ABSTRACT

This study aims to compare and contrast the use of topic strategies and signals in English and Arabic expository writing using Goutsos's model of topic organization. The subjects were divided into two groups of students: Native Speakers of English (NSE) and Non-Native Speakers of English (NNSE). The two groups were in secondary schools. The NSE wrote expository compositions in English while the NNSE wrote expository compositions in Arabic and English. The data obtained from the writing samples were analyzed qualitatively and also quantitatively to find out the similarities and differences in the usage of topic strategies and topic signals by native speakers of English and non-native speakers of English in Arabic and English expository essays. The findings of this study showed that the expository writing of both groups of NSE and NNSE exhibit similarities. However; they might differ slightly in the occurrence of certain devices than others. This may be accounted for by the differences of conventions of writing in the two languages as well as some linguistic disparities. The two groups employed the sequential strategies for continuity and discontinuity. They used them to signal the closing of a continuation span, starting a transition span and opening a new continuation span. However, there appear to be some differences in this application (quantity-wise and quality-wise). These differences may be caused by the influence of mother tongue, competence in the language (whether native or non-native), instruction on how to write, ignorance or negligence of the sequential techniques by the students, the teachers or the textbook designers. The study suggested that English teachers should integrate the teaching of reading and writing English and introduce all the topic signals when they are teaching so that students would know and learn the characteristic features of good English writing.

ABSTRACT IN ARABIC

(مستخلص البحث)

تهدف هذه الدراسة لمقارنة و مغايرة استخدام استراتيجيات الموضوع و اشارات الموضوع في الكتابة الإيضاحية في اللغة الإنجليزية و اللغة العربية باستعمال نموذج جوستوس لتنظيم الموضوع. قسم المبحوثين إلى مجموعتين من الطلاب: الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أم و غير الناطقين بالإنجليزية كلغة أم. كلتا المجموعتين من طلاب المدارس الثانوية. كتب الناطقون بالإنجليزية كلغة أم موضوعا بالإنجليزية في حين كتب غير الناطقين بالإنجليزية موضوعا بالإنجليزية و آخر بالعربية. حللت البيانات المتحصل عليها من عينات الكتابة تحليلا نوعيا و أيضا كميا و ذلك لتحديد أوجه الشبه و الإختلاف في استخدام استراتيجيات الموضوع و اشارات الموضوع من قبل الناطقين بالإنجليزية كلغة أم و غير الناطقين بها كلغة أم في كتابة المقالات الإيضاحية . أوضحت نتائج هذه الدراسة أن الكتابة الإيضاحية عند كلتا المجموعتين الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أم و غير الناطقين بالإنجليزية كلغة أم تظهر تشابها. و من ناحية أخرى ، فإنه ربما يبدو هناك اختلاف طفيف في استخدام بعض الاستراتيجيات و الإشارات . و يعزى السبب في ذلك إلى الإختلاف في قواعد الكتابة في اللغتين أضافة إلى بعض التباين اللغوي. استخدمت المجموعتان استرتيجيات التتابع للمواصلة و الوقوف. و هم يستخدمونها للإيماء بقفل فترة المواصلة و انشاء فترة انتقالية ثم استهلال فترة جديدة للمواصلة. و على كل ، يبدو أن هناك بعض الإختلافات في هذا الاستخدام (من الناحيتين الكمية و النوعية). و قد يكون منشأ ذلك تأثير اللغة الأم و الكفاية اللغوية (اللغة الأم و اللغة الأجنبية) و طريقة تدريس مهارة الكتابة وجهل الطلاب و المعلمين و مصممي الكتب المدرسية بأساليب المتابعة أو اهمالهم لها . و تقترح الدراسة أن يقوم معلمو اللغة الإنجليزية بتكامل القراءة و الكتابة فى اللغة الإنجليزية و أن يقوموا بتدريس كل اشارات الموضوع حتى يعرف الطلاب الخواص المميزة للكتابة الجيدة باللغة الإنجليزية و يتعلمونها.

ABSTRACT IN MALAY

(ABSTRAK)

Kajian ini bertujuan untuk membandingkan penggunaan strategi topik dan isyarat topik dalam penulisan ekspositori Bahasa Inggeris dan Bahasa Arab, dengan menggunakan Model Penyusunan Topik Goutsos (Goutsos's Model of Topic Organization). Subjek telah dibahagikan kepada dua kumpulan pelajar: penutur asli Bahasa Inggeris (NSE) dan penutur bukan asli Bahasa Inggeris (NNSE). Kedua-dua kumpulan berada di sekolah menengah. NSE telah menulis komposisi ekspositori dalam Bahasa Inggeris manakala NNSE telah menulis komposisi ekspositori dalam Bahasa Arab dan Bahasa Inggeris. Data yang telah diperolehi daripada sampel penulisan telah dianalisa secara kualitatif dan juga secara kuantitatif untuk mengetahui persamaan dan dalam penggunaan strategi topik dan isyarat topik oleh penutur asli bahasa Inggeris dan penutur Inggeris bukan asli dalam esei-esei ekspositori Bahasa Inggeris dan Bahasa Arab. Kajian ini telah mendapati bahawa penulisan ekspositori kedua-dua pelajar Bahasa Arab dan Bahasa Inggeris mempamerkan persamaan. Walau bagaimanapun, mereka mungkin sedikit berbeza dalam kewujudan alat-alat tertentu, daripada yang lain. Ini boleh dijelaskan dengan mengambil kira perbezaan dalam peraturan penulisan dalam kedua-dua bahasa tersebut serta beberapa perbezaan linguistik. Kedua-dua kumpulan telah menggunakan strategi-strategi berurutan untuk kesinambungan dan ketidaksinambungan. Mereka menggunakan strategi-strategi tersebut untuk memberi isyarat penutupan tempoh kesinambungan, bermulaan tempoh peralihan dan pembukaan tempoh kesinambungan baru. Walau bagaimanapun, ia kelihatan bahawa terdapat beberapa perbezaan dalam aplikasi ini (dari segi kuantiti dan dari segi kualiti). Perbezaan ini mungkin disebabkan oleh pengaruh bahasa ibunda, kecekapan dalam bahasa itu (sama ada anak negeri atau asing), tahap kecekapan dalam Bahasa tersebut (tidak kira untuk penutur

asli atau asing), arahan mengenai cara untuk menulis, kejahilan atau pengabaian dalam teknik-teknik sekuensial oleh para pelajar, guru atau pereka buku teks. Kajian ini mencadangkan bahawa guru-guru Bahasa Inggeris perlu mengintegrasikan pengajaran membaca dan menulis, dan memperkenalkan kesemua isyarat topik apabila mereka mengajar supaya pelajar akan tahu dan mempelajari ciri-ciri khas penulisan Bahasa Inggeris yang baik.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ESL	English as a Second Language
NNSE	Non-Native Speakers of English
NSE	Native Speakers of English
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
SPINE	Sudan Practical Integrated National English
EST	English Speakers Text
SAT	Sudanese Arabic Test
SET	Sudanese English Test

LIST OF APPENDICES

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with a brief account of the effect of language contact. It introduces the study by providing the statement of the problem, the significance of the research, the research objectives, and the research questions. The scope and limitations as well as the conceptual definitions of terms are also provided.

1.2 A brief account of the effect of language contact

The comparative studies deal with the historical relations between languages in terms of their influence on one another. Such studies explore the overlap between languages where the counterpoints exist (Hilal: 1962 and Nada: 1991).

Language originates locally; somewhere and in a particular nation which lies in a specific environment. As such, language responds to the needs and demands of that nation in that environment. However, languages can cross the national borders and transcend into the territories of other languages and other nations.

Languages are not considered rich only in terms of their lexicon; they are richer in terms of their ability to express ideas and concepts. Nevertheless, languages interact with other languages in their neighbourhood. They mimic each other and echo the means of expression; they reflect the patterns of thinking; they transfer thought in order to enrich their national culture. When a language gets in contact with other languages, it does so in

order to enrich its arts with stylistic techniques, imagery and thought so that it succeeds in occupying its place as being an international language.

If comparison is to be made between languages that share historical relations, it is important not to ignore such relations that have continued over the ages. Languages and arts flourish in the times of progress and development. Modern Arabic arts flourished in modern times. The question that poses itself is how that has been made possible. This is the result of renewal movements. Languages and their arts are renewed by the renewal of the sources of thought which are only renewed through the contact between languages.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Many researchers agree that a certain amount of surface signals or cohesive markers in discourse are necessary for ease of processing and producing an organized and coherent text in sequential order (Enkvist: 1978). For example, Mulyani (2012) conducted a study to investigate the use of the cohesive devices in the writing texts of secondary school teacher training participants. She argued that second language learners' writers have to pay attention to 'higher-level skills of planning and organizing as well as lower level skills of spelling, punctuation, word choice and so on'. According to her own experience, she stated that learners have problems in English writing skills. They found difficulty in constructing an organized and coherent text in English. When they write a composition, they have difficulties at the discourse level. They also have problems on the organizational level such as 'poor topic continuance, inadequate use of examples and details, limited vocabulary, and the poor or inadequate use of cohesive devices.

From the experience of the researcher in dealing with writing of composition students at secondary level, it became clear that Sudanese learners of English at secondary level lack the knowledge and the skill of topic organization in their production of expository writing. The final product of their composition lacks the coherent structure which is based on the employment of sequential strategies of topic continuity and topic discontinuity (Goutsos: 1997). The instruction they receive and the materials they use do not focus on this important aspect. From another angle, their writing skills in their mother tongue heavily influence their product in the foreign language.

1.4 Significance of the research

This study is concerned with the writing problems that are faced by the students and seeks to find out solutions to overcome those difficulties. It sheds light on the crucial role of linguistic devices in the management of topic and highlights the important role of these linguistic devices in the topic organization and as a means by which writers start, continue, and end expository discourse as well as the organization of the expository text.

It is hoped that the findings of this study will increase the awareness of the use of linguistic devices that will automatically contribute positively to foreign languages teaching and learning especially in writing a coherent and organized composition in English and Arabic and enable teachers to evaluate their students' writing. Moreover, the study can contribute towards materials preparation.

The results of this study can improve the awareness of English teachers and ESL students on the significant role of surface signals or cohesive markers in discourse as a source of

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coherence and therefore provide them with a pedagogical approach of text organization. Moreover, the results of this study indicate the significant role of evaluating the organization of students' compositions and consequently improve students' writing essays.

1.5 Research objectives

This study has the following objectives:

1. Comparing and contrasting the use of topic signals and topic strategies in English and Arabic expository essays.

2. Investigating the dominant elements of topic signals and topic strategies used in English and Arabic expository essays.

3. Providing a coherent framework of topic organization which can work out as a frame of reference for the evaluation and assessment of the learners' production in expository writing.

1.6 Research questions

This study is going to answer the following questions:

1. How frequently do English and Arabic students use topic strategies and topic signals in writing English expository essays and how frequently do Arabic students do so in writing Arabic ones?

a. How are these topic strategies used in the English expository essays by English and Arabic students?

b. How are these topic signals used in the English expository essays by English and Arabic students?

c. How are these topic strategies and topic signals used in the Arabic expository essays by Arabic students?

2. To what extent do English and Arabic students follow Goutsos' model with regard to topic strategies and topic signals?

1.7 Conceptual definitions of terms

1.7.1 Topic signals

Goutsos (1997: 72) stated that these are linguistic items or devices used by writers and perceived by readers as signals of discourse pattern of organization (Gumperz: 1982, Hoey: 1983 and Brown and Yule: 1983) which are:

1. Orthographic markers: paragraph breaks and parentheses.

2. Metadiscourse items, such as *here, at this point, to sum up.*

3. Discourse markers, such as *now, then, therefore, thus, so, and, but.*

4. Sentence structure, such as sentence-initial adjuncts and light thematic structures.

5. Time framing, such as tense shift and tense continuity.

6. Cohesive devices are included among others, ellipsis, substitution, pronominaliztion, repetition and encapsulation.

7. Prediction pairs.

Goutsos (1997: 72)

1.7.1.1 Topic strategies

The topic strategies are subdivided into: topic continuation and topic shift strategies. Topic continuity is realized by the technique of topic continuation, whereas topic shift is realized by the techniques of topic framing, topic introduction, and topic closure.

(a) Topic framing:

'The topic framing shows the closing of the current continuation span and the opening of a transition one' (Goutsos 1997: 47).

(b) Topic introduction:

The topic introduction deals with the opening of a continuation span. In the following extract, the use of renominalization *Saddam* in 6.1 signals topic introduction, whereas reference to the same topic entity in the previous continuation space (extending up to 6.1) is made by pronouns. E6: 5.5 The object of the exercise, of Resolution 660, was to get Saddam out of his Nineteenth Province.   5.6 He now says he is ready to go […] 6.1 *Allowing Saddam to retreat now is not, automatically, to turn him into hero (as nightmare scenarios insist).* 6.2 Quite the contrary on any rational view.   6.3 He was, already, before war began, the leader of a regime tottering beyond its normal life span.

(c) Topic closure:

The topic closure is an optional technique that shows the opening of a transition span with upcoming closing of the current continuation span. Paragraph breaks are used as signals to topic closure.

(d) Topic continuation:

The topic continuation is the occurrence between two following topic shifts (indicating discontinuity or specifically effecting transition from one continuation span to another). Parenthesis is a further orthographic signal of topic continuation.

1.8 Expository writing

Expository writing is a kind of discourse which has its purpose, to explain, to state, or to support a subject, idea, event, or some factual information (Arena: 1975). Exposition is that 'type of writing that defines, interprets, and explains' (Shaw: 1984: 87). It is considered as one of the four wide kinds of written discourse that is more commonly used than the other three categories: narration, description, and argumentation (Arena: 1975). Arena stated that the primary function of expository writing is to 'inform a reader, not to narrate a story, describe an event, or convince an audience.'

The purpose of exposition is to make a subject understandable therefore; in order to achieve this purpose good expository writing must be carefully planned, developed with apparent logical structure, clarity and coherence and subsequently interesting (Shaw: 1984).

The following sections are found in expository writing:

(a) The introductory paragraph

This is the first paragraph in the expository essay. The purpose of the introduction is to introduce the topic to the audience (Reid: 1988b). The introduction often starts with a general statement about the topic that provides the reader with general information about the topic.

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The introduction narrows from that general information to thesis sentence. A thesis sentence is the clearest, the most general, and the most important sentence in the essay. It generally comes at the end of the introduction. Moreover, it contains controlling ideas that confine and direct the rest of the essay. The following sentence is an example of a thesis sentence:

A successful soccer coach has four qualities.   (controlling ideas underlined)

(Reid: 1988b: 49)

The thesis must be in a statement form and never in a question form. The followings are examples of transition devices that occur at the end of the introductory paragraph: *but, however, on the other hand, conversely, on the contrary, while it is true that …, granted that, no doubt, to be sure, for example…, for instance* (Guth: 1970: 49 in Arena: 1975: 98).

(b) The body

The body is located in the middle of the essay. Reid (1988b) stated that it consists of a number of paragraphs.

(c) The conclusion

The conclusion comes at the end of the essay (Reid: 1988b). It contains a brief summary of the essay without repeating exactly the same words and a restatement to the thesis or the central topic of the essay. It includes one or more of the following: a prediction, a recommendation, or a solution.

The conclusion should start with a narrow statement that connects the concluding paragraph with the last body paragraph and contains more details than the introductory paragraph.

The structure of the conclusion paragraph is the opposite of the introduction paragraph. The following are some examples of transition devices which signal the end of the essay:

That is, in other words, in short, to conclude, to sum up, so, therefore, thus, accordingly, consequently, as a result, hence.

<div align="right">(Arena: 1975: 97).</div>

1.9 Arabic composition and oral speaking

Expression (Alta'beer) in Arabic is one of the linguistic communication arts and a branch of the linguistic material branches. The proper and clear expression is an aim of basic language teaching; all branches of the language are means to serve and achieve this purpose or aim. Therefore, it deserves the greatest attention from the teacher (Aamer: 2000).

He added that the expression is the flow of speech from the lips of the speakers or writer; it depicts what it feels like, what he thinks, or what he wants to ask or clarify about.

Therefore, the interest in the expression is a necessity of education that is imposed by the learner in his life, which consist of the knowledge and achievement, and in the future and looks forward to the culture and civilization, and the prospect of sciences, and social authoring (Abu Magla: 2005).

Expression derives its importance in many ways: it is the most important desired goals of language study because it is a means of comprehending, which is one side of the process of understanding. It is a way to connect to other individual, and a tool to strengthen the intellectual and social links between individuals.

It is an aim in language study while the other branches of the language such as reading, font, and text dictation, and poems and the rules, are all ways to help that contribute to enable the student towards beautiful, sound, clear expression.

Expression has an evaluative function, from which the writer is tested by his skills in the use of grammar, font, spelling, and the sequence of ideas and methods.

Expression can be classified into oral speaking and composition. In compositions, the student expresses what he thinks or feels in his writing and it depends on his level of education and how much reading he does. It is divided into four types, namely descriptive (expository and descriptive), persuasive and argumentative, narrative and creative compositions. The descriptive composition is that in which the writer describes and explains the topic and it is divided into three parts; introduction, body and conclusion. The introduction introduces the topic and consists of the thesis statement. The body describes and explains the thesis statement in details, in a number of paragraphs. The conclusion summarizes the composition.

1.10 The structure of the thesis

Chapter two provides a literature review on different approaches to writing instruction, gives a critical account of the relevant ones, and highlights Goutsos' topic structure model for expository texts and why it is chosen. Chapter three reviews literature on writing and researches that have been carried out in EFL/ESL. Chapter four describes the data and the methodology adopted in this study. Chapter five gives the analysis and discussion of data. Chapter six presents the summary of the results, highlights the contributions of this study,

gives the implications of the research, and finally suggests recommendations for further studies.

1.11 Research methodology

This study is descriptive and analytical in nature. It uses samples of expository writing composition produced by secondary school students as its primary data.

The writing samples will be subjected to in-depth qualitative analysis which will be supported by rigorous quantitative analysis. Both types of analyses will produce results that will be used to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER 2

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter first provides a general review of different approaches to writing instruction. Then, it gives a critical account of the relevant ones. Finally, it provides a background to Goutsos' model, highlights Goutsos' topic structure model for expository texts and why it is chosen.

2.2 Review of different approaches to writing instruction

2.2.1 Approaches to ESL writing instruction

Until recently, ESL research on writing has been affected closely by L1 (first language) research (Silva: 1990). Nevertheless, the distinct context of ESL composition requires a rather unique perspective, models, and practices. During the earlier period 1945-1990, a succession of L2 writing approaches has been dominant and some have faded away. A brief account of some approaches will be given based on their origins and principles.

(a) Controlled composition

Controlled composition was influenced by the principles of structural linguistics that describe language as speech influenced by behaviorist psychology that defines learning as a process of habit formation. Thus, writing was deemed to provide practice of specific language features and to prevent students from making errors. It was believed that making errors was practicing incorrect habits. Free composition was seen as an error-reinforcing activity as students make errors while composing.

A controlled composition consists of a written model with specific structure to be followed. Raimes (1983) stated that the controlled approach in writing is sequential: students are first required to perform exact copying of a short passage of prose. Later on, students might be asked to manipulate grammatically paragraphs, for instance, by changing a piece from past to future tense, make singular subjects plural with the subsequent changes of pronouns and verbs, or change a dialogue from direct to indirect form.

(b) Current traditional rhetoric

Controlled composition was not sufficient because it concentrated on constructing correct grammatical structure in every sentence and students need more than that in writing. ESL version of current-traditional rhetoric approach filled this space. Current-traditional rhetoric is a product-oriented approach which concentrates on paragraph construction and on essay development. It also tends to focus on different kinds of expository writing styles. Sliva (1990) stated that for many years this approach has been 'under attack' but it is still quite dominant in ESL classrooms.

(c) The process approach

In the field of teaching writing, there were two reasons that shifted the focus away from a form-dominated approach and language-focused activities to an interest in discovering how writers write i.e. the process they follow in order to achieve the product. The first reason is that the controlled composition approach did not adequately encourage thought or its expression (Silva: 1990). The second reason is that the linearity of current-traditional rhetoric did not promote creative writing.

In the process approach, writers engage in different kinds of strategies and cognitive activities in order to create discourse. Neither the content nor the organizational patterns, structural, and lexical constraints are predetermined before the writing process begins, but they are negotiated during the process. This approach help learners to explore the topic through pre-writing activities such as discussion, brainstorming, reading, debate, planning and writing their drafts which they show to their teacher and peers to comment and help them to move to new ideas. In other words, students are given sufficient time to write and rewrite and they are also given feedback from the instructor and the other students to help them editing their final product or draft.

(d) Criticism of process-oriented instruction

Although the process-oriented instruction has become very popular, it has limitations. The prominence of the process approach led to the unmanageable and over-lengthy writing in class. Moreover, the concentration on the work of multiple drafts on particular texts, led the students feel uninterested in the class especially when they realize that the teacher represents the audience.

(e) English for academic purposes or the genre-based approach

In the 1990, the concentration of ESL composition has changed from writers to readers. This has happened to overcome the weaknesses in the product and process-based approaches. The alternative proposed approach takes genres as its primary focus; a category that relates the social purpose of a text to its language structure (Horowitz: 1986).

The genre-based approach is a heuristic in the sense that it gives very useful textual information and shows the association of rhetorical patterns with one particular type of considerably different genre.

2.3 A critical account of the relevant approaches to writing instruction

All the above approaches are indispensable to improve instruction in EFL writing. Current-traditional rhetoric appears to fill the vacuum between controlled and free writing. It concentrates on essay development (writing introduction, body and conclusion) and different kinds of expository writing styles rather than focusing on the organization of expository discourse particularly how writers of expository texts use mechanical expressions or linguistic means to introduce, continue, and end an expository discourse which produces a well organized and a coherent text. English as a foreign language (EFL) students have difficulties in writing coherent and organized English texts.

Most handbooks and textbooks agree that coherent texts have clear and smooth connections among sentences and paragraphs (Cerniglia, Medsker, and Connor: 1990). For instance, Bander (1983: 6) described 'a coherent paragraph when its ideas are clearly related to each other in orderly sequence'. Lauer, Montague, Munsford, and Emig (1985: 94) stated that 'coherence is a matter of putting the selected materials in the right order with the right connectives. These definitions are very abstract for real application by an inexperienced writer and do not offer great help to achieve coherence through revision.

Moreover, Cerniglia, Medsker, and Connor stated that in spite of the fact that coherence has also been of increasing interest to researchers around the world, practical applications of

coherence have been slow to come out. Researchers now are more concerned about finding a sufficient definition of coherence rather than distinguishing between coherence and cohesion. The problem with the definition of coherence has at least two competing orientations: one that emphasizes the reader's interaction with the text and one that concentrates on the text itself (Johns: 1986). A few text linguists have described coherence using linguistic features from the text in their attempts to operationalize theoretical concepts of coherence (Connor: 1984, lindeberg: 1985, Wikborg: 1985,). Coherent text is described by some researchers as text in which the expectations of the reader are fulfilled (Connor and Johns: 1990).

In spite of this recent focus on the interaction between reader and text, coherence continued to be discussed as a function of the text itself too (Connor and Johns: 1990). In both camps, researchers agree that a certain number of surface signals in discourse are necessary for ease of processing. Enkvist (1978: 126 &113) wrote:

If a text is to be well formed, … The general rule is that every sentence of a well-formed text must have a cross-reference to at least one other sentence, and there has to be an overall coherence involving the text as a whole.

