real advertisements, cooking recipes, horoscopes, etc. Although the use of authentic materials in an EFL classroom is sometimes subject to criticism on the ground that it often contains difficult language, unneeded vocabulary items and complex language structures, which causes a burden for the teacher in lower-level classes. Despite these true facts, we do still share most of the teachers throughout the world opinion that authentic texts or materials are beneficial to the language learning process. Perhaps, the question which is not yet fully answered is: When should authentic materials be introduced and how they should be used in an EFL?

Part B : Research Methodology

B-1-Choice of the method

The present work investigates the effectiveness of introducing authentic written texts to develop second year learners' writing style in English as a foreign language at Batna University. Through this investigation, we are intending to manipulate one independent variable (the use of authentic texts) to influence students' writing style (the dependent variable). Following our already stated hypotheses, the situation requires, on one hand, establishing the possible cause/effect relationship between these two variables. This factor alone suggests the use of the experimental approach as the main research method.

On the other hand, we need also to know opinions and attitudes of the learners involved in the research, and get access to their own evaluations of the actual situation of teaching/learning writing style mainly. Our own comments and analysis of the respondents opinions adds important dimensions to understand the problem better. We believe that this gives enough reason for including a descriptive method in the methodology followed for such an issue as this. Cases like these require investigating the issue through combining different research methods and explore the strength of both quantitative and qualitative needed data to attempt a sound solution to the problem. Being ourselves investigators and appliers of the research results, the

works falls onto the action research type. Through triangulation, possible relationships between the two types of data obtained will be examined. This allows the possibility of cross checking the collected information enabling us to see the extent of its consistency.

B.2.The population investigated and sampling

B.2.1. The population

Conducting an empirical investigation on 750 students, the entire population of second year students of English at Batna University , presents immense practical difficulties and renders our attempt no more than an ambition. Research theorists assert that sufficient data can be obtained through the study of a proportion of the population; that is, a sample.

B.2.2. The sample.

Out of the population of 750 second year students enrolled at the English department in Batna University, the experiment was conducted on 104 students composing the two groups. To all of these learners, English is a Foreign Language. These students come from different regions and belong to the same age group (19, 21). They are leaving the English department after one year, and based on their previous records available at the administration, it is to these students that writing still poses problems compared to speaking.

The sample consists of two groups (classes of 52 students) chosen randomly among all second year students: The experimental group which had experienced the innovative treatment (authentic material instruction) and the control group which had undergone the traditional treatment. The random choice is justified by two reasons: First students characteristics do not affect much the experiment as it consists of a new treatment to be examined. Second, the researcher himself is teacher of both groups in the grammar and linguistic modules. We have thought that this factor will facilitate a great deal of the research problems which generally result from access to respondents, availability and readiness of respondents, the appropriate setting of the experiment and so on. There are other sampling techniques suggested in this field like the systematic and stratified sampling. However, after having examined them, we recognized that random sampling would be the most appropriate in this specific investigation, given the reasons mentioned earlier.

The researcher obtained the consent of all students to participate in the study. They were all informed that the study was only for research purposes and any useful result would be better exploited to help them improve language learning. The participants were also informed that

they would carry out a number of tasks, but the number of tasks, the nature of the tasks, and dates for the tasks were not specified.

B.3.Data Gathering tools.

The nature of the problem investigated together with the use of combined methods urged us to use different data gathering tools in the two parts of the investigation: The experiment and the descriptive study. The data collection took place in the academic year 2011-2012 and the data consisted of students' answers to the questionnaire, class observations, student's portfolios and some data from informal interviews and discussions with teachers on the issue in general.

B.4.The experiment

B.4.1. The Pre-test

The pre-test is usually intended to test both groups before starting the treatment to make sure that the two groups are likely the same in terms of aptitude, initial level, language abilities and skills. Responding to the pretest can give us a clear idea about the two groups' actual level in writing and whether and to what extent the elements and characteristics of academic style are present in their performances. Since our major concern here was on writing, the test was tailored to focus more upon checking the knowledge of the students on the elements of style and to how do they employ them in composition.

Both of the two groups were required to complete the writing pretest that was administered during a regular scheduled session. Being ourselves teacher to these two groups, we found it easier to deal with all the phases of the experiment.

The subjects were asked to produce 15 -20 line essay describing a topic of general interests where all the students are brought to the same starting line of shared and general knowledge. The theme concerned life at university campus and the students (males and females) were asked to describe their daily life in the campus. In the mind of the researcher, the target elements of style were coherence, cohesion, and structure and word choice.

B.4.2.After the pretest

Throughout the experiment which lasted nearly a whole academic year 2011-2012 ,and in the light of the information needed, we designed courses for the experimental group that would meet two main conditions: First, the designed courses would be different from the ordinary ones in terms of themes, procedures and objectives. This is done through exposing students in grammar courses to inductive learning styles. Novelty here lies in introducing authentic written texts as input to present the grammatical structures to be taught.(see appendix3). The point is to see if students can learn, next to

grammatical structures, other language elements used by native writers and utilize them in areas that require academic written products. Knowing that authentic materials are not designed primarily for teaching purposes, our intention was to optimize the exploitation of these materials and make students in close contact with the native language forms, in the absence of the native language speakers.

Second, is to see later on what effects and results will be brought by the implementation of some teaching techniques related to authentic materials to raise students' awareness and also to motivate them to improve critical attitudes required for academic written achievements. In each new grammatical point, and after a brief warm-up to the topic, the teacher reads the passage to the class, pausing at appropriate points to explain vocabulary or to elaborate contexts and putting and extracting the structures to be emphasised. Given the form in which classrooms in the English department are managed, students can work only in pairs. We did not allow group work in such activities in order not to fall in a criticism that group work, in itself, may act as another independent variable. The investigator taught the target grammatical points to the class wishing that the students would achieve the following elements:

- global comprehension of the text

- inference of new grammatical structure
- acquisition of new vocabulary words; and
- awareness of stylistic elements and cultural contexts employed by the authors.

We acknowledge the immense difficulty encountered throughout the whole procedure. Nevertheless, we remain convinced that students may learn more than one discrete point through such a learning model. Given the diversity of the texts chosen for the experiment(appendix 2), together with the nature and the objective of the course, the main concern of the teacher was of course the grammatical points. The other acquired elements were only a plus that learners would utilise later in the modules that require longer written performances.

B.4.3.Progress tests

The experiment was chunked into four phases corresponding to the grammar syllabus distribution in terms of teaching points. By the end of each series of courses covering each phase of the experiment in terms of theme and topic selection, a progress test is administered in order to level up the students performances and to check again their

achievements from different sides: linguistic selections, communicative quality, and the use and acknowledgement of authentic resources.

Of course, as mentioned earlier, the progress tests are held in the course of linguistics, for two major reasons: First, the nature of the course allows activities requiring students to produce written texts compared to the course of grammar. The organization of the tests and their administration are planned and regulated so that to avoid any additional load on the students. Students are given these tests in forms of quizzes, part of the course activities and are asked to produce essays commenting, analyzing and discussing particular ideas in the curriculum of linguistics. In the mind of the researcher, the main aspects to be investigated through students' written achievements in terms of academic style are :cohesion, coherence, structure, and word choice. Investigating written performances will lead us also to assess both discrete point learning (that of grammatical structures) and possible gains in terms of authentic language use. Second, being ourselves teacher of linguistics to these same groups, we thought it more feasible to conduct the tests ourselves than conducting it through teachers of written expression and relying on their full collaboration. Our familiarity with the students helped us a lot in that respect and enabled us to minimize the bias and subjectivity.

There is no need to mention that the control group will continue to learn with the habitual technique; one in which learners receive grammar points through a deductive way of learning. The teacher presents new grammatical forms and structures through examples of thematically un-related and independent sentences making the students remark the structure and deduce the rule. We believe that the participants of the experimental group will benefit from the introduction of new thoughts and techniques of teaching grammar that will motivate them achieve better through the presented authentic language. Students in both groups are tested four times and each time the students' scores are compared to assess the extent of improvement.

B.4.4.The Posttest

By the end of the investigation a posttest is administered to both groups and scores are compared, the data is analyzed and interpretation is provided in the next part; (C). The students were instructed to write an essay of about 15 to 20 lines on a given topic. This was held by the end of the academic year and for consistency, the writing topic was limited to linguistics. They were instructed to critically evaluate the course content they have been throughout the whole year. The type of the writing style expected here was the argumentative and the aim was to evaluate the learners' fluency in writing.

The obtained data from all the tests with our attempt to interpret them objectively will provide useful substance for teaching the subject under investigation. The multi dimensional research investigation that we conducted and its specific method did not allow us to go through a longitudinal study for the simple reason that the students' lists are renewed yearly, and there is little chance to have the same learners in their respective groups after each year.

B.5.Academic Style Writing assessment (evaluation grid)

The following table is a sample of the evaluation grid employed by the researcher for data gathering during the pretest, the phases of the experiment, and the posttest. It shows the areas meant for analysis and interpretation in students' written production and focuses on the components of academic style as specified earlier. Table (4,p.11) provides more details on the criteria and the rates attributed to each element.

During the phases of the experiment, the four components of the dependent variable will be assessed and evaluated separately. The students' performances constituted a portfolio which served us to have continuous information of the way the treatment is being conducted. For the analysis convenience, students performances are graded between 1 to 5. Taken into account one element at a time .Then, the

whole essay will be given a final average mark ranging also from 1 to 5 as a final score as appears in Table 4. (p.118)

Table(4) Academic style writing assessment criteria(evaluation grid)

style Component	Evaluation (scale)	Significance and interpretation
Cohesion	Excellent 5	The text is very well tied together by linguistic devices
	Average 3	Acceptable with some strains
	poor 1	Sentences are not adequately linked together
Coherence		
	Excellent 5	The text follows a clear logical order and the organization of ideas is systematic
	Average 3	Acceptable with some strains
	Poor 1	The sentences do not convey one same message (content)
Word choice		
	Excellent 5	Appropriate word choice that communicates the idea
	Average 3	There are irrelevant words .
	Poor 1	Lot of poor content words
Grammar		
	Excellent 5	Excellent respect of grammar
	Average 3	Some errors (tenses, sentence forms,surface structure..)
	Poor 1	Serious problems in grammar

B.6.Data Analysis Procedure

Since part of the present research requires such qualitative data, statistics is a basic tool of measurement. The researcher who uses statistics is concerned with more than the manipulation of data, statistical methods goes back to fundamental purposes of analysis and since we are using a particular experimental study, the 't' Test of students analysis of variance for testing significance will be used as a statistical technique of data analysis.

The results obtained from the tests of both groups were compared and analyzed to determine whether students have approximately learnt something from the explicit instruction that is given and its helpful application in academic style and in writing in general.

B.7. the questionnaires

The questionnaires were anonymous and were, of course, not mailed. Being ourselves a teacher in the department under study enabled us to gather the respondents together and ask them to fill in the questionnaires. The advantages we had here are that first, our presence facilitated the respondents' tasks and also helped us to pinpoint and to eliminate ambiguous items contained in the questionnaire; the fact which saved us piloting it. The questionnaire contained seventeen

questions dealing with two main themes: Students evaluations of the way grammar lessons were held; and their reaction and opinions on teaching writing in a combined grammar-written expression course.

PART C. FIELD WORK

C.I. The experimental study.

Introduction

The present research deals with the experimental study conducted with students of second year English at Batna University in an attempt to put the issue under investigation on the field work. The study describes the use of authentic texts to develop learners academic writing style in English. The aim of the study is to see whether or not teachers can improve their learners' ability in writing even in courses like Grammar and linguistics which do not basically develop writing as a skill. If this is possible, we would have confirmed a hypothesis formulated different than the usual ones set for investigating writing issues, and which posit that writing skills can be developed only in written expression courses. The participants are evaluated to see to what extent our experiment would entail positive results in getting command of the elements of writing academic style. Certainly, the results of this innovative treatment are sought to formulate recommendations to be generalised onto the population exploited by the present study, thus indicating the limitations of our research.

C.I.1.Results of the Pretest

One important step to be taken by the researcher before launching the experiment is to look first into students' written performances and find out all elements that would construct a general picture of their initial level in writing academic style .To do that, we have to evaluate and analyze the elements of knowledge they possess concerning the topic under study, and see to what extent they can manifest it through writing. We have assessed this according to four elements that are repeatedly suggested in the available relevant literature as devices that ensure a good academic style. As shown in table (4,P.118),these are cohesion, coherence, word choice and structure(grammar). This is done before receiving the treatment and both experimental and control groups were assigned the same test.

C.I.1.a. Scores of both groups in the pretest.

As will be indicated in the tables, each student's performance was examined and assessed in isolation and according to the four elements of academic style. Then, the produced essays of both groups were carefully read and globally evaluated as one whole corpus. Taking into account the four criteria, the final grade assigned to each performance ranges from 1 for a very poor text to 5 for an excellent one.

Tabel 5: experimental group final scores in the pretest

Experimental group			
N	Pretest scores	N	Pretest scores
1	4	26	2
2	3	27	2
3	4	28	1
4	2	29	4
5	2	30	2
6	1	31	3
7	2	32	3
8	3	33	4
9	1	34	3
10	4	35	1
11	4	36	3
12	3	37	3
13	4	38	5
14	2	39	1
15	3	40	3
16	1	41	2
17	3	42	3
18	1	43	4
19	3	44	3
20	4	45	3
21	1	46	1
22	3	47	2
23	2	48	3
24	1	49	1
25	4	50	2
$\sum X_E$	129		
X_E	2.62		

N= number of the subjects **X**= the average of scores $\sum X$ = the sum of the scores

Table 6. Control group final scores in the pretest

Control group			
N	Pretest scores	N	Pretest scores
1	1	26	3
2	2	27	3
3	1	28	1
4	2	29	3
5	3	30	2
6	3	31	1
7	4	32	2
8	3	33	2
9	3	34	3
10	2	35	1
11	2	36	1
12	1	37	3
13	4	38	4
14	4	39	3
15	2	40	4
16	1	41	2
17	2	42	2
18	3	43	3
19	2	44	1
20	3	45	3
21	3	46	2
22	2	47	3
23	2	48	2
24	3	49	3
25	1	50	2
$\sum X_c$	118		
X_c	2.32		

Figures in both tables show that the students' scores are far from being excellent. Theoretically, the ideal score would be 5 for all the participants which would entail a general score of $\sum X_c = 250$ and $X_c = 5$ as an average score. Figures in the table show that the type of both

groups' writings does not obey to the stylistic framework planned by the researcher. The first impression one gets is that even the average expected score was not attained. The detailed evaluation of the students essays which involved the isolation and assessment of each of the four criteria reveal a clear weakness in assuring cohesive and coherence devices needed for the required writing style. These performances constitute the early data we gathered and will compose what we have called students' portfolios in the methodology part. According to these data, their respondents' major problem is not only in grammar but also in the other stylistic features including word choice as well. The scores of both groups obviously differ from criterion to another, but there are still cases where students obtained average scores.

The situation is not different, nor is it better for the control group. A comparison of the pretest sores indicates how close the two groups are in terms of general and average scores. The table below explains this better.

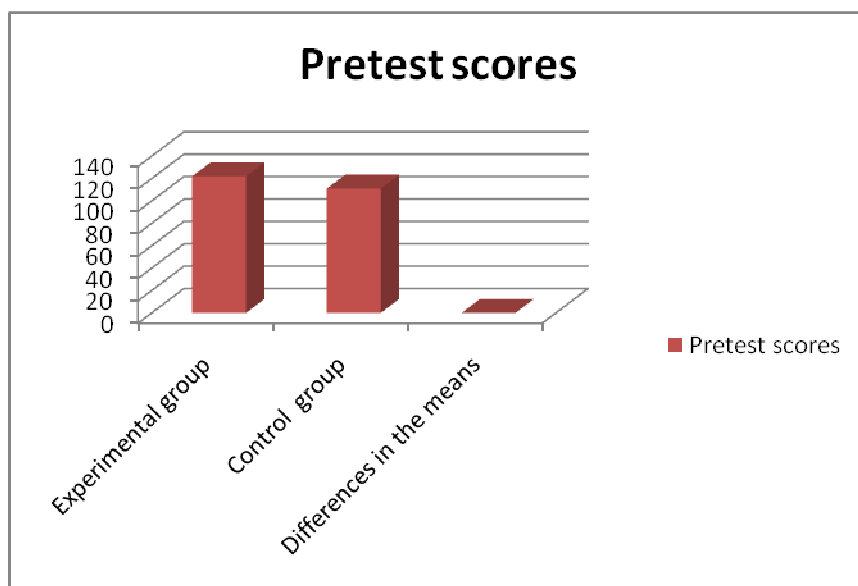
Table7: means of scores on the pretest for both groups

Groups	Pretest mean
Experimental group	2.62
Control group	2.32
Differences in the means	0.30

The pretest means of scores reveals that the experimental group recorded numerically a bit higher than the control group (the difference in the means is only **0.3**). Nevertheless, this insignificant over scoring put us in position to claim that at the starting point, the writing proficiency level is almost the same. Hence, if the experiment is well conducted and all the variables are examined and controlled, any further over scoring in the coming tests will be due to the experimental instructions.

The scores of both groups on the pretest are graphically represented as follows:

Figure 2: students' pretest scores



Interpreting the students' scores in the evaluation grid followed by the researcher indicates clearly that students' achievements were rated below the average. This holds true for both groups. This might

be attributed to their lack of experiencing and practicing writing through clearly set objectives as to what type of the writing styles was needed. This goes together with some students responses to item (09) in the questionnaire (section two) which asks students of the writing style taught and expected from them by their teachers.