Enkvist (1978: 126 &113)

Coherence occurs when some linguistic units are used in the text and becomes ordered and in completed sequences as Werlich (1976: 26) illustrated that:

'Coherence is created (- - -) whenever the (encoder) uses some linguistic units (usually a group of words or a sentence) as a text base unit with a theme and then expands this in linear progression in conventionally ordered and completed sequences of linguistic unit'.

Werlich (1976: 26)

Witte (1983) also used topical structure analysis to study patterns of freshman level students' writing to compare them with the quality ratings of their essays. He found that topical structure analysis was a good predicator of writing quality; however, he was not interested on topical structure analysis as a teaching tool. Topical structure analysis was investigated by Connor and Farmer (in press) as a revision tool and coherence check in intermediate and advanced ESL classes. 'They have adapted the ideas of Lautamatti and Witte to show students how to identify sentence topics, systematically chart topic progression, evaluate passage coherence, and employ revision strategies to improve the writing' (Cerniglia, Medsker, and Connor: 1990: 231-232).

Cerniglia, Medsker, and Connor extended the work of Connor and Famer in their project to develop a systematic instructional sequence to teach topical structure analysis by computer. They introduced a linguistically based method for students to examine coherence in their own texts. In their project, they explained the theory behind topical structure analysis and demonstrated the steps students can employ for performing this analysis.

Many researchers have indicated the importance of marking local logical structure in texts by connectors (i.e., conjunctions and sequential sentence adverbials, cf. (Tommola: 1982). McCutchen and Perfetti (1982) added that this marking has been discovered to be a sign of development in writing abilities throughout primary school and connectors have been found to be more common and to diversify in EFL texts written by advanced students than in texts produced by less advanced students.

Many discourse analysis researches have followed Halliday and Hassan's (1976) pioneering study. However, these studies have recognized a distinction between surface

cohesion and underlying coherence (cf. Enkvist: 1985 and Widdowson: 1978). Recent research has also shown a distinction between local and global coherence (see Ferrara: 1985), connecting importance to a textual mesolevel (episodes or conceptual paragraphs; see van Dijk: 1985). These less local views of coherence aid in explaining how underlying coherence and surface signals of that coherence interact in the construction of meaning. Specific types of surface markers, or connectors, are significant for the reader in the process of assigning mesolevel or global coherence to a text during processing.

It is believed that the effect of the surface marking of textual superstructure on assigned coherence has significant implications for the teaching of writing. Many immature students depend very much on implicit coherence, with too-large demands made on the readers' inferencing capabilities. Other students depend a lot on local coherence strategies or 'very simple global coherence strategies e.g. clinging to the time dimension in narratives, (Connor and Johns: 1990). Evensen (1990) developed taxonomy of pointers to rhetorical superstructure in his study "Pointers to Superstructure in Student writing". He applied it to EFL student writing collected in large-scale Scandinavian writing project. He made a distinction between these pointers and connectors based on the notions of global and local coherence. The classification of the pointers includes five categories: metatextual deixis, logical structure, topic markers, temporal points, and connectors used as points. The project showed that pointers play a role in the writing of advanced EFL learners.

From the above, it is clear that many researchers have agreed on the importance of the surface signals and linguistic units in discourse for ease of processing and producing an organized and coherent text in sequential order. However, they are not concerned with the linguistic devices or means by which writers start, continue, and end an expository

discourse as well as the organization of the expository text. Therefore, there is a need for a model to explain and describe the role of linguistic devices in the discourse topic organization and consequently as a source of coherence.

Research on writing has been conducted on the above mentioned approaches of writing while this research study has basically focused on contrastive rhetoric. This study is a contrastive rhetoric study between native speakers of English and Arabic that analyzes their English expository essays and also analyzes Arabic expository essay of native speakers of Arabic in order to investigate how the students organize their writing expository essays according to the topic organization model. It is more specifically concerned with the linguistic means by which writers begin, develop, and close an expository discourse as well as the organization of the expository text. As the linguistic devices or topic signals play an important role in the discourse topic organization, this study has chosen Goutsos' framework for the analysis of expository texts to identify the similarities and differences in the way the texts are written by two groups of Arabic and English students in order to enrich the studies conducted in contrastive rhetoric especially in the role of linguistic devices in topic organization and topic management. The following section explains the development and emergence of Goutsos' model.

2.4 Background to Goutsos's model

Goutsos has profited from the existing approaches to topic in grammatical and propositional theories in addition to studies of conversation, narrative, and non-narrative discourse. The following provides the reviewing of those approaches by Goutsos, explains the need for a model and then illustrates topic as a structuring framework.

2.5 Approaches of different facets of topic

In the '*what*' perspective, a common view is that a sentence is the starting point and a discourse organization is the outcome of interrelations between topics at the sentence level. Functional approaches following Halliday's model, Firbas's framework, and Daneš model of thematic progression are among the approaches that begin with a sentence-level identification of topic in order to produce an analysis of the discourse topic (Goutsos: 1997).

(a) Halliday's model

Halliday's notion of theme is illustrated in Halliday's frequently quoted formulation, "the point of departure for the message" (1985: 38). The point of departure (theme) is understood in English by the first ideational element in the clause while the rest composes the rheme of the clause. This theme-rheme structure cannot be assumed to cover the role of sentence-initial elements and this causes a problem in the identification of theme in word order patterns in which the subject is not the first constituent in the clause. Halliday considered sentence (not initial subjects) as marked theme. Therefore, Halliday's notion of theme cannot be applied with great success to languages of verb-initial sentence and is consequently considered as a language-specific category. In spite of this problem, Halliday's consistent linking of theme with initial position controls the significance of the effective use of meaning in a text and can thus gives fruitful insights.

Halliday (1985: 56) stated that thematic organization appears "in different guises throughout the system of the language, with manifestations both above the clause and below it" however he did not develop a description of topic for any level above the sentence. Fries (1983) as quoted by Goutsos represents the main approach to discourse

topic within systemic functional linguistics. Fries argued that the information revealed in the (Hallidayan) themes of all the sentences of a paragraph comprises the method of development for that paragraph. So narrative paragraphs consistently have adverbial phrases of time as themes, whereas a travel booklet would be assumed to thematize more place adverbials, e.g.:

On some islands it is best if you…

In Greece and Turkey, you are met at the airport…

In all other places we make bookings…

In spite of Brown and Yule (1983: 140) labeling of this sequence of themes as "thematic structure", it is not apparent whether what we are dealing with here is more than just consistency in choosing sentence-initial constituents from a particular content area.

Other systemic functional approaches that generally support Halliday's notion of theme are also related to the interrelation of method development with patterns of discourse organization. For example, Martin (1992) used the term "hypertheme" for the paragraph-level "theme" and "macrotheme" for the text level. Further, there is an implied relation of sentence position to the patterns of thematic progression and rhetorical structure. However, these descriptions have not been formalized enough to be of any practical use (Goutsos: 1997).

(b) Firbas' framework

Firbas is considered as one of the most famous exponents of the theory of Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP). Firbas' model refers to a scale of communicative dynamism (from theme and diatheme through transition to rheme) approved by the different elements

in the sentence. The elements with lower degrees of CD (communicative dynamism) are called the thematic or foundation-laying parts of the sentence and the ones with a higher degree the nonthematic or core-constituting parts. The transitional elements are the ones that fill the space between them.

In the syntactic arrangements, the actual position of the element suggests rather than determines the interpretative arrangement into theme and rheme. Context-independent elements possess higher degrees of CD than context-dependent ones. Verbs own a higher degree of CD unless there is a competition from a context independent object, complement, adverbial or subject.

The analysis of theme is dependent on what has preceded, as it takes the previous context into account. Thus in analyzing the below context:

J9: 4.2 *Last week he addressed British industrialist…*

<div align="right">(Goutsos: 1997: 14)</div>

The previous context must be referred to in order to explain the perspective of the sentence. Context would decide here whether *Last week* has the function of temporal setting or is emphasized and thus has rhematic qualities. The clause could be analyzed in the former case as the following:

Last week (Setting, Theme) *he* (Bearer of quality, Theme) *addressed* (Transition Proper) *British industrialist* (Specification, Rheme Proper).

In the discussion of Firbas' model, the terms are clarified as follows: In the later case, *Last week* might be the rheme (Firbas: 1992). Therefore, the Firbasian theme is conceptualized

in a different way from the Hallidayan theme. The linear arrangement is not definitive but merely supports the identification of theme as one among several factors.

The description of the internal dynamics of the sentence in Firbas model overcomes the problems in Halliday's theory. Therefore, Firbas model can be applied to languages that allow great variation in initial position constituents. In addition, its concentration lies on the contribution of specific elements in the texts to the ongoing communication. However, Goutsos (1994) reviewed the analysis of FSP and found it difficult and complex to replicate and prove. Moreover, Goutsos added that Firbas' notion of CD presents an ambiguous method for the identification of theme and rheme in contrast to Halliday's model.

Palková and Palek (1977) as quoted by Goutsos (1997: 14) stated that sentence is the unit of the highest order in FSP theory, and in Firbas' approach in particular. The aim of the theory is to show how the surface form of a sentence is determined by its communicative function. Firbas' interest lies in the way that larger texts promote the assessment of the internal dynamics of the sentence and not in the opposite direction.

Therefore, some sentences accomplish the function of presenting a phenomenon, while others are interested in connecting qualities and specifications to a bearer. Firbas observed that there are only some plausible combinations. For example, sentences that perform the presentation scale usually come at the beginning of a text and precede those that accomplish the quality scale: "It would be odd to open a story with *He ruled his country capriciously and despotically. Ages ago there was a young king*" (Firbas: 1992: 67). This is the first step toward a more advanced model of discourse topic, because it is suggested that

not all sentence arrangements help in text development in the same way (Goutsos: 1997). Nevertheless, the implications of this view for a textual model of topic have not been explained clearly.

(c) Daneš' s thematic progression

Daneš model of thematic progression is the most influential view on discourse topic. Daneš (1974: 114) defined thematic progression as "the choice and ordering of utterance themes, their mutual concatenation and hierarchy, as well as their relationship to the hyperthemes of the superior text units (such as paragraph, chapter…), to the whole of the text, and to the situation".

<div align="right">(Goutsos: 1997: 15)</div>

(d) Work on the Syntax-Discourse Interface

Syntax functional theories aim at the interaction of formal constructions with pragmatic functions that contribute significantly to the understanding of the role of topic in discourse Goutsos (1997). American functionalism such as Givón, Chafe, and Tomlin is interested in the encoding of topic entities in texts of different languages. Duranti and Ochs (1979) is a distinctive example of this work. Their examination of left-dislocated structures in Italian conversation shows that these constructions are used for a topic-shifting function. Within European functionalism, besides the work just mentioned, there have been studies of topic within the framework of Dik's functional grammar.

Unfortunately, Goutsos excluded this work on the syntax-discourse interface. Carretero (1998) demonstrated that Goutsos ruled out this model because it has a particularly syntactic perspective. Therefore, there is no attempt to develop a theory of discourse topic

for its own sake or at explaining clearly the relation between the two levels. Carretero added that Goutsos did not give us reasons why he did not continue in this direction.

2.5.1 Topic as a propositional notion

There are four common assumptions underlying all the approaches to topic as a propositional unit. *Firstly:* the analysis is concerned with content, not expression. The text is studied with regards to semantic representation instead of formal linguistic expressions. *Secondly:* the basis of analysis is a minimal unit (most commonly, proposition), defined as a predicate or argument, a common referent, a concept or otherwise (a *what* perspective). *Thirdly*: it is believed that for any part of discourse there is only one unit of this kind that represents a single topic for this part. *Fourthly*, the overall topic of the discourse is produced through a procedure that connects individual topics or propositions separated by a series of steps of decomposition, in the fashion of text grammars (de Beaugrande and Dressler: 1981). Therefore, the procedure of connecting sentence to discourse topic takes the form of predicate calculus.

There are some reasons that cause the unmatching of propositional analysis to topic structure. Firstly, propositional analyses of topic are not of great value because they are very complicated and long. Secondly, the assumption saying that there is a single correct expression of the topic for any piece of discourse. Brown and Yule (1983: 74) challenged this assumption noting that what is required is "a characterization of 'topic' which would allow each of the possible expressions, including titles, to be considered (partially) correct, thus incorporate all reasonable judgments of 'what is being talked about'". *Thirdly*: the procedure for arriving at a propositional representation of topic is not only complex but also

basically and subjective. In a number of necessary logical steps, propositional approaches are more likely to include a larger amount of presuppositional material in the definition of topic. Therefore, it makes the notion indistinguishable from the total knowledge relevant to the discourse. The following example will show that propositional association is not enough. In the extract from J9 (in Box 2.1) below there is a clear relation with regard to reference: the topic entity "Prince of Wales" belongs to the set "people who think it is high time for service training, etc. in UK firms." Nevertheless, the text is written in such a way so as to emphasize that 4.1 is **not** linked to 3.2. In 4.1, the designation of a new paragraph, the appearance of a new nominal group in initial position, and the linear arrangement emphasize the starting point of a new topic section.

Box 2.1

J9: 3.2 Those already employed in UK Firms must be prepared to learn languages – and that means in-service training and the energetic use of self-study courses.

4.1 The Prince of Wales is among those who think it is high time they should.

(Goutsos: 1997: 17)

Levinson (1983: 315) summed up the logical conclusion of the sequence of propositions by saying that "topical coherence cannot be thought of as residing in some independently calculable procedure for ascertaining (for example) shared reference across utterances. Rather, topical coherence is something *constructed* across turns by the collaboration of participants".

Therefore, to examine the construction of topical coherence, it is essential to shift our attention from the isolated unit to the way in which topic structuring is achieved; that is, the *how* perspective. The coming section surveys some approaches that have investigated and clarified this perspective.

2.5.1.1 Topic as a structuring frame

From the above, it is clear that the concentration on topic as a unit both at the sentence level and the discourse level is filled with problems. Brown and Yule's discussion of topic decisively shifted the balance with a preference to the *how* perspective, the study of conversation, narrative and (to a lesser extent) nonnarrative texts has presented particular examples of dealing with topic as a more general phenomenon by giving prominence to the issues of linearity and sequentiality.

(a) Studies of conversation

Studies of conversation have supported the analysis of topic by considering topic as an activity, a phenomena constructed by the participants in interaction. In the framework of conversational analysis, topic is considered as a kind of sequential structure. This is fundamentally important because sequential organization (i.e., the larger sequences of talk, within which utterances and speech acts originate and are explained) is the main issue of conversational analysis (Sacks. et.al: 1974). In the Birmingham School approach, topic is related to the rank of transaction, which is part of the hierarchical organization of conversational structures, and the marking of boundaries.

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Both approaches (conversational analysis and Birmingham School) foreground a *how* perspective which is independent of what is being talked about (Goffman: 1981). Moreover, they both concentrate on the linguistic means by which sequencing and segmenting are achieved. These insights can be useful in the scrutinizing examination of topic in discourse.

(b) Studies of narrative

Goutsos explained that almost all the studies on nonliterary narrative texts function with a working assumption of topic as a subject matter without defining the notion in a technical sense, Tomlin and Givón stated that 'topic' at the level of single event/state is meaningless… the topic is only 'talked about' or 'important' if it remains 'talked about' or 'important' through a number of successive clauses"(Givón (1992: 11-12).

Goutsos declared that the notion of topic continuity is introduced to take the place of the "atomic" and discrete view of topic (the *what* perspective). Topic continuity becomes operational along three parameters: referential (or anaphoric) distance, potential ambiguity, and decay or thematic (cataphoric) importance.

There are ubiquitous studies of narrative that arrange topic with regard to sequentiality (Chafe: 1984, Labov: 1972 & Longacre: 1983). Nevertheless, the complexity and the multiplicity of these studies make it almost impossible to present a fair view of them within the scope of this research. It is sufficient, however, to mention some of the illuminating views regarding the study of narrative. In terms of the *how* perspective on topic, the main point of the ubiquitous studies of narrative is the emphasis on the importance of surface characteristics in showing essential units of topic. The same general feature is found in the

study of literary narrative in which sequentiality has been described by highly advanced models of plot, story, etc. If both narrative and conversation studies are compared, it would be found that both have agreed that topic may not be considered as a unit but can be analyzed as a structuring frame.

(c) Studies of nonnarrative text

With few exceptions, topic in nonnarrative text is mainly considered in pretheoretical and propositional terms (Goutsos: 1997). He added that there is little discussion of topic introduction, change, or continuity of expository discourse in contrast to the studies of conversation or narrative texts.

2.6 Topic as a sequential structure

de Beaugrande (1992) noticed that the comprehensive presentation of approaches to topic has showed that topic is absolutely a multiplex phenomenon. This section organizes essential distinctions by presenting a scheme that allows topic facets to be related in a coherent way. Based on this scheme, the technical sense of topic employed is outlined.

2.7 Towards a coherent view of topic facets

As mentioned earlier, there are three main distinctions used to identify different aspects of topic. Topic can be analyzed at the sentence or the discourse level as content or expression and from a *what* or *how* perspective. Goutsos noted that the last two distinctions may be recaptured with reference to Hjelmslev's (1954) model of stratification in language. In his seminal article, Hjelmslev suggested that there are distinctions between content and expression, on one hand, and form and substance, on the other. Therefore, Hjelmslev's

model forms two pairs of terms matching with four different strata or planes in language: the form of content and the substance of content, on the one hand, and the form of expression and the substance of expression, on the other.

Hjelmslev's semiotic scheme suggests a working principle for formulating a coherent view of topic facets. According to Hjelmslev, the *what* perspective deals with the constitutive units of sentences and texts and therefore with topic as substance and the *how* perspective with their structuring realizations, and thus with topic as a form. At the sentence level, topic refers both to content (the set of referent and ideas and predicate-arguments structures and propositions) and expression (the various linguistic configuration). At the discourse level, topic as content refers to the agenda or the subject matter of the specific text (e.g., a conversation, an article, a business meeting etc.). Discourse topic as expression refers to the linguistic means which manage the agenda of discourse. Content and expression can be distinguished according to the perspective accepted. The substance of content and expression deals with discrete elements or units, whereas the form of content and expression deals with the structuring itself.

Table2. 1: Topic Facets in Text Planes

	Content	Expression
Form	Topic entities	Theme, rheme, etc.
	Propositions	Sequential topic structure
Substance	Subject matter	Linguistic medium
	Discourse agenda	Typographic layout, etc.

(Goutsos: 1997: 29)

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Table 2.1 explains the arrangement of topic facets in the quadripartite frame of text as a semiotic system. Hjelmselev's semiotic scheme not only sharpens the definition of the notions involved but also gives reasons for the multiplicity of views on topic. Theories of topic in the literature have made claims about essentially different facets of the same phenomenon. For example, propositional approaches have focused on the planes of the form and the substance of content, whereas sentential approaches concentrate on the plane of the form of expression.

2.8 Tracing the topic: sequential relations and strategies

A series of basic notions are used to operationalize the task of sequentiality in expository writing within a coherent model. These notions are topic strategies (continuity and shift), sequential techniques, transition and continuation spans, sequential relations and topic signals.

More complex or secondary techniques are also found. The basic pattern of the sequential techniques succession is as follows:

(Topic Closure) → (Topic Framing) →Topic Introduction →Topic Continuation

Secondary techniques include cases in which transition is signaled as a correction to, an aside to, digression from, and interruption of what came before. These relations have occurred very often in conversation but they rarely happen in expository data. In writing, there is adequate time for preplanning whereas self-and other-correction, interruption, and so on are common phenomena in every day conversation. They have been treated as additional indexing of primary techniques.

Signaling insinuates that linguistic devices particularly guide the reader when to perceive the indication of the succession of a transition or a continuation span. For the writer, these devices represent the resources drawn on to organize his texts (in the accomplishment of the tasks of continuity and discontinuity). Goutsos (1997) assumed that these signals evince either the continuity or the discontinuity of the topic discussed in the text. They mainly manifest topic introduction, topic continuation, and topic closure.

2.9 Topic structure heuristics

The following heuristics guide the identification of topic strategies and the establishment of sequential relations in a text:

1) Each text unit realizes a topic continuity strategy, unless:

   a. There is contradictory linguistic evidence, that is, signals associated with technique of topic shift.

   b. The text unit is found at the beginning of the text.

2) As a corollary of 1, if signals of topic shift are found in a text unit, or when a text unit is found at the beginning of the text, a strategy of topic shift is established.

3) Topic strategies are performed by means of the associated techniques. The type of sequential technique realized is defined by the respective signals.

4) The order of instantiation of sequential techniques is that given by the topic structure model.

5) If there is a conflict of signals, the sequential technique indicated by signals with a higher status is preferred to the technique indicated by signals of a lower status.

2.10 The hierarchy and synergy of signals

Sequential techniques are indicated by linguistic items which are called topic signals. Topic signals are prioritized and built up in text to define the hierarchy and synergy of signals. The tentative hierarchy of topic signals is classified as follows:

i. Orthographic marker
ii. Metadiscourse items
iii. Prediction pairs
iv. Discourse markers
v. Cohesive devices
vi. Time framing
vii. Sentence-structure pattern

(Goutsos: 1997: 82)

According to this hierarchy, types of topic signals that are higher in the hierarchy are more significant in the establishment of sequential techniques than types that are lower. Therefore, paragraph breaks, metadiscourse, and prediction pairs are usually adequate indicators of a specific technique. On the other hand, discourse markers and cohesive devices are not always unequivocal in the identification of a sequential technique and need corroborating evidence from other signals.

In his research on expository text, Goutsos noted seven topic signals that show continuity and shift. These are: orthographic markers, metadiscourse items, discourse markers, sentence structure, time framing, cohesive devices and prediction pairs. The range of those different signals can be categorized into seven main categories (Goutsos: 1997).

Table2. 2 : Topic Signals and Topic Strategies

	Topic Strategies			
		Shift		Continuity
Topic Signals	Framing	Introduction	Closure	Continuation
Orthographic markers	paragraph break		paragraph break	Parenthesis
Metadiscourse items	But wait, At this point…		So far so good, To sum up …	
Discourse markers	Now, then, but….		Therefore, thus, so…	and, but, of course …
Sentence structure	initial adjuncts	light-thematic structures		
Time framing		Tense shift		tense continuity
Cohesive devices	long-range cohesion encapsulation		Encapsulation	local cohesion
Prediction pairs	predictive: question	predicted: answer		

(Goutsos: 1997: 73)

2.11 Topic strategies

Topic strategies are fundamentally realized by a number of sequential techniques. Specifically, topic shift is realized by the techniques of topic framing, topic introduction,

and topic closure, whereas topic continuity is realized by the technique of topic continuation.

(a) Topic framing:

Topic framingficant signals of topic framing such as paragraph breaks, metadiscourse items, discourse markers, initial adjuncts, encapsulation (the demonstratives this, that and anaphoric nouns), and predictive items.

(b) Topic introduction:

The signals of topic introduction are special sentence structure arrangements, renominaliztion, tense shift, and predicted members of a prediction pairs.

(c) Topic closure:

Topic closure is signaled by paragraph breaks, metadiscourse items, discourse markers, tense shift, and encapsulation.

(d) Topic continuation:

Topic continuation is the only sequential technique related to the strategy of continuity. It is signaled by parentheses, discourse markers, sentence-structure patterns, time continuity, and local cohesive devices

2.12 Sequential relations and beyond

The topic structure model describes sequential relations and strategies as having a central role in the network of organizational text relations. The analysis of the relationships

between sequential topic relations on the one hand, and expression and content text relations, on the other, has indicated that text planes interact with each other but still basically autonomous. Therefore, on the expression plane, topic structure regulates the type and complexity of expression relations such as cohesive and thematic progression patterns. On the content plane, there is an orchestration of sequential relations with the articulation of subject matter, and schematic structure, or propositional, argumentation, and speech-act values. The close study by Goutsos (1997) of newspaper editorials has further indicated the interaction of content parameters with sequential configurations, which allows to speak of stylistic variation in sequentiality. Moreover, sequential relations and strategies are very important aspect of text organization, which are 'coordinated with other autonomous but interacting text relations'. The orchestration of sequentiality as explained by Goutsos's model is a first step toward a multiplane description of discourse.

Goutsos' topic structure model includes information on topicality which is very useful for improvement their writing. Carrettero (1998) describes Goutsos' model as a very profitable contribution to the literature on topicality because it contains a good perspective of the different approaches to topicality and of the relations between them. Moreover, it has a thoughtful analysis on the functions of a wide variety of topic signaling devices. Furthermore, it enlightens researchers on topic management and graduate or advanced students on improving the organization of their writing.

2.13 The choice of Goutsos' model

When I compare between the current research and what most researchers agree about, I find that researchers agree that a certain amount of surface signals or cohesive markers in discourse are necessary for ease processing and producing an organized and coherent text

in sequential order (Enkvist: 1978) whereas the current research highlights the important role of linguistic devices in the topic organization and as a means by which writers start, continue, and end an expository discourse as well as the organization of the expository text. Moreover, the current research uses and adopts Goutsos' framework of sequentiality to compare the topic strategies and topic signals in order to find out the frequency of topic signals and topic strategies in writing English and Arabic expository composition by English and Sudanese students at secondary school. Data consisting of English composition were collected from NSE and NNSE students in addition to Arabic compositions which were collected from the same Arabic students.

A model of topic organization has been developed for the analysis of expository discourse by Goutsos (1997:35) who argued that 'it is possible to analyze discourse topic organization by focusing on sequential relations in discourse'. This argument was proved by his study on strategies of sequentiality in expository texts. Those strategies are called topic strategies and they are used to indicate continuity and discontinuity of a topic discussed in a text. Those topic strategies are subdivided into: topic continuation and topic shift strategies. Topic continuity is realized by the technique of topic continuation, whereas topic shift is realized by the techniques of topic framing, topic introduction, and topic closure.

Sequential techniques are indicated by linguistic items in the text which are called topic signals. These linguistic items or devices used by writers and perceived by readers as signals of discourse pattern of organization are categorized into: orthographic markers, metadiscourse items, discourse markers, sentence structure, time framing, cohesive devices and prediction(Gumperz: 1982, Hoey: 1983 and Brown and Yule: 1983). Sequentiality in

writing involves the basic tasks of indicating continuity, discontinuity, as well as achieving a regular succession of transition and continuation spans. Continuation spans is one of the areas of local continuity or stability, interrupted by areas of quick ruptures which introduce instability into the text that are called transition spans. The basic pattern of the sequential techniques succession is as follows:
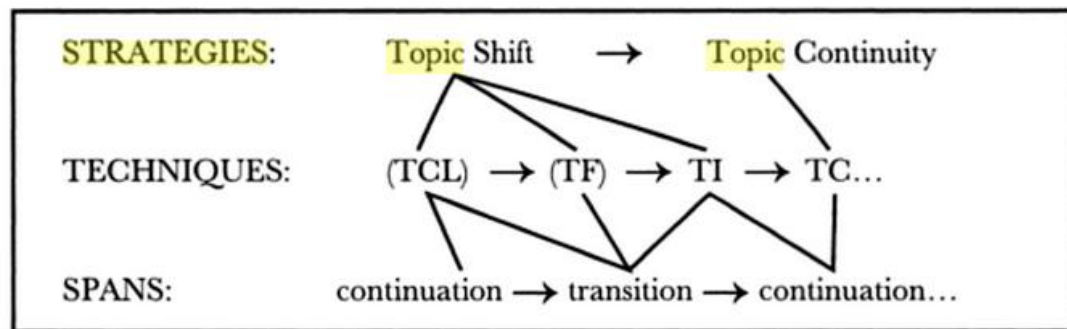
FIGURE 3.1.   Topic structure model.
where: TCL is topic closure, TF is topic framing, TI is topic introduction, TC is topic continuation, ( ) is optional, and → is followed by.

Figure2. 1 : Topic structure model

Goutsos' model is the most appropriate and is better and more relevant than the existing approaches on topic as a unit both at the sentence level and the discourse level which is filled with problems unlike Goutsos' model that adopts a *how* perspective which focuses on the structuring rather than the individual units of topic. Although a systematic treatment of topic in the *how* perspective is not always clear in the study of conversation and narrative, as this study gives an example of how this can be achieved in general. The main insight of this study is to provide the emphasis on sequentiality and the identification of linguistic features that are further systematized in a model. Nothing of this kind has been applied on nonnarrative, written texts. Hence, it is necessary to develop a model for this type of text that deals with aspects of sequentiality by identifying the formal features of functional

units. Moreover, this model is also concerned with extended texts, in contrast to many existing descriptions.

The researcher has chosen Goutsos' model because it is concerned with the organization of expository discourse particularly the linguistic means or devices by which writers start, continue and finish an expository discourse. Goutsos' model is chosen by the researcher of this study because she is a teacher of English and she is concerned with the problems of students in the four skills of English especially writing. Moreover, it contains a coherent view of topic facets unlike the existing approaches of the different facets of topic which did not address this issue. Furthermore, Goutsos applied his model to data from two languages English and Greek. Hence, Goutsos' model is chosen to analyze and compare native and non native students' writing in expository text in order to enhance the studies in contrastive rhetoric particularly in the role of linguistic devices in topic organization. The awareness of these similarities and differences will contribute greatly in teaching and learning especially for both Arabic and English students.

The main purpose of Goutsos'framework is how writers of expository texts use mechanical expressions or linguistic means to introduce, continue, and end an expository discourse. His framework aims to redress the balance of the lack of studies on the sequential analyses of expository texts. Moreover, Goutsos' framework is a contribution to the analysis of expository discourse by developing a model of topic organization.

Goutsos made invaluable overview of the literature on topic. Carretero (1998: 224) supports these views because of the good coverage and the clarity of exposition that 'make the reading very profitable for all researchers on topicality especially for those beginning

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their investigation'. Goutsos' survey of the preceding literature on topicality emphasises on the lack of consensus in terms of what topic actually is and especially on the oppositions between different perspectives.

Goutsos indicated that the notion of topic has been applied to three different phenomena that are classified according to the *perspective* adopted. Firstly, topic is shown as a discrete element or unit against the *how-perspective*, from which topic is seen as a structuring or unifying frame. Secondly, the notion of topic is described with reference to *units of application* (sentence topic versus discourse topic). Thirdly, the distinction between sentence and discourse topic can be discerned according to *the domain of application of* content and expression.

Goutsos' review of literature showed that the approaches that follow a *what* perspective are filled with problems both at the sentence level and the discourse level. It is found that sentence-level topic cannot be identified easily or consistently. Discourse-level topic is viewed as a simple extension of sentence topic, 'resulting from the concatenation of topic expressions' (e.g., lexical or non lexical items and phrases) or topic entity (i.e. the main character, object, or idea mentioned in the text) at the sentence level, or the logical combination of elementary propositions (Goutsos: 1997: 27). He selected the data in order to readdress the balance in the literature in favour of complex texts of suitable length. In the light of these considerations, 32 texts (a total of approximately 29,000 words) from a wide range of scholarly and journalistic expository writings have been used.

Mahdalela Rahim (2002) used Goutsos model in her master thesis to compare the use of discourse devices in two different genres, the short stories and journalistic writings. Her

study investigated whether writers used linguistic devices (topic signals and topic strategies) in predominant manner in writing an organized and coherent text. Moreover, the study attempts to find out the difference in the density of topic signals and topic strategies to show the writers flow of thought in writing the two different types. Ten short stories and thirty journalistic writing were analyzed according to Goutsos' model. T-test was used to find whether there is a significant difference in the density of the devices used which based on word and sentence count in both types of writings. The results showed that there is a significant difference in the use of topic signals and topic strategies regarding the density based on sentences count. The use of discourse devices are more in the writing of journalist of expository text than to novelist in their short stories. Moreover, it is found that the devices that function as continuity are the most predominant types of devices. The study suggested that the expositor text is the more suitable material for the teaching of writing and that due to consideration of several factors.

2.14 Summary

This chapter reviewed some of the approaches of writing instruction which are numerous and provides a critical account of them. It also describes the development of Goutsos' model, highlights and justifies the choice of it. There have been changes from the existing approaches to topic as a unit both at the sentence level and the discourse level which is filled with problems in grammatical and propositional theories to *how* perspective which focuses on the structuring rather than the individual units of topic in non narrative texts. The next chapter reviews related literature on writing and reported researches that have been carried out in EFL/ESL.

CHAPTER 3

3. LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature review on composing, approaches to teaching writing as creative communication, systemic functional grammar, theme and rheme, studies on cohesion, coherence and contrastive rhetoric and insights from first language research second language writing research. It also reviews researches that have been carried out on EFL/ESL and are divided into the following sections: discourse analysis studies, contrastive rhetoric studies, writing instruction studies.

3.2 Composing

Krashen (1984) examined research on the composing process in the native language and found out that there are three ways that differentiate good writers from poor ones which are'planning, rescanning, and revising'.

Proficient writers think more than less proficient writers. Good writers make a plan and it does not mean that they use an outline before writing. They show some proof of organizing and planning before they write the first draft. They like to spend more time before starting to write. However, poor writers begin to write 'just by beginning'. Proficient writers plan a flexible plan and they can change the flow of their ideas if there is a strong reason appeared while they think. Good writers stop while writing to reread what they have already written before continuing to compose. Krashen discovered that in one study students were likely to pause nearly twice as frequently during writing and to rescan their work three times in

regular composition classes. He added that rescanning aids good writers to maintain a sense of the whole composition.

Good writers revise more than poor writers. Good writers change more in the content in their revision. On the other hand, poor writers revise more often in the surface form. Moreover, Krashen stated that highly good writers usually write recursively- that is 'many use a nonlinear approach to the composing process'. While writing a draft, they pause and return to change their main ideas if they discover an important point whereas poor writers think that they are not permitted to pause to reformulate their original idea. They use instead a set of rules they have learned before in their composition class.

Another additional characteristic of good writers is that while writing they are aware of their audience and the reader's point of view. On the other hand, poor writers are 'tied to the topic and writer-centered' (Krashen: 1984: 18), whereas proficient writers are reader-centered and try to write clearly and accurately with organized exposition of ideas. Krashen reported a research on native language writers and hypothesized that extensive reading improve competence of writing ability.

Most academics agree that good writing in any language requires at least three characteristics: knowledge of the rules of writing in that culture as well as the ability to choose the precise word that expresses one's meaning, choice of most accurate syntactic structure, and usage of a style of most positive rhetorical effect. It is noticed that this knowledge will not develop only from practice exercises in grammar and vocabulary at the sentence level. Instruction in rhetoric had given emphasis to writing at the paragraph level and beyond for many years. In addition, instructions in composition normally 'provided

students with exercises in the development of outlines and plans, the creation of paragraph with topic sentences, the inclusion of supporting detail, techniques in comparison and contrast and strategies for smooth transitions.

3.3 Approaches to teaching writing as creative communication

Kroll (1990) observed a paradigm change among scholars in native language writing instruction from a focus on writing as a product to a focus on process. Scholars (Dovrak: 1986 & Silva: 1990) in foreign language asked for the same change such as some researchers (for example, Raimes: 1983, Kaplan: 1988 & Silva: 1990) who encourage a balanced approach that considers both process and product. The following is a brief summary of some of the possible approaches to writing instruction that are encouraged by scholars in both native and second language contexts.

Hillocks (1986) recognized four modes of writing instruction in native language composition. They comprise;

1. The Presentational Mode which has clear and specific objective, teacher centered discussions of writing principles, and assignments including imitation and analysis of models of writing.

2. The Natural Process Mode which recommends free writing. It involves the use of daily journals, stresses positive feedback from peers and the teacher. Moreover, it promotes cooperative learning with a low level of structure in assignments and is non- directional about the qualities of writing to be progressed.

3. The Environmental Mode that stresses clear and particular objectives and group work on specific processes significant to some aspect of composing (for example,

increasing the use of detail in a description). In this approach, the teachers teach principles through concrete examples and models and through lectures or presentations. On particular problem, students work together. They supply 'one another with peer evaluation, and use teacher-provided checklists, structures, questions, or other specific criteria to respond to their own and others work" (Hadley: 1993: 328).

4. The Individualized Mode in which teachers teach their students through tutorials or programmed materials and the instruction is designed to students needs (Hillocks: 1986: 116-126).

Raimes (1983) suggested an eclectic approach to writing for ESL classes, and stated that there is no one answers to the question of how writing should be taught. Rather, "there are as many answers as there are teachers and teaching style, or learners and learning style" (Raimes: 1983: 5). She reviews six different writing approaches which are explained below briefly. Some of these approaches have also been widespread and in foreign language classes:

a. The controlled-to- Free Approach

It emphasizes accuracy over fluency or originality and is basically based in Audio Lingual Method teaching practice. In this approach, students write variations on sentences, paragraphs, controlled compositions, and free compositions when their skills are at an advanced level.

b. The Free writing approach

It recommends great amount of fluency-based writing with little correction.

c. The paragraph-pattern approach

It emphasizes organization over fluency or accuracy and gives model paragraphs for students to copy, analyze, or imitate.

d. The grammar-syntax- organization approach

It functions at the same time on different formal features such as students write to perform particular writing functions.

e. The communicative approach

It stresses purpose and audience with less stress on form and correctness. It recommends interaction among students and the teacher.

f. The process approach

It stresses the writing process over product with ample time gave to develop a piece of writing. It suggests 'the recognition of the recursiveness of the process and the encouragement of exploration through writing' (Raimes: 1983: 7-10).

Raimes indicated that there is an overlap in all these approaches. She recommended that an eclecticism that responds to learner needs as their skills develop.

3.4 Systemic functional Grammar

Halliday (1976) stated that the term 'systemic' is not similar to 'systematic'. The systemic term is used because the major concept in the grammar is that of the 'system'. He added that the system means a set of options with an entry condition. He explained this as 'a set of things of which one must be chosen, together with a statement of conditions under which the choice is available '.

Halliday starts his premise of 'functional grammar' in that language has certain functions for its users as social group. He refers to the roles of the functions in society as metafunctions. They are known early as macrofunctions. In addition, Halliday has characterized them as 'relatively discrete areas of formalized meaning potential, or in other words relatively independent set of options' Halliday: 1973: 66). Moreover, he refers to these as 'functional components' of the grammar.

Eggins (1994) pointed out that language use has four main theoretical claims. Language is functional. Secondly and it is semantic (language is used to make meanings). Moreover, it is considered as contextual (the social and cultural context affects these meanings in which they are exchanged) and it is semiotic process (a process that make meanings by choosing). Halliday pointed ou t that when we try to identify meaning in grammar, there are three aspects of this under the headings 'ideational', 'interpersonal', and 'textual'. Each of these functions operates through networks of the systems to organize a range of meanings.

(a) The ideational function and the cognitive meaning

Bell (1991) stated that that the ideational function expresses cognitive meaning; the fundamental 'idea-conveying' function of languages. Moreover, he added that the ideational functional employs the systems and networks of transitivity to create propositions which con**ve**y the language user's experience of the external world of the senses and the inner world of the mind. The ideational can be classified into two subfunctions: the experiential and the logical.

(b) The experiential meaning

It is largely concerned with content or ideas. 'It represents particular classes of phenomena such as configurations of processes, participants and circumstances; it represents wholes in terms of their constituent parts' (Matthiessen and Bateman: 1991: 68). Let us consider the following sentence:

Or leave a kiss within the cup, and I'll not ask for wine.

This is a sentence from a famous English poem of the early seventeenth century Ben Jonson: 'To Celia" which is quoted by Halliday and Hassan (1989: 18).

Or leave a kiss within the cup, and I'll not ask for wine.

'you'	'leave'	'kiss'	'in cup'
Doer	Action	Thing	Place
Actor	Process	Goal	Locative

'I' doer	Polarity negative	'demand' Verbal-Isation	'wine' thing
Sayer		process	Range

We can interpret the word the word *leave* as some kind of process or more particularly as some kind of an action. The word *kiss* is some kind of thing, although it is not very clear just what kind of thing it is. *In +cup* is some kind of circumstantial element, presumably a locative element, a place. So we have the representation of an action, a thing that is acted upon and a place. We need somebody who is actually going to perform this action. We call him a doer who is going to do the deed.

Similarly in the second half, the word *wine* which is a certain kind of thing. Then there is *ask for* which we may take as a single element. It is a process but a different kind of process

from the other one. If you want to ask for something, you are going to use a linguistic signal for the purpose. It is called a verbal process. The doer is present which is *I*. The doer *I*, instead of being an actor, he is one who is engaging in a verbal process since it is in fact negated. It is called a sayer. This sentence is a representation of the real world as it is apprehended in our experience. In other words, this sentence displays the experiential meaning. We can refer to 'leave a kiss within the cup" as an imaginative representation of experience. There is a double shift in the meaning of the word *kiss*. Firstly, the word *kiss* as a noun is already metaphorical in the sense that it is the name for a process rather than for an object. Secondly, the word kiss is a noun and it is known that nouns typically stand for objects. Objects can be left around the place, so you can 'leave a kiss within cup'.

(c) The logical meaning

It is concerned with the relationship between ideas. It represents combination of phenomena through highly generalized relations such as addition, alternation, exemplification, sequence and causation.

The two halves of this sentence 'or leave a kiss within the cup and I'll not ask for wine' are related in some way. The form of the relationship looks like a simple coordination of one thing with another: You (do) leave a kiss 'and' I (do not) ask for wine. The two halves have a different speech function because the one is command and more specifically a request and the other is an offer. But the meaning of the co-ordination of a request and offer is not a simple one of like elements. It is normal, when one co-ordinates (a) and (b), then (a) and (b) belong to the same class. Here (a) and (b) do not belong to the same class because one is a command and the other is an offer. The effect of their co-ordination is same kind of relationship which is called logical relations. 'There is in every natural language a relatively

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small network of fundamental logical relations, which are not the relationship of formal logic, but are those form which the relationships of formal logic are ultimately derived' (Halliday and Hassan: 1989: 21).

(d) The interpersonal function and the interactional meaning

The interpersonal function expresses speech functional meaning. The language is used to enable us to participate in communicative acts with other people, to take on roles and to express and understand feeling attitude and judgments. The interpersonal function employs 'the systems and networks of mood to crate sentences which carry the cognitive and logical content of propositions and display the speaker's relationship with others to whom the message are being addressed' (Bell: 1991: 121). According to Bell (1991) the experiential operates through the transitivity system and is concerned with organizing the content of propositions. On the other hand, the interactional meaning operates through mood system which is concerned with the way that content is presented. Bell (1991) pointed out that the interactional meaning is the active aspect of the cognitive. 'The communicator as intruder is an active part of the speech in contrast with communicator as observer of situations' (Halliday: 1978: 134).

In the same sentence which is the following:

Or leave a kiss within the cup and I'll not ask for wine.

'you'	'do that'
Subject	Residue
Command: request	

'I'	'voluntarily'	'do this'
Subject	Finite	Residue
Offer: undertaking		

(Halliday and Hassan: 1989: 20)

In the first half we have something that signals as a request: 'I request you to do this'. This is a variant of the general speech function of command in the simplest semantic terms. The second half we recognize the meaning 'I will not to do that', or in other words 'undertake not to do that'. This is something as an offer. The meaning of this sentence we consider it from the point of view of its function in the process of social interaction. 'The sentence is not only a representation of reality; it is also a piece of interaction between speaker and listener. In its experiential meaning language is a way of reflecting whereas in its interpersonal meaning language is a way of acting' (Halliday and Hassan: 1989: 20).

We notice a number of additional features of this text (Halliday and Hassan: 1989: 22). Firstly, the pattern of 'you do (x) and I will do (y)' is repeated on both occasions. This means that 'I request you to (do that) and I will (do this)'. Also, the meaning is 'if': 'if you only drink to me with your eyes, then I will pledge with mine', paralleled by 'if you leave a kiss within the cup, then I will not ask for wine'. In both cases, there is the same pattern, a request followed by an offer. Moreover, in both case standing for an offer conditions by the acceptance of a request. This repetition is considered one aspect of the texture.

Secondly, the thematic organization of these two lines: 'if you only drink to me with your eyes, then I will pledge with mine' and 'if you leave a kiss within the cup, then I will not ask for wine' that in each case the speech function is signally at the very beginning of the clause, which makes it stands as the theme. It works like announcing at the start 'what I am about to say is a request', or whatever it is going to be. This congruence of them with mood is usual. 'It is typical pattern with offers and commands, where the speaker nearly always begins with the element that announces the mood' (Halliday and Hassan: 1989: 22).

Thirdly, rhythm and intonation are other components in the texture. There is a particular way of reading the line which follows (the single or double slash marks a foot boundary; the caret marked a silent beat):

//or / leave a / **kiss wi** // thin the / **cup** // and / I'll not / ask for / **wine** // (Halliday and Hasan: 1989:22). This particular reading has three points of prominence: kiss, cup and wine. This kind of prominence is a feature of the phonological system of modern English. In the phonological system any passage of spoken discourse is broken up into a succession of tone groups, or melodic units, each having one melodic contour (these are indicated by the double slash (//) in the example above). The tone group is a unit of sound that expresses a unit of meaning, one block of information in the total message. In every information unit, there is one point of prominence which is the tonic nucleus (show here by bold type). We find that the prominence is also phonological but again it expresses patterns which are the division into information units and the location of focus within each constitutes a fundamental element in the texture of the spoken language.

Lastly, the text is a line verse and therefore has an idealized rhythm by virtue of belonging to a particular genre. 'In other words, it has a metre, determined y the particular verse form of which it is an instance' (Halliday and Hassan: 1989: 22). The following is the metric structure that is set out in traditional form:

/or leave / a kiss / within / the cup / and I'll / not ask / for wine / ˏ / (Halliday and Hassan: 1989: 23).

It is an eight-foot iambic line with one silent foot and this metric pattern is another aspect of its texture. In conversational spoken English, the 'true' rhythm of the line is a product of the tension between its metric structure and the natural rhythm.

All the above features which are the semantic and grammatical balance between the lines, the thematic structure, the rhythm and information focus and the metric structure represent different aspects of the texture of the line which is known as Textual meaning. 'The textual meaning is what makes it into a text, as distinct from an artificial or fossilized specimen of wording' (Hallaiday and Hasan: 1989: 23).

(e) The system of transitivity

The transitivity system is that 'part of the grammar which provides option-fundamentally, roles and processes and circumstances-for the expression of cognitive content as required by the ideational macrofunction (Bell: 1991: 133).