C.I.2. Results of the Progress test N1

The participants in both groups went through a four-week period of learning, completing phase one of the experiment which ends the first part in the syllabus of grammar made of two chapters including two parts each. As mentioned formerly, the control group was taught in the conventional way lecturing. The experimental group, however, experienced new material. The strategies suggested for these learning sessions were four texts related to different aspects of the British and American life. (appendix2) extracted from different magazines and web sites. As learners are also supposed to target foreign language culture, these texts are used to serve as a teaching input and to direct the students' attention and help them remark the different language forms used by the authors. Next to explanation of the grammar point which is the major point targeted by the lesson, attention is drawn to the general understanding of the topic and to the way meaning is expressed through sentence linkage

and combinations. The intention here is to see whether students can recognize, in a second place, the texture and the stylistic building up of the text.

The first progress test consisted of asking the students to produce an essay on the following idea:

” Comparative philology was criticized for being less scientific as an approach to language study ,while most of most of modern linguistic theories stemmed out of its findings».

The test, next to being part of linguistic course activities, was intended to make students produce an argumentative essay where the idea contained in the quotation should be argued for and well defended. Of course, this can be achieved through a good organization of the essay taking into account its grammar, choice of the words, and unity of the message. The students achieved the following scores:

Table8.Experimental group Scores in progress test No 1

N	Coh.	Cohr	w. c	gr	N	Coh.	Cohr	w. c	gr
1	2	2	3	3	26	3	1	2	3
2	1	2	5	2	27	1	2	3	2
3	2	1	4	3	28	3	1	1	3
4	1	3	4	5	29	5	1	1	5
5	5	1	2	5	30	2	1	2	5
6	1	2	1	5	31	5	2	2	5
7	2	3	4	3	32	2	2	2	2
8	3	1	2	3	33	3	1	1	3
9	2	2	3	5	34	5	3	4	5
10	2	1	4	5	35	5	1	2	5
11	5	4	4	5	36	1	3	3	5
12	2	2	2	2	37	1	2	2	1
13	2	2	4	5	38	5	1	4	5
14	2	2	3	4	39	4	2	4	4
15	2	1	4	2	40	2	1	2	2
16	1	1	5	4	41	4	2	4	4
17	2	2	3	2	42	2	2	4	2
18	1	3	3	3	43	3	1	2	3
19	1	2	4	4	44	1	2	1	2
20	3	1	3	3	45	3	1	3	3
21	1	2	4	5	46	5	2	4	5
22	5	3	3	5	47	1	2	3	5
23	2	4	4	2	48	2	2	2	2
24	3	2	3	3	49	3	2	2	3
25	2	2	2	5	50	5	1	3	5

What attracts attention here is that the scores in grammar and word choice seem to be easily achieved by the participants in the experimental group whose writings were rated excellent or very good in terms of grammar. However, the number of students scores decrease in the other two areas pulling the grades to a low average

and the performances to be evaluated as weak or very poor. Exactly (76.25 %) of them still face problems in cohesion and more in coherence.

Table 9. Cntrol group scores in progress test No1.

N	Coh.	Coh r	w. c	gr	N	Co h.	Cohr	w. c	gr
1	2	2	1	1	26	2	1	2	5
2	1	2	1	2	27	1	1	5	2
3	3	1	1	3	28	2	2	1	3
4	3	1	3	4	29	1	3	4	5
5	2	3	2	5	30	5	1	2	5
6	1	2	1	4	31	1	2	3	3
7	2	2	2	2	32	2	3	4	3
8	3	1	1	3	33	3	1	4	3
9	1	1	3	5	34	2	2	3	5
10	2	2	1	2	35	2	3	4	4
11	1	3	3	5	36	5	1	3	5
12	1	2	2	1	37	2	2	2	2
13	2	1	3	4	38	2	1	4	5
14	2	2	4	4	39	2	2	5	4
15	2	1	2	2	40	2	1	4	5
16	2	2	4	4	41	1	2	3	4
17	2	2	3	2	42	2	1	3	2
18	3	1	2	3	43	1	2	1	3
19	1	2	1	2	44	1	1	4	4
20	2	1	3	3	45	3	1	3	3
21	3	1	2	4	46	1	2	4	5
22	1	2	3	5	47	5	3	3	5
23	1	1	2	2	48	2	1	2	2
24	3	1	4	3	49	3	2	3	3
25	1	3	3	5	50	2	2	4	5

Table 9 illustrates the differences in scores between the two groups at the level of academic writing style: cohesion ,coherence,

word choice and grammar .Considering the results in the figures below both groups are more or less similar with slight differences. What was striking is the failure to present a written piece well organized and expressed through genuine ideas respecting the genre and the style with obviously argumentative corresponding to the questions they were assigned.

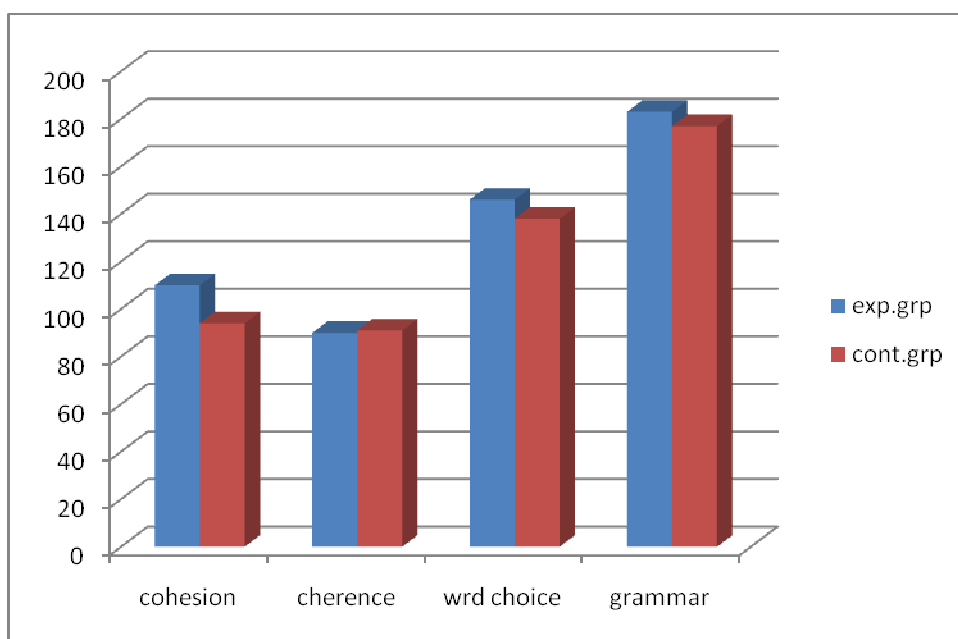
Table 10. Students scores in the first progress test.

Component→ Group ↓	cohesion		coherence		Word choice		grammar	
	Tot al sco re	Avera ge score	Tot al sco re	Averag e score	Tota l scor e	Aver age score	Tot al sco re	Avera ge score
Experiment al	132	2.62	90	1.8	146	2.92	183	3.66
Control	94	1.88	91	1.82	138	2.76	177	3.54

The results shown on this table supported by figure 3,(p.132) indicate the scores of the participants' in what constitutes the four criteria of the academic style suggested by the researcher. The learners' written productions are considered as means through which

we can deduce the participants' reflections, ability to produce cohesive, coherent paragraphs built of well chosen words and a suitable correct grammar. Given that the number of the participants is 50 and the ideal score is 5 for each element, the expected average score for each of the four elements should be 2.5

Figure3.Students scores in the first progress test



Numbers in that table do not show this. For the experimental group, the highest scored average is in grammar. It is true that it exceeds the average but still remains low especially when we know that the grammar point covered in that part deal mainly with simple phrases. Students in both groups are still facing hindrances in making well linked sentences and expressing their ideas fluently or even in organizing their thought in a logical stream. This is what their scores in

cohesion and coherence suggest where the scored average is far below the expected one.

Meanwhile, compared to the control group, figure(3,P.132) indicates a slight overscoring of the experimental group and shows the points of differences concerning the fourth element of analysis in academic style of writing

The data gathered along progress test n°1 revealed different elements of analysis that are important for investigating the scale of development in our experimental work through learners' scores .In conclusion, the data collected revealed the following main reality : the participants' average score in the choice of the words and in grammar are the highest ones in all the areas of assessment and are slightly higher among the experimental group participants than in the control group .Cohesion and coherence seem not to be well assimilated by the learners as important and essential components of writing. At this stage, it is too early to pronounce any verdict or make any judgment.

C.I.3.Progress test n°2

The second progress test was planned after another four- week learning phase (details about the content of the learning sessions and the texts used are shown in appendix (2). During these learning

sessions, the participants of the experimental group, as we have noted , started to recognize the usefulness of extra written documents than the books of grammar. According to them, the latter, as will be seen in item(13) of the questionnaire, are limited to a specific type of language often employing short and unrelated sentences. Certainly, it is not our intention to criticize or evaluate these books, but simply to state this as a matter of fact. Indeed, we have even witnessed cases where the students themselves recourse to authentic texts in grammar activities to produce sets of sentences as examples.

It is worth to mention here that the learners were directed towards some resources the teacher was using. To facilitate the task for the students, paragraphs and even whole articles sometimes are indicated in an attempt to train students on using resources whenever they are doing some academic activity. What we have to acknowledge here is the immense help that internet facilities provide.

Results of progress test No2

Both experimental and control group scores in the 2nd progress test are gathered in table11,(p.135). These scores are attributed to the participants' papers after reading and globally evaluating their writings.

Table 11. Experimental group scores in progress test No2.

N	Coh.	Coh r	w. c	gr	N	Co h.	Cohr	w. c	gr
1	2	1	2	2	26	1	1	4	5
2	3	4	2	4	27	5	2	2	4
3	4	3	3	3	28	4	1	3	4
4	1	3	3	4	29	2	3	4	5
5	2	2	5	5	30	2	1	5	5
6	2	4	3	4	31	1	2	4	4
7	4	2	4	5	32	4	5	2	3
8	3	3	2	3	33	3	1	3	3
9	4	3	1	5	34	3	2	4	5
10	2	5	4	2	35	1	1	2	5
11	2	1	4	4	36	4	4	5	3
12	2	2	2	2	37	2	2	1	4
13	4	3	5	3	38	4	2	4	5
14	3	1	4	4	39	3	2	4	4
15	2	2	5	2	40	1	2	2	5
16	4	1	4	4	41	5	1	4	4
17	4	2	5	2	42	3	2	2	4
18	2	3	3	3	43	3	5	3	3
19	4	1	4	4	44	4	2	2	5
20	4	3	3	3	45	3	1	3	3
21	3	4	5	4	46	3	2	4	5
22	3	1	2	5	47	3	3	4	5
23	2	2	2	2	48	4	4	5	5
24	2	3	3	3	49	3	2	3	3
25	3	3	5	2	50	2	1	5	5

As indicated in table11,47out of 50 students in the experimental group took part in the test. The data collected showed that the students' scores in this test are significantly different than those in the first test. The average score achieved by the participants now approaches the average expected. (2.39 / 2.50). The participants' lowest score remains

in the devices of the text unity and mainly in coherence .What is remarked is the small improvement made in achieving cohesion. In our view, this is mainly due to the students' concentration on grammatical devices used for linking sentences. Along with this phase of the experiment, grammar lessons targeted sentence and phrase structures where linkers are often stressed. Meanwhile, the students' performances in terms of content words ranged from 'average' to 'good' exceeding the average expected.

This situation is not similar to the control group. Table(12,P.137) illustrates this.

Table 12. Control group scores in progress test No2.

N	Coh.	Coh r	w. c	gr	N	Co h.	Cohr	w. c	gr
1	2	2	3	5	26	1	2	2	2
2	2	4	1	4	27	2	2	1	2
3	1	1	2	4	28	1	3	3	3
4	3	1	2	5	29	1	3	5	4
5	1	1	1	5	30	1	1	5	5
6	2	2	1	4	31	2	2	1	4
7	3	2	2	3	32	2	3	2	5
8	1	1	3	3	33	1	1	3	3
9	2	1	2	5	34	3	2	2	5
10	1	1	2	5	35	1	1	2	2
11	4	2	5	3	36	3	2	3	2
12	2	2	2	2	37	2	2	3	3
13	2	2	5	5	38	1	3	2	3
14	2	2	2	4	39	2	2	2	4
15	1	1	2	5	40	1	1	2	2
16	1	2	5	4	41	2	1	1	4
17	2	2	2	4	42	2	2	2	2
18	3	4	1	3	43	1	3	1	3
19	2	2	1	5	44	2	2	1	4
20	1	1	3	3	45	1	1	4	3
21	2	2	1	5	46	2	2	1	4
22	3	2	2	5	47	2	3	1	5
23	4	1	2	5	48	2	1	2	2
24	2	2	3	3	49	2	2	3	3
25	2	2	2	5	50	1	2	5	2

Compared to the control group, the data collected is in favour of the experimental group. Despite the slight progress observed in grammar mainly, the control group participants average score in terms of written productions is still low. It even seems that some participants' achievements regressed in attaining stylistic devices. The learners'

written productions reveal that the students are still facing hindrances in making reflections and expressing their ideas fluently or even organizing their written work. Table(13) below, supported by figure (04,P.139) illustrate the scores and the achievements of both groups.

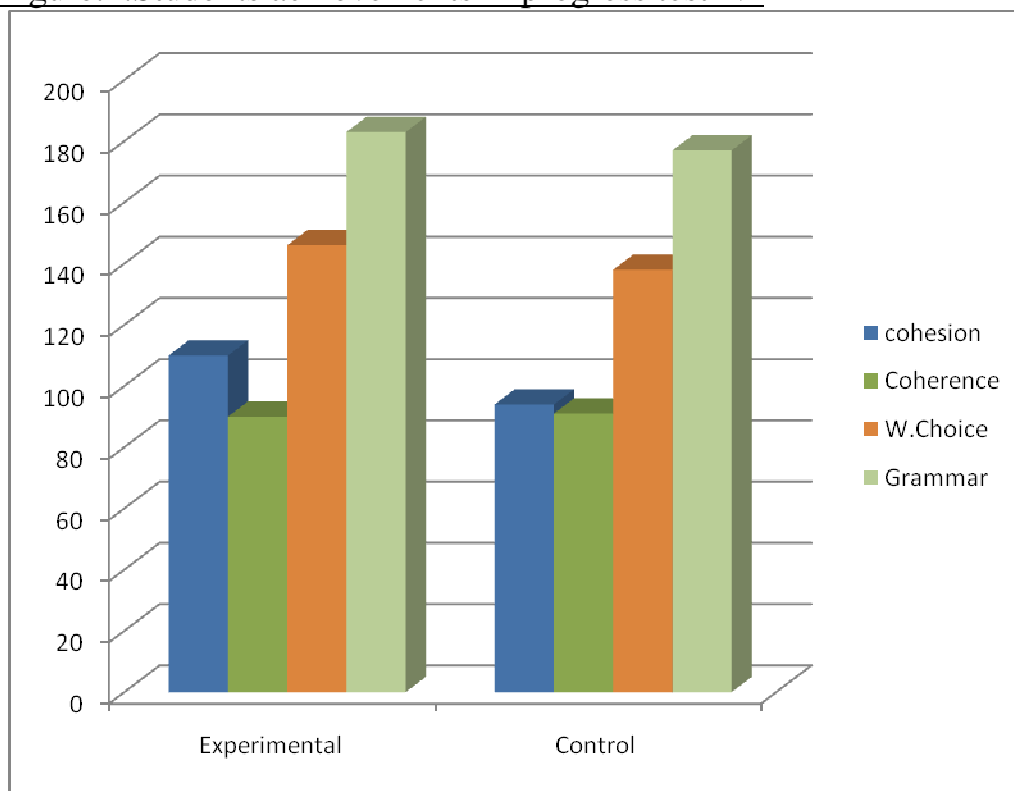
Table 13. Students scores in progress test N02

	cohesion		coherence		Word choice		grammar	
	Tot al sco re	Av. score	Tot al sco re	Av. score	Tota l scor e	Av. score	Total score	Av. score
Componen t Group ↓								
Experime ntal	144	2.39	121	1.8	171	2.92	190	3.66
Control	93	1.88	92	1.82	138	2.76	185	3.54

A short glance at the results shows that the extent of differences is in favour of the experimental group participants. This is especially the case in coherence where the scores of the experimental group are noticeably higher. In grammar and word choice, both groups seem to stand on the same level with a slight advance for the experimental

group. In a more concrete picture, the situation is better represented through the following figure

Figure.4. Students achievements in progress test N2



The data shown in this figure can be briefly summarized: in progress related to grammar, both groups significantly scored higher than previously. The same thing can be said on the choice of the words. Linguistic assessment of their papers show that learners succeeded in making accepted selections of words to develop their ideas and arguments. They have been positively rated at the level of communicative quality in terms of content words and correct use of tenses and grammar in general.

The scores of the experimental group, however, seem to increase in cohesion and coherence, compared to the control group. Through the texts used, it seems that students pay more attention to how they write. If the scores achieved in coherence are higher, this is mainly due to the first effects that authentic material utilized in grammar lessons which have relatively served the students in some sorts of ways. Probably, their involvement in the experiment or the teaching techniques implemented and the learning strategies they were using had impacted their scores. One important factor to consider is that despite the amount of daily studies and homework they have to achieve with their teachers of writing, these students have reported in item (14) in the questionnaire that the stylistic elements targeted by this study are not dealt with in written expression sessions.

C.I.4. Progress test No3

Obviously, an important part of the investigation is to look deeply into students' written performances and examine their achievements to find out all that would indicate signs of improvements. One attempt was to investigate the students' ability to analyze the elements of knowledge they gained through being exposed to authentic material during the learning sessions, and to what extent they were able to reconsider and adapt them

appropriately to the task of producing accepted academic written styles. Another element of the same importance in academic writing that reflects student's progress is the ability to make a synthesis of the different elements of knowledge required to build up logical thinking while communicating ideas in a formal written work. This was also investigated by the researcher during all the phases of the experiment.

As it is indicated in the previous tables and figures, the general impression up to now is that most of the students –especially in the control group- have failed to make appropriate analysis and effective synthesis or even to show an adequate reasoning through written performances. It may be attributed to the lack of experience or may also be due to their unawareness of the usefulness of authentic written materials that treat diverse thematic issues.