The process-role relationship provide the 'universal organization of propositions and, hence of cognitive meaning' (Bell: 1991: 134). In the following, there are the different types of transitivity.

The first type is material processes which are processes of 'doing' (Halliday: 1985: 103). They are two types, one participant (intransitive) and two-participant (transitive), as in the following two sentences a, and b:

A-

The cat	crouched	in the grass
Actor	P: material	Location

P is abbreviation of process.

(Melrose: 1991: 28)

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B-

The cat	Caught	the bird	with great ease
Actor	P: material	Goal	Manner

(Melrose: 1991: 29)

In sentence (A) the doing is confined to the cat, but in (B) the doing is extended to the bird. The terms 'transitive' and 'intransitive' involve the concept of extension and it is from this point where the term 'transitivity' develops.

The second one is that mental process are processes of thinking, perceiving and feeling as the following sentence C, D, and E:

C-

My wife	didn't believe	my story
Senser	P: mental	Phenomenon

(Melrose: 1991: 29)

D-

She	Saw	Me	with me girlfriend
Senser	P: mental	Phenomenon	Accompaniment

(Melrose: 1991: 29)

E-

She	Loves	Me	For my money
Senser	P: mental	Phenomenon	Cause

In these processes the senser does not act on the world as an Actor 'act on' a Goal. The opposite is true as sentence (f) indicates:

F-

My story	didn't convince	my wife
Phenomenon	P: mental	Senser

The third one is that behavioral processes are midway between material and mental processes. They are 'the outward manifestation of a (presumed) internal state' (Melrose: 1991: 29). As in the sentence (G):

G:

I	've been yawning	all day
Behaver	P: behavioral	Extent

Here the action is plainly physical but it is indirectly shows some inner state such as fatigue and boredom.

The fourth one is verbal processes which are 'processes of saying' (Halliday: 1985), the sentence in table 3. 5 demonstrated the following:

He	Said	some hurtful things	to me
Sayer	P: verbal	Verbiage	Receiver

(Melrose: 1991: 29)

The fifth one is relational processes which are 'processes of being' (Halliday: 1985). They are two types: attributive (x belongs to the class off y) and identifying (x can be identified by the label y).

This winter	has been	extremely mild
Carrier	P: relational	Attribute

(Melrose: 1991: 29)

The author of this book	Is	Robin Melrose
Identified	P: relation	Identifier

(Melrose: 1991: 30)

Identifying processes can be reversible so that sentence above could equally well be 'Robin Melrose is the author of this book'.

The last one is existential processes are a type of relation processes as in the following example:

There too many Australians in London.

There

are	too many Australians	in London
P: existential	Existent	Location

(f) Mood

Halliday (1985) divided the clause into two parts: the Mood and the Residue. The mood is made up of the subject and finite whereas the residue is the rest of the functions in the clause (Predicator, Complements and Adjuncts).

I	have	Beaten	my wife	for 30 years
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
Mood			Residue	

Modality is the network of meanings that lie between positive and negative, yes and no; it consists of four sub-systems as in the below table (Halliday: 1985: 337).

Table3. 1: The system of modality

Probability	Usuality	Obligation	Inclination
Certain	Always	required	Determined
probable	usually	supposed	keen
possible	sometimes	sometimes	willing

(Halliday: 1985: 337)

Table 3.1 indicates that there are four types of judgments. We can estimate the probability or the frequency of an event, the obligation or the inclination of a person to perform an action. We can express these judgments by modal verbs such as *many* or *must,* adjectives like *probable* or *required,* and modals adjust such as *maybe* or *always.*

(g) Information structure and thematic structure

i.   Organizing ideas

One of the important features of a functional grammar is the structure of information in communication (Bloor and Bloor: 2004). In other words, the speaker or writer intuitively arranges his speech or writing in a way that help the hearer or reader to comprehend easily. This structure is considered as something built in the grammar of the language and occurs at the level of the clause and also has an effect on longer stretches of text. Therefore, it is

regarded that all clauses have information structure which is very useful in spoken and written language.

Halliday (1985) illustrates the textual component of the grammar of English as consisting of two groups of resources: the structural and the cohesive. The structural has two parallel and interconnected systems of analysis (Bloor and Bloor: 2004). The former is called *Information structure* and consists of constituents which are *Given* and *New*. The latter is called *Thematic structure* and make up of constituents which are *Theme* and *Rheme*. The cohesive is subdivided into four components which are called the cohesive component (reference, ellipsis and substitution, conjunction and lexical cohesion.

(h) Information structure: Given and New information

According to Bloor and Bloor (2004) an independent clause is a clause that give a full as a complete sentence. They added that Given and New information is existed in both dependent and independent clauses and in combinations of the two. At this stage, we are concerned with only the independent clause to make it simple.

For anyone to understand what says by others, it is very important to know what the speaker is talking about as well as using of sound uttered by others (Moore and Carling: 1992). Accordingly, for anyone to communicate effectively, attention should be given to shared or mutual knowledge and it is found at the beginning of a clause and it is called Given information. Meanwhile, focusing should be given to speaker's message and New information so as to make information unit.

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Information is primarily a system of spoken language because the focus of information in a clause is indicated by tonic prominence (intonation). 'Where as Theme is oriented towards the speaker, the system of information is directed towards what the addresse is thought to know (Old information, or Given), or not know (New information)' (Melrose: 1991: 33). The unmarked position for New information is at the end of the clause:

I' m going on holidays	TOMORROW
Given	New

(Melrose: 1991: 33)

But it may appear anywhere, even at the beginning of the clause:

POLITCIANS	Seen to enjoy elections
New	Given

(Melrose: 1991: 33)

Bell (1991) said that the proposition, sentence and utterance are used to introduce a functional rather than a formal model of language based on Systemic linguistic. He adds that the linguistic resources of the language have been presented as being regulated by three macrofunctions of language. Each of them 'organizes a particular type of meaning through a range of options made available in a complex of networks and systems' (Bell: 1991: 158).

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3.5 Cohesion

The concept of cohesion is 'a semantic' one and it can be achieved in text (Halliday and Hassan: 1976: 4). They pointed out that generally, there are 'two kinds of cohesion: sentence and discourse cohesion' Halliday and Hassan (1976: 4). The former type according to Crystal (1997) that, cohesion is a property of words that compose a unit, with a sentence or individually, into which no other words can be inserted. This is explained by the case of the comparative form 'the most beautiful' where no word is allowed between 'the' and 'most', or between 'most' and 'beautiful' without breaking the-well-formedness of the phrase. The second type of cohesion that has been mentioned above is that of cohesion within discourse. Halliday and Hassan (1976: 10) stated that discourse cohesion can be defined 'as the set of semantic resources for linking a sentence with what has gone before'. Discourse cohesion is needed because its-within-the-sentence counterpart cannot give reasons for how sentences, which are structurally independent, can be co-interpreted. However, co-interpretation is realizable only when the meanings of the sentences in question 'have something to do with each other' (Halliday and Hassan: 1976: 11). Halliday and Hassan focused of interest is the second type of cohesion. This observation is given encouragement by Halliday and Hassan's (1976:8) argument that the type of cohesion which occurs within a sentence 'is not needed in order to make the sentence hang together'. By contrast, they provided that discourse cohesion is the only differentiating factor between a text and any sequence which is not a text (Halliday and Hassan: 1976: 2).

The nature of cohesion is considered as a property of words, group of words, sentences and group of sentences. Cohesion can be established with discourse via five elements that have been proposed by Halliday and Hassan and will be summarized in the following.

A. Reference

Firstly, textual cohesion can be provided by reference relationship (1976: 308). Halliday and Hassan (1976: 308) illustrated that reference is 'the relation between an element of the text and something else by reference to which it is interpreted in the given instance'. They presented that the interpretation that happens outside the text (i.e. the function of exophoric reference) or with text (i.e. the function of endophoric reference). It has been claimed that the endophoric reference provide textual cohesion rather than the exophoric reference. Both types of reference are explained in the following:

1. Exophoric:

Look at this (i.e. this book).

2. Endophoric:

  i.   Anaphoric (back word looking reference): e.g. Look at the sun.

  ii.   Cataphoric (forward pointing reference): e.g. It is going down quickly, the sun.

(Abdallah: 2000: 49)

B. Substitution

Secondly, textual cohesion can be established by substitution. Halliday and Hassan (1976: 88) defined substitution 'as the replacement of one item by another'. Harmer (2004: 24) illustrated that writers often 'substitute a short phrase for a longer one that has preceded it'.

The kinds of substitution are the following: nominal, verbal and clausal substitution. Each type of them has its own set of substitute words.

a) Nominal substitute

Nominal substitute such as one, ones and some can replace nominal group and head nouns (not necessarily the whole of nominal Group), as in the examples below:

i.   *Would you like **some sandwiches**?'*

*'Please pass the **ones** with cucumber in.'*

*(ii) 'I'm having **chicken and rice**.'*

*'I'll have **the same.'***

(Bloor and Bloor: 1995)

b) Verbal substitute:

The verb do and any forms of it (plus, sometimes, additional words like it or that), can replace the lexical verb in a verbal group, as in:

i.   *'We met in Brazil. Do you remember?'*

        *'Yes, we must have **done**.'*

(Bloor and Bloor: 1995)

Done here stands in place of met in Brazil.

c) Clausal substitute:

The following examples show the words *so* and n*ot* replace a whole clause except for the subject.

C. Ellipsis:

Thirdly, ellipsis is the omission of words, groups or clause and it referred. There are nominal, verbal, and clausal ellipses.

a. Nominal ellipsis:

Nominal involves omission of noun headword, as example.

Nelly liked the green tiles; myself I preferred the blue.

<div align="right">(McCarthy: 1991)</div>

b. Verbal ellipsis:

Ellipsis may cause greater problems within the verbal group. Thomas (as quoted by McCarthy: 1991: 43-44) calls the two very common types of verbal-group ellipsis as echoing and auxiliary contrasting. Echoing repeated an element an element from the verbal group:

A: *Will* anyone be waiting?

B: Jim *will, I should think.*

Contrasting is when the auxiliary changes:

A: *Has* she remarried?

B: No, but she will one day, I'm sure.

Thomas points that in English, varying degrees of ellipsis are possible within the same verbal Group:

A: Should anyone have been told?

B: }should

　　John   }should have

　　　　　} should have been.

c. Clausal ellipsis:

In English, clausal ellipsis may be omitted with individual clause elements, especially common are subject-pronoun omissions (doesn't matter, hope so, can't help you, etc.). Whole stretches of clausal components may also be omitted:

He said he would take early retirement as soon as he could and he has.

D. Conjunction:

In fact, it is not easy to list definitively all the items that perform the conjunctive role in English. Winter (as quoted by McCarthy: 1991: 47) pointed out that single-word conjunctions merge into phrasal and clausal one. In addition, there is often little difference between the linking of two clauses by a single-word conjunction, a phrasel one, or a lexical item somewhere else in the clause. The following examples signal the cause-consequence relation in several ways:

- He was insensitive to the group's needs. *Consequently* there was a lot of bad feeling. (single word conjunction).

- He was insensitive to the group's needs. As a *consequence* there was a lot of bad feeling. (adverbial phrase as conjunction).

- As a *consequence of* his insensitivity to the group's needs, there was a lot of bad feeling. (adverbial phrase plus nominalization)

- The bad feeling was a *consequence* of his insensitivity to the group's needs. (lexical item within the predicate of the clause).

"Lexical cohesion refers to the cohesive effect of the use of lexical items in discourse where the choice of an item relates to the choices that have gone before" (Bloor and Bloor: 1995). Halliday and Hassan (1976) described the relationships between vocabulary items

are of two principle kinds: reiteration and collocation. The former means either repetition of a lexical item or the use of synonyms as in the following:

- *There were children everywhere.*

  There were children on the swings, children on the slides and children on the merry-go-round.

<div align="right">(Halliday and Hassan: 1989)</div>

However, lexical cohesion comprises of three processes in Halliday (1985: 310) rather than the two that have just been mentioned. The difference between the two taxonomies were from the fact that in Halliday and Hassan (1976) reiteration consists of two processes of repetition and synonym whereas in Halliday (1985) the same processes are discussed under two separate headings.

Abdullah (2000) made a contrast between Halliday and Hassan's (1976) and Halliday (1985) taxonomy of cohesive devices to Van dijk's (1972) 'textual surface structures' with their 'textual deep structures' counterparts.

The two approaches have some similarities that both are established theoretical and empirical account of the text as something distinct from the sentence. Nevertheless, the first approach is essentially uni-directional to the text. It considers text as a semantic unit. By contrast, Van Dijk's (1972: 38) approach to the text is bi-directional in that text is regarded as a combination of morphphonological and syntactic structures and at the same time as a set of semantic representations. The difference due to that each approach tries to develop. That is to say, Halliday and Hassan's approach arise from, or contributes to Halliday's

systemic theory. On the other hand, van Dijk's approach goes together with his theory of text grammar.

For Abdallah (2000), cohesion has a controversial role as an index of textness. A number of linguists have objecteion regarding the dissatisfaction with this role. Van Dijk (1980) objection is that the connection of sentences 'may be necessary, but not sufficient condition for the acceptability of a discourse'. This is shown in the following structure:

John is a bachelor, so Amsterdam is the capital of Netherlands.

Van Dijk (1980: 45) assumed that the existence of the cohesive devices 'so' affect negatively the sentence semantically well-formed.

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It is found that in the literature, empirical evidence that support the textual role of the cohesive devices. For instance, results of a wide scale investigation into the students writing within the Test of English for Educational Purposes (TEEP) framework was reported by Weir (1990: 69) in the following:

1. Absence of cohesive devices renders writing so fragmentary that comprehension is virtually impossible.

2. Unsatisfactory cohesion may cause difficulty in the comprehension of most of the intended communication.

3. Satisfactory use of cohesion results in effective communication.

Harnet's (1986: 142) made a remark about the role of cohesion in written discourse.

If meaning exists in relations (…), words that signal relations are important resources for writers. If systems of relationships (or networks) characterize the mental processes that comprise thinking (…), it then follows that thoughtful writing will express the systematic relationships which reflect the writer's thinking. If thinking is the manipulation of an internal representation of environment (…), terms which express this manipulation are also

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important resources for writer. Finally, if 'good writing' implies 'coherent meaning', it seems useful to analyse cohesion in writing as it contributes to coherence in prose.

The above fragment is apparent and not complicated in indicating the place of cohesion in written discourse as the only organizer of the writer's mental processes and their written discourse counterpart. Roth (1995) supported this argument by comparing in his study the use of reference cohesion in oral narratives developed by 93 students with and without learning disabilities, ages 8-13. The findings showed significant group, age and task effects. Moreover, there are differences between the learners with learning disabilities and without in relation to their use of cohesion, i.e. reference cohesion.

3.6 Coherence

The concept of coherence is not defined well (Van Dijk: 1980: 93) as quoted in Abdullah (2000). As similar to the case of cohesion, linguists are separated on whether to define cohesion in formal terms (e.g. cohesive devices), or regard it as a textual property that can only be felt by hearers and readers.

With regard to the first position, Halliday and Hassan (1976: 11) claimed that discourse sentences cohere as far as their meaning is concerned. Viz. to establish coherence, it is better to look for how much sentences in question do inter-relate in meaning. Harmer (2004) stated that cohesive devices aid in binding elements of a text together to know what is being referred to and the relation of the phrases and sentences to each other. A text can be perfectly structured and rich with cohesive devices but is not coherent as the following example:

This made her afraid. It was open at the letters page. His eyes were shut and she noticed the Daily Mail at his side. She knew then that he had read her contribution. Gillian came round the corner of the house and saw her husband sitting in his usual chair on the terrace. She wished now that she had never written to the paper.

(Harmer: 2004: 25)

This example shows that a coherent text is one that has some kind of internal logic which the reader can follow with or without the use of prominent cohesive devices. Two things can be understood from a coherent text. First, the writer purpose should be clear to the reader whether 'to give information, suggest a course of action, make judgment on a book or play, or express an opinion about world events' (Harmer: 2004: 25). Second, the writer's line of thought which means that the reader can clearly follow different types of pieces of text such as discursive, narrative and descriptive piece.

However, Widdowson (1978: 31) pointed out that the relationships between propositions within the same discourse are not always signaled linguistically. He claimed that the meaning of the text should be worked out by hearers and readers because it does not find ready-made as in the following two examples:

- *A: What are the police doing?*
  B: they are arresting the demonstrators.
- *A: What are the police doing?*
  B: I have just arrived.

In the first example, 'them' which is a formal signal make a connection between B's speech and A's. Although, there is no such connection, it is still coherent. These two examples infer that a piece of discourse can be both cohesive and coherent (first example; and coherent without being cohesive (second example).

3.7 Contrastive rhetoric

 In the1960s, the notion of contrastive rhetoric had its origins in pedagogical motives. In that period, a number of English second language (ESL) teachers became aware of the inadequacy of the audio-lingual method (ALM) approach in meeting the need of foreign students studying at United States tertiary institutions. Kaplan's reported speech in (1988) mentioned that a few problems have been identified when a considerable number of compositions written by international students have been scrutinized. There were many differences in the writing of English expository essays by L2 students compared to those written by native speakers. The aim of Kaplan's research is to understand those differences and to contribute to pedagogical systems bridging the gap.

Contrastive rhetoric is concerned with matters related to topicalization, ways of achieving cohesion and coherence and (the combination of surface linguistic features). The evolution of contrastive rhetoric firstly focused on direct comparison of discourse features in the texts of two different languages; secondly on the increasing number of discourse-based research which achieved dominance of syntactic/ textual features over the discourse structure; and thirdly on the wider divisions of text organization such as units of persuasive discourse, storygraph analysis, topical structure analysis, and content structure analysis. Finally, discourse research has started to concentrate on textual analysis which examines the usage of linguistic features of texts.

3.8 The uses of contrastive rhetoric

There are five problems that constrained the usefulness of contrastive rhetoric (Kaplan: 1988). The first problem is that the early contrastive rhetoric research concentrated on the

final product rather than on the process in which the text was being produced. The second one is that contrastive rhetoric research failed to compare similar text genres, and so led to repeat attempts to compare students writing with the writing of the professional or skilled writers. In those researches, the parameters (different texts genres) are actually incomparable. The third one is that early contrastive rhetoric research failed to decide whether the writer being studied had the ability to produce effective prose in his or her own native language. A writer with constrained ability in his or her own native language will definitely not go beyond those constraints in a second language. The fourth one is that contrastive rhetoric research was previously based on the fact that deductions were made by examining deviation from the norms of English only, rather than examining the discourse of L1. This fourth problem has been considerably overcome through the research mentioned above referring to particular languages. The final problem is the most important one and that is the assumption that there is no universal theoretical model for contrast. Regrettably, the findings of different scholars cannot easily be compared because results usually come from various research paradigms and from different empirical bases.

As mentioned above, these problems restricted the effectiveness of contrastive rhetoric both as a research base and as a base from which to make pedagogical decisions. It is clear that there are rhetoric differences in the written discourses of different languages. Therefore, a writer needs to know those differences before he/she can begin to understand what he/she must do in order to write in a more native-like manner. Moreover, students need to be aware of the fact that the ability to compose in one language does not guarantee a comparable ability to compose in another.

Contrastive rhetoric does not provide a method for teaching but 'it provides a body of knowledge concerning what is involved in writing of various types of texts for various types of audiences in various types of culturally constrained settings' (Kaplan: 1988).

In chapter three, some of the significant research in contrastive rhetoric has been reviewed to explain those developments and to demonstrate the strong collection of research evidences which support the notion of contrastive rhetoric.

3.9 Insights from first language research

Hadley (1993) pointed out that second and foreign-language teachers have had to depend on insights from first language studies because of the predominance of writing research in native language. She added that, although there are many commonalities between first and second language writing, the difference should also realized. Kroll (1990) claimed that there are two reasons of the complexity of writing in second language than in first language. Firstly, the problems that native speakers face in composing are added in the foreign language context by difficulties with the new code language system. Secondly, she pointed out that direct transfer of literacy skills from the native to the foreign language cannot be presumed.

3.10 Research on writing in the second language

3.10.1 Research on the composing process: second language studies

Kraples (1990) examined the studies of the composing process of English as a second language. In her surveys of these studies, she discovered that in their designs, there were many commonalities. Firstly, these studies were guided by or based on studies in the native

language. Secondly, studies usually contain very small numbers of subjects (typically 4-6 learners). Thirdly, subjects were usually female and in advance proficiency level. The subjects were undergraduate learners whose native language was either Spanish or Chinese. Lastly, students were not chosen randomly and even sometimes they were the researcher's own classes.

Friedlander (1990) tested the effects of advanced writers using their native language on the quality of their writing in English as a second language. He cited studies by Chelala (1981), Lay (1982), and Johnson (1985) that confirm his own findings. Friedlander's findings showed that in certain instances, students can benefit from using their native language while composing on topics in a foreign language. Using the native language can aid the students to find more information on certain types of topics and consequently improve the quality of their final compositions. Friedlander conducted a study on 28 Chinese subjects who differ in their benefit from using Chinese relying on the topic of the composition. They benefit more from using Chinese to plan topics related to Chinese experiences. However, they wrote more on topics related to experiences rooted in English-speaking culture when they used English to plan their writing Friedlander disagreed with forcing advanced level students in the second language compositions or engage in parts of the composing process in the target language because this might increase their anxiety. On the other hand, he proposed that ESL students at lower level should be motivated to do everything in English because they need more practice and using their native language will not be good for them.

3.10.1.1 Research on evaluation and feedback: second language studies

Some researchers, scholars, and practitioners differ in their opinions about how and when to evaluate student written work. For instance, some of them respond mainly to content only. Others recommend that to respond to both form and content, with some scholars propose to delay their response to the final draft and others like to respond to formal features all over the process.

There is a general consensus that including students in their own correction is useful and a combination of teacher, peer, and self evaluation produce the most fruitful results. A study that examined different students' responses to feedback on their compositions discovered that the teachers' comments were confusing, inconsistent and concentrating completely on form (Cohen: 1987). Moreover, he found in his study, teachers did not ask their students to write a second draft after giving them the teachers' input. He suggested that in teachers' comments, they concentrate more on process and use of multi-draft assignments. Teachers should teach their students how to use feedback in order to improve their writing skills.

Rieken's (1991) discovered a significant teacher effect that is ignored in many empirical studies. There are significant factors in the effectiveness of correction strategies that are the teacher's attitude toward correction, the way in which they offer it to students and student's own feelings about the teacher in general.

The studies review showed that the effects of feedback and grading are quite different (Hadley: 1993). Moreover, the results of these studies indicated that teacher feedback is sometimes vague; contradicted and the feedback which is focusing on form discourages

many students. Teachers can benefit from these findings in considering their own feedback strategies and evaluating different ways to respond to student work.

3.11 EFL/ESL researches

(a) Discourse analysis studies

Text linguists have used findings of composition research to enhance their understanding of the text and composition teachers would benefit from the work of text linguistics. The following are some discourse analysis studies.

A study examined the relationship between reading and writing performance of university ESL students through two reading texts as well as two writing texts (Eldouma: 2005). The study also investigated the students perceptions about the integration of reading and writing and their and writing via a questionnaire of two parts. Further, the study found out reading and writing features of good readers/writers and poor readers/writers based on written products of immediate recalls of two reading text. Finally, the study interviewed ESL learners to study the strategies they used to integrate reading and writing and vice versa. The subjects were 90 undergraduate students of English language from the Faculty of Education at Sudan University of Science and Technology. The findings of the study showed that there was a high degree of correlation between the students' reading performance and writing performance (r=0.741; p=.000). It also found that the relationship between reading performance and writing performance differed in accord with learners' levels of language proficiency which support the bi-directional hypothesis. This hypothesis assumed that 'reading and writing are interactive as well as interdependent' (Eldouma: 2005: 238). The results also indicated that the subjects showed positive attitudes towards

connecting reading and writing skills. A large number of the participants' mode connection between what they read and what they wrote by making notes and /or summaries of what they read, developing topics of their reading into paragraphs and using the main ideas of their writing texts to aid them in their writing activities (Eldouma: 2005).

In addition, the results of the students' showed that good writers recall better than the other groups. Therefore, it is argued that a good writer tend to be a better reader compared to good reader being a better writer which also lend to support the results of the reading and writing performance tests as well as the analysis of the students' responses to the questionnaire.

Furthermore, the students' interviews revealed that all the interviewees carried out some common strategies when reading and writing. Good/poor readers and good/poor writers prepared themselves for reading by checking the title and pictures first (Eldouma: 2005: v). Nevertheless, good readers, poor readers, and poor writers appeared to have similar plans for reading, good writers had a more clear plan to approach reading (skimming for mean ideas, scanning for details or reading the introduction first). The interviewees did not use clear techniques to generate ideas for their writing.

A study investigated the deficiency of English composition writing in the Sudanese final year of the Higher Secondary Schools (HSS) (Karadawi: 1994). Data were gathered from eighty third year HSS students. They wrote written topic in both Arabic and English languages. The findings showed that there is weakness in the writing composition of the students and it is the result of mingled factors that arise from inadequate knowledge of English language basics to socio-psycholinguistic aspects. The findings of the study

produce an instant composition recipe program for solving the problem of composition writing in the third year of the HSS.

In the same vein, a study investigated the written performance of the Sudanese' university students (Mohammed: 1999). He observed that Sudanese students confront difficulties in English writing. 50 students from the preliminary year at the Faculty of Medicine, University of Khartoum wrote a paragraph on a specific topic in English. The results illustrated that the subjects had insufficient knowledge of paragraph writing techniques. Their writing task demonstrated problems with using cohesive devices. The subjects used strategies such as depending on the sentence as a unit of expressing one idea instead of the paragraph, reliance on particular coordinating conjuncts and resort to thinking in the mother tongue while writing in the target language in order to compensate for their insufficient of paragraph structuring rules.

Another study investigated the Sudanese EFL learners' written discourse competence in some national universities Abdallah (2000). He made an attempt to identify the problems that Sudanese learners encounter in practicing written discourse and to find out solutions to overcome such problems. Data were collected from the Sudanese learners' written answers to examination questions held at the department of English of the University of Khartoum, Omdurman Islamic University and Al-Nileen University. The findings show that students' composing competence reveals an inadequate grasp of English written discourse properties, i.e. mechanics of discourse, cohesion and coherence. Moreover, the study found that the students' unawareness of these discourse properties correlated with their overall writing quality in that the majority of their written performance was below average.

A study examined the relationship between the rhetoric of Arabic as the native language and English as the foreign language of the Arab students to solve their problems in writing English composition. Kharma (1986) proposed two suggestions to confront the weakness of Arab students in composition writing:

a. Prior to university level an initial training should be accomplished successfully on components such as referencing punctuation and linking devices as it is required for higher educational level.

b. Intensive training on aspects of English discourse, such as the organization of the paragraph, and the proper development of the theme should be carried out by the students to achieve coherence and cohesion in students' writing.

Carrell (1984a) found similar result to Meyer's. ESL readers were better recalled expository text that carried the same main content but organized with a comparison, problem/solution, or causation top-level structure than were texts with a description type of organization. Versions of the text with one of the first three types of top-level organization were read by ESL readers and they recalled (immediately and 48hours later) significantly more ideas than by ESL readers who read the versions with the description type of organization.

Another study used a text that contained both comparison and time-order information, but in two versions, one highlighting the comparison structure, and the other emphasizing the time-order structure (Meyer: 1982). Although there is no difference of the total amount of information recalled when readers used one or the other of these text's structures to organize their recall, there was a great difference in the kinds of information retained. Readers who recognized and used the comparison structure in their recall were likely

retained casual and comparative relationships and related the content in this manner, but recalled few specific facts such as names and historical events. On the other hand, readers who identified and used the time-order structure were remembered the specific facts very well, but recalled less of the information that was closely related to the comparative, casual logic in the context. Carrell (1987) stated that Meyer's research indicated that 'different textual structures will produce different effects on readers; a writer may achieve different goals with readers by using different structures'.

A study examined the linguistic, rhetorical, and strategic variables of the writing process and products of three groups of graduate and under graduates' students (Kim: 1996). The three groups were: twenty eight native English speaking Americans, twenty eight Koreans studying in the United States, and ninty Korean students in Korea. The last two groups of Koreans were ESL. The data were collected from persuasive writing, assignments, follow up questionnaire about the writing process, and writing background and attitude surveys. Writing samples were analyzed for ten linguistic variables (length variables, cohesion variables and discourse markers), thirteen rhetorical variables (coherence variables, openings, closings, rhetorical questions, reader inclusion and counterarguments), and twelve strategic variables (outline, revision, writing confidence, writing attention, discourse knowledge use and audience awareness). Results have shown important differences in process and product variables between native and non-native writers and between non native advanced and basic writers, which were significant predictors of writing quality. These variables were spread across linguistic, rhetorical and strategic groups suggesting that writing quality relies on all three groups of variables. Contrastive rhetoric terms are the reason for the difference in process and product variables between native and non-native advanced writers. Advance native English-speaking writers outperform their advanced ESL

counterparts because of their greater familiarity with the rhetorical conventions of their L1. On the other hand, advanced ESL students outperform their basic counterparts because of the greater body of instruction that they have taken.

(b) Contrastive rhetoric studies

Contrastive rhetoric is concerned with matters related to topicalization, ways of achieving cohesion and coherence and (the combination of surface linguistic features). Hence, contrastive rhetoric was offered as pedagogical solution to the problem of L2 organization. The following studies lend support to the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis.

According to a study in English expository prose paraphrases focused on the degree of comprehension and retention of ideas from texts (Connor and McCagg: 1987). The purpose of this study was to find out cross-cultural differences in this kind of task and to determine the implications of such differences on ESL pedagogy. There is no evidence that the cross-cultural differences observed by Kaplan in essay writing happens when non-native English speaking students recall English expository prose. It is found that non-native speakers follow the order of the original passage while native speakers felt free to vary and rearrange the original. This difference between the native and non-native English-speakers can be explained by differences in language proficiency and writing fluency than by cultural differences. Moreover, non-native speakers recall fewer supporting details than native speakers.

A study in argumentative texts in students writing across cultures and languages was based on comparison between compositions written in L1 on an argumentative task by 16–year-old students from four different countries: England, Finland, German and the United States

(Connor: 1987). The results of this study suggest the value of knowledge-based, process-oriented text analysis in the study of students writing. These analyses concentrated on the writer's causes for selecting ideas and how they are presented rather than on the surface-level structures of the language. Some cross-cultural differences were observed. The *situation + problem + solution + evaluation* structure was not used as consistently in the Finnish and German student compositions as it was in the English and U.S. student compositions. Nevertheless, the other analyses gave roughly equal results for all cultural groups. These text analyses pointed out that according to the rating scale for text argumentation and compositions evaluation, the high-rated essays basically conformed better to the typical argument process structure: *situation + problem + solution + evaluation*, with speech act sequence of *claim, justification,* and *induction.* Moreover, it was discovered that a supplementary analysis scale concerning audience awareness and social-perspective taking demonstrated a direct and close relationship with the holistic quality rating.

In Korean writing, Eggington (1987) made an equivalent argument for an alternative rhetorical pattern. The Korean format looks as if developed from the same origin as the Japanese writing format. *Ki-Sung-Chon-Kyul* is the Korean rhetorical structure that follows a pattern of four elements: introduction and loose development, a statement of the main idea, concepts indirectly connected with the argument, and a conclusion of the main theme. Eggington claimed that Koreans prefer this pattern when they are not bilingual (English and Korean) and not widely exposed to English prose.

An equivalent pattern in Chinese writing was stated by Cheng (1985) and he argued that a Chinese rhetorical style comprises of a four-part pattern similar to the four-part patterns for

both Korean and Japanese. This pattern also is believed to have the same historical source in Chinese poetry. Tsao (1983) pointed out that such origins may describe the large use of allusions and historical references observed in Chinese writing. The four- part pattern also has a historical relation to the Confucian eight-legged essay.

Analyzing rhetorical contrasts between English and Thai from a different perspective, Bickner and Peyasantiwong (1988) examined sets of students writing on the same task. They discovered that Thai students used more repetition, made extensive use of lists, and frequently did not use conclusions.

English and Thai students' narrative writing were examined in a similar study by Indrasutra (1988). American writers wrote essays in English, and Thai writers wrote essays in both English and Thai languages. Although structure and cohesive measures did not show significant differences, there were indeed clear different preferences for the structure of the narratives. Indrastura found that 'Thai narratives preferred analogy for narrative description, making more use of figurative language such as metaphor, simile, and personification. She claimed that the distinction may be caused by the different role narratives play in Thai culture. Narratives are used as an important medium for exposition and instruction which are not found in the American education context. Thai students wrote stories which are taken from real life and were intended to explain or construct.

A study examined Vietnamese students' narrative writing in English in Australia by Söter (1988). She argued that Vietnamese writers exert 'less effort on the plot development and more effort on the attributional features of the characters'.

Analyzing culturally rhetorical preferences with respect to Hindi, Kachru (1983, and 1988) examined a series of studies of Hindi and English texts. She stated that syntactic and cohesive features differ in the two languages as a rhetorical preferential organization of the discourse. In a study of expository prose (1983), she claimed that Hindi expository prose organization is sometimes spiral instead of linear, reflecting circular patterns of organization in traditional Hindi culture and religion. Moreover, she claimed that traditional organizational patterns are discovered in Indian- English writing.

In a further recent study, Kachru (1988) observed that some Hindi expository prose essays follow linear patterns of organization and perform 'English conventions of paragraph unity, topic statement, and support for an argument following the claim'; other expository prose writing neglects these conventions. She does not state that all English expository prose essentially follows the above conventions, but that they represent accepted reader expectations in English.

The most widely spread contrastive rhetoric comparison is perhaps between Spanish and English. At the beginning of 1970 some dissertations tested features of Spanish-English rhetorical contrasts. After a decade, more studies tested both linguistic and rhetorical differences. Three studies, specifically, lead to the notion that Spanish writers prefer a more 'elaborated' style of writing, whether in Spanish or English.

In the first study, Spanish ESL students wrote longer sentences, used more coordinate clauses, and used as many subordinate clauses as English L1 students Reid (1988a). At the time, she pointed out that these results might show a pattern of 'loose coordination' as argued in Ostler (1987).

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The second study is a comparison across two groups of students writing in their own first languages (Montano-Harmon: 1991). The first group consisted of secondary school Spanish writers in Mexico and the second one consisted of English students in the USA. It has been noticed that Spanish writers wrote longer sentences, used fewer simple sentences, and more coordinating clauses.

The third study is a comparison between university level Ecuadorean Spanish students and University English L1 writers in the USA Lux (1991). One more time, the results showed that Spanish students wrote longer sentences, and made greater use of subordinate clauses. However, there was no difference in the use of coordinate clauses.

Hatim (1991) emphasizes the point that Arabic writers have historically had the choice to develop arguments in writing with regard to balanced counter-arguments, presenting the opponent's view, but then countering it. However, this option is not preferred in modern Arabic; instead, a preference is given to argumentation which either makes no reference to an opposing view or presents a one sided argument with an explicit concessive (e.g. *although*). For both Hatim and Sa'Adeddin, the issues of audience and interaction with the reader seem to play important roles in discussing linguistically observable differences between Arabic and English rhetorical preferences.

Looking at a comparison between Brazilian, Portuguese and American- English editorial writing, Dantas-Whitney and Grabe (1989) tested the texts for linguistic features that would reflect functional dimensions of text structure. For instance, texts which make large use of linguistic features such as first and second person pronouns, subordinators, infinitives, and general hedges' seem to be more *interactionally* oriented than texts which make low use of

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these features but high use of repetition in prose. Dantas-Whitney and Grabe discovered important differences between the two samples in relation to *abstract/formal* versus *situational/informal* presentation of information. This dimension was presented by the high use of normalization, prepositions, and words per sentence for abstract/formal style versus the low use of adverbs for *situational/informal style*. There was in addition a bias for Portuguese editorials to seem more *interactional* than the English editorials, which were more *informationally* oriented, though results were not statistically significant.

A second study which investigates multiple function dimensions, Lux (1991) & Lux and Grabe (1991), examines the writing of tertiary level students from Ecuador and the USA, claimed that Spanish-language students, whether as L1 or L2 students, wrote more 'elaborated' prose than did English-language students. On the basis of a multivariate analysis of twenty two linguistic features, Lux suggested four factors which were helpful in interpreting the comparisons among the writing groups. The 'elaborated style ' factor noted above was the most important difference / parameter for this study.

A third multidimensional approach to contrastive rhetoric follows from the work of Purves and his colleagues study of written compositions (Purves and Takala: 1982). In this study, students from 14 countries wrote on eight different writing prompts (Purves and Hawisher: 1990). Thus, the project was able to compare writing across different age levels, across countries, and across task and text type. Purves and Hawisher (1990) conducted a study in which 100 essays from each country were rated on a number of functional dimensions:

1. Personal-impersonal.

2. Ornamented-plain.

3. Abstract-concrete.

4. Single-multiple.

5. Propositional-appositional.

These dimensions contained references to the writer's thoughts, such as the use of metaphors, imagery, and figures of speech; to the amount of particular information; to the perceived narrowness and unity of topic, and to the types and numbers of connectives used. The results revealed that writers from different countries could be placed in a multidimensional profile. For instance, the Italian writers were rated 'high' in all five categories; that is, the writing was judged as highly personal, ornamented, abstract, single-focused, and propositional. In contrast, the Finnish students were evaluated low in all five dimensions. Students from 14 different countries were evaluated in this way. While this approach is intriguing, it remains to be seen what particular results of this research will be upcoming, and what implications will be advanced for writing instruction.

These multidimensional studies are only suggestive of the possible research options that are available. Research on contrastive rhetoric still needs studies of a large variety which relate linguistic and discourse-structure to functional textual dimensions of text.

A further study contrasted Arabic and English paragraph structure in expository discourse was conducted by Fareh (1988) as noted by Naji (1996). The study analyzed three important aspects for full description of paragraph structures: tagmemic of thematic patterns, logical relations that hold between propositions on the one hand and between themes and rhymes on the other, and lexical cohesive devices. The study's sample was composed of forty expository paragraphs chosen from the two languages. It was found out that, in Arabic, connectives had crucial effect in signaling the intricate logical

interpropositional relations. Therefore, connectives in Arabic appear to be an essential part of text textuality. Logical relations in English were decided by the content of propositions instead of by connectives. On the other hand, an important difference between the frequencies of the same word and collocation in Arabic and English was demonstrated. The lexical cohesive of repeating the same word in English was more common, while collocation in Arabic is more frequent than in English.

(c) Writing instruction studies

Abdallah (2000) pointed out that systematic instruction studies develop learners' composing competence. According to him, all the systematic instruction studies under this section if they are received by native or non-native students, they are assumed to overcome their problems in writing.

Liou (1997) computer-based study examined the effect of the use of World Wide Web (W.W.W) texts in an English teaching college. It has shown that 15 students using the Web-based materials improved better than those of students not using the materials.
Below are three studies that are based on traditional teaching:

A comparative study has been done to assess the writing development of 97 college freshman before and after instruction to determine whether a process-centered mode of teaching had a more important effect than a traditional form-centered mode of instruction on discourse coherence in composition (Davis: 1990). The statistical analysis of this study used a pretest/posttest, quasi-experimental design with both qualitative and quantitative analyses. The analysis indicated that the form-centered students had a more statistically significant than the process centered students. This suggest that writing instruction in

discourse forms or structure had an important effect on the form-centers students for learning 'organize schemata' to guide them in writing connected, coherent discourse. A discourse matrix analysis indicated that the process-centered group made statistically significant than the form centered group in the number and in the percent of T-units contributing to local and global coherence.

Johnson (1991) conducted a study on the impact of knowledge acquired from reading in instruction on expository writing. Subjects were 10 ESL university students. Self-report sessions were done for seven compositions during a 15-week semester. An examination of the transcripts of the recorded sessions proposes that the effects of knowledge acquired from reading instruction on expository can be categorized as follows: information or comprehension of the concept of the reading passage; process or adoption of the method of organization of information in the passage; process or adoption of the method of organization of information in the passage; and transaction or awareness of the reader / writer relationship. In spite of the combination of the boundaries between these categorize sometimes, the writer's ability to use and organize information gained from reading a passage is supported by the transcribed self-report sessions.

3.12 Summary

This chapter provided literature review on writing on composing, approaches to teaching writing as creative communication, systemic functional grammar and theme and rheme. Moreover, it shows how cohesion and coherence can be established with sentence and discourse levels. It defines contrastive rhetoric and describes the history and the uses of contrastive rhetoric. Besides, it explains why second and foreign language teachers rely on

insights from first language studies. It concludes with reported researches that have been carried out on EFL/ESL and are divided into the following sections: discourse analysis studies, contrastive rhetoric studies, writing instruction studies.

CHAPTER 4

4. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology adopted in this study. It begins with the description of the subjects who participated in the study, the data collected and the research methods used. The study instruments and procedure used; and the validity and reliability of the instruments area also included.

4.2 Subjects

The subjects of this study consist of two groups of students in Khartoum State (the capital of Sudan). The first group of students consisted of Sudanese students who are non-native speakers of English and whose first language is Arabic. They study at Zat Alnatagian secondary school for girls. The second group consisted of students who are native speakers of English from England and USA. They study at British Education Schools in Khartoum. The Sudanese group consisted of 19 female students who were enrolled in the second year at the age of (14-15). The English group consisted of 19 male and female English students who were enrolled in the second year at an age ranging from 14 years to 15 years.

The students in the Sudanese group studied the national syllabus SPINE series together with simplified English literature books. The students in the English group also studied SPINE series but in addition they studied Headway series. Both groups were studying in private schools where every child pays tuition fees, unlike the state-run schools which are free. The Sudanese were in an international school with different nationalities and the

school has two sections: English and Arabic section. The English students were from the English section (in The British Education Schools) and their medium of instruction is English. The Sudanese were from a private school (Zat Alnitagain) where the medium of instruction is Arabic, but English is taught from grade three, unlike the governmental schools where English is taught from grade five.

4.3 Data collection and procedure

The data were obtained from the writing samples of students who are native speakers of English (NSE) and students who are non-native speakers of English (NNSE). The NSE group wrote expository compositions (in English). The NNSE wrote two versions; one in English and the other in Arabic.

The students were asked to choose one topic from a list of four topics to write on. The compositions written by both groups were collected in the second term of the academic year 2006/2007 during second and fourth period of the particular day. The compositions in English were written in fixed time (60 minutes), but another one hour was given to the Sudanese to write the expository composition in Arabic, this was done after a break of half an hour following to their finishing of writing the English expository composition.

4.4 Study instrument

The compositions written by the two groups were analyzed to provide answers to the research questions.

The writing task consisted of four topics of composition that deal with different aspects of writing in order to give the students the chance to choose one topic to write on. These topics were chosen because they did not require expert knowledge from the students. The students could use their background knowledge of the topic in order to express themselves clearly. These topics were taken from Carrell (1992):

1. A problem in society that concerns you.

2. The easiest things for you to do in your home.

3. My life will be different from that of my parents.

4. The most important technological invention of the past twenty years.

The same topics were translated into Arabic and were given to the Sudanese students to choose one topic to write on. The topic in Arabic had to be the same topic that the student wrote in English. The main purpose of the writing samples was to find out the extent to whether the native and non-native speakers of English follow Goutsos' model with regard to topic strategies and topic signals in writing expository compositions and to compare the topic strategies and topic signals used in by the students in English and Arabic expository compositions.

4.5 Validity and reliability

The compositions which were written by the students were checked by two independent raters for the occurrence of topic strategies and topic signals. Moreover, the descriptive analyses of the students' essays were checked for inter-rater reliability.

4.6 Data analysis

The data obtained from the writing samples were analyzed qualitatively and also quantitatively to find out the similarities and differences in the usage of topic signals and topic strategies by native speakers of English and non-native speakers of English in Arabic and English expository essay.

All essays were parsed into sentences using a decimal system to show paragraph breaks and beginnings and ends of sentences within the paragraph. A new paragraph starts with a new number and the sentences are labeled as sub-sections of that number (e.g. 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2., 2.3, etc.).

The Goutsos'model is then applied to the texts to show how the students used the sequential strategies to organize their topics. The following taxonomy was used to classify the strategies and topic signals employed by the students.

- ➢ **Topic Continuity**
    - o **Paragraph breaks**
    - o **Absence of signals**
    - o **Tense continuity**
    - o **Discourse markers**
    - o **Encapsulation nominals**
    - o **Local cohesive device of repetition**

- ➢ **Topic Shift**
    - • **Topic Framing**
        - o **Paragraph break**
        - o **Sentence-initial adjuncts**
        - o **Enumeration**
        - o **Question-answer pair**
        - o **Discourse markers**
        - o **Metadiscourse markers**

- **Topic Introduction**
  - **Initial dummy elements**
  - **Indefinite subject**
  - **Question-answer pair**
  - **Enumeration**
  - **Metadiscourse markers**
  - **Renominalizaion**

- **Topic Closure**
  - **Discourse markers**
  - **Metadiscourse markers**
  - **Encapsulation**
  - **Paragraph break**

The taxonomy is embedded in the figure taken from Goutsos (1997:75), see chapter two page 41.

The texts were analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively.

For the qualitative analysis, each text is labeled and then the extracts which exemplify the Topic Strategies and the topic signals were cited. The point being focused on is either underlined, *Italicaized* or **bolded**. In each extract, the analysis shows how the topic signals are used to indicate the sequential strategy and how they are employed to unfold the continuation spans and the transition spans.

For the quantitative analysis, all of the instances that occurred in all of the texts were assembled in frequency tables. These tables were used in two ways:

(1) They were entered into the SPSS programme to show the mode(s) and the percentages of each of the topic signals coded. The programme also shows a histogram that provides a schematic picture of the relationship between the items as

well as showing the curve of normality that indicates the normal distribution of the data.

(2) The tables obtained from the SPSS programme were entered into Excel spread sheets and transformed into graphs in order to make the comparisons between the three types of texts:

(a) A comparison was made to texts written by native speakers of English (ESTs) and texts written by Sudanese students in their native language "Arabic" (SATs). This comparison is to show the differences and similarities between the two groups of students when they write in their native language in relation to Goutsos's Model.

(b) A comparison was made to texts the written by native speakers of English (ESTs) and the texts which were written by the Sudanese students in English (SETs). This is to show the extent to which the Sudanese students adhere to the Goutsos's Model in contrast with their English speaking counterparts.

(c) A comparison was made to texts written by the Sudanese students in Arabic (SATs) and the texts which were written by the same group in English (SETs). This is to show how the Sudanese students perform in relation to Goutsos's Model when they write in the foreign language.