We started to notice significant changes in terms of improvements in students' performances by the end of the third phase of the experiment which was ended by progress test No3. Considerable change is observed among the experimental group scores in the four areas of evaluation that constitutes the stylistic framework meant by the study. In terms of numbers, tables 14,(P.142) and table 15,(P.144) illustrate clearly the situation.

Table14.Experimental group scores in progress test No3.

N	Coh.	Coh r	w. c	gr	N	Co h.	Cohr	w. c	gr
1	2	2	3	5	26	2	3	5	3
2	2	2	2	5	27	2	2	5	2
3	3	3	4	4	28	3	3	4	4
4	2	1	4	5	29	1	2	5	4
5	5	4	5	4	30	2	3	3	5
6	2	1	4	4	31	2	2	3	4
7	2	4	5	3	32	4	2	3	5
8	5	5	3	4	33	5	5	4	4
9	4	4	4	5	34	1	4	5	4
10	2	1	3	5	35	1	3	5	3
11	5	5	3	3	36	5	5	3	3
12	1	3	3	5	37	2	2	5	4
13	5	5	3	5	38	5	5	5	3
14	1	4	4	4	39	4	1	4	4
15	2	5	5	5	40	5	2	5	5
16	4	4	4	4	41	4	4	4	4
17	2	5	2	4	42	5	2	4	2
18	3	4	3	3	43	1	4	3	4
19	2	4	5	4	44	4	2	4	5
20	1	5	3	3	45	3	5	3	3
21	5	5	4	5	46	5	5	5	4
22	5	2	5	5	47	2	5	5	5
23	3	2	4	5	48	2	1	5	4
24	1	1	3	3	49	1	2	3	3
25	5	5	3	5	50	5	5	5	3

Considering Academic writing, as we are moving towards the end of the experiment, nearly half of the participants in the experimental group have well or adequately managed to present some written productions that meet the requirements of such type of writing. It seems evident, regarding the scores, that the majority of learners have made progress needed to present written works considering thematic

and topical organization. What is encouraging here is that eleven students have been assigned the grade 5 in coherence and cohesion, and their works were evaluated as excellent. Their achievements can be explained by the adequate strategies which they have developed along through the learning sessions. In the writings of these students, appear new words and expressions often met in the writings of natives. Our profession as language teachers supported by our practice and experience in the classroom allow us to detect instances and areas where effective learning takes place. What confirms our assumption is the qualitative move these students have made in this test compared to their scores in the pretest and progress test No1.

Unfortunately, this is not the case of all the students. Scores of the control group participants indicate a different reality and suggest that students still need to learn much. A glance at their scores lets the reader assume that very little or no change at all takes place as long as times goes on, and that the remarkable advance these learners make concerns grammar again. Generally, like in the progress test N2, little can be said about their scores in this test. Even worse, there are cases of respondents whose scores regressed in the four criteria of evaluation. Being teacher of these students, we could interpret this regression and relate it to the absence they have accumulated during the learning

sessions. Fortunately they are only three. Given their small number, we have considered them simply as exceptions. It is through table 15, below that the control group scores are better displayed.

Table 15. Control group scores in progress test No3.

N	Coh.	Coh r	w. c	gr	N	Co h.	Cohr	w. c	gr
1	3	3	2	4	26	3	4	2	4
2	2	1	5	3	27	4	2	3	3
3	3	2	2	4	28	1	3	1	4
4	2	4	5	5	29	1	2	4	4
5	1	2	3	3	30	2	2	1	2
6	2	1	3	5	31	2	2	4	4
7	3	2	2	3	32	2	3	5	5
8	1	1	4	4	33	1	1	3	3
9	2	2	5	5	34	1	2	4	2
10	1	2	5	2	35	1	3	3	3
11	2	2	2	5	36	2	2	3	3
12	2	1	5	5	37	2	2	3	3
13	3	1	2	5	38	2	2	2	4
14	2	2	2	4	39	2	1	4	2
15	1	2	5	4	40	1	1	4	5
16	1	2	4	4	41	2	3	4	4
17	2	2	4	5	42	2	2	2	4
18	3	2	3	3	43	3	1	3	3
19	2	2	4	4	44	2	2	4	5
20	1	1	3	5	45	1	1	3	5
21	2	1	2	5	46	2	2	4	4
22	3	2	5	3	47	2	2	4	5
23	1	1	5	5	48	1	1	4	4
24	2	1	3	3	49	2	3	3	3
25	2	2	2	5	50	2	2	2	3

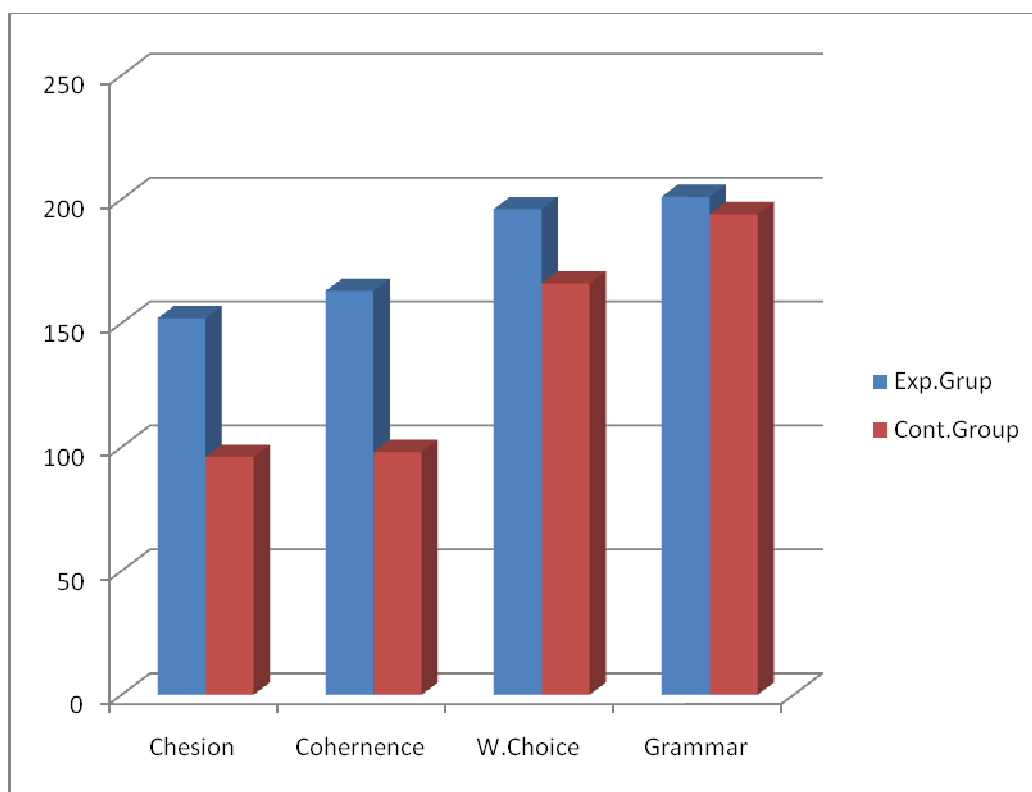
Table 15 includes sufficient data that best describe learner's achievements through scores and provide any reader with sufficient detailed information on participants' progress.

Statically, to visualize the difference between the scores of both groups in response to progress test No3, a better picture can be drawn from the following table and figure.

Table16. The two groups scores in progress test No3

	cohesion		coherence		Word choice		grammar	
	Tot al sco re	Avera ge score	Tot al sco re	Avera ge score	Tot al sco re	Avera ge score	Tot al sco re	Avera ge score
Compon ent Group ↓								
Experi mental	152	3,04	163	3,26	196	3,92	201	4.02
Control	96	1,92	98	1,96	166	3,32	194	3,88

Figure5. Scores of both groups in progress test 3



We can notice that for the experimental group, the scored numbers are in increase especially for cohesion and coherence. It is important to consider such qualitative change in our students performances. Linguistically, this is explained in terms of positive learning that these students have achieved in these two major components of academic style. Knowing that no formal instruction was given as to the explicit teaching of style and that no direct training was provided by the teacher researcher, any positive move observed in the learners' results can only be related to positive influence entailed by the use of authentic texts in a course that does not directly address writing as a skill.

In our view, this achievement is attributed to two factors. On the one hand, the learning sessions during the phases of the experiment were motivating as they differed from the ordinary routine ones in which grammar sessions are held. On the other hand; probably, writing seems to be now an activity appreciated by the students who find through authentic sources models and better guides to assist them translate their thoughts into written words.

Throughout the three tests, it is clear that students in the experimental group did not raise their level of achievements until they reached the third progress test. They seem to be now engaged and really involved within the experimental work, especially when we know that they were not informed that their performances in these tests were meant for action research purposes.

C.I.5.Progress test No4

It is mainly the fourth progress tests scores that show clearly the significant difference in students' performances concerning the elements of the academic writing style. The ability to manipulate language in terms of organization and style is manifested by the experimental group by the end of the fourth phase. Along the last learning sessions, the continuous exposure to authentic written texts of diverse contents, added to debates with the teacher and peers, did

highly influence the participants' abilities to gain positive scores by the end of the study. Dealing with extra material was unfamiliar to participants during the early stages of the research where we had to direct their attention to the use of resources all the time. We have to remind the reader that such a skill in writing is not so easy to teach and it needs a very long time to be acquired by the learner. Perhaps, one might argue that not all the positive scores that the participants gained are solely due to our experiment, but the fact remains that when compared to the control group results , these students have certainly been positively influenced by the experiment and have surely gained a great deal of knowledge that pushed the ratio in scores to increase. This is what table 17,(P149) shows in clear numbers.

Table 17. Experimental group scores in progress test No4.

N	Coh.	Coh r	w. c	G r	N	Co h.	Cohr	w. c	Gr
1	3	5	5	4	26	4	5	4	4
2	5	5	5	5	27	5	5	5	5
3	4	4	4	4	28	4	4	4	5
4	5	5	5	4	29	4	5	5	5
5	3	4	5	5	30	5	5	3	5
6	5	4	5	4	31	4	4	5	5
7	3	5	5	5	32	5	5	4	3
8	4	4	4	5	33	4	5	4	4
9	2	5	5	5	34	4	4	5	4
10	5	5	5	3	35	3	5	5	5
11	4	5	4	4	36	4	4	4	4
12	5	5	3	5	37	3	5	5	5
13	5	5	4	4	38	4	5	5	5
14	4	4	4	5	39	4	4	4	4
15	5	5	5	5	40	5	5	5	5
16	3	5	4	5	41	3	5	5	3
17	4	5	2	5	42	2	5	4	4
18	4	5	3	3	43	3	4	4	5
19	4	4	5	5	44	5	5	5	5
20	3	5	4	4	45	4	5	3	3
21	5	5	4	5	46	4	4	5	5
22	5	5	4	4	47	4	5	5	4
23	5	5	5	5	48	5	4	5	4
24	4	3	4	5	49	4	5	5	5
25	5	5	5	4	50	4	5	5	4

Undoubtedly, the core point of analysis related to the data collected along this test is the exposition and development of ideas in an academic writing. As mentioned formerly, whether at the level of grammar and word choice or within the text unity achieved through cohesion and coherence, students in this group have overscored their

peers in the control group. What numbers show support what the researcher advocates. Pedagogically speaking, the objectives set in any English learning department is to develop linguistic abilities that lead to communicative qualities in the learners oral and written performances. In the total absence of natives, a simple exposure to their authentic writings is better than nothing.

Considering the detailed information in table 17, one can easily deduce the positive qualitative shift in the students writings along the succession of the progress tests. Although it is not similar to all the participants, but the occurrence of such improvement shows the extent to which all integrated elements of academic style have brought considerable achievement by the end of this study.

Table 18. Control group scores in progress test No4.

N	Coh.	Coh r	w. c	gr	N	Co h.	Cohr	w. c	gr
1	3	4	4	4	26	4	3	3	5
2	4	2	5	3	27	2	2	3	3
3	1	3	2	5	28	4	2	1	4
4	1	2	5	3	29	2	4	4	4
5	3	2	5	2	30	1	2	3	5
6	2	2	3	4	31	2	2	4	5
7	2	3	5	5	32	3	2	5	3
8	1	2	4	3	33	2	2	3	4
9	2	2	5	2	34	2	2	4	5
10	1	3	5	4	35	1	2	3	1
11	2	2	2	3	36	2	2	3	5
12	2	2	5	4	37	2	1	4	5
13	2	2	2	3	38	3	2	2	5
14	2	2	3	2	39	2	2	4	4
15	1	1	5	5	40	1	2	4	4
16	2	3	4	4	41	1	1	4	4
17	2	2	4	4	42	2	2	2	5
18	3	1	3	3	43	3	1	3	3
19	2	2	4	5	44	2	2	4	4
20	1	1	3	5	45	2	2	3	5
21	2	2	2	4	46	2	2	4	5
22	2	2	5	5	47	3	2	4	3
23	1	1	5	4	48	1	1	4	5
24	2	2	3	3	49	2	2	3	3
25	2	2	2	3	50	2	2	2	5

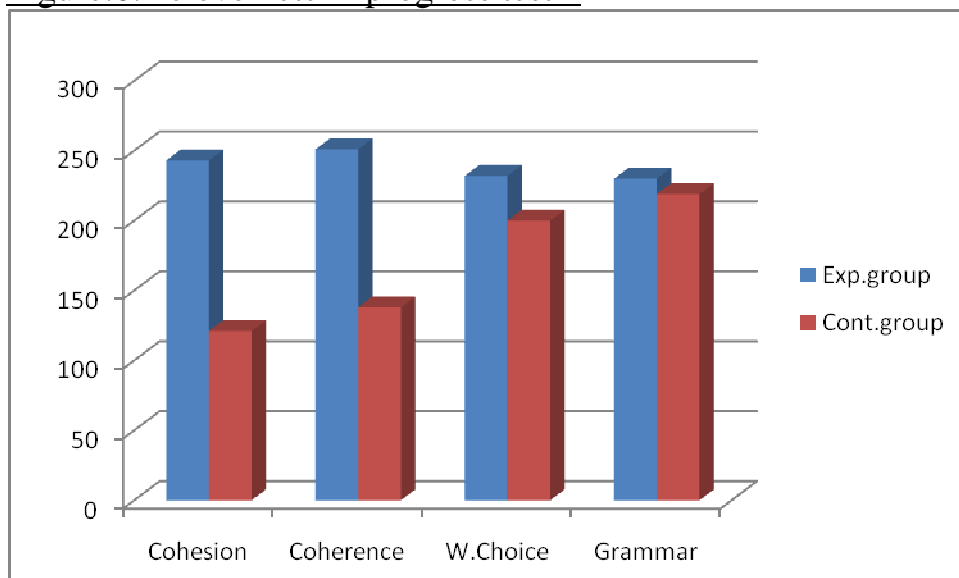
To the control group, things did not change significantly from the previous test. Except some individual improvements in text unity, the general obtained scores indicated in table (18) do not say much. It is beyond the researcher's means to make all learners of English at the

university level good academic writers. Students' linguistic competence and performance are always subjected to certain hindrances that are beyond the researcher's control. A simple numerical comparison between these two groups scores is shown in table 19 supported by figure 6,(P.153)

Table19.The two groups scores in progress test No4

	cohesion		coherence		Word choice		grammar	
Component Group ↓	Total score	Average score	Total score	Average score	Total score	Average score	Total score	Average score
Experimental	204		234		221		222	
Control	101		106		178		200	

Figure.6.Achievements in progress test 4



C.I.6.The Post Test

After completing the four phases of the experiment and ending the teaching/learning sessions, the participants in both groups are given a final test. The posttest consisted of the same type of the writing task used in the pretest to see, through comparison of students products, the effects of the instruction that took place within the experimental group. The test consisted of the question: *“How do you describe chronologically the improvement in your linguistics knowledge throughout the whole year?”* What we were expecting them to do was to recall their gained knowledge in linguistics and report it in a narrative style. To us, this test would serve in two ways: first, it is considered as final quiz in the course of linguistics and, second, it gathers data

required for the ongoing experiment. The students' final scores and their comparison are reported in the following table

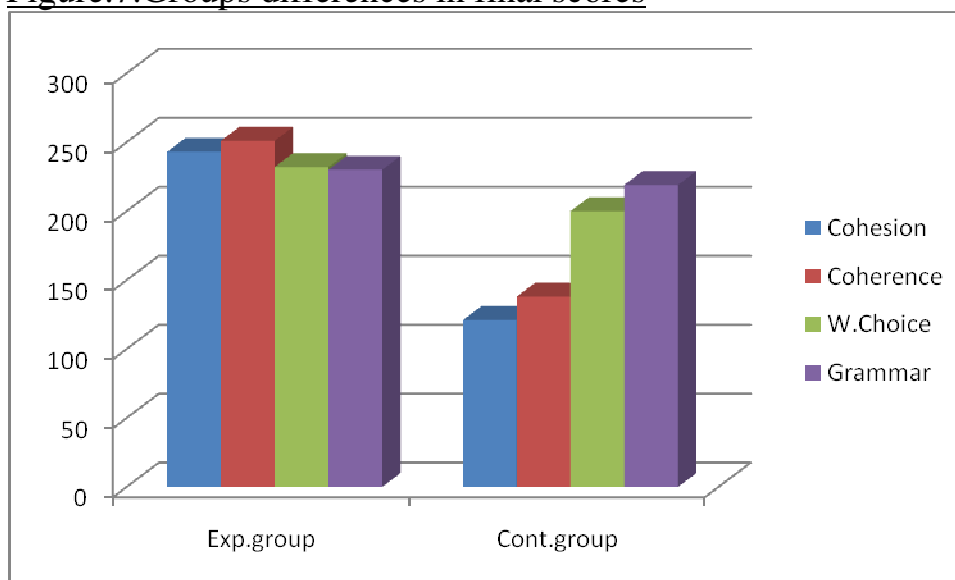
Table 20. Students final scores in the posttest

Students scores in the posttest							
Experimental group				Control group			
N	Av.Sc	N	Av.Sc	N	Av.Sc	N	Av.Sc
1	5	26	5	1	3	26	3
2	4	27	5	2	2	27	3
3	5	28	5	3	1	28	3
4	4	29	5	4	3	29	5
5	5	30	5	5	3	30	2
6	4	31	4	6	3	31	3
7	5	32	5	7	4	32	4
8	5	33	5	8	5	33	2
9	5	34	5	9	3	34	3
10	5	35	5	10	1	35	4
11	4	36	4	11	3	36	2
12	5	37	5	12	3	37	3
13	4	38	4	13	5	38	4
14	5	39	5	14	3	39	2
15	5	40	4	15	3	40	4
16	5	41	5	16	3	41	3
17	5	42	4	17	2	42	4
18	4	43	5	18	3	43	3
19	5	44	5	19	1	44	3
20	5	45	5	20	3	45	3
21	5	46	5	21	4	46	2
22	5	47	5	22	5	47	3
23	5	48	5	23	2	48	1
24	5	49	5	24	1	49	2
25	5	50	5	25	5	50	2
ΣX_e	239	ΣX_c	146				
X_e	4.78	X_c	2.91				

		cohesion		coherence		Word choice		grammar	
Component →		Total score	Average score	Total score	Average score	Total score	Average score	Total score	Average score
Group ↓									
Experimental		243	4,86	251	5,02	232	6,64	230	4,60
Control		121	2,42	138	2,76	200	4,00	219	4,38

Table.21.Comparison between final scores

Figure.7.Groups differences in final scores



It goes without saying the experimental group scores are fairly higher than those of the control group. This is a clear indication that the experiment we have conducted went through the expected path, and that the results would confirm considerable change in the learners level.