A faithful translation of the texts which were written by the Sudanese students in Arabic was carried out in order to show the organization of the text. Great care has been taken not to interfere with the content or the style of the original. In the analysis, the focus was on the Arabic version, but the English translation was placed side by side with the Arabic version.

For the application of Goutsos's Model on the Arabic texts, every possible attempt has been made in order not to slip into any form of contrastive analysis. The minimum of technical and linguistic terms was used to illustrate the point being made. There are obviously more differences between Arabic syntactic/semantic terminology and English syntactic/semantic terminology than similarities. The focus is always on the application of the sequential strategies for continuity and discontinuity.

From another angle, no editing whatsoever has been done to the texts written by both groups. However, in the case of the Sudanese students (writing in Arabic or English) the segmentation of paragraphs and sentences (where no punctuation was used) has been done on the basis of ideas and controlling ideas.

4.7 Limitations of interpreting the data

There were a number of limitations in data interpretation:

Firstly, the students did not receive any instruction regarding the appropriate limit of words number in writing the expository composition. This might have affected the number of occurrence of topic signals and topic strategies in the compositions of English and Sudanese students.

Secondly, the sample size of the subjects is small. It therefore cannot be considered representative of all and the use of a bigger sample may result in different results. However, it is felt that the results from this study can assist teachers in understanding better the problems that students face in writing expository essays.

CHAPTER 5

5. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analyses of the texts written by the students.

    (1) The texts written by the Native Speakers of English (ESTs).

    (2) The texts written by the Sudanese students in (SATs).

    (3) The texts written by the Sudanese students in English (SETs)

Basically, the texts were as follows:

    (1) 19 texts written by native speakers of English (ESTs)

    (2) 19 texts written by Sudanese students in Arabic (SATs)

    (3) 19 texts written by Sudanese students in English (SETs)

    However, not all of the texts have been subjected to analysis for a number of reasons:

    (1) The analysis continued until a point of data saturation has been reached (i.e. until new information stopped to be obtained).

    (2) Some of the texts were excluded because they did not exhibit the required competence of expository writing.

    (3) Some of the texts which were written by the Sudanese students in English had serve language problems *per se*. They were not suitable for analysis because the content was almost incomprehensible.

Consequently, the number of texts which was analyzed was as follows:

    (1) 5 ESTs.

    (2) 5 SATs.

(3) 5 SETs

As for the texts written by the Sudanese students in Arabic, a faithful translation of the texts is provided in English to accompany the original Arabic text. The translation adopted was as literal as possible in order not to inerter with the content and structure of the original text. However, and because of some problems with paragraphing and punctuation, the segmentation of the texts into paragraphs and sentence was done according to the presentations of ideas. So, if a paragraph (or a long part of text) is linked with elements such as "و") - and), the decimal numbering is used where it is felt appropriate. In addition, the taxonomy of Goutsos's Model was kept as it is and the Arabic version was made to fit with it in terms of the syntactic terminology used. Explanations are made in instances which require some sort of 'contrastive analyses'. As for the English texts written by the Sudanese students, no editing of any errors (grammar, spelling, expressions, etc) has been done. The texts were analyzed in relation to organizational feature according to the Model of Goutsos.

The Goutsos's Model which is used for the analysis can be summarized as follows:

- ➤ **Topic Continuity**
  - ○ **Paragraph breaks**
  - ○ **Absence of signals**
  - ○ **Tense continuity**
  - ○ **Discourse markers**
  - ○ **Encapsulation nominals**
  - ○ **Local cohesive device of repetition**

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- ➢ **Topic Shift**

    - **Topic Framing**

        - o **Paragraph break**

        - o **Sentence-initial adjuncts**

        - o **Enumeration**

        - o **Question-answer pair**

        - o **Discourse markers**

        - o **Metadiscourse markers**

    - **Topic Introduction**

        - o **Initial dummy elements**

        - o **Indefinite subject**

        - o **Question-answer pair**

        - o **Enumeration**

        - o **Metadiscourse markers**

        - o **Renominalization**

    - **Topic Closure**

        - o **Discourse markers**

        - o **Metadiscourse markers**

        - o **Encapsulation**

        - o **Paragraph break**

The texts were analyzed qualitatively to show how the sequential strategies (Topic Continuation and Topic shift) were employed by the students and how they were indicated through topic signals. The texts were coded as follows:

(1) The texts which were written by the native speakers of English:

    (a) EST 1 (English speakers Text 1)

    (b) EST 2 (English speakers Text 2)

    (c) EST 3 (English speakers Text 3)

    (d) EST4 (English speakers Text 4)

    (e) EST 5 (English speakers Text 5)

(2) The texts which were written by the Sudanese in Arabic (SATs)

    (a) SAT 1 (Sudanese Arabic Text 1)

    (b) SAT 2 (Sudanese Arabic Text 2)

    (c) SAT 3 (Sudanese Arabic Text 3)

    (d) SAT 4 (Sudanese Arabic Text 4)

    (e) SAT 5 (Sudanese Arabic Text 5)

(3) The texts which were written by the Sudanese students in English (SETs)

    (a) SET 1 (Sudanese English Text 1)

    (b) SET 2 (Sudanese English Text 2)

    (c) SET 3 (Sudanese English Text 3)

    (d) SET 4 (Sudanese English Text 4)

    (e) SET 5 (Sudanese English Text 5)

All of the texts were segmented using the decimal system to show paragraphs and sentences as follows:

1.1-------------- 1.2 ------------------------- 1.3 --------------------- 1.4-----------

2.2-------------2.3 ---------------- 2.4 ------------------ 2.5 -------------

3.1 -------------- 3.2 ----------------- 3.3------------------------ 3.4 -------------

Each paragraph is indicated by a new section (1.1, 2.1, 3.1, etc)

Sentences within the paragraph are indicated by sub-sections (1.2, 2.4, 3.5, etc)

Throughout the analysis, reference is made by this system of decimal numbering of paragraphs and sentences. Also, the point being referred to in the sentences is <u>underlined</u> and *italicized* or **bolded**. For ease of reference, the template of Goutsos's Model is repeated for every text.

As for the quantitative analysis, frequency tables of the strategies and the topic signals are compiled and used for statistical analysis. The results are then compared to arrive at results which are used to answer the research questions and to verify the research hypotheses.

5.2 Native English speakers' texts (ESTs)

EST1

➢ **Topic Continuity**

In EST1the sequential technique of continuity is indicated mainly by paragraph breaks. It is also signaled by the overall local cohesion in the text as well as the continuity of the tense.

➢ **Topic Shift**

• **Topic Framing**

In EST1, Topic Shift is indicated in a number of ways. The following extracts exemplify this.

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- **Paragraph break**

3.1 If these figures aren't sufficient to tear our hearts with sorrow, then they are certainly shredded by reading that many children under 12 years have abused other children.

In 3.1, the only topic signal is the paragraph break. The discussion moves swiftly to 3.1.

 Other examples of paragraph break are in 4.1 and 5.1 of the same text.

- **Sentence-initial adjuncts**

1.1 _Turning the newspaper pages every morning_ my heart sinks as the stories of problems faced by children predominate.

4.1 _Faced with conflicting advice_, bombarded with a media

In this extract, topic framing is indicated by the underlined clause.

Other examples are

2._1 In yesterday's world_ it was the adults who committed murder, rape, abuse

Today _it's_ the children

These clauses provide a new orientation to the discourse as they prepare for an upcoming topic introduction.

- **Enumeration**

The following extract shows an example of enumeration. It is interesting to see that the successive topic introductions in 2.4 – 2.8 are not preceded by an explicit "enumeration pair". It seems that the writer preferred to keep that imbedded in the noun phrase 'the children' in 2.3.

2.3 _Today_ _it's_ the children. 2.4 _One in eight children has used an illicit drug. 2.5 One in four children is severely maltreated. 2.6 One in twenty children has faced sexual abuse,_

and over 90% of them were abused by someone they know. 2.7 One in seven children has

been neglected. 2.8 One in five children has experienced domestic violence

- **Topic Introduction**

  o **Initial dummy elements**

The two extracts below are examples of it-cleft element that indicates topic introduction

through the theme-rheme construction.

5.<u>1 It is no longer the mother and father</u> who are raising their children exclusively

 5.4 <u>*It is no longer sufficient*</u> to apply

  o **Renominalization**

  5.2 <u>*The children are forging*</u> battles against odds we never faced in our time. 5.3 And I
  am not sure as <u>*adults we*</u> are supportive enough to help <u>*them*</u> win this war. 5.4 It is
  no longer sufficient to apply the traditional receipts to raise our children. *5.5 <u>They</u>*
  need <u>us</u> now more than any other era. 5.6 <u>They</u> are unable to maintain their unique
  identities because <u>they</u> are too busy trying to fit in or face the fears of what <u>we</u>
  ourselves fear in this so called modern world.

Here the repeated use of the pronouns (underlined) is used to signal topic introduction.

They allow for the transition of continuation spans.

- **Topic Closure**

Throughout this text, topic closure is signaled by paragraph breaks.

EST2

➢ **Topic Continuity**

In EST2, the sequential technique of continuity is indicated mainly by paragraph breaks. Each one of the three paragraphs that follows the introductory paragraph signals the continuation of the topic. Moreover, using the present tense all through is a signal of topic continuity. In addition, the overall cohesion of text is evidence of employing the sequential technique of topic continuity.

o **Discourse markers**

In this text topic continuation is also indicated by discourse markers as in the following extract:

2.3 Or perhaps an unmarried woman in a country that abides by Sharia law or has very strict cultural ground on sex before marriage. 2.4 *However, one could also argue in these situations to use now widely available contraceptives, or not to engage in the act in the first place.* (......) *2.6 Yet it could be an act* of trying to dismiss the

The multiple use of '*or'* together with "*However*" and "*Yet"* are used to signal continuation

Another example can be seen in the extract below:

4.1 In conclusion, the controversial act of abortion can be very damaging *and* considered ethically unjust, *but* can also be an escape from a traumatising past life experience *and* be an exit from responsibilities one is not mature enough to take.

The discourse markers *and* and *but* are used here to the same effect.

➢ **Topic Shift**

• **Topic Framing**

In EST2, Topic Shift is indicated in a number of ways. The following extracts exemplify this.

- **Paragraph break**

All of the paragraph breaks (2.1 – 4.1) are signals of topic framing as the indicate the closing of a continuation span and the opening of another one. A further example to illustrate topic framing between the boundaries of paragraphs is the one in 1.1 and 2.1 below.

1.1 Abortion is defined by the Oxford dictionary as "The termination of a human pregnancy". *1.2 But is that all there is to it? Is it the termination of a pregnancy, or murder? 1.3 Could it be the end of a potential life that could benefit the human race in ways unseen before?*

2.1 Many would argue that abortion solves problems.

The questions in 1.2 and 1.3 in combination with the paragraph break 2.1 indicate the ending of the current continuation span to which 1.1 belongs and at the same time the opening of a transition span (including 1.2, 1.3 and 2.1). By this, the scene is shifted to the new domain for the following text.

- **Question-answer pair**

The following extract shows how 'question-answer' pair is used to signal topic framing.

1.2 But is that all there is to it? Is it the termination of a pregnancy, or murder? 1.3 Could it be the end of a potential life that could benefit the human race in ways unseen before?

2.1 Many would argue that abortion solves problems. *2.2 An example would be a young*

teenage girl who has fallen pregnant and is too young to be responsible physically,

emotionally and financially for a child.

The predictive member of the pair "the questions" in 1.2 1nd 1.3

o **Discourse markers**

The extract below shows how the writer has used the discourse marker "*Nonetheless*" in

combination with the paragraph break in to signal topic framing. It closes the previous

continuation span and opens the new span

3.1 Nonetheless, abortion can be classed as murder because despite the foetus being

unborn they are being stripped of the right to live

o **Sentence-initial adjuncts**

This device has been used here to indicate topic framing – as in the extract below

3.2 *Nowadays many couples are heartbroken due to their lack of fertility*, while others

terminate a life growing inside of them. (.....) *3.4 Not only does abortion cause physical*

harm, it can also be very psychologically damaging and cause eating disorders,

relationship problems, guilt, depression, flashbacks of abortion, suicidal thoughts, and

alcohol and drug abuse.

The two clauses at the beginning of 3.2 and 3.3 create a local context for the text that

follows as well as playing a crucial role in the development of the topic.

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- o **Metadiscourse markers**

3.3 *In addition, undergoing an abortion can damage the mother's body* physically *in countless ways and could jeopardise the chances of later getting pregnant when she plans to.*

In the extract above, a metadiscourse marker "*In addition*" comments on the sequential organization of the text. It indicates the closing of a previous span and the opening of a new one –the typical function of topic framing.

- • **Topic Introduction**
- o **Indefinite subject**

2.1 Many would argue that abortion solves problems. 2.2 An example would be a young teenage girl who has fallen pregnant and is too young to be responsible physically,

In this extract from NST2, topic introduction is indicated by the indefinite subject "*Many*" in 2.1 as well as by the paragraph break.

- o **Question-answer pair**

As shown in above in 1.2, 1.3. 2.1and 2.2 (see topic framing above), topic introduction is signaled by the predicted member of the pair (the answer) in 2.1 and 2.2.

- o **Metadiscourse markers**

As is shown above, the metadiscourse marker "*In addition*" indicates the topic framing. Moreover, the clause that follows is the act of topic introduction "undergoing an abortion ....."

3.3 *In addition*, <u>undergoing an abortion can damage the mother's body</u> physically *in countless ways and could jeopardise the chances of later getting pregnant when she plans to.*

- **Topic Closure**

Throughout this text, topic closure is signaled by paragraph breaks. However in the final paragraph, topic closure is signaled by the **metadiscourse item** "*In conclusion*"

4.1 <u>*In conclusion,*</u> the controversial act of abortion can be very damaging and considered ethically unjust, but can also be an escape from a traumatising past life experience and be an exit from responsibilities one is not mature enough to take.

EST3

➢ **Topic Continuity**

o **Encapsulation nominals**

The encapsulation nominal "<u>*this*</u>" refers to the whole chunk of discourse before it "Certain drugs can make ...." as such it encapsulates the whole meaning of the sentence and so it is used her to indicate continuity.

2.1 It is an alarming concern as it can affect a teenager for the rest of his/her life. 2.2 Certain drugs can make people addicted to them; <u>*this*</u> can be very dangerous for a teenager as it can affect many aspects of the teenager's life.

Another example of encapsulating nominals in this text is in 4.2 below:

4.1 There have been many cases where teenagers, who live on their own, have not been eating enough as they spend all their money on drugs. 4.2 *This* can then result in malnutrition and potentially falling ill.

The device "*This*" here contains the entire meaning of the text before it in 4.1. So, it indicates topic continuity.

o **Discourse markers**

An example of using discourse markers to indicate continuation in this text is in 3.3 below. The use of "*or*" signals the employment of topic continuity as a sequential technique.

> *3.2* Generally a teenager has a part time job *or* gets pocket money from their parents, and even this isn't much.

Another example is the employment of "*and*" below.

5.*2* To relieve that pressure or stress, teenagers tend to turn to drugs to calm them down *and* help them relax.

Also in 7.2 and 7.3 the use of "*and*" and '*but*" serves the function of continuity.

7.2 Teenagers tend to get bored easily, *and* are always looking for the 'feel good factor' in their life. 7.3 Drugs can give them that feeling for short periods of time, *but* they don't know the consequences.

o **Absence of signal**

The following extract is an example of how continuation can be indicated by "absence of signal:

> *3.3* If all of that person's money is going towards drugs then they wouldn't be able to spend on necessities, like food for example.

o **Local cohesive device of repetition**

Topic continuation is indicated by the employment of repetition as a local cohesive device. Extract 6.2 shows this.

6.2 If they have a social group who all take drugs, then *that person* would feel left out, instead *that person* just takes the drugs and then fits in.

The reappearance of "*that person*" provides a link which effects a very smooth transition. This is also very clear in the following extract:

8.1 There are also many cases of people being bullied into *taking drugs* and then becoming *addicted to* them *drugs*. 8.2 Having certain so-called friends who *take drugs* and then almost force a person to also *take drugs* is very common nowadays. 8.3 That victim could then become *addicted to the drugs*, having being forced to *take it* so much.

Repetition of the underlined words has the effect of indicating topic continuity.

➢ **Topic Shift**

● **Topic Framing**

o **Sentence-initial adjunct**

In 2.1 below, topic framing is indicated by sentence-initial clause "*It is an alarming ......*"

2.1 *It is an alarming concern as it can affect a teenager for the rest of his/her life.*

Another example in this text is in the extract below

3.2 *Having the money to buy drugs is very difficult*, as they cost a lot of money.

The underlined initial sentence sets the scene for the text that follows "they cost a lot of money"

A third example of such signal is in the following extract:

5.1 *Gaining an education in England is very demanding and tough to do*; a lot of pressure can be placed on people during exam periods for example. 5.*2 To relieve that pressure or stress*, teenagers tend to turn to drugs to calm them down and help them relax.

In 5.1 and 5.2, the underlined clauses set the scene for the texts which follow them – serving as signals of topic framing.

Also in 7.1 the sentence-initial adjunct ""*In schools and colleges*" provides a new orientation in the discourse through the preparation for an upcoming topic introduction.

> 7.1 *In schools and colleges, some teenagers believe that* it is very boring
>
> and don't like attending lessons.

o **Metadiscourse markers**

In the extract below, "*Firstly*" is synonymous with "First and foremost". So, it is not used for numeration. It is actually a metadiscourse marker. Consequently it is a topic signal which indicates topic framing.

3.1 *Firstly* if a teenager becomes addicted, it will be very expensive to buy more and more drugs, the more he takes the more he would crave the drugs.

Another instance of using metadiscourse markers for signaling topic framing is the device "*Generally*" which shows that the writer is closing a continuation span and opening a transition span.

2   Generally a teenager has a part time job or gets pocket money from their parents, and even this isn't much

- **Topic Introduction**

The following extract from NST3 gives an example of how light thematic patterns with empty elements (such as "*There*" in 4.1) and clauses with indefinite subjects (such as "*many cases*" in 4.1) can be employed to signal topic introduction.

4.2 *There* have been *many cases* where teenagers, who live on their own, have not been eating enough as they spend all their money on drugs.

- **Indefinite subject**

In 6.1 below, topic introduction is signaled by the indefinite subject "*Many people*". It affects the closing of the previous continuation span and opens a new one.

6.1 Many people take drugs just to fit in with people

- **Topic Closure**

In 11.1 topic closure is indicated by the signal "*Overall*" which shows that the writer is coming to a conclusion.

11.1 *Overall*, I believe the government should be aspiring more to rid drugs off the streets of England and that this country becomes a drug-free area.

EST4

> **Topic Continuity**

o **Paragraph break**

In EST4, is signaled by paragraph break. In 3.1, the strategy of topic continuity is indicated by the sentence "*Scientists believe ....*"

> *3.1 Scientists believe that the personality of a person could be distorted by viewing child pornography.*

o **Discourse markers**

It is also indicated by discourse markers as in 5.2 "*And this problem ......*"

5.2 *And this problem* is developing everyday by different ways of media

o **Encapsulation nominals**

o A third way of signaling the strategy of continuation is through encapsulation nominals. The extract below is an example. "*This*" in 2.3 encapsulates the whole of the sentence in 2.2.

2.2 Some are interested for the money that they could gain by this act. 2.3 *This* can be done by setting up web sites in which you are required to pay in order to view the videos.

o **Local cohesive device of repetition**

The device of repetition as a local cohesive device is employed in NST4 to indicate topic continuation. The extract below shows this. The multiple repetitions of the underlined words serve this function.

1.1 One of the major disadvantages of *the Internet* is the exposure of *child pornography*.

1.2 And this problem is growing all the time due to *the Internet* user growth. 1.3 *Child*

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pornography is known as the act at which child's under 18 years old are forced in sexual engagement and then this act is exposed to public by different ways, for example *the Internet*. 1.4 *Child pornography* also is not a victimless crime, usually children are being brutalised or even killed after the act.

- ➢ **Topic Shift**
- • **Topic Framing**
- o **Enumeration**

Topic framing is indicated in EST4 by the signal of enumeration. The following extract exemplifies this.

2.1 I could give *a few reasons* why minorities of "people" are interested in pornography.

2.2 *Some are interested for the money that they could gain by this act.* (……). 2.4 *Others watch child pornography so they can satisfy their fantasy and sexual needs*.

Although no words such as "first" or "second" are used here, 2.2 are the predictive members for the predicted member "*a few reasons*" in 2.1. The two underline sentences (in 2.2 and 2.3) are the reasons 2.1 talks about.

Another example is in the extract 3.1 to 3.5. In 3.1, the writer speaks about "*scientists*"; in 3.2, 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5, the scientists are enumerated – even though they are not explicitly mentioned, with the exception of "*A scientist specialized in .....*" in 3.2.

3.1 Scientists believe that the personality of a person could be distorted by viewing child pornography. 3.2 *A psychiatrist specializing in a treatment* of sexual disorder stated that sixty percent of his clients are related to Internet child pornography. 3.3 Recent statistics show that people that watch child pornography are affected in a horrible way. 3.4 Their perception for the female/male sex changes dramatically resulting in an increase of rapes.

3.5 In 2002 a research of an American Academy of lawyers stated that 56% of the divorces cases where related to child pornography.

- **Encapsulating Nominals**

Encapsulation is used in EST4 to signal topic framing. "*This*" in 2.3 below is an instance.

2.3 *This* can be done by setting up web sites in which you are required to pay in order to view the videos.

- **Topic Introduction**

The strategy of Topic Introduction is signaled by a number of techniques.

- **Indefinite subject**

Topic introduction is indicated in NST4 by the signal of indefinite subject. "*Some*" in 2.2 below is an instance of this.

2.2 *Some* are interested for the money that they could gain by this act.

- **Enumeration**

It is also indicated by enumeration. As can be seen, 2.2 and 2.4 are the reassons mentioned in 2.2 as "*a few reasons*"

2.1 I could give *a few reasons* why minorities of "people" are interested in pornography. 2.2 *Some* are interested for the money that they could gain by this act. 2.3 *This* can be done by setting up web sites in which you are required to pay in order to view the videos. 2.4 *Others* watch child pornography so they can satisfy their fantasy and sexual needs.

- **Topic Closure**

In EST4, Topic Closure is indicated by **Metadiscourse markers**

In 5.1 below, the expression "*As you can see*" sums up the passage. It indicates that the topic has been brought to a conclusion.

5.1 *As you can see child pornography is a result of the disorder of our everyday life.*

EST5

➢ **Topic Continuity**

In EST5, The strategy of Topic Continuity is signaled by the following:

o **Absence of signals**

In 2.4 below, there is no explicit employment of a signal to indicate the strategy. This in itself is a signal since continuity is the default case.

> 2.3 File sharing can also cause several serious problems in addition to the risk of being sued for copyright infringement.

o **Discourse markers to appear smoothly.**

In 1.2 below, the discourse marker "*However*" functions as a signal of topic continuity. It sets the scene for the next portion of the texts

1.2 *However, as online technology developed and* the number of Internet users widely increased, it has become difficult to reserve these copyrights.

Also, the discourse marker "*and*" in 2.1 and 2.5 below is employee as a signal for continuity.

2.1 Sharing files needs computers connected online using specific programs called peer-to-peer programmes, _and_ each member could exchange his files whether they are audio, videos or books.

2.5 It might contain viruses or used to pass software called "scumware" which can be installed in your website browser _and_ displays advertising sites or pornography sites.

o **Encapsulation nominals**

In 1.6 below, the device "_This_" encapsulates the whole sentence in 1.5 before it

1.5 Downloads from the Internet should be thoroughly monitored if not avoided. 1.6 _This_ is because downloading is the easiest way for viruses.

➢ **Topic Shift**

• **Topic Framing**

In EST5, the sequential strategy of Topic Framing is indicated by the following signals:

o **Sentence-initial adjuncts**

In 2.2 below, the adverbial adjunct "_In recent years_" is an example of topic framing employing sentence-initial adjuncts. It serves to close a previous continuation span and opens a new one.

2.2 _In recent years_ there have been facilities that made it easy to download and share these
    files just by writing the name of the file that you need in search box

o **Enumeration**

In this text enumeration is used in order to affect the sequential strategy of Topic Shift through Topic Framing. Extracts 1.9 and 1.10 are a case in point.

1.9 There are 3 basic types of firewall with 3 distinct purposes – software firewalls, hardware routers and wireless routers.

1.*10 Additionally, computer users have always been advised to be knowledgeable about latest threats. easy way to infringe copyright material for example:*

1) *It is easier to copy media using Internet websites.*

2) *File compression technology has reduced file size to less than a tenth of their original size.*

3) *Bandwidth increases the speed of the Internet, so for example you can download a musical album in 20 minutes.*

o **Metadiscourse markers**

By signaling the closing of a current continuation span and opening a new one (or a transition span) metadiscourse markers indicate the function of Topic Framing. In 1.10 below, "*Additionally*" is an example.

1.10 *Additionally,* computer users have always been advised to be knowledgeable about latest threats. easy way to infringe copyright material for example:

• **Topic Introduction**

In EST5, the strategy of Topic Introduction is evident in the extracts below:

o **Initial dummy elements**

In the second part of the sentence in 1.2, "*it*" in the second segment of the extract is an initial dummy subject which is used to introduce the rheme.

1.3 However, as online technology developed and the number of Internet users widely increased, *it* has become difficult to reserve these copyrights

- ○ **Indefinite subject**

The indefinite subject "*some reasons*" is used to indicate Topic Introduction.

1.4 There are *some reasons* that make the Internet an latest updates and patches from the manufacturer, keeping the anti-virus up to date and

- • **Topic Closure**

As for Topic Closure, discourse markers are used in NST5. Extract 2.3 is an example where "*Therefore*" signals the act of making a conclusion.

- ○ **Discourse markers**

2.3 *Therefore* industries continually lose money because these people cut their profit by buying goods and distributing it to the public online and still the numbers of people who are using these files continually increase.

- ○ **Paragraph break**

Also, paragraph break works as a signal for Topic Closure in 3.1 below. This is the final paragraph of the text in question. It tries to make the reader go away with the most important notion of the text.

3.1 Protecting copyright material: -

  1) Unlawful access: Watch people who are responsible for distributing these files and try to track them by following their IP address.

2) Punish the files sharers: There must be some consequence to file sharers, so they should catch them first and send a warning. But after they repeating this three times they must pay a fine and ban them using the Internet for a while.

3) *Educate Internet users: There must some ways of making people aware that the infringement is illegal and it might lead to worse consequences*.

5.3 Texts written by Sudanese students in Arabic (SATs)

SAT 1

➢ **Topic Continuity**

In SAT1, the sequential strategy of Topic Continuity is employed through the following signals:

o **Paragraph break**

All through the text, paragraph breaks show that the writer indicated continuity by segmentations of the text into 5 paragraphs each of which opens a new continuation span.

o **Absence of signals**

Since continuity is the default case, it is indicated by absence of signals.

o **Tense continuity**

The text uses the continuous tense all through. There is no other tense used here. Examples of this are

1.1 إن الإيمان بامر ما و بأهميته كفيل بجعله أفضل الأعمال التي تفعلها لإن أيمانك به سيعطيك طاقة تساعدك على أدئه و اقتناعك به سيدفعك دفعا للبحث و التنقيب عن كل خباياه ليخرج كأفضل ما يكون.

Believing in a matter and its importance is sure to make it the best of acts **to do** because your belief in it <u>will give</u> you energy **to help** you to do it and your conviction <u>will</u> surely <u>push</u> you to try to find and dig for all of its potentialities so that it <u>comes out</u> in the best possible way.

In the extract above, the underlined words in the Arabic text 1.1 corresponds to the underlined words in the English translation.

Syntactic markers for the continuous and future tense in Arabic are ت as in <u>تفعلها</u> <u>and</u> <u>تساعدك</u>. The future in Arabic is expressed by the contiguous form of the verb and is sometimes indicated by the morpheme س as in <u>سيعطيك</u> and <u>سيدفعك</u> . The translation from Arabic into English may sometimes make it imperative to use the *infinitive with to* for the present continuous such as the bolded word English version: **to do** and **to help** the equivalents of <u>تفعلها</u> and <u>تساعدك</u> respectively.

- o **Discourse markers**

Topic Continuation is also indicated by discourse markers. An instance of this is evident in the extract below:

3.2 فكما عرف دائما أن الممنوع مرغوب3.3 و لنفس أساس هذه النظرية ما تفعله بنفسك ليس كما يطلب منك أو تؤمر بفعله.

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as it is normally known that what is prohibited is wanted **and** because of the same basis of this principle what you do by yourself is not the same as what you are asked to do <u>or</u> ordered to do.

In the Arabic version in 3.2 above, the morphemes ـف, و and أو are discourse markers of continuation . They do the function of coordination which their English equivalents (**as**, **and**, **or**) perform. As such they are indicators of continuation.

- o **Encapsulation nominals**

4.1 و حتى يسهل الإنسان على نفسه ما يفعله عليه أن يحاول جاهدا الاستمتاع و الإحساس بالمسؤولية تجاهه كأنك و دون سواك من طلب منك أداء <u>هذا العمل</u>

as if you are and not any person other than you who has been asked to do **<u>this piece of</u>**
<u>work</u>

In the extract 4.1 above, the Arabic demonstrative article هذا with the noun العمل is used to encapsulate the proposition o.,loijhgf78po kjnerh67gtf ,u''efrgtn the sentences in 3.1, 3.2 and 4.1 before it. In the English version this is expressed by the word "**this**" in the phrase "**this piece of work**"

- o **Local cohesive device of repetition**

This is indicated by using the different forms of verb فعل from beginning to end in the text

(تفعل 2.1 فعله 3.2 يفعله 4.1 أفعله 6.1 تفعل 6.2 تفعلها   3.1 تفعلها   1.1)

The three sub-strategies of the sequential strategy of Topic Shift are indicated by the following signals.

- **Topic Framing**

o **Paragraph breaks**

All paragraph breaks indicate the closing a current continuation span and the opining of a new span. This is a signal of Topic Framing.

o **Sentence-initial adjuncts**

This signal is employed to indicate Topic framing. For example:

4.1 و حتى يسهل الإنسان على نفسه ما يفعله عليه أن يحاول جاهدا الاستمتاع و الإحساس بالمسؤولية تجاهه كأنك و دون سواك من طلب منك أداء هذا العمل 4.2 فافخر بنفسك حتى تصير أهلا للإعتماد عليك.

In order for a person to make what he does easy for himself,.........

The initial sentence adjunct in 4.1 above (translated in the English version below it) sets the scene for the upcoming text. As such, it serves the purpose of Topic Framing.

o **Enumeration**

3.1 لهذا السبب و غيره تكون الأعمال التي تفعلها بمليء إرادتك أنجح دائما مما يفرض عليك بسبب الإقتناع أولا و بسبب الرغبة في أدائه ثانيا.

For this reason and other reasons the things which you do out of your own will is usually more successful than the ones which are imposed on you because of conviction **firstly** and because of the desire to do it **secondly.**

This example shows how the writer used enumeration by using أولا and ثانيا; the equivalents of **firstly** and <u>**secondly**</u> in the translation.

- o **Discourse markers**

The extract below (2.1) gives an example of how the writer used discourse markers in order to signal Topic Framing. The discourse marker in Arabic " <u>أما</u>"(= <u>**However**</u> in English) sets the scene for the following text – closing a previous continuation span and opening a transition span. Also, "<u>و من ثم</u> " (= <u>**hence**</u>) paves the way for the phrase "<u>أدئه</u>" (=its performance.)

2.1 <u>أما</u> عدم الإقتناع به <u>فـ</u>سيجعل أدائك سيئا <u>لـ</u>إنك تفعل ما تخالف به ذاتك و معتقداتك مما سيؤثر على طريقة نظرك له <u>و من ثم</u> أدئه.

<u>**However**</u>, not being convinced of it will make your performance bad because you will be doing something that contradict yourself and your beliefs which will affect the way you see it and <u>**hence**</u> its performance.

- o **Metadiscourse markers**

Two examples of metadiscourse markers in this text are in 3.2 and 5.1 below:

The Arabic expressions "<u>فكما عرف دائما</u>" and "<u>شخصيا</u>" (equivalents to "<u>**as it is normally known**</u>" and "<u>Personally speaking</u>" in the English translation) show how the writer was able to employ metadiscourse markers in order to signal Topic Framing where a continuation span was closed and a transition span opened.

3.2 <u>فكما عرف دائما</u> أن الممنوع مرغوب

<u>**as it is normally known**</u> that what is prohibited is wanted

5.1 <u>شخصيا</u> لا صعوبة معينة في أداء عمل معين

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Personally speaking, there is no specific difficulty in doing any piece of work

- **Topic Introduction**

 The sub-strategy of Topic Introduction is signaled in this text by the following devices:

o **Indefinite subject**

The example below shows the employment of an indefinite subject as a signal for Topic Introduction (opening of a new continuation span). In 4.1 the Arabic noun "الإنسان" (which is the subject of the sentence) is used here as generic term that does not refer to a specific man or woman. The equivalent in the English translation is "**person"**

4.1 و حتى يسهل الإنسان على نفسه ما يفعله

In order for a **person** to make what he does easy for himself

o **Renominalizaion**

The device of renominaliztion is abundantly used through this text. In Arabic, the use of explicit and implicit pronouns that refer to people and objects is a common way of renominalization. The following extract shows this:

2.1 أما عدم الإقتناع به فسيجعل أدائك سيئا لإنك تفعل ما تخالف به ذاتك و معتقداتك مما سيؤثر على طريقة نظرك له و من ثم أدئه.

However, not being convinced of **it** will make **your** performance bad because **you** will be doing something that contradict **yourself** and **your** beliefs which will affect the way **you** see it and hence its performance.

The underlined pronouns in the Arabic text (2.1) correspond to the bolded pronouns in the English translation. They all refer to the entity which is being addressed by the universal

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pronoun "you" throughout the whole of this text and the concept of "piece of work" which is the essence of the topic. In addition, the Arabic implicit pronouns (such as the ones that can be inserted after فسيجعل and سيؤثر as (هو or it) renominalize the same.

- **Topic Closure**

Topic Closure is indicated the following topic signals

o **Discourse markers**

4.2 فافخر بنفسك حتى تصير أهلا للإعتماد عليك.

so feel pride in yourself **so that** you are worthy of being depended on.

The morpheme "ف" (= **so)** brings the discourse to stop as it signals that the writer has finished discussing the point and is closing the continuation span. This is further coupled by "حتى" (= **so that)** which finalizes the discussion.

o **Metadiscourse markers**

6.1 ختاما أحب ما أفعله و أفعله بإخلاص و حسن نية

In conclusion, love what you do and   do it with devotion and in good will.

In 6.1 above, the metadiscourse device "ختاما" (= **In conclusion**) is a signal that the writer is closing down the discussion.

o **Paragraph break**

All of the paragraph breaks indicate the finality of the thread being presented in the specific paragraph and as such signal Topic Closure.

SAT 2

➢ **Topic Continuity**

In this text, the sequential strategy of Topic Continuity is defaultly indicated by the three signals of: **Paragraph breaks**, **Absence of signals** and **Tense continuity.**

The segmentation of the text by the writer into paragraphs that are orthographically designated employs the topic signal of paragraph break to indicate Topic Continuity – as each paragraph naturally builds on the one before it and leads to the one after it. Also, where no signal is used, Topic Continuity is taken for granted. Moreover, the writer employs the same tense throughout the whole passage – the thing which indicates topic continuation.

This sequential strategy (Topic Continuity) is further indicated by the following topic signals:

o **Discourse markers**

In 2.1 below the three nominal groups "الاستيقاظ مبكرا" , "أداء صلاة الفجر" and "قرآءة بعض القرآن" are linked by the coordination element "و" which correspond to the coordinator "**and**" in the English translation. This coordinator is a discourse marker which signals continuation of topic.

The same thing is true for 2.3.

2.1 بالنسبة لي أرى أن أسهل الأشياء هي الاستيقاظ مبكرا و أداء صلاة الفجر و قرآءة بعض القرآن

the easiest of things to do are **to get up early and to perform *fajr* prayer and to recite some Quran.**

2.3 (.................) عندما أقرأ أستمع و أنظر بعيني فقط و لا أحتاج لجهد جسمي و كذلك الجلوس أمام التلفاز.

when I read, I **feel pleasure** <u>and</u> **I only look with my eye** <u>and</u> **I do not need any physical effort** <u>and also</u> **sitting in front of television**.

o **Encapsulation nominals**

The signal of encapsulation nominal is employed here in 2.2. The Arabic phrase <u>هذه الأشياء</u>'' refers to the things mentioned in the preceding paragraph and it thus encapsulates them. The Arabic phrase is equivalent to the ''**These things**'' in the English translation.

2.2 <u>هذه الأشياء</u> سهلة جدا و لا تحتاج لأي طاقة

These things are so easy and do not require any energy

➢ **Topic Shift**

o **Topic Framing**

In the text, the sequential strategy of Topic Framing is indicated by the topic signals below:

o **Paragraph break**

Since virtually paragraph in this text indicate the closing of a continuation span and the opening of another on, they signal Topic Framing.

o **Sentence-initial adjuncts**

The extract 2.1 below uses the signal of sentence initial adjunct to indicate Topic Framing. The Arabic expression <u>بالنسبة لي</u>'' sets the scene for the upcoming text and so indicates Topic Framing. This expression is equivalent to the English expression ''**As far as I am concerned**'' which is a conventional marker for Topic Framing in English..

2.1 <u>بالنسبة لي</u> أرى أن أسهل الأشياء هي ....

As far as I am concerned, it is my opinion.............

o **Metadiscourse markers**

The topic signal of metadiscourse markers is employed here in the example of 3.1. The device "كما" is used in Arabic to indicate the closing of a previous sentence and the opening of a new one. In this sense, it works as a signal for topic Framing. This device is equivalent to the English metadiscourse marker "**In addition**" – as can be seen from the translation.

<div dir="rtl">

3.1 كما أنني أحب أن أكتب بعض القصص و لا أجد فيها صعوبة

</div>

In addition, I like to write some stories and I do not find any difficulties in that.

Another instance of employing metadiscourse markers is in 4.2 below. The morpheme "فـ" is an indicator of continuation in Arabic which provides a link between the current continuation span and the one before it. Together with "مثلا", they work as a metadiscourse marker that is equivalent to the English one "**for example**"; as is the case in the English translation.

<div dir="rtl">

4.2 فمثلا بالنسبة لي كطالبة أجد أن الدروس اليومية و الواجبات من أسهل الأشياء و يجب علينا فعلها و عدم الضجر منها.

</div>

For example for me as a student I find that the daily lessons and homework are some of the easiest things and we must do them and we must not complain of them.

• **Topic Introduction**

The sub-sequential strategy of Topic Introduction is employed in this text through the following topic signals.

o **Initial dummy elements**

In 4.1and 5.2 below, the Arabic demonstrative "هناك" is an initial dummy element which is used to point to an upcoming notion and by this it works out as a signal for Topic

Introduction. The equivalent of this Arabic demonstrative in English is "**There**" as can be seen in the English translation. This "**There**" is a dummy element that indicates Topic Introduction.

4.1 هناك بعض الأشياء يجدها بعض الناس صعبة و لكني أجدها سهلة

There are some things that some people find difficult but I find them easy

5.2 لا بد ان يكون هناك السهل و أن يكون هناك صعب

There have to be things that are easy and things that are difficult

- o **Indefinite subject**

In 1.1 below, the two-part element "كل شخص" which occupies the initial position of predicate in the Arabic sentence is the thematic element of the sentence. As such it is a subject which is equivalent to the English one "**Every person**". Both elements in Arabic and English are used generically to refer to an indefinite subject.

1.1 كل شخص في العالم له أشياء سهلة يفعلها و أشياء صعبة لا يفعلها.

Every person in this world has some things that are easy to do.

Another example of the same signal "the indefinite subject" can be seen in 2.3 below. The preposition "من" in Arabic is used to indicate the notion of "*someness*". In this way, it is equivalent to the English indefinite article "**some**" which is used in combination with "**of the easy things**" and is an indefinite subject.

2.3 و من الأشياء السهلة و لا أجد فيها صعوبة قراءة بعض الكتب و الروايات

Some of the easy things which I do not face any difficulty in are reading books and stories.

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- **Topic Closure**

This sub-sequential strategy "Topic Closure" is signaled here by the discourse marker "و"
in Arabic – the equivalent to "**and**" in English. The whole sentence sums up the arguments
of the writer with regard to the topic under discussion.

o **Discourse markers**

1.1 كل شخص في العالم له أشياء سهلة يفعلها وِ أشياء صعبة لا يفعلها.

Every person in this world has some things that are easy to do **and** some things that are
difficult which he does not do.

o **Metadiscourse markers**

The Arabic expression "و في هذه اللحظة" in 3.2 is used here to pull the threads of the
preceding discussion together and to provide a conclusion with reference to the current
personal experience of the writer as evidence of what she says. The Arabic expression is
equivalent to the English one "**at this moment**" in the translation below.

3.2 و في هذه اللحظة أنا مستمتعة و لا أجد أي ملل بالرغم من أنني كنت خائفة من هذا الإمتحان لكنني أجده أمر ممتع
و هو أيضا سهل.

at this moment I feel pleasure and do not feel any boredom despite that I was afraid of
sitting this test but I find it enjoying and also easy.

Another example is in the extract 5.1 where "في نهاية الأمر" finalizes the topic discussion
and brings it to a complete halt. It is equivalent to the English expression "**In the end**" in
the translation.

5.1 في نهاية الأمر ليس هناك...............

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In the end, there are neither.............

    ○ **Paragraph break**

 In the same manner as in the   sequential strategies, paragraph break is an indicator that signals Topic Closure by virtue of closing a current continuation span prior to the opening of a new one.

SAT 3

➢ **Topic Continuity**

In SAT 3, the sequential strategy of Topic Continuity is indicated by the following topic signals.

    ○ **Paragraph breaks**

The topic signal of paragraph break indicates topic continuation throughout the whole passage by virtue of the orthographic structure which shows the transition from one continuation span to another.

    ○ **Absence of signals**

This signal indicates Topic Continuity all through the text. One example of this is 2.3 below. In this example, the absence of any signal at the outset of the paragraph is an implicit indication of the intention of the writer to continue the thread without any interruption of any signal. This employment of the signal of "absence of signals" is evident in many positions in this text.

<div dir="rtl">2.3 ظهر اكتشاف الإنترنت في التسعينيات</div>

 The invention of the Internet happened in the 1990s

- **Tense continuity**

Likewise, the persistent use of the past tense all through is an indicator of topic continuation. Examples of these are

1.1لقد أضحت ‏-أصبحت ‏-أصبح

has now turned out ‏- has nearly become ‏- has now been

2.1 ظهر ‏-بهر ‏-أصبحوا ‏- 2.3ظهر ‏-و لم يستغرق ‏- حتى انتشر

appeared ‏- amazed ‏- became ‏- was ‏- did ‏- happened ‏- did not take long

3.1 و صاحب ‏- 3.2 و كان

was accompanied ‏- was

4.1 ظهر‏- أضحى ‏- 4.2 فضل ‏-و قضى.

appeared ‏- became ‏- preferred ‏- has made ‏- made

It is to be noted here that there is no tense in Arabic which is equivalent to the present perfect – hence is the use of the past form of the Arabic verbs to express the aspect of perfectiveness in combination with words like "لقد" and "أضحى"

- **Discourse markers**

Topic continuation is indicated here by discourse markers. The extracts 1.1, 2.1, 2.3 and 4.1 below show this. The coordinators "و" (equivalent to **and**) and "أو" (equivalent to **or**) function as a signals for this.

1.1 لقد أضحت التكنولوجيا الآن إحدى متطلبات العصر الحالي و لذلك أصبحت تقريبا كل حياتنا و أصبح التعامل معها شيء أساسي.

and as such has nearly become all of our life **and** dealing with it is now an essential thing.

2.1 قبل عشرين عاما من الآن ظهر اكتشاف بهر الناس و أصبحوا يستغربون ما هذا؟ و ما يفعل؟

Twenty years ago there appeared an invention that amazed people **and** they became astonished about what that thing was **and** what it did.

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3.2ظهر اكتشاف الإنترنت في التسعينيات و لم يستغرق كثيرا حتى انتشر سريعا مثل انتشار النار في الهشيم

and it did not take long to spread widely like fire in dry stalks   till now it is an essential thing in the lives of most people

1.4 بعد عام أو اثنين ظهر الجوال أو (الموبايل) و أضحى هوس الكل إذ أنه خاص جدا و يحمل إلى أي مكان دون أسلاك

Two **or** three years later the mobile appeared **and** it became the obsession of all because it is very private **and** is portable anywhere without cords

- ➤ **Topic Shift**
- • **Topic Framing**
- o **Paragraph breaks**

Since the sequential strategy of Topic Framing indicates the closing of a current continuation span and the closing of a new one, virtually of all the paragraph breaks in this text are signals of this.

- o **Sentence-initial adjuncts**

There are a number of instances which exhibit the employment of the topic signal "sentence-initial adjuncts" to indicate Topic Framing. The extracts below show this.

1.1 لقد أضحت التكنولوجيا الآن إحدى متطلبات العصر الحالي

Technology has now turned out to be one of today's world requirements

2.1 قبل عشرين عاما من الآن ظهر اكتشاف بهر الناس

Twenty years ago there appeared an invention that amazed people

3.1 و صاحب هذا الاختراع اختراع آخر هو الجوال أو ما يسمى بالتلفون المحمول

This invention was accompanied by another invention which is the mobile or the so-called portable telephone

The underlined sentences in 1.1, 2.1 and 3.1 set the scene for the coming texts. The bolded English sentences are the translation of the Arabic sentences.

○ **Discourse markers**

The discourse markers (coordinator و in Arabic) function here as a topic signals of Topic Framing since they simultaneously open and close continuation spans.

3.2 وَ كان في البدايات عبارة عن جهاز ثابت في المنزل عن طريق أسلاك وَ لايحمل إلى مكان دون أسلاكه.

and at the beginning it was a fixed device in the house with wires **and** could not be moved to any place without the cords.

○ **Topic Introduction**

The sequential strategy of Topic Introduction is indicated here by the following topic signals.