As figure 7 suggests, cohesion and coherence do not pose the same amount of problems to the experimental group as they used to do

at the beginning of the investigation. Statistically, the experimental group scored average (3.11) in the four elements of assessment exceeded the expected average of (2.5). For the researcher, this means that the increase in the student's level of achieving academic writing style (set as a dependent variable) is influenced by the use of authentic written texts (set as independent variable). It might seem early to make such a conclusive statement before the necessary calculations are made. As it is the case in quantitative research, findings should be interpreted statistically in ways that leave little room for misinterpretations.

We have to remind the reader that we have gathered all the students' written products and made up a portfolio of their performances. A continuous comparison of the participants' written performance have unveiled quite remarkable data that enabled us to make some inferences on the progress remarked in achieving necessary key elements of learning how to write in an academic style. The experimental group participants' might have been affected by other factors that are external, such as the written expression lessons and activities, but it would not have been to the point that affects the work under investigation. The results of the control group participants did not vary much to make proof of the impact of those external factors.

According to these data, it is quite clear that a very important improvement occurred in students' achievements after these four phases of the study. Fortunately, few cases of student's strikes at the university in general were not that high to impact the scores.

Data obtained through all the tests show the limitation of concluding things with total success. Nevertheless, partial success is always a good sign especially when it is continuous. The data collected since the pretest and following a portfolios analysis has clearly shown to us that certain learners could not go beyond their habitual level. Indeed, some of them even failed to better their achievements during the posttest and present something that might be rated at least "*average*" despite the very long experiment they went through. Meanwhile the global ratio of success in achieving academic writing style has moved considerably.

At this point in research, it is very important to bring the stage of interpretation to its conclusion through statistical analysis. Such statistics assist the researcher to target two things: On the one hand, they provide him with the necessary detailed data that reflect the participants' achievements in a mathematical formula supposed to be highly reliable means of measurements. On the other one, they serve as

accepted evidence to check the extent to which the research hypothesis is tested and examined.

C.I.7. Summary of the Tests' Results

The first look to table (21) suggests that the sum of the scores obtained by the experimental group is numerically higher than the control group. To make a more detailed and clear description of the experimental group overscoring, table23 below presents the difference in the means of the posttest.

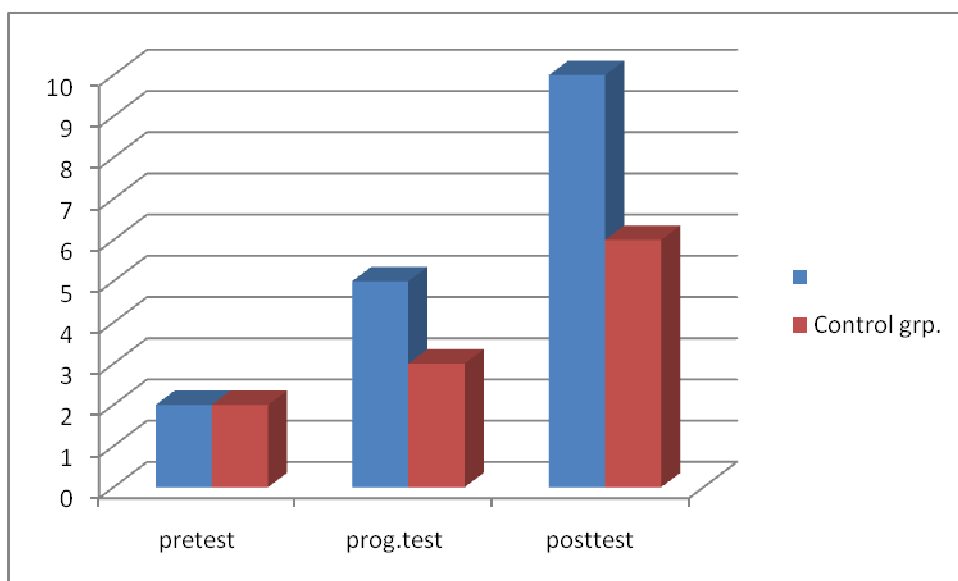
Table22. Means of scores on the posttest of both groups

Groups	Posttest
Experimental group	4.98
Control group	2.91
Difference in the means	2.07

To have a clear idea about the pretest, progress test and the posttest, the following table sums up the means scored in the different tests.

Table 23. Means of the scores in the different tests

Tests	Pretest	Progress test 2	Posttest
Experimental group	2.42	3.91	4.98
Control group	2.22	2.76	2.91
Difference in the means	0.20	1.15	2.02

Figure 8. Difference in the means

C.I.8. Statistical Analysis and Interpretation

After knowing the general scores, the means for both groups and the difference between them, it is necessary to calculate the frequency (F). It indicates how many students achieved the same score in the same task (Nunan,1991). Frequency distribution of the progress test is displayed in the following table.(Because of the numerous progress tests, we have taken their general average as unit of calculation)

Table24. Frequency distribution of both groups' score value on the progressive test

Experimental group		Control group	
Score "Xe"	"F"	Score "Xc"	F
1	/	1	22
2	12	2	16
3	16	3	13
4	13	4	/
5	9	5	/
	N= 50		N= 50

The table suggests that "F" ranges from 2 to 5 for the experimental, and from 1 to 3 for the control groups.

Still according to Nunan, (1991), and in order to determine the differences between the experimental and the control group in a detailed statistical picture, certain parameters should be known. These are: the mean, standard deviation, degree of freedom, observed statistics, and critical values.

C.I.8.1. The experimental group in the progressive Test

C.I.8.1.1. The mean:

The mean is the most frequently employed measure of similarity. It is symbolized in writing by \bar{X} . The formula of this statistic is as follows:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum Fx}{N} \text{ where:}$$

\bar{X} : mean Fx: score frequency N: number of scores \sum : the sum

C.I.8.2. The standard deviation

The standard deviation **SD** measures the dispersion (the extent to which a set of scores varies in relation to the mean). The formula of this statistic is as follows:

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum Fx^2 - \bar{X}^2}{N}} \text{ (the square root of the variance S)}$$

For the experimental group, the calculations of the mean and standard deviation are presented in the table below.

Table25. Mean and the standard deviation for the experimental group in progress test

Score “Xe”	x ²	Frequency “F”	Fx	score Fx ²
2	4	12	22	44
3	9	16	48	144
4	16	13	42	208
5	25	9	45	225
		N=ΣF = 50	ΣFX= 157	ΣFX²=621

Mean:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum Fx}{N} = \frac{157}{50} = 3.14$$

$$\bar{X}_e = 3.14$$

Variance:

$$S^2_e = \frac{\sum Fx^2}{N_e} - \bar{X}_e^2 = \frac{621}{50} - (3.14)^2$$

$$S^2_e = 1.8$$

Standard deviation:

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum Fx^2 - \bar{X}_e^2}{N}} = \sqrt{1.8} = 1.37$$

$$SDe = 1.37$$

C.I.8. 3.The control group in the progress Test

Table26. Mean and the standard deviation for the control group in progress test

Mean:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum Fx}{N} = \frac{93}{50} = 1.8$$

$$\bar{Xc} = 1.8$$

Variance:

$$S^2c = \frac{\sum Fx^2}{Nc} - \bar{Xc}^2 = \frac{199}{50} - (1.8)^2$$

$$= 3.89 - 2.42 = 1.47$$

$$S^2c = 1.47$$

Standard deviation:

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum Fx^2}{N} - \bar{X}^2} = \sqrt{\frac{199 - 2.42}{50}} = \sqrt{1.44} = 1.20$$

$$SDc = 1.20$$

Score "Xe"	x ²	Frequency "F"	Fx	score Fx ²
1	1	22	22	22
2	4	15	30	60
3	9	13	39	117
		N=∑F = 50	∑FX= 93	∑FX ² =199

The following table shows the comparison between the two groups'

Means and Standard deviation

Table 27.Means and the standard deviation of both groups in the progresstest

	Exp. group	Control group	The difference
Mean \bar{X}	3.14	1.80	1.34
Standard deviation SD	1.37	1.20	0.17

C.I.8. 3. Degree of freedom

Following (Broun, 1998), the degree of freedom (df) for the t-test of independent means is the first sample size minus one plus the second size minus one. It helps to find critical value for “t”.

$$df = (N_1 - 1) + (N_2 - 1)$$

$$= (50 - 1) + (50 - 1) = 98$$

$$df = 98$$

C.I.8.4.The t-test and alpha level

To check our assumption, the appropriate testing and statistical procedure is the **t-test** which is considered to be the most suitable test to compare two means. To calculate the **t** value, the following formula needs to be applied

$$\begin{aligned}
 t_{N_1+N_2} &= \frac{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2) \sqrt{(N_1 + N_2 - 2) N_1 N_2}}{\sqrt{(N_1 S_1^2 + N_2 S_2^2) (N_1 + N_2)}} \\
 &= \frac{(3.14 - 1.8) \sqrt{(50 + 50 - 2) 50 \times 50}}{\sqrt{(50 \times 1.37^2 + 50 \times 1.20^2) (50 + 50)}} = \frac{1.34 \sqrt{98 \times 2500}}{\sqrt{(93.5 + 73) (100)}} \\
 &= \frac{1.34 \times 494.97}{\sqrt{166.5 \times 100}} = \frac{662.25}{129.03} = 5.14
 \end{aligned}$$

$$t = 5.14$$

Still according to (Brown, 1998), the α level may be between 0.01 up to 0.05. In our case we decided to set alpha at $\alpha = .05$ to have more tolerance. This means that only 05% chance of error can be tolerated.

C.I.8. 5. Critical value:

Since alpha is set at

$$\alpha = .05,$$

$df = 98$, and according to Fisher and Yates's table of critical values, the value for "t", is 2.00

So, we see that the value observed in our investigation is higher than the critical value suggested

$$t_{obs} > t_{crit} (5.14 > 2.00)$$

C.I.8. 6 Necessary data for hypotheses testing:

The necessary data needed for testing our hypothesis are the following:

Mean of each group: $\bar{X}_E = 3.14, \bar{X}_C = 1.80$

Alpha Level: $\alpha = .05$

Observed value : $t_{obs} = 5.14$

Critical value: $t_{crit} = 2.00$

Degree of freedom: $df = 98$

Null hypotheses: $H_0 : \bar{X}_E = \bar{X}_C$

C.I.9. Significance of these data

Since the observed statistical value t_{obs} is greater than the critical value t_{crit} , the null hypothesis is rejected. Having rejected the null hypothesis, and given the degree of freedom tolerated, this means that there is only 05% probability that the observed difference in the mean which represents the change on the dependent variable “D” (students level in writing academic style), occurred by chance; and that 95% it was due to the effect of the independent variable “ID” (using authentic materials).

Conclusion

During the four phases of the experimental treatment, second year students received a specific way of grammar learning in an attempt to enhance their writing style. The progress of the experimental group in the tests has proved the effectiveness of authentic material instruction-based language teaching. It provided learners with varied ways of learning from exposure to different contexts and to new words improving their level of written language proficiency, especially in style.

The data collected during the main tests and submitted to analysis was interpreted to show the extent of improvement among experimental group learners at all levels of scores in the selection and employment of words through correct use of grammatical to express ideas in an accepted academic written works. Despite the fact that some learners did not get any better, we still believe that the general opinion made at the end of the experiment optimistically encourages us to say that through more learning and training in the same framework, these students can go beyond their actual level and competences.

These findings can be taken as an answer to one the research questions stated earlier :

“To what extent can authentic material employed in grammar teaching be useful for developing students writing skills”?

Before we attempt to review and check the extent to which our hypotheses stated in the general introduction are tested, we need to answer the other research question: *To what extent can the students benefit from a grammar-written expression combined course to develop academic writing skills?*

As stated in the research methodology (Part B.), we tried to address this question through collecting and interpreting students' opinions and viewpoints through a questionnaire. The next Chapter presents field- work data and its analysis on this same issue.

C. II: Analysis of the students' questionnaire

Introduction

To investigate the role of introducing authentic material in developing the learners' performances in writing academic style, we hypothesized in our research that a combined course that deals with language structure and language style would help. The idea is centered around a teaching course that introduces grammatical structures through diverse authentic materials as theoretical teaching, and drills students to in writing as practical part .

We have thought of the necessity to involve the same students who took part in the experiment in this qualitative dimension of our research by including their view points concerning the subject under investigation. Learners' opinions were gathered in a questionnaire whose items aim to determine the main handicaps in writing proper academic styles. Whenever possible, we consolidate the learners' views with some teachers' opinions obtained through informal discussions and interviews. As already stated in our general introduction, this part will assist us to check the second hypothesis set for the problem under investigation.

The students' questionnaire includes both open and close-ended questions(Appendix1). Its primary objective is to give the respondents an opportunity to express their opinions and attitudes towards learning grammar and writing in a combined course to target the development of the writing style. It helps us also to highlight the difficulties and problems that learners encounter in writing and which could not have been detected by the experiment. We also provided them with a free space to express freely their personal evaluation and suggestion concerning the problem under study. We attempted to introduce learners' perceptions to make sure that the subject matter is viewed from different perspectives and studied from different angles. The questionnaires is structured in such a way as to spur collecting the respondents' different opinions about the topic under scrutiny to consolidate our own opinion made after the experiment.

C.II.I. ITEMS ANALYSIS

ITEM ONE: ,TWO: General information

Table 28: students' gender distribution

Response	Male	Female
Participants	13	77
Percentage	14.44%	85.56%

This high number of females enrolled in the department of English at the University of Batna proves the common belief that females have more tendency towards studying foreign languages and English in particular. It is a means to get a profession as language teachers or interpreters which are commonly considered as feminine jobs in this country, as compared to males who generally tend to prefer scientific and technical streams.

ITEM TWO: Type of high school streaming

Table 29: students' type of baccalaureate

Response	Literary	scientific	technical	Others	N.A
Participants	120	46	4	8	1
Percentage	67 %	24.56%	2.22%	4.44%	1.11%

We have included this item to trace back the type of secondary schooling and the type of baccalaureate our students hold. We still believe that previous exposure to the foreign language our subjects had would affect in a better way their actual performances.

Statistically, the majority of students 120 came from literary classes. 46 participants that is (25.56%) hold scientific baccalaureate

and only four subjects (2.22%) came from technical branches. The eight students in the box (others) hold both scientific and literary baccalaureates. Cases like these are generally students enrolled in other departments, and because of many factors(failure, wish to change the domain of study- English in particular-), they passed another exam for the sake of holding a literary baccalaureate to have an easy access to English language studies as a second diploma.

The results above revealed different educational backgrounds of second year English students. This is what creates mixed abilities classes which are in our view another challenge to the teachers. The challenge requires the teachers to find the adequate teaching techniques which take into account the variety of learners' competences and needs. Length and previous exposure to the foreign language is another factor that acts upon students' actual level in both spoken and written forms of the language.

Item 3:

How often do you write essays, next to quizzes and exams ?Expalin.

Through this question, we wanted to see the frequency of essay production -other than in quizzes or exams- which may give us an indication of their familiarity with the mechanisms of writing in

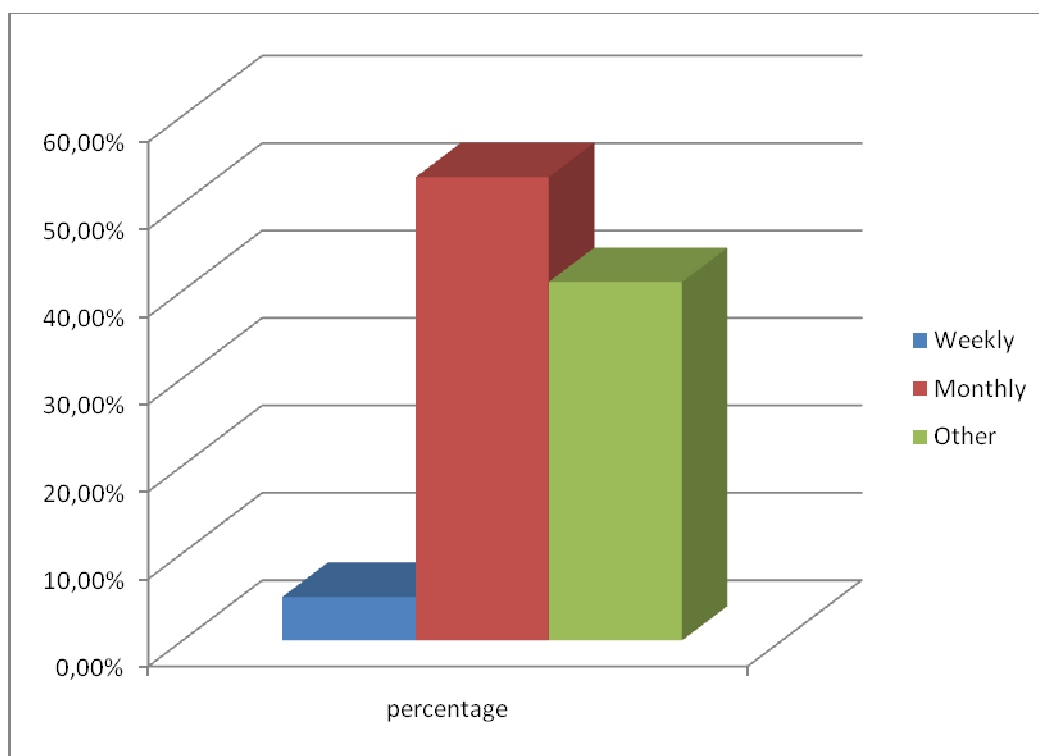
general and of stylistics devices in particular. The answers we obtained are shown in the table below:

Table 30. Frequency of essay writing

frequency	Weekly	Monthly	Other
Participants	05	48	37
percentage	05,5%	53,55 %	41,11%

To this item, we got a total of 90 responses out of 104. What is remarkably striking is that only five students reported that they weekly set themselves to produce compositions next to the homework they are assigned in different modules. According to their explanations, this is a learning strategy. They say that in courses like literature, civilisation and linguistics, the notes they take in the classroom are later on summarized and organized in an essay. In the examinations, they add, reading those essays helps them remember and retrieve the main information they might need. In our view, this is a good habit that we have to encourage all our students to acquire.

Figure 9. Rate of students essay production



According to 48 students (53,55% of the responses), writing an essay is an activity they do only when they are asked to. To them, it comes often as quiz in some modules that not all the teachers require. They feel they are obliged to write only to fit with the requirements of evaluation. Among their explanations, we noticed that these students do not give much importance to this skill. As mentioned in their responses to item 09, lot of these same students reported that they spend much of their free time surfing through the net chatting, or playing online games than reading to acquire the mechanisms of writing. Not to be pessimist, we agree with them that their use of internet may positively help them if properly and wisely used.

The remaining 37 students who ticked in the box ‘other’ are the ones to whom writing a composition happens only in official and planned examinations. They argue that writing is an activity which they find difficult and sometimes boring, compared to speaking for instances. In their views, this is due to the formal aspect that writing requires which needs good planification of ideas and demands rigorous thinking.

In our opinion, this is true; but there is no escape. Learning a foreign language goes necessarily through drills and practices in both of its spoken and written forms. It is up to teachers to raise these students motivation in writing and find appropriate ways to make them enjoy it through diversifying the techniques and materials; out of which authentic material stands as a good example.

Item 4 :

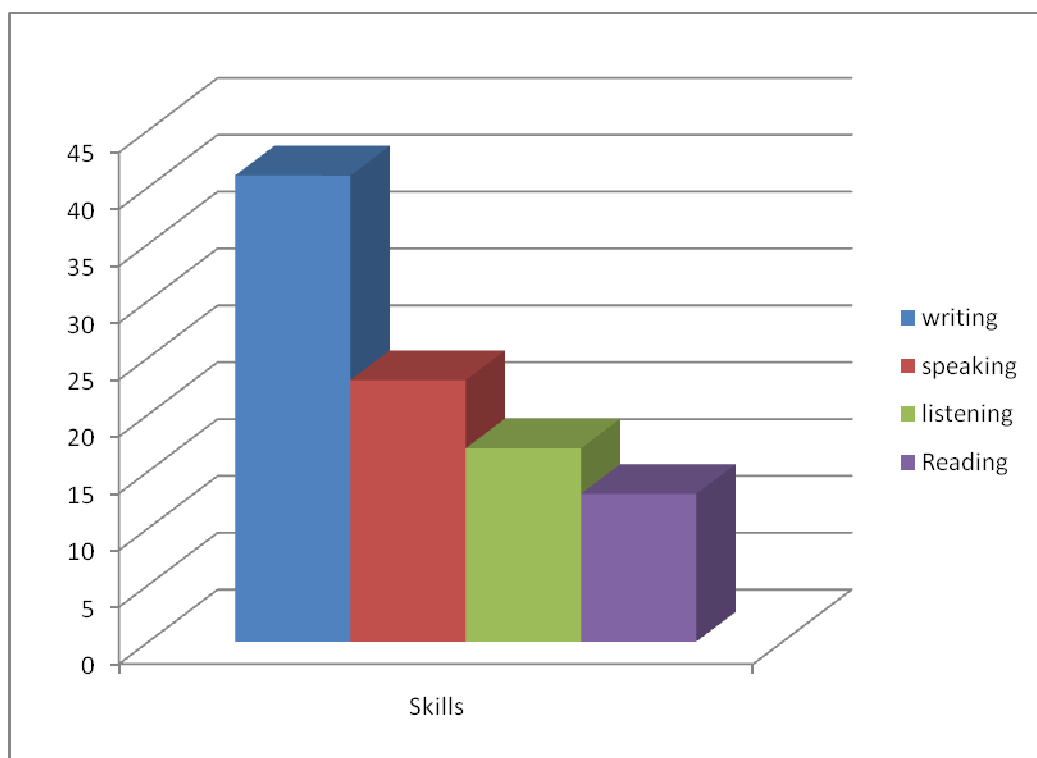
How do classify the four skills in terms of difficulty? Why?

This item asked the respondents to order the four skills according to their level of difficulty. The 94 responses we obtained are distributed as follows:

Table 31. skills' difficulties

Rank	First	second	third	Fourth
Skill	<i>writing</i>	<i>speaking</i>	<i>listening</i>	<i>Reading</i>
Participants	41	23	17	13
percentage	45.66%	25,55%	18.88%	14.44%

Figure 10. Skills according to their difficulties



It is apparent that out of the four skills indicated above, writing is the most difficult with (45.66%) of the participants the total responses, and speaking comes in the second position with 25,55% of. These two

difficult skills are the main components of proficiency in foreign language learning which is undoubtedly a basic objective in the Licence program at the English Department.

Except in grammar, phonetics and oral expression, in the other courses learners' levels are expressed mainly through writing. In spite of this, the majority of the modules still do not considerably help students to achieve mastery in writing. Speaking is also seen by EFL learners as difficult but not to the level of writing. Compared to speaking, these learners say, writing requires not only knowledge of specific points of the language such as vocabulary and grammar but also how to put these in such a way as to produce comprehensive coherent language. Indeed, what students lack in most of the cases are not single units of language such as lexicon , tenses, modes and so on, but mainly the art of sewing all these units in one corpus following a logical stream of thought.

Less difficulties are met in reading and speaking skills. Only 1/5 of the whole subjects find problems in speaking. According to these learners, this is mainly the case when speaking is carried out in the classroom part of the lesson. It is not only because of language competence that these learners find it easy to speak correct English ,but

rather due to other extra linguistic factors like shyness and fear of facing an audience.

In general, what our respondents conveyed through this item was not totally unknown to us. During the four stages of the experiment, their written performances indicated the factors many times. Their tests scores have always shown, and for both groups, that grammar and vocabulary were not what hinders their full fluency in writing. Rather it is the power to arrange these words to express complete thoughts.

Item 5: How often do you read authentic material (texts not related to your courses).Justify.

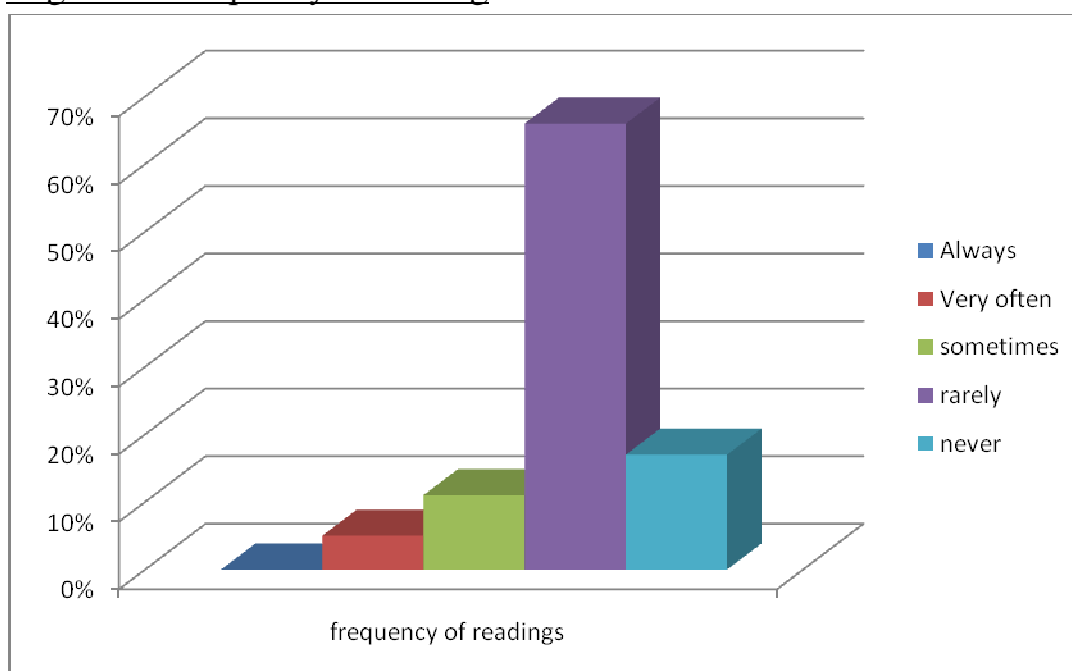
In this item, students were asked to cite any form of authentic texts they read outside the learning context. The intention was to know the extent to which the learners are familiar with authentic language and its diverse forms. Table 33below seems to say a lot:

Table 32. Frequency of reading authentic texts.

Response	Always	Very often	sometimes	rarely	never
Participants	00	04	10	58	15
Percentage	00%	04,59%	11.49%	66.66%	17.24

Out of the 102 students, only 87 have responded to this item. As it is expressed, no student has a permanent habit to read what is not directly linked to his courses. The null rate in itself is expressive, but what makes it worth considering is the way it is justified. Nine students who justified their answers here say that this is not interesting and they do not see any benefit in doing so. To three others, reading aimlessly has no reason to happen, and one of them even added that reading what is not indispensable for exams is not necessary as it wastes time and efforts. This might surprise a lot of readers. But for those who are involved in the educational milieu know that reading for leisure is not a habit that pre-university schooling has developed or even tried to approach with these learners. Then, claiming it now seems to be too late.

Figure 11. Frequency of reading



Among the ten learners who reported that they sometimes read authentic texts, seven are girls. They said they like reading about culture and cinema in general and prefer knowing what goes on in the artists and actors lives in particular. Two of them have added articles on *Moda* as the main readings they enjoy.

To the other respondents, however, reading authentic written material happens rarely. Unfortunately, these are the majority. The fifty eight students who fall onto this category mentioned the internet websites as sources of the reading texts. According to their justifications, the reasons behind their low frequency of reading are diverse and are mainly related to the difficulty of text comprehension. We could categorize most of the elements they have mentioned in the followings:

- Inability to understand the meaning of the text:

45 out of 58 students who argued this way said that they are unable to infer the meaning of what they read, when they read. Next to the new words they meet in the different passages they mentioned the style in which the text is written as another factor that limits their comprehension. Indeed, authentic texts do not always obey to the general academic rules that students go through. Contracted forms of

sentences, deleted phrases, and specific expressions are only a few examples. This requires them to segment the passage into chunks and understand meaning from the interpretation of each separated unit. The absence or the low frequency of reading authentic texts is, in our view, what stands against their ability to reach a successful and efficient comprehension.

- Unfamiliarity with the authentic texts style:

The remaining 13 students maintained that they are unable to understand the style in which the text is presented, especially article dealing with political or financial issues. The problem, to them, lies in the specific selection and employment of words. While exact meanings of words are easy, their special adaptation and use render their sense hard to get by foreigners especially students.

Here again, we feel the need to stress the very fact that one of the best ways to make the learners understand authentic language is to expose them to authentic material as much as possible. Practice makes progress, and familiarity demystifies oddness.

Two of these thirteen participants claimed that the lack of such materials prevents them from improving their general level. They

believe that it is the teacher who should select authentic texts and provide them with.

Item 6. What are your major difficulties in writing in an academic style?:

Responding to this item, the learners have mentioned three factors that they consider as difficulties in writing academically accepted styles.

Table33.Difficulties in academic writing.

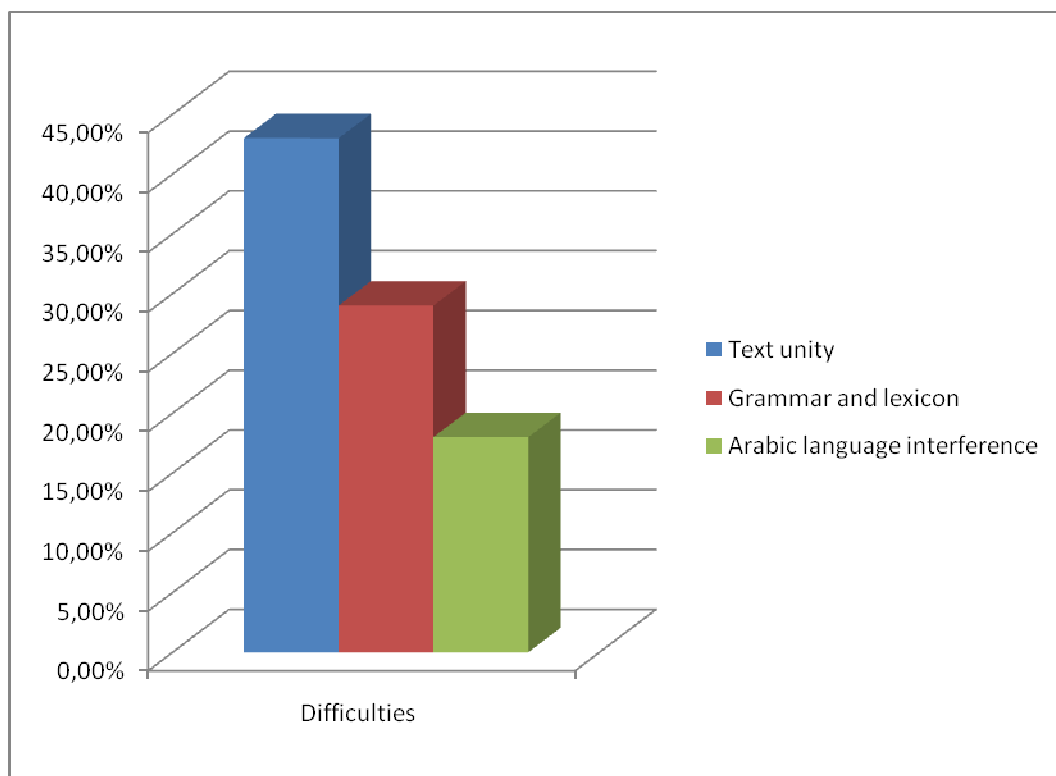
Response	Text unity	Grammar and lexicon	Arabic language interference
Participants	42	29	18
Percentage	43,29%	29.86%	18.55%

1-Text unity

42 out of the 97 who responded to this question (43,29%) reported that limiting a paragraph to one same idea is their major barrier in writings. According to one of them, lot of ideas seem worth saying at the same time, and by doing so, the main topic is lost. We can read in his response :“*sometimes I want to say a lot of things at the*

same time .” Another one wrote: “ *my problem is when I move from a paragraph to a paragraph I think I repeat what I said*”. Cases like these are not unusual in our classrooms. Teachers often mention the problem of inconsistency in the students’ writings and generally relate it to incompetence which they think is due to the low motivation these learners show. In our view, the problem is a result of learners' educational context where the teacher has a share and, in which writing practice was almost absent.

Figure 12.Academic style difficulties.



Such concepts as coherence and cohesion are really indispensable in learning writing, and teaching them only in written expression course alone, if it happens, is not enough. Teaching English as foreign

language targets the proficiency as its main objective which can be attained only through enough extensive training in speaking and writing. Therefore, producing a well-written academic style is really something difficult to these students in the actual way things take place. Most of the participants who said that text unity is their major barrier in achieving a good writing style, argued that they can manage to produce correctly structured texts but are often unable to keep expressing the same message throughout the whole essay.

2-shortage of vocabulary and lexicon

Out of 97 subjects, 29 argued that the range of vocabulary and lexicon is the main problem. This is a result of the lack of knowledge of the language features (syntax, semantics in particular). In fact, such deficiency related to vocabulary, grammar, and discourse structure of the language creates a major obstacle preventing learners from approaching the desired writing proficiency level. Responses to this item consolidate some of our subjects's scores in the experimental part of this investigation. There, we have remarked that grammar and word choice were always the highly scored items in all the tests administered to the students.

3-Mother tongue interference:

Among the main students' difficulties in achieving academic style, interference of the Arabic language appears as one example ,but with a relatively low proportion.

In fact, what distinguishes the different written works from one another in terms of power of expression is the way stylistic elements are met. Different languages use different systems of converting deep structures into surface ones. The similarities that sometimes exist between these languages do not always favor safe transitions from the mother language into the target and vice-versa. Hence, when being unable to convey the messages in the target language because of the linguistic repertoire shortage, learners seek refuge in their mother tongue, or any previously acquired language, to fill in their communicative gap.

In one of these students' answers, the situation seems conflicting:

“ the teachers always say that we think in Arabic and write in English, but how to think in English?” Such transition is a very hard and uncomfortable experience for many learners, and leads them to lose the essential of the theme due to inappropriate word combinations or translation of meanings.

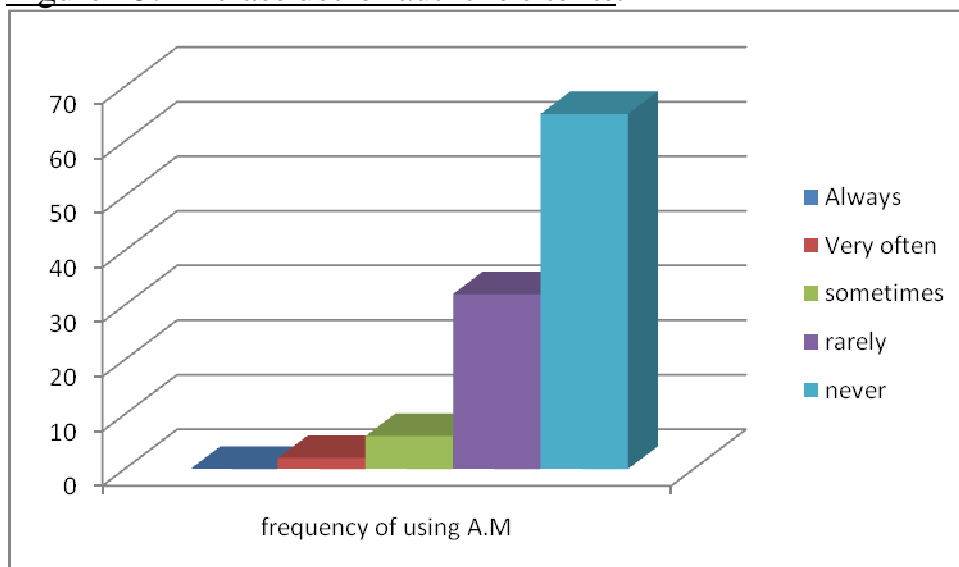
ITEM 7: How often authentic material (texts) are used in your courses? Give examples.

Table 34. Frequency of using authentic material in the classroom

Response	Always	Very often	sometimes	rarely	never
Participants	00	02	06	32	60
Percentage	00%	02%	06%	32%	60%

As stated earlier, the purpose of our investigation is to see how can exposure to different types of authentic writing help in raising the students' awareness of the stylistic features employed by native speakers, on one hand. On the other, we wanted to see if this is possible to be achieved through courses other than written expression. This item seeks to know whether and to what extent learners are exposed to authentic materials in general and to written texts in particular in the different courses.

Figure 13. In-class use of authentic texts.



Having ourselves conducted the experiment, we were not surprised enough to see that in the table above no respondent ticked in the box “always”. The great majority of participants wrote that their teachers never use authentic materials. Having received no justification to these answers makes us assume that their teachers either do not have access to these teaching tools, or simply do not consider them as important.

The 32 respondents who ticked in the box ‘sometimes’ stated the case of grammar and oral expression as examples. We understand that these students were among the experimental group meant by the study. Eight among them said this is the case of oral expression, too. They added that their teachers use data-show to present recorded

dialogues between native speakers and plan different activities of listening comprehension.

For unknown reasons, the respondents who wrote that their teachers use authentic materials very often or sometimes did not give any example.

Generally speaking, the results show the undervaluation of the significance of using authentic materials in the classroom. The important element to consider here is that these answers reveal a reality that the general opinion among teachers is that authentic materials can be used only in a limited way and only in few teaching situations. This is quite different from the considerations on which part of our hypothesis was built.

ITEM 9: Do you think that the courses of Grammar and written expression are complementary? If yes, explain

Table 35. Learner's opinions of the combined courses.

Response	Yes	No
Participants	17	73
Percentage	18.88%	81.11%

Again, we were not surprised to see among the 90 students who answered this item, only 17 gave a positive answer. These students think that the tow modules complete each other in more than one way. Four among these answers converge to the idea that a student cannot write well if he does not know correct grammar rules. One of them added that grammatical mistakes lessen their marks in writing but not with all teachers.

81.11% of the subjects gave negative responses. The reason behind such a high rate of responses is, in our view due to the learners' ignorance of the far teaching/learning objective in English departments. At least theoretically, language departments prepare future proficient users of the language through different modules. Each module with a specific objective , but the whole project targets one aim : competent writers and speakers of the learned language. Such an aim can easily be attained when different modules are grouped together in accordance with the skill they emphasize.

Item 10. What types of authentic materials,if any, are used in the different courses.

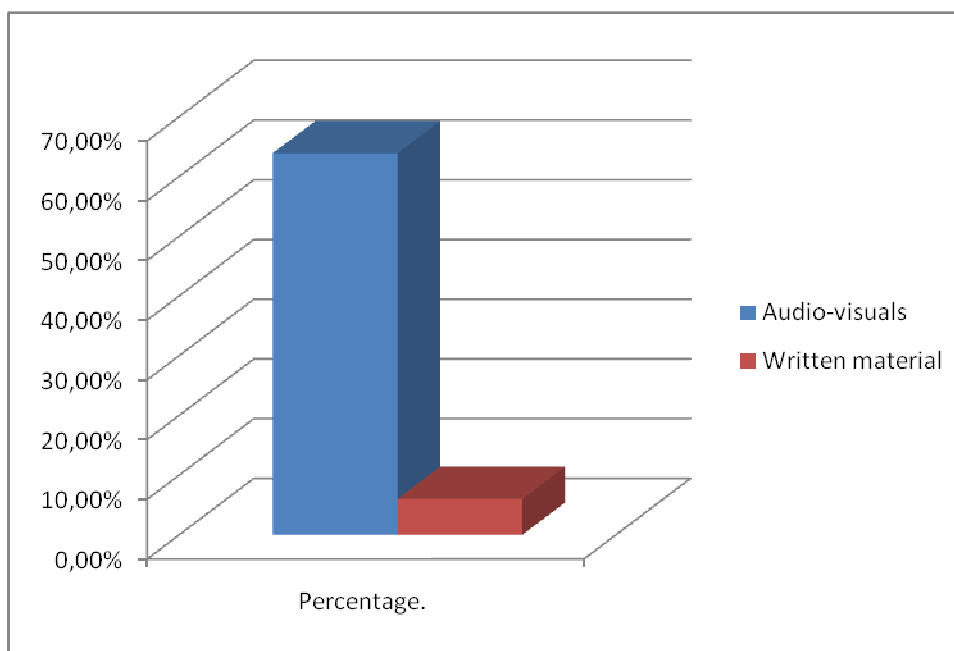
Learners' responses to this item are grouped in table 37,(P.191)

Table 36.Types of the authentic materials used in the classroom.

Responses	Audio-visuals	Written material
Participant	88	06
Percentage.	63,91%	06.38%

After asking them about the frequency of using authentic materials in the classroom, participants now are asked to determine the type of the ones used. Two types were proposed options (and audio-visuals and written materials).

Figure 14. Audio Vs Written material use.



One part of our research experiment suggested that authentic materials may serve students in many ways and in different modules. If

well exploited, in writing most importantly, they would facilitate learning progress, create motivation, and make the course enjoyable . Yet, the general assumption shared by the learners in response to this item seems to favor the idea that authentic materials can help only in the aural-oral skills of the language. Of course, the respondents got this impression based on which teachers uses these techniques and for what skill. As indicated in the table above, learners experience this way of learning mainly in the courses that target speaking as a skill.

It is not strange to see only six students mentioned that written authentic texts are used in the different courses .This fact was also confirmed by two opinions of the teachers with whom we discussed the issue several times. According to them, devises like these may serve especially in oral expression where the module does not stand on a precise curriculum, and the teacher feels free to vary the means and the techniques to be used.

We do understand opinions like these, but we do not convincingly share them. It is only in foreign language institutions like this department that learners have the chance to deal with the authentic aspect of the language they learn. Second-year students are leaving the department after one year. We believe that it will be too late to repair in

the future the writing deficiencies that learners have already acquired during the first and second years.

ITEM 11: Do you see any useful in introducing authentic materials in courses other than oral expression? Why?

This item attempts to investigate whether our students see any necessity of using authentic materials as teaching aids in courses other than oral expression .The idea was to see whether participants of the experimental group have grasped the real purpose of dealing with authentic texts in the course of grammar, compared to the other respondents.

The responses gathered in table 38 below reveal an important data to interpret.

Table37. Attitudes towards the teaching aids

Response	Yes	No
Participants	47	43
Percentage	46,11%	42,88%

The first thing to remark is that the positive and negative answers here are almost equal. Learners' points of view towards the usefulness of introducing authentic materials in different

teaching/learning sessions aids seem to categorize learners themselves into two types. We could summarize the positive responses and their justifications in the following elements:

a- motivational factors

Out of the 47 participants who gave the positive attitude towards the usefulness of authentic materials, 18 subjects declared that it helps them learn effectively. Stating the experiment as a real example, they believe that these instructional tools broke the boring learning atmosphere; they create a sort of motivation that pushes them to learn effectively and be more involved and interested in the material being presented. What is also worth noting among these responses is that three of them wrote that authentic materials assist also the teachers. They think that teachers can use these instructional equipments as a source of motivation for their students so that they can help them learn better.

b.acquisition factors

Eleven other subjects claimed that authentic materials helped them improve and increase their vocabulary stock. They could repair, even to a low extent, some of their word choice and stylistic deficiencies in writing. According to these subjects their syntactic level improved, their vocabulary bank ameliorate and their writings styles seem to have progressed.

c- linguistic and cultural factors

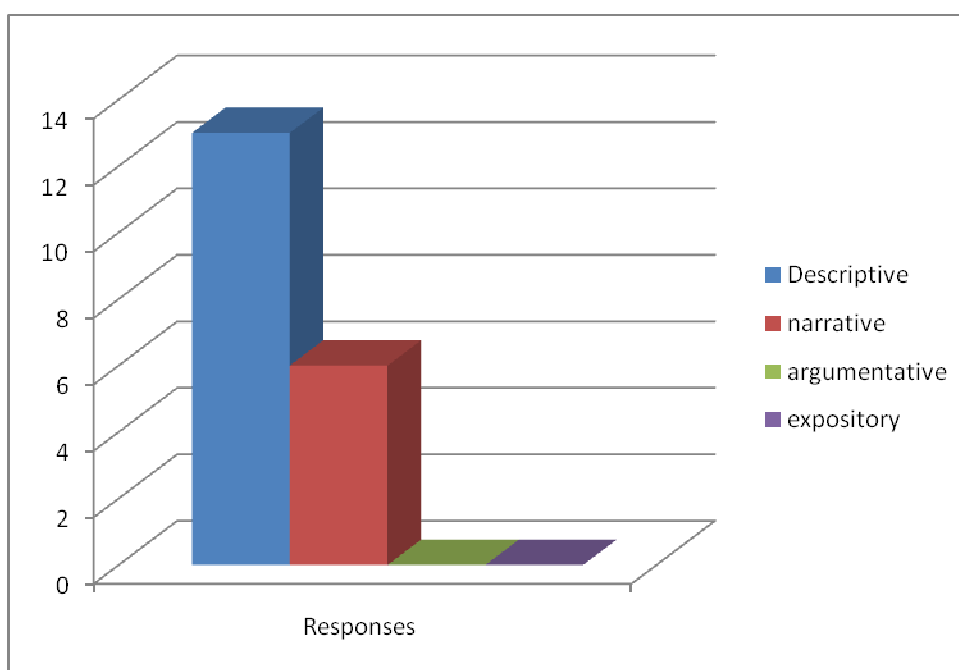
Exposing learners to native speakers' environment language, culture, lifestyle and so on is another advantage of using authentic material in the classroom. Six participants said that teaching aids- audio and audiovisual in particular- are the best ways to learn the natural language of natives with its appropriate cultural dimensions . Still according to these learners, such materials offer them an opportunity to discover, through comparison, how far or close the language they learned is comparative to the native's one . In addition to this, authentic materials always bear considerable knowledge of the foreign language country, its cultural setting, literature, and other and social traits.

Item 12. Which of the following writing styles you are asked to write in the different curses? Give examples.

Table38. Types of styles students are asked to write

Style	Responses
Descriptive	13
narrative	06
argumentative	00
expository	00

Figure 15. Types of styles required from students.



What is striking in this table and figure is the low rate of answers. Out of the sample of 102, only 19 students responded here. We remark from their answers that the issue of style in itself is not well assimilated.

Theoretically, as we have discussed it in the literature review of this study, there are four types that fit with the academic styles of writing, and which students are supposed to know and use throughout the different courses. We do not, for instance, require the learners to answer psycholinguistics questions in a narrative style ,or ask them to treat a historical event in civilization in a descriptive essay.

Practically, however, none of these students mentioned expository or argumentative styles as types of writing their teachers expect them to produce. This situation reveals at least two things: First is that writing, as skill, is not seriously treated as an important issue by the different modules. In the rare cases this happens, there is more focus on the descriptive style which states facts rather than conveying ideas where the students - being the author- appears as characteristic element of the written product itself. Second, students may learn the other styles but not in a sufficient way to recognize them.

Whatever the arguments mentioned here, and according to this table, it remains certain to claim that 85 students (81.50%) of the total number of participants have failed to identify which type of styles they are asked to use. The only deduction one makes here is that students lack considerable knowledge on the issue of style, and it is therefore this issue which needs to be addressed.

ITEM 13 : How did you find the difference between learning grammar through authentic texts and learning it in the usual way?

When formulating this question, we considered the fact that it targets one group of respondents and we were aware of the possible criticism it might raise. We maintained it to see if learners have perceived any difference in learning grammar following two ways. Their responses are organized in the following table.

Table 39. The difference in grammar learning

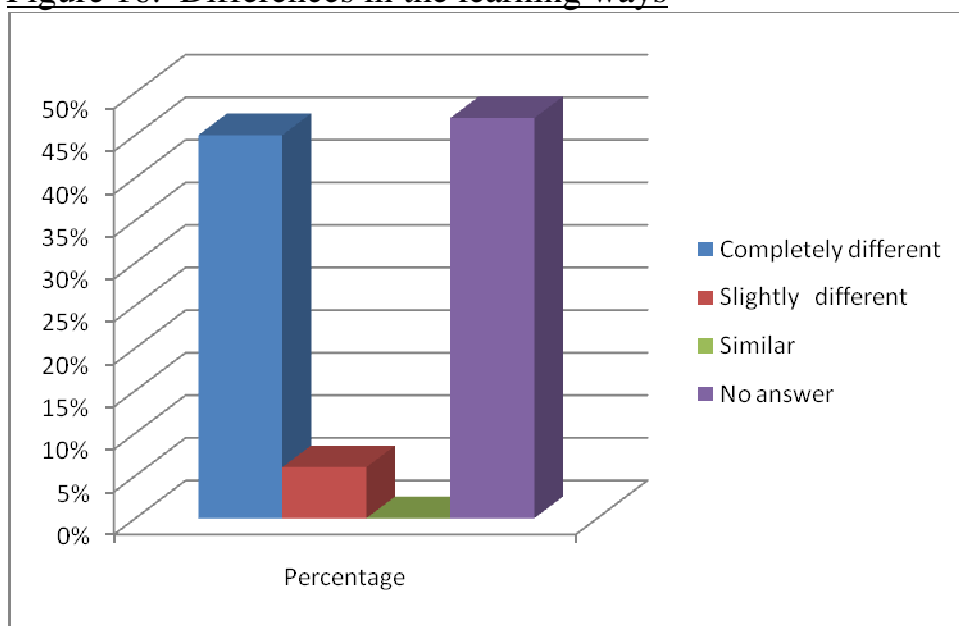
Suggested Response	Completely different	Slightly different	Similar	No answer
Participants	41	06	00	43
Percentage	45.55%	06.66%	00%	47.77%

Nearly, half of the students who responded here (41 out of 90) found learning grammar through authentic texts completely different from learning it in the usual way. Six respondents (06.66%) claimed that there is a little difference between the two ways while 43 students did not give any answer. The learners who see that the two ways of grammar instruction are different say that learning through authentic texts served them in many ways which can be summarized as follows:

-Authentic texts (A.T) develop and improve students' communicative skills

- for many students, learning takes place in an active, enjoyable and motivating atmosphere.
- A.T. help students to feel more authenticity of the foreign language.
- They create and develop within the students the good habit of reading.
- availability of multiple types of the foreign language styles
- more communication between the teacher and students.

Figure 16. Differences in the learning ways



As we have expected, these answers could be given by the learners who took part in the experimental group. They have reported what they have certainly experienced. What supports this belief is the ‘no answer’ rate given by the other respondents. No answer does not automatically mean that there is no difference between the two ways,

but it is still more likely to mean that these students did not see other ways of learning grammar that enable them distinguish the difference.

Item Fourteen : Are you explicitly taught the elements of style in the course of Written expression? If yes give example

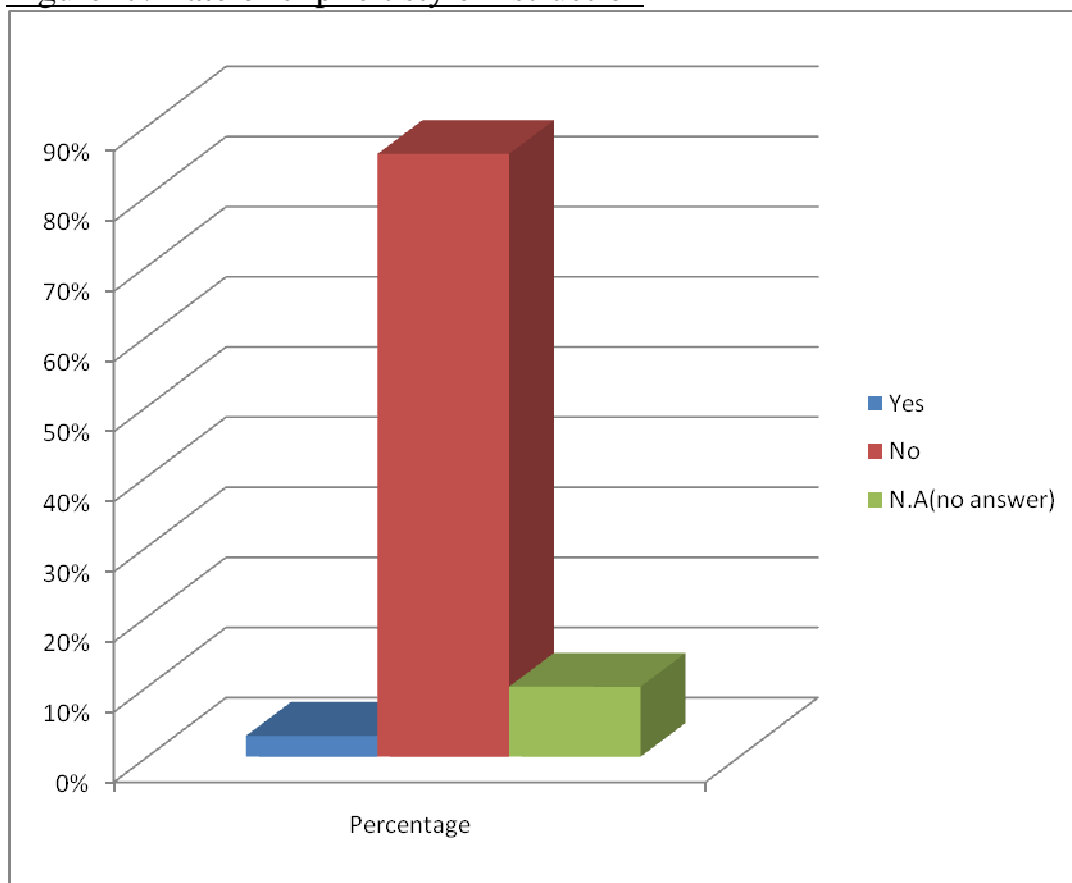
Table 40. Learning the elements of style

Response	Yes	No	N.A(no answer)
Participants	03	87	11
Percentage	03%	86%	10.89%

Out of the 101 responses, only a very small minority of students assert that they are explicitly taught the different elements of style during the course of written expression. Theoretically, it is in this course that the learners are sufficiently trained to master the writing mechanisms and devices. Written expression is a module that is supposed to assess and evaluate learners' competences in written communication. At the university context it is normally the academic style of writing that has to be highly valued. Whether learners write for their teachers now or later in their future carrier, their writings should obey to certain norms and characteristics. Through writing, students

will not only discuss different topics, but also show accepted levels of thinking abilities.

Figure17. Rate of explicit style instruction



When it comes to practice, as the figure above suggests, this is not what really goes on. According to the learners' responses, the great majority of the learners believe that they do not take particular lessons on the basics of academic style. In their justification, they mentioned that they simply do not know what these elements are. When we formulated the item, we deliberately did not precisely specify to them those elements to see first whether learners know them at least theoretically. Their replies did not go far from what we were expecting.

Lot of these students have mentioned that their teachers made simple remarks on the quiz or exam papers concerning style as “bad style”, “poor style”, or “be careful to style”.

These learners mentioned with enough exclamation that they cannot write in a way that they were not taught to. Indeed, During our experiment, we have observed many times that the learners ignore fundamental knowledge on writing in general and on style in particular.

There are, however, three students who positively responded here. Meanwhile, Their tiny percentage should be taken as an alarm indication that what these learners expect to get from the teachers is not what the latter really provide. It is obvious, then, that learners continue facing serious problems in writing adequately as long as the situation remains unchanged.

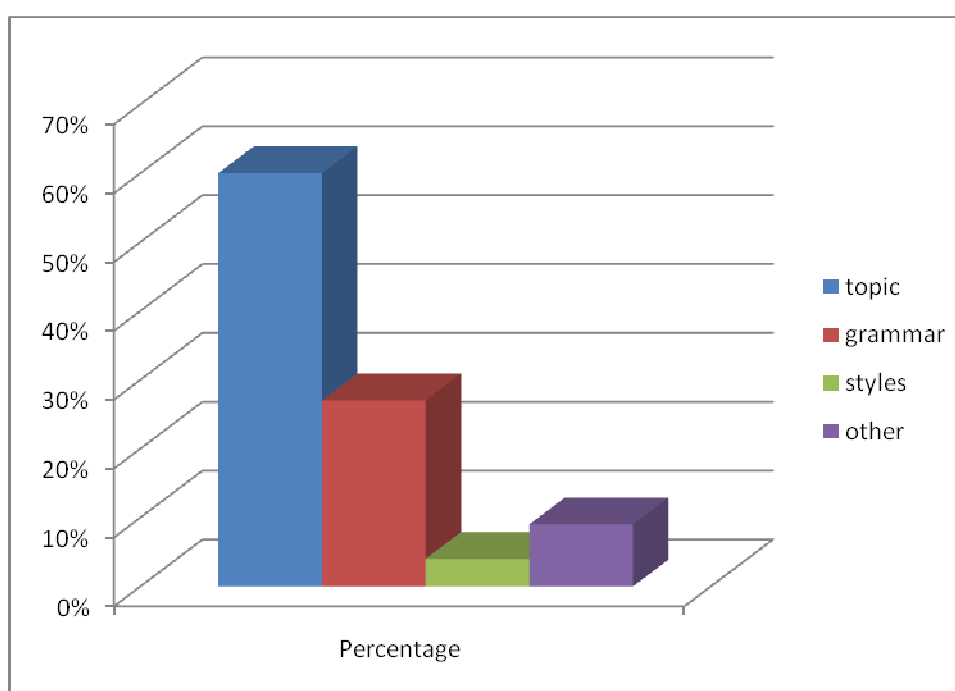
Item 15 :Do you think your writing is evaluated on the topic, grammar, or style?Explain.

Table 41. Parameters of evaluating written performances.

Response	topic	grammar	styles	other
Responses	59	27	04	09
Percentage	60.20%	27.55%	04.085	09.18%

By asking this question, we wanted to know, through our learners' responses, what parameters are taken to evaluate their written performances in the different modules. The idea is always to see whether and to what extent different teachers pay attention to style as a characteristic of good writing in their students' papers.

Figure18.performance evaluations



The table and figure above reveal that more than one half of the students number who responded to this item believe that they are evaluated on *topic* as a major criterion on the basis of which a mark is assigned to their written work. Most of the explanations they provided commonly agree that by topic they mean the idea itself and not the way it is organized. This is what we have understood from responses like:

“ When the topic is nice and appropriate the teachers likes

it and we obtain very good marks.”, or

“ it depends on the idea if it is good. If you chose topics

which are dealing with new and interesting ideas the

teachers give you good marks.”

Responses of this sort are numerous among our respondents explanations to their answers here. Reading these opinions leaves enough room to doubt that writing academically is what teachers require the learners to show.

This assumption is supported by the low percentage of the students who think that their performance are primarily evaluated on style. When only four students out of 99 think this way, it seems quite reasonable to say that both teaching and evaluating writing style do not fit with the theoretical framework they are supposed to follow. It follows from this quite worthy to recommend that, in this respect, new measures should be exploited to change things for better.

While grammar seems to be the most important element of evaluation to 27 students, 09 subjects have mentioned other factors teachers take into account when evaluating their written essays. In a nice statement , one of them wrote:

“ ...In order to get a good mark, you have to think well... your topic must be nice... your way of expressing it should be lovely...your

handwriting has to be clear...and your paper should be clean and neat...”

We found no other comment on this, except saying that if the majority of our students wrote this way, the question of style would be of a secondary importance in this research .

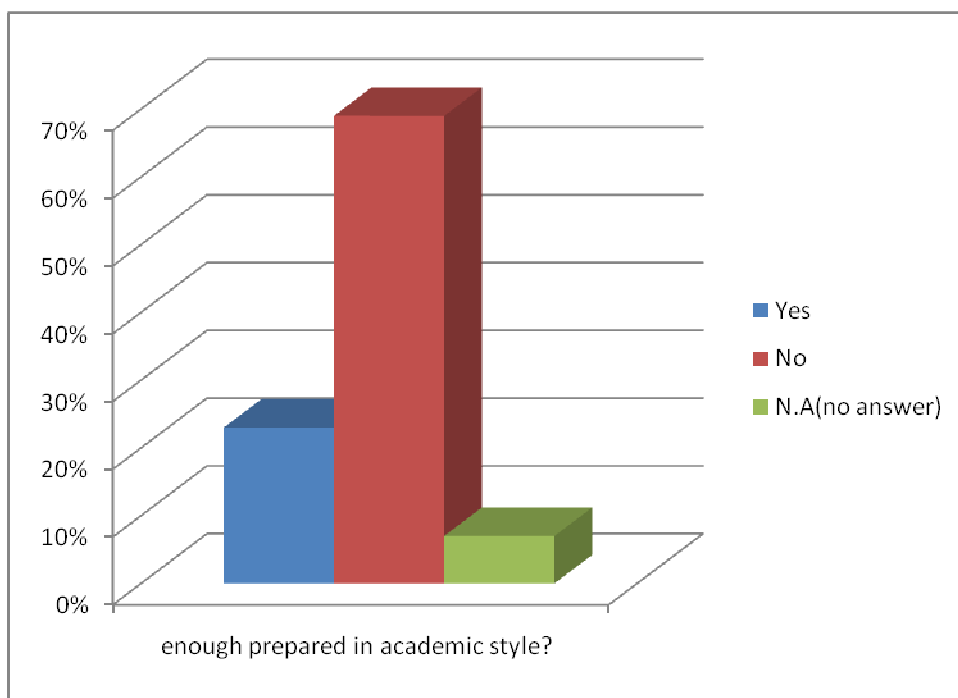
Item 16. Do you think the present way you are taught writing trains you adequately for writing in academic style?Why?

Table 42. Learners opinions on the actual way of learning

Response	Yes	No	N.A(no answer)
Participants	23	67	07
Percentage	23.71%	69.07%	07.21%

There is no doubt that learners’ responses should not be taken always as indexes to measure the teachers’ efforts and performances. However, by varying the type of the items related to the same idea, we can get closer to gauge the consistency and reliability of their responses.

Figure 19 students' self evaluation



According to the great majority of the responses indicated in this table (69.07%), students in general think they are not well prepared to academic writing by the modules that target writing, especially written expression. They have given diverse explanations and have stated different examples. Among 23 of these students' responses, two points seem to emerge repeatedly:

a-overcrowded groups:

Most of the students reported that because of the high numbers composing each group, there is little to know from the teacher. In our view, this sounds quite reasonable. Writing is an activity that requires the teacher to meticulously follow each student at length and exploit

his potentials to the most. While universal standards suggest one teacher for each 12 to 20 students per group, the English department at Batna university devotes one teacher for each 60 to 70 students per group. Being excessively high, the number of the students challenges even the best of the teachers to achieve the average standards of writing.

b- unqualified teachers.

Unfortunately, this is a very disturbing reality in our departments. The total number of the students exceeds 3000. They are tutored by 40 permanent teachers and 72 part timers. Only five of the permanents are holders of doctorate degrees and the remaining are M.A. holders not all of them doctorate students. What is really annoying here is that all the part- timers are holders of licence degrees who freshly graduated from the university. When these factors are known, most of the learners' responses to this item seem to be well founded.

ITEM 17. What would you like to suggest for teaching writing in general and academic style in particular?

At the end of the questionnaire, we wished to give our students a free space to suggest what they think is better for them to improve their level in the writing and particularly on academic style part of the

course . The suggestions are basically given to their teachers of writing and concern also course like literature and civilization. We found these suggestions very accurate and most of them were taken into account by the researcher when formulating the main recommendations in this work.

Conclusion

The analysis of the learners' questionnaire allowed us to assert that some points need to be emphasized. The data interpreted revealed that it is not only the academic style of writing that poses difficulties to the second year students in the department of English at the University of Batna ,but it is *writing* as a whole skill. The diversities of the courses that they receive do not entail good training in writing and its types, despite the different teachers experiences in the tutoring board. Almost all of the students seem to know a little as far as the different stylistic types are concerned. If this has to be interpreted, we shall find no other explanation better than relating it to the quality of the writing instructions these learners receive. Learners themselves claimed that the rare cases when authentic materials are used ,they generally take place in teaching listening and speaking. The respondents confessed that they would not see how would they benefit from these materials to write well.

The empirical research results show that our learners have realized how important, necessary and helpful authentic materials can be in learning writing style and its types. Unfortunately their responses highlighted the low frequency frequency in using them.

Most of our respondents seem interested in the idea that writing can be better developed when different courses are combined to build up cooperatively its different aspects. Yet, we felt throughout the whole research that this target cannot be achieved unless decisions are taken to seriously follow an effective strategy in terms of overall objectives. In general, the analysis of the learners' responses added considerable facts and valuable insights of evidence that come to confirm our second hypothesis set for this research.

C.III.Recommendations and their pedagogical implications

With the diversity of the research tools included throughout this study and on the light of the evidence we obtained from the results, we wanted to make certain suggestions in forms of recommendations that would facilitate both teachers and students' task while teaching writing with considerable emphasis on academic style. We have tried to relate these recommendations to their theoretical framework in an attempt to bridge the gap between what the theory suggest and what reality shows. This may raise learners' mastery of English not only at the level of linguistic performance , but also for a better appraisal of one' own learning to assure self-reliance and life-long learning.

C.III.1.Research as a learning strategy.

Studies investigating good language learners over the years have indicated that it is not merely a high degree of language aptitude and motivation that causes some learners to excel, but also the students' own active and creative participation in the learning process through individualized learner research. (Schmitt.164.2010.) According to Cohen and Maccaro (2007) and Griffiths (2008) the good language learner is in command of a rich and sufficiently personalized repertoire of such strategies.

An area of fundamental research in Second language acquisition is identifying and describing the learning research as a strategy used by the language learners and the correlation of these strategies with other learner variables such as; proficiency level, age, gender, motivation and so on . Green & Oxford (1995)

The present research highlights ,among other elements, that our students have not yet acquired the fundamental meaning of university studies. At this level, students should no more receive **lessons** in proper sense of the word, but rather be trained on how to conduct themselves research work that trains them to be less dependent on the teacher and more autonomous learners.

There have been different attempts to discover which strategies are important for foreign language learning and investigating how good language learners try to learn (Ellis1997). Such attempts targeted how learners became successful in learning a foreign language and reporting the strategies they used by themselves.

Contemporary research is also investigating the effect of the task on the selection and the use of the appropriate learning strategies including the influence of the target language. Chamot (2004)

Language experts who investigated the role of learners' own research in

academic achievements say that aptitude for research determines successful language learner. The results of the present investigation made us recommend that research is a very crucial factor which teachers may wish to integrate in their course objectives.

C.II.2.The teacher's role in Learning strategies.

So far, research has concentrated on identifying, describing, classifying, implementing learning strategies, and comparing scores of successful and unsuccessful learners. A very crucial question to raise; is it possible to train learners to use certain strategies that would help them assist their learning of writing ? If it is so, what types of strategies can be introduced and in what type of instructional language?

Based on our research, and in the absence of a nation-wide common syllabus of English language programs in general and written expression in particular, it is recommended that teachers of writing would design teaching materials that train and help learners to construct learning strategies through learning how to map content words and use their active vocabulary knowledge.

The point to debate here is whether teachers are aware of their roles in fostering learners develop their own strategies to learn and , should

we, as teachers, integrate language learning strategies instruction within the course content?

It is very vital for language learners to better their competence in speaking and writing in order to succeed in academic settings. However, few studies have investigated how production strategies can be achieved Chamot (1990). Moreover, rare research has been conducted on instruction on training foreign language learners on types of strategies that aim to develop critical attitudes; analysis, reasoning, expressing opinions, justifying...).

Advocators of integrated strategy instruction, argue that contextual learning is more effective than learning separate skills. Practicing strategies on authentic language tasks would not only convince learners about the usefulness of such applied strategies, but also help in the transfer of strategies to similar tasks encountered in other subjects. Chamot & O'Malley (1987) (1994) and Cohen (1998) Arguments favoring separation advance the idea that students will benefit from learning strategies if their attention is completely drawn on strategic developing skills rather than to learn content simultaneously. Derry & Murphy (1986) argue that if strategies are taught within a language class, transferability to other tasks is likely not to occur, and it is easier from a point of view of practicability to

plan for one separate strategy course than to prepare all teachers to teach strategies. Weinstein & Mayer (1986)

At all the stages of our investigation, we have noticed that learners consider that the teacher is the central focus and the source of knowledge. The teachers, in turn, seems to have little role in encouraging learners to develop personal strategies in learning. In one respondent's answer, we read: "why should we read outside the classroom, all the teachers want us to give them back their lectures in the exam paper as they have given them".

Arguments for separation or integration of language learning strategies instruction raises in turn another issue: should the instructions be direct or embedded; explicit or implicit?

According to researchers on language skills, explicit learning strategy instruction involves the progress of student's consciousness of the strategies he/she uses, the teachers and how they model strategic thinking, the learner's practice with new strategies, self-evaluation and transferring strategies to new tasks. The majority of researchers in second language contexts favour the explicit strategy instruction. Cohen (1998) and Chamot (1999) However, little agreement on the issue of integrating strategy instruction into the language curriculum is reached.

Jones (1983) argues that embedded or implicit strategy training instruction is much more considered , because in the learning context little training is required by the teacher. However, according to more recent studies if students are not informed of the reasons , the value and the purpose of strategies explicitly little transfer of training to new tasks will occur , and learners will not develop independent learning strategies and will have little opportunity of becoming autonomous learners. Cited in Chamot & O'Malley (154. 1990)

Given the current state of events, we hope that teachers would favour explicit instruction and probably would integrate it in regular course work. The best course to be is that all teachers of different subjects would teach learning strategies, in a way to provide learners with an opportunity to transfer strategies learned in one subject to another.

C.III.3.Motivation and learning.

One of our research suggestions insists on creating motivation that pushes students to enjoy the activity of writing by diversifying the authentic texts which spur students' eagerness to know more about the foreign language and its people is also another factor stressed by this research.

Countless definitions of motivation have been proposed along the course of decades of research. What seems very acceptable and important for us, according to our research is the combination of effort , the desire to achieve the goal of learning and favorable attitudes towards learning the language. Learning a foreign language involves more than simply learning skills, or a system of rules, or grammar; it involves the alteration of self-image, the adoption of a new social and cultural behaviours and ways of being, and therefore has a significant impact on the social nature of the learner(Schmitt 2010).

Motivation is also typically examined in terms of the intrinsic and extrinsic motives of the learner. Learners who learn foreign languages for their self-perceived needs and goals are intrinsically motivated. However, those who engage themselves in learning within the ultimate goal of receiving external rewards are extrinsically motivate. One of the most important conclusions reached in our investigation is the need for creating motivation that pushes students to enjoy the activity of writing by diversifying the authentic texts which spur students' eagerness to know more about the foreign language and its people is also another factor stressed by this research.

C.III.4.Class management

We do recognize, based on research evidence, that the large classes restrict innovative teaching in Writing. However, it is highly recommended within new modes and global reforms to introduce a minimum of innovation in the learning- teaching process. Combined lecturing and cooperative teaching help learners experience new strategies and transform knowledge gained in different lectures to written modes expressed in appropriate and well organized style.

C.III.5.Improving the quality of students learning

Considering the positive and gradual development in our participants' scores in the experiment, we recommend any teacher to be innovative and creative. It is sometimes very difficult for a teacher to assume all these roles at a time, but it is very important to know that at a long term, the efforts become valuable. The development of students' intellectual and imaginative powers, their understanding and judgments , their problem-solving skills, their ability to communicate, their ability to see relationships with what they have learned and to perceive their field of study in broader perspectives. The programme must aim to stimulate an enquiry, analytical and creative approach, encouraging independent judgments and critical self awareness.

According to Packler (1991) the considerably higher demands on students in terms of language generation and productive skills such

as essay writing and presentation, as well as receptive skills such as reading extensively presuppose much greater implicit and explicit knowledge of grammar, knowledge, register and vocabulary. At an advanced level, students are expected to produce discursive texts on social, political and economic topics for which they require much greater general knowledge of the target language and culture. There are also demands on students to work independently and autonomously. They are required to reflect continuously and systematically upon the learning process and development. Hence language graduates programmes can be expected to offer the following:

- Communication skills including written and oral presentations, negotiating and receiving feedback. The most important think to develop is reflective writing as it will be discussed later.
- Interpersonal skills including team work and dealing with people.
- ‘self’ skills including self awareness, self motivation, organization and time management.
- Intellectual skills including critical reasoning, problem solving, analysis and synthesis.
- Information handling skills including identification of issues, synthesizing and presenting data.
- Innovations help the teacher to shift from certain traditional modes

of teaching and smoothly moves to responsible learning where any learner is aware of the strategies he/she uses to optimize his learning potential to the maximum.

The primary objective of written expression teacher is not only to give theoretical notions on writing but also to deal with enough practical implementations of such notions and concepts as unity, cohesion, coherence...and so on. In practice, the following points are worth reconsidering:

- Teachers should have a clear, well-built and suitable methodology to teach writing as a skill, and style as a very component of that skill. More important than all, there should be trained enough teachers in charge of written expression.

- Designing writing activities that create continuous contact between the students and extra written authentic texts in order to develop within the learners the good habit of reading. By doing this , we may eliminate the pictures that have been fossilized in students' mind towards reading and which urge the learners to read only for exams sake.

- Grammar and written expression should be taught as one module. "Writing" where grammar will be the theoretical side of the course and written expression will be the practical one.

-As supported by some of the research results, teachers of literature , civilization, and linguistics , should also give more importance to the styles in which students write rather than on considering only the content of what they write. It is in these modules that students should learn different academic styles: (narrative, argumentative , descriptive ..etc)

-More practice and exercises on stylistic elements and cohesive techniques are required in courses other than written expression. We do acknowledge that this may seem to be an extra burden for the teacher to assume and very difficult to realize. We have to consider that the overall teaching objective is to prepare proficient speakers and writers in English as a foreign language. Cooperative work among the teachers might help a lot in that sense.

-As it is claimed by many students themselves: “Is there a possibility of bringing native speakers into the classroom as teachers ?” like in most of the countries .

Main Conclusion.

This research investigates the effectiveness of using authentic written texts as teaching inputs in courses other than written expression to develop learning academic style in the department of English at Batna university. The aim was to find out through combined research methods applied with second year students, a way of approaching the academic writing style in a cooperative teaching model.

The investigation findings, it was hoped, would answer two main questions raised in our research aiming to clarify :1 *“To what extent can authentic material employed in teaching grammar be useful for developing students writing skills”?* and 2: *“ To what extent can the students benefit from a grammar-written expression combined course to develop academic writing skills?”*

We tried to address these questions through collecting and interpreting data from the experiment tests' scores and students' opinions and viewpoints through a questionnaire. Through triangulation, the data collected and analyzed allowed us to check both qualitatively and quantitatively the extent to which our hypotheses stated in the general introduction are tested.

Learners' performances in the experiment and their responses to the different items of the questionnaire on the issue under study helped

us to suggest that at this stage, some points are of value and deserve to be reconsidered.

During the four phases of the experimental treatment, second year students received a specific way of grammar learning in an attempt to enhance their writing style. The progress of the experimental group in the tests has proved the effectiveness of authentic material instruction-based language teaching .It provided learners with varied ways of learning from exposure to different contexts and to new words improving their level of written language proficiency, especially in style.

The data collected during the main tests and submitted to analysis was interpreted to show the extent of improvement among experimental group learners at all levels of scores in the selection and employment of words through correct use of grammatical structures to express ideas in an accepted academic written works.

Despite the fact that some learners did not get any better , we still believe that the general opinion made at the end of the experiment optimistically encourages us to say that through more learning and training in the same framework, these students can go beyond their actual level and competences and achieve better.

In writing academic style, students still show a significant linguistic incompetence. The problem originates from many factors, and in most of the cases lies in the teachers' insufficient preparation of the statements in both theoretical knowledge of academic style and the appropriate practical approach to it. Teachers often comment on the students' style in the exam paper and rarely devote lessons to teach this topic in particular.

Communicating in a foreign language means using appropriately either one of the two forms of the language. Learners receive intensive written courses, yet they are still unfamiliar with the basic rudiments of stylistic devices used in academic writing.

There is no formal complementarity between the different modules that can enhance writing abilities. Different modules rely on students' written performances in assessment but do not explicitly target the writing skill and style in the course objectives. In courses like literature, linguistics and civilization, the focus is on the content more than on the form.

According to the questionnaire results, students do not show considerable interest in learning in general and in writing in particular. Official exams are the only incentives that urge them to write. Two sets of exams throughout the whole year are not enough to bring learners

enquire more about their learning. Motivating students requires more tests which keep them in continuous contact with their material.

What students are expected to receive in written expression concerning academic style is not what teachers actually provide. To assert that learners face minor difficulties in learning indicates clearly the little attention given to this issue; its consequences are widely witnessed when these learners are exposed to tests that require specific stylistic elements.

The data and its analysis gave us valuable evidence to assert that teaching writing academic style part of the students linguistic competence in the department of English at the university of Batna is far from being accurately carried out. The problem lies primarily in the gap between the different courses content that students take. Many factors contribute to this scene. Prominent among them is the absence of a unified teaching program that targets one whole objective.

As a matter of fact, two thirds of the English department teachers are B.A holders. This – it has to be said - has considerable effects on students' learning due to the quality of teaching they receive. Claiming that the type of training concerning writing which students presently receive in this department is appropriate and the kind of the instruction is adequate means simply ignoring the problem.

The very detailed data gathered along the investigation with consideration to all items of study have helped us to reach certain evidence that strengthen our hypotheses. Based on our research results , we may assert that the idea of restricting the teaching of written competences only to written expression courses seems to be a bias challenged by this research results both quantitatively and qualitatively. Having also gained considerable knowledge on this issue, field work suggests that authentic materials can and should be used in many other different courses than in oral and written expression. Students writing has considerably changed through training them in how to exploit native speaker's writings in a way that raises their academic styles.

While conducting this investigation ,we have tried to consider all the possible factors that are likely to facilitate the research and bring useful results. Meanwhile ,we remain convinced that readers may find that other elements were less valued or insufficiently explored. When bringing our work to its conclusion we realized that further studies may be carried out for improving the teaching of writing academic style taking this research as a starting point.

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Appendix2

Samples of authentic texts

American Holidays

For constitutional reasons, the United States does not have national holidays in the sense that most other nations do, i.e. days on which all businesses are closed by law and employees have a day off. Pursuant to the Tenth Amendment, the U.S. federal government only has constitutional jurisdiction to establish holidays for itself, for certain federally chartered and regulated businesses (such as federal banks), and for Washington, D.C.; otherwise, constitutional authority to create public holidays is a power reserved to the states. Most states also allow local jurisdictions (cities, villages, etc.) to establish their own local holidays. As a result, holidays are not governed at the federal level as each state has jurisdiction over its holidays. Although holidays are declared as official, the government, whether it be federal, state, or local, cannot dictate to businesses when they need to officially close.

As of 2012, there are eleven federal holidays in the United States, ten annual holidays and one quadrennial holiday (Inauguration Day). Pursuant to the Uniform Monday Holiday Act of 1968 (effective 1971), official holidays are observed on a Monday, except for New Year's Day, Independence Day, Veterans Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas.

All current federal holidays have also been made public holidays in all 50 states. States are not bound to observe the holidays on the same dates as the federal holidays but they are free to do as they will. Many states also have additional holidays that are not observed by the U.S. federal government, such as Cesar Chavez Day (California, Colorado, and Texas), Emancipation Day (District of Columbia, Florida, Kentucky, Mississippi, Texas, and the U.S. Virgin Islands), Susan B. Anthony Day (California, Florida, New York, Wisconsin, and West Virginia), and Good Friday (a legal holiday in 12 states). The day after Thanksgiving is a public holiday in California.^[5]

Malls, shopping centers and most retail stores close only on Thanksgiving and Christmas and many on Easter Sunday as well, but remain open on all other holidays (early closing on Christmas Eve and New Year's Eve, and sometimes on other major holidays).^[6] Virtually all companies observe and close on the major holidays (New Year's Day, Memorial Day, Independence Day, Labor Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas). Some non-retail businesses close on the day after Thanksgiving (Black Friday) while some (such as federal banks and post offices) are not allowed to close on the day after Thanksgiving. Some smaller businesses normally open on Sunday will close on Easter Sunday, if in their experience they will have very few customers that day.

British food

British food has traditionally been based on beef, lamb, pork, chicken and fish and generally served with potatoes and one other vegetable. The most common and typical foods eaten in Britain include the sandwich, fish and chips, pies like the cornish pasty, trifle and roasts dinners

Traditional English dishes have had competition from other dishes over the years. Despite this, if you visit England, you can still be served up the traditional foods we have been eating for years

Yorkshire Pudding

This dish is not usually eaten as a dessert like other puddings but instead as part of the main course or at a starter.

Yorkshire pudding, made from flour, eggs and milk, is a sort of batter baked in the oven and usually moistened with gravy.

The traditional way to eat a Yorkshire pudding is to have a large, flat one filled with gravy and vegetables as a starter of the meal. Then when the meal is over, any unused puddings should be served with jam or ice-cream as a dessert.

Toad-in-the-Hole (sausages covered in batter and roasted.)

Similar to Yorkshire Pudding but with sausages placed in the batter before cooking. (See photo right)

Roast Meats (cooked in the oven for about two hours)

Typical meats for roasting are joints of beef, pork, lamb or a whole chicken. More rarely duck, goose, gammon, turkey or game are eaten. Beef is eaten with hot white horseradish sauce, pork with sweet apple sauce and lamb with green mint sauce.

Fish and chips

Fish (cod, haddock, huss, plaice) deep fried in

flour batter with chips (fried potatoes) dressed in malt vinegar. This is England's traditional take-away food or as US would say "to go". Fish and chips are not normally home cooked but bought at a fish and chip shop ("chippie") to eat on premises or as a "take away

Black Pudding (Blood Pudding)

Looks like a black sausage. It is made from dried pigs blood and fat). Eaten at breakfast time Black pudding recipes vary from region to region, some are more peppery and some are more fatty than others([adapted from www.mandybarrow.com](http://www.mandybarrow.com)

The Historical development of Astrology

Along with literature, painting and sculpture, the art of astrology reached new heights in the rebirth of classical culture in the European Renaissance of 1450-1700. The Renaissance philosopher and astrologer Marsilio Ficino, writing in 1492, proclaimed, "This century, like a golden age, has restored to light the liberal arts, which were almost extinct: grammar, poetry, rhetoric, painting, sculpture, architecture, music...this century appears to have perfected [astrology]." Quoted in Peter & Linda Murray, *The Art of the Renaissance* (London, Thames & Hudson, 1963) page 7. Several contrasting trends were manifest in Renaissance astrology. There was a tendency towards the adoption of Hellenistic astrological techniques and a new emphasis on the Greek astrologer Ptolemy, alongside a continuation of medieval astrology largely derived from Islam. There were also efforts to rationalize and improve the accuracy of astrology, although many astrologers persisted in their accustomed ways. Astrology also became more popular than ever with the adoption of printing and the dissemination of almanacs, yet it increasingly came under fire as the Renaissance gave way to the Enlightenment.

Arabic astrology represented a heady mix of Persian, Hebrew, Harranian Sabian and Hindu astrologies, though its basis was Greek and Roman astrology. This core of classical astrology, as further developed by the Arabic astrologers, was then transmitted to the West as part of the "new science" in the twelfth and thirteen centuries.

The development of astrology in the Middle East followed a course with considerable continuity, but there were some significant changes from Hellenistic and Roman practice. One of these changes was the adoption of house systems and aspect orbs. Greek and Roman astrologers appear primarily to have used the whole sign or sign-house system

As medieval civilization grew in size and complexity, the necessary knowledge to erect and delineate charts became more widely dispersed and employed. It became commonplace, particularly in the advanced city-states of northern Italy, for nobles, kings and the wealthy bourgeoisie to consult astrologers for guidance in their affairs. Astrology was taught at many universities and was a generally accepted part of the medieval world view, metaphysics and philosophy. Thus, Greek and Roman astrology, modified by Arabic practice and passed on to Europe in the Middle Ages, became the astrology of the Renaissance.

(summarized from *Mountain Astrologer*: <http://www.renaissanceastrology.com/astrologyinrenaissancemain.html>)

Media, globalization and an society

In modern world, people's individual voice can be heard globally through advanced media and technology. Globalization of the communication industry and tools make our life more convenient and it provides a range of wide understanding ways to the world. Cultures, news, trends, information and even people are able to reach all over the world easier and quicker than ever before. "Globalization means time- space compression." (Nederveen Pieterse, 2004: 8) Modernization and globalization have helped spreading the rise of media and technology systems which allow us to easy access to information without considering the distance. For example, we are able to obtain world breaking news online every second no matter where you are. Some people strongly say that globalization does not exist without mass media. Hachten and Scotton say for the last sentence of the article that "no doubts exist about the importance to the world of the newspaper, news agencies, and broadcasters that report the world's news to itself." (2002:14) However, is it still important even if the news have a prejudice or controlled by certain people? Furthermore, the mass media is not the only system that spread over by globalization, but also western corporations have an opportunity to work in global and introduce their products largely. Then, does globalization bring advantages to everyone in the world? This essay will discuss the role of the mass media and transnational corporation in globalization and argue what globalization has been really effecting to us and who are in a charge of this.

Media are among the most powerful and effective institutions on the earth today. Everyone depend on receiving important information and knowledge from the mass media such as TV, the press, radio, movie and the internet and it plays a significant role in our life. "Many millions more people than ever before now have access to news and information

The British Museum

The British Museum is a museum in London dedicated to human history and culture. Its permanent collection, numbering some 8 million works, is among the largest and most comprehensive in existence and originates from all continents, illustrating and documenting the story of human culture from its beginnings to the present.

The British Museum was established in 1753, largely based on the collections of the physician and scientist Sir Hans Sloane. The museum first opened to the public on 15 January 1759 in Montagu House in Bloomsbury, on the site of the current museum building. Its expansion over the following two and a half centuries was largely a result of an expanding British colonial footprint and has resulted in the creation of several branch institutions, the first being the British Museum (Natural History) in South Kensington in 1881. Some objects in the collection, most notably the Elgin Marbles from the Parthenon, are the objects of controversy and of calls for restitution to their countries of origin.

Although today principally a museum of cultural art objects and antiquities, the British Museum was founded as a "universal museum". Its foundations lie in the will of the physician and naturalist Sir Hans Sloane (1660–1753). During the course of his lifetime Sloane gathered an enviable collection of curiosities and, not wishing to see his collection broken up after death, he bequeathed it to King George II, for the nation, for the princely sum of £20,000.

At that time, Sloane's collection consisted of around 71,000 objects of all kinds including some 40,000 printed books, 7,000 manuscripts, extensive natural history specimens including 337 volumes of dried plants, prints and drawings including those by Albrecht Dürer and antiquities from Sudan, Egypt, Greece, Rome, the Ancient Near and Far East and the Americas.

On 7 June 1753, King George II gave his formal assent to the Act of Parliament which established the British Museum. The British Museum Act 1753 also added two other libraries to the Sloane collection, namely the Cottonian Library, assembled by Sir Robert Cotton, dated back to Elizabethan times and the Harleian library, the collection of the Earls of Oxford. They were joined in 1757 by the Royal Library, assembled by various British monarchs. Together these four "foundation collections" included many of the most treasured books now in the British Library including the Lindisfarne Gospels and the sole surviving copy of *Beowulf*.