○ **Indefinite subject.**

The subject of the sentence in 2.1 "" is an indefinite noun and as such it is a generic term which is used to refer to all members of the class. It is translated into "**an invention**" in the English version. Such device works as a signal of Topic Introduction which signals the opening of a new continuation span.

2.1قبل عشرين عاما من الآن ظهر **اكتشاف** بهر الناس

Twenty years ago there appeared **an invention** that amazed people

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o **Renominalization**

Renominalization is used in the example in 2.4 below as a topic signal of the sequential strategy of Topic Introduction. The pronoun "هو" in the Arabic sentence (**it** in the English version) renominalize the invention being talked about in the previous paragraphs.

2.4حتى الآن <u>هو</u> شيء أساسي في حياة أغلب الناس.

till now **it** is an essential thing in the lives of most people.

Also, the "<u>ت</u>" and "<u>ها</u>" in the Arabic sentence in 1.1 below are pronouns which renominalize the word "<u>التكنولوجيا</u>". The equivalents of these elements in the English version are "**it**", "**it**" and "**Technology**" respectively.

1.1لقد أضحت <u>التكنولوجيا</u> الآن إحدى متطلبات العصر الحالي و لذلك أصبح<u>ت</u> تقريبا كل حياتنا و أصبح التعامل مع<u>ها</u> شيء أساسي.

Technology has now turned out to be one of today's world requirements and as such **it** has nearly become all of our life and dealing with **it** is now an essential thing.

• **Topic Closure**

The sub strategy of Topic Closure is indicated in this text by the topic signals below.

o **Discourse markers**

Here, in 2.2, the word "ألا" is a discourse marker in Arabic that is used for signaling out something as well as making emphasis on it. This is a typical function of the English word "**Indeed**"

2.2 ألا وهو الإنترنت

Indeed that was the Internet.

o **Encapsulation**

Encapsulation as a topic signal for indicating Topic Closure is employed here in 4.2 below. The Arabic word "لذلك" corresponds to the English one "**This**" – both words encapsulate the parts of the previous text " إذ أنه خاص جدا و يحمل إلى أي مكان دون أسلاك " and "because it is very private and is portable anywhere without cords" respectively.

4.2 و لذلك فضل الأغلبية الجوال إذ أنه جعل العالم صغيرا جدا و قضى على الرسائل و الحمام الزاجل.

This is why the majority preferred the mobile as it has made the world very small and it made letters and homing pigeons out of date.

o **Paragraph break**

As has been mentioned many times, paragraph breaks of necessity signal the closing of a continuation span and so they are topic signals of Topic Closure.

SAT 4

➤ **Topic Continuity**

The sequential strategy of Topic Continuity is indicated in this text through the employment of the topic singles below.

o **Paragraph break**

All five paragraph breaks in this text indicate the continuation of the topic. As is mentioned before, a paragraph break can orthographically signal the transition from one continuation span to another. Paragraphs exhibit the follow of ideas as the topic develops and expand.

o **Absence of signals**

Being the default case, Topic Continuity does not need a topic signal to indicate it. In fact, the absence of a topic signal is itself a topic signal that indicates the continuation of the topic.

o **Tense continuity**

The prevailing tense in the text is the present tense. The writer continued to use the present tense all through the passage. Even when they are some verbs that appear to be in the past from, they are actually being used to refer to the present. For example, in but 4.3 the verb "أغنى" is in the past form but using the device "قد" relates it to the present. For this reason, it has been translated in the present perfect form "**has made**"

4.3 و قد أغنى عن الراديو و الراديو برامجه شيقة و ذات فائدة.

TV **has made** radio redundant which has interesting and useful programmes.

o **Discourse markers**

In 2.1 and 3.6 below, the discourse markers ("و" used for coordination and "لكن" used for emphasis) indicate the continuation of the topic. The devices used in Arabic are equivalents to "**and**" and "**but**" in English (as can be seen from the English translation)

2.1 (..........) فإنه يعرف المعلومة عن طريق الكتب و لا يعرف أخبار العالم 2.2 ليس أخبار العالم بل قل أخبار بلده و ماذا يجري فيها

……. he would know the information from books **and** he would not know the news of the world, let alone the world news, even the news of his country **and** what was happening in it

3.6 اكتشف العلماء أن للطفل مرحلة و هو يحتاج فيها إلى اللعب لكن أمه ترشده إلى التلفاز.

Scientists discovered that a child has stage (**and**) in which he needs to play **but** his mother directs him to TV.

o **Local cohesive device of repetition**

Another topic signal employed to indicate Topic Continuity in this text is the device of repetition as a local cohesive device. The multiple repetitions of the underlined words in the Arabic text (whose equivalents are in bold in the English translation) signal the continuation of the topic.

<div dir="rtl">

2.2 (...........) و لا يعرف أخبار العالم 2.2 ليس أخبار العالم بل قل أخبار بلده و ماذا يجري فيها 2.3 و لكنه الآن إذا أراد أي خبر عن أي بلد يبحث بين القنوات ليجد أخبار العالم

</div>

and he would not know the **news** of the **world**, let alone the **world news**, even the **news** of his **country** and what was happening in it but now if he wants any piece of **news** about any **country**

<div dir="rtl">

3.1و لكن بقدر محاسن هذا التلفاز له مساويء 3.2 و مساؤه أصعب من محاسنه 3.3 و من المساؤي أنه يهدر الوقت و هذه أبسط الأشياء

</div>

Nevertheless, the **disadvantages** of TV are as many as its **advantages**. And their **disadvantages** are more serious than its **advantages**. One of its **disadvantages** is that it wastes time and this is the simplest of all.

➢ **Topic Shift**

• **Topic Framing**

Topic Framing is indicated by the following signals,

o **Sentence-initial adjuncts**

In 1.2 below, the sentence initial adjunct (underlined in the Arabic sentence and bolded in the English translation) paves the way for the coming text – a typical function of Topic Framing strategy.

<div dir="rtl">

1.2 تم اكتشافه قبل سنين عدة من قبل عالم لا أعرفه و لكنني أشكره على هذا الإختراع العظيم

</div>

It was invented many years ago by an inventor whom I do not know but I thank him for this great invention.

Also, the Arabic phrase "في السابق" (expressing an adverb of time in Arabic) sets the scene for the texts that is following. This Arabic adverb of time is equivalent to the adverbial phrase "**In the past**" in the English version.

2.1 في السابق إذا أراد شخص أن يعرف خبرا أو معلومة فإنه يعرف المعلومة عن طريق الكتب

In the past, if anyone wanted to know a piece of news or information, he would know the information from books.

     o   **Enumeration**

The predicted member of Enumeration in the following extract 2.4 is imbedded in the phrase "يشاهد التلفاز – برامج – مسلسلات". This is substantiated by the list of items that follows "أفلام ـ أغاني – برامج أطفال". In the English version, the corresponding elements are in bold.

2.4 و إذا أراد التسلية فأنه يجلس يشاهد التلفاز مسلسلات – برامج – أفلام ـ أغاني – برامج أطفال.

If he wants entertainment, he will **sit watching** TV; **serials, programmes, films, songs, children's programmes.**

     o   **Discourse markers**

An example of employing discourse markers as topic signal to indicate Topic Framing is in extract 3.1 below. The device "لكن" in Arabic is used to indicate that the coming idea counter the one before it. In this sense, it is a signal that a continuation span is being closed and a transition span is being opened. The device "لكن" is translated into "**Nevertheless**" in the English version – a discourse marker that performs the same function.

3.1 و لكن بقدر محاسن هذا التلفاز له مساويء

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Nevertheless, the disadvantages of TV are as many as its advantages.

- o **Metadiscourse markers**

- **Topic Introduction**

In this text, this sequential sub-strategy is realized through the employment of the following topic signal.

- o **Renominalization**

In the Arabic sentence (3.3) the writer uses the word "المساوئ" but later on in 3.5 she refers to it as " يفسد الأخلاق" – an instance of renominalization. In the English translation, the two are "**disadvantages**" and "**spoiling morals**" respectively.

3.3 و من المساوئ أنه يهدر الوقت و هذه أبسط الأشياء 3.4 و الوقت ثمين 3.5 يمكن للإنسان في أوقات فراغه أن يفعل ما يستفيد منه آل بيته و لكنه يجلس إلى التلفاز يفسد الأخلاق إذا استخدمت القنوات الفاضحة خاصة لدى الأطفال

One of its **disadvantages** is that it wastes time and this is the simplest of all. Time is valuable and a person can in his free time do something that his family benefits from but he sits before the TV **spoiling morals** if the hard-core channels especially for kids.

- **Topic Closure**

The following topic signals are employed in this text to indicate the sequential sub-strategy of Topic Closure.

- o **Metadiscourse marker**

In the Arabic sentence in 5.1, the phrase "في الختام" is a metadicourse marker that signals the rounding up of the whole thread of discussion. It corresponds to the English expression "**At the end**" as can be seen in the translation.

5.1 في الختام التلفزيون من الوسئل المهمة و لكن أضرارها أكثر من نفعها

At the end, TV is one of the important media but its disadvantages are more than its advantages

o **Paragraph break**

Paragraph breaks are signals that indicate the employment of Topic Closure. There are many instances of this in the present text. The one below is an example.

In 4.1, the paragraph break shows that the writer has decided to sum up her topic by mentioning that the "يوجد محاسن و مساوئ كثيرة لكني لا أذكرها جميعا"; the translation of which is in bold below.

4.1 يوجد محاسن و مساوئ كثيرة لكني لا أذكرها جميعا 4.2 فقد حدثت مشاكل أسرية بسبب المسلسلات التلفزيونية

There are many advantages and disadvantages but I am not going to mention them all.

SAT 5

➢ **Topic Continuity**

In addition ot the topic signals of **paragraph breaks**, a**bsence of signals** and **tense continuity,** the sequential strategy of Topic Continuity is indicated by the employment of the following signals.

o **Discourse markers**

In the extract 1.2, the Arabic discourse marker "لكن" (used to present an idea that counters a preceding one) is used to indicate that the writer is going to continue her discussion of the topic presenting another point of view. The Arabic device is the literal equivalent of the English one "**but**" – as is shown in the English version.

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<p dir="rtl">2.1 و لكن العالم الآن تطورو اخترع كثير من الأشياء</p>

but the world has now developed and invented many developed things

Also, the discourse marker in Arabic "وَ" (which does the job of coordinating paraell clauses) التجارة الإلكرونية بين الناس عبر محيط الشبكة" **e-commerce between people across the web**" and "التواصل الدائم بين دول العالم **the continuous communication between the countries of the world**" in this case) is used to indicate the continuation of the topic. The English version uses "**and**" for the same function.

<p dir="rtl">2.3 و أصبح كثير من الناس يعملون به مثل التجارة الإلكرونية بين الناس عبر محيط الشبكة و التواصل الدائم بين دول العالم.</p>

and many people are now able to carry out jobs through it such as **e-commerce between people across the web and the continuous communication between the countries of the world.**

- ➢ **Topic Shift**
- • **Topic Framing**
- o **Sentence-initial adjuncts**

For Topic Framing, the topic signal of sentence-initial adjunct is used. In 1.1 below, the phrase "قبل عشرون سنة" is an adverbial clause of time which is equivalent to "قبل عشرون سنة" in the English version. This device signals the opening of a new continuation span.

<p dir="rtl">1.1 قبل عشرون سنة لا توجد تكنولوجيا عالية بالعالم</p>

Twenty years ago, there was no advanced technology in the world

- o **Enumeration**

Also, Topic Framing is indicated here by the topic signal of enumeration as can be seen in 1.2 below. The phrase "كثير من الأشياء المتطورة" ("**many developed things**") introduces a list

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of items "التلفون و الإنترنت و الفيس بوك و البريد الإلكتروني." ("**telephone, the Internet, Facebook, and electronic mail**").

1.2 و لكن العالم الآن تطورو اخترع <u>كثير من الأشياء المتطورة</u> مثل <u>التلفون و الإنترنت و الفيس بوك و البريد الإلكتروني.</u>

but the world has now developed and invented **many developed things** such as the **telephone, the Internet, Facebook, and electronic mail**.

- **Topic Introduction**

This strategy is indicated by the signals below.

- **Initial dummy elements**

In 2.2, the Arabic preposition "<u>من</u>" is syntactically used to refer to some of the members of the class of its object, hence is its correspondence to "one/some of" in English. For this reason it semantically functions as dummy element in initial positions. The English version uses "**one of its advantages**" as an equivalent to "من فوائده". The same argument holds for 2.3.

2.2 <u>من</u> فوائده التواصل المستمر بين الأصدقاء و الأهل

One of its advantages is the continuous communication between friends and relatives

2.3 و من أضراره التحدث به لفترة طويلة يعرض إلى الأمراض في الأذن

and one of its disadvantages is that talking on it for a long time can cause problems to the ears.

- **Indefinite subject**

In 3.2, the Arabic phrase "<u>كثير من الناس</u>" is the subject of the sentence. However, it does not refer to a specific subject but it indicates an indefinite one. The English translation uses

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"**many people**" to correspond with it. Such subjects are indefinite and so they signal Topic Introduction.

3.2 و أصبح <u>كثير من الناس</u> يعملون به

many people are now able to carry out jobs through it

o **Renominalization**

In 2.1 and 3.1 the two words "<u>التلفون</u>" and "<u>الإنترنت</u>" together with the pronoun "<u>هـ</u>" which is used to refer to them renominalize the words which appeared at the beginning of the text. Their equivalents are bolded in the English version. It is worth mentioning here that the English translation does not include an equivalent to the pronoun "<u>هـ</u>".

2.1 أولا: <u>التلفون</u> لدي<u>ه</u> الكثير من الفوائد و الأضرار

Firstly; the **telephone** has many advantages and disadvantages

3.1 ثانيا: <u>الإنترنت</u> ب<u>ه</u> أصبح العالم قرية صغيرة عن طريق التواصل و التكامل

Secondly; **the Internet** has turned the world into a small village through communication and integration

➢ **Topic Closure**

In this text, Topic Closure is represented through only one signal viz. **paragraph break.**

5.4 Texts written by Sudanese students in English (SETs)

SET 1

➢ **Topic Continuity**

In this text, the sequential strategy of Topic Continuity is indicated by the following signals/

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- **Paragraph break**

In 2,1 below, topic continuation is signaled by paragraphs break which indicates the opening of a new continuation span.

2.1 *It is very important in our life because it makes the world as a small village.*

o **Discourse markers**

In 3.1, the discourse marker "*and*" signals continuity of the topic.

3.1 You can get everything which you want from Internet in whatever time you wish *and* it make ever thing ease.

Also, in 4.1 "*But*" as a discourse marker signals the opening of a new continuation sapan and thus it indicates continuity.

4.1 *But internet has a lot of demerits for weak-self people like wasting time on facebook and Twitter*

➢ **Topic Shift**

The sequential strategy of **Topic Framing** is indicated by the topic signal of **Paragraph break** in 1.1 below.

1.1 Internet is the World Wide Web (www) which belong to certain company like Google and Yahoo.

It is also indicated by **Sentence-initial adjuncts** as in 3.2 (the underlined if-clause).

3.4 *If you have research and information* you can get them from internet and if you want to store them you can download them in internet.

- **Topic Introduction**

The Topic Stringy of Topic Introduction is indicated by the topics "**Initial dummy elements**" "*some people*"

4.2 and *some people* enter to sites which are forbidden by Islam.

➢ **Topic Closure**

Topic Closure is indicated by the topic signal of **Metadiscourse markers** as is shown by "*Any Way*" in 5.1 below.

5.1 *Any way* internet is to be part of our life which we can't give up from it.

SET 2

➢ **Topic Continuity**

Two topic signals are employed in this text to indicate Topic Continuity.

- **Paragraph breaks**

In the extract below, topic continuation is indicated by the paragraph break in 3.1

3.1 Internet is make link between people in far away place, and communicate to somebody you want to other people.

o **Absence of signals**

In both extracts below, topic continuity is signaled by the absence of signal. These extracts come in the middle of a paragraph with no topic signal employed.

2.2 There are many advantages and disadvantages of telephone disadvantages.

2.4 Advantage is solve the problem of communication face to face or go to some you want to see

o **Discourse markers**

The discourse marker "*and*" in the extract below indicates the continuation of the topic.

3.1 Internet is make link between people in far away place, *and* communicate to some body you want to other people.

➢ **Topic Shift**

• **Topic Framing**

The sub-strategy of Topic Framing is indicated in this text by three topic signals.

o **Sentence-initial adjuncts**

The initial if-clause in the following extract indicates the sub-strategy of Topic Framing.

2.3 If you speak long time in telephone will make you a problem in your ears.

The same is true in 1.2 1nd 3.2 where the adjuncts "*In that time*" and "*by this way*" are used for the same purpose of closing a continuation span and opening a new one.

1.2 In that time for example a mobile, electronic post, face book, internet, etc.

3.2 by this way the world is become like small village.

o **Enumeration**

The writer in the extract indicated the sub-strategy of Topic Framing by using enumeration in the form of a list (underlined).

1.2 In that time for example *a mobile, electronic post, face book, internet, etc.*

o **Metadiscourse markers**

Also, Topic Framing is indicated in 2.1 by employing the discourse marker "*First of all*"

 2.1 Firstly of all a telephone.

- **Topic Introduction**

The sib-strategy of Topic Introduction is indicated by two topic signals"

  o **Initial dummy elements**

Extract 1.1 below is an example of employing the initial dummy element "*There*" to signal Topic Introduction.

1.1 There are many types of invention in these time was come.

  o **Indefinite subject**

Extract 1.1 shows the employment of the indefinite subject as a signal of Topic Introduction. The element "*many*" is that indefinite subject.

  1.1 There are *many* types of invention in these time was come.

➢ **Topic Closure**

The sequential sub-strategy of Topic Closure is signaled here by employing discourse markers and metadiscourse markers.

  o **Discourse markers**

In the two extracts 3.3 and 4.1 the discourse marker "*and*" is used to show that the topic is being closed down.

3.3 *and* also other invention face book also is linking between people *and* chatting between them.

4.1 *And* new technology is help some people to work by internet for example electronic trading to sale to buy by net work and to make many things easily.

o **Metadiscourse markers**

The metadiscourse marker "*for example*" below in 4.1 b is an instance of topic signal whereby the sub-strategy of Topic Closure is indicated.

4.1 And new technology is help some people to work by internet *for exampl*e electronic trading to sale to buy by net work and to make many things easily.

SET3

➢ **Topic Continuity**

In this text, the sequential strategy of Topic Continuity is indicated by the two topic signals below.

o **Paragraph breaks**

The paragraph break in 2.1 below is an indication of Topic Continuity, It signals the opening of a new continuation span.

2.1 Technology is began from nineteenth century.

o **Absence of signals**

In 2.2, 3.2 and 4.2 below, the topic is continued without using any explicit topic signal. The new continuation span runs smoothly to develop the line of discussion.

2.2 It began by primary things.

3.2 The invention helped people in anything.

4.2 it helps us in reading and discovering anything.

➢ **Topic Shift**

• **Topic Framing**

Topic Framing is indicated by the three topic signals below,

- o **Paragraph break**

In 3.1, the paragraph break signals the closing of a current continuation span and the opening of a new one.

3.1 The most technological invention in the past twenty years I think was carrying computers (laptop).

- o **Sentence-initial adjuncts**

The two examples in 2.4 and 2.5 illustrate how the writer employed the topic signal of sentence initial adjunct as an indicator of Topic Framing.

2.4 *When it appeared* it was a big and it's materials was very expensive.

2.5 In that time technology was not important for people, because they were not think about it.

- o **Enumeration**

The list of items in 1.1 " *medicine, engineering and telecommunications.*" can be taken as an example of employing the topic signal of enumeration used to indicate Topic Framing.

1.1 Technology is progressing in some things like *medicine, engineering and telecommunications.*

- o **Topic Introduction**

Topic Introduction is indicated here by one topic signal:

- o **Indefinite subject**

The noun "*People*" is an indefinite subject. It is being used as a generic term

3.3 *People* can take it in any place.

- ➢ **Topic Closure**

Two topic signals are being used here in order to indicate Topic Closure.

- o **Discourse markers**

- o In 2.6, the discourse marker "*but*" shows how the writer gradually applies the breaks in order to bring the discussion to a stop.

2.6 *But* scientists work to discover anything *but* they were found some difficulties in discovering, new scientists were not find difficulties like in the past

- o **Paragraph break**

This is the final paragraph in the text. The writer employs paragraph break in 4.1 to express finality.

4.1 Technology is very important in our language, because without it we cannot do anything,

SET 4

- ➢ **Topic Continuity**

As a result of being the default case, the sequential strategy of Topic Continuity is indicated in this text by the following topic signals:

- o **Paragraph breaks**

All throughout the text, each of the paragraph breaks signals the opening of a new continuation span.

- o **Absence of signals**

Where a new continuation span is opened inside a paragraph and no topic signal is used, that will be an indication of topic Continuity. An example is in 2.5 and 2.6 below. However, it is to be noted that the writer of this text uses the element "also" repetitively to indicate that she is continuing the discussion along the same line.

2.5 now nobody can leave it, 2.6 also if we want to know more information about our town we can look for in internet.

- o **Tense continuity**

The text is written in the present simple tense with variations of using "can". It does not deviate from this. The consistency of using the same tense all through is an indicator of topic continuation.

- ➢ **Topic Shift**
- • **Topic Framing**

The sequential strategy of Topic Framing is indicates in this text by employing the following topic signals:

o **Paragraph break**

The writer does not orthographically show the structure of paragraph. However, the joints of paragraphs can be detected by the introduction of new ideas. In 2.4 here, the writer introduces a new idea. As such, it can be taken as a paragraph break which closes a current continuation span and opens a new one.

2.6 also mobile or telephone this necessary now to everybody..

o **Sentence-initial adjuncts**

The if-clause in 2.6 below is an instance of employing the topic signal of sentence-initial adjunct for Topic Framing

2.7 also *if we want to know more information about our town* we can look for in internet

o **Metadiscourse markers**

This is the first paragraph in the text. However, the writer used the metadiscourse marker "*Actually*" to signal topic framing.

1.1 *Actually* the most important technological invention before twenty years it is mobile to communicate people with them.

Another example of using a metadiscourse marker is "*also*" to show that the upcoming text is an addition to one before it.

2.2 Also invention of internet it is too amazing because let the world like small village or like a room.

• **Topic Introduction**

The sub-strategy of Topic Introduction is indicated here by two topic signals:

o **Metadiscourse markers**

The extract 2.1 illustrates an instance of using a metadiscourse marker (*In the fact* meaning *In fact*" for Topic Introduction.

2.1 In the fact the invention of mobile it so important and help us to communicate with our friend for example when they are left away from us,

o **Renominalization**

In the extract 2.3 below, the writer uses the topic signal of enumeration to indicted Topic Introduction. The writer here lists the three underlined parts in a form of making a list of items.

2.3 because we can make a link with any country we needed for example *to chat with people who inside or outside our city*, *to give us more information about our knowledge,* also *to let people know another language, like English*

➢ **Topic Closure**

Topic Closure is signaled here by the following topic signals:

o **Discourse markers**

The two underlined words "*but*" and "*or*" are two discourse markers that show Topic Closure here as they indicate that the writer is making concluding remarks to pull the threads of the discussion together.

3.2 *but* if we not deal with them great they shall be bad things.

2.2 also invention of internet it is too amazing because let the world like small village *or* like a room

o   **Metadiscourse markers**

The underlined metadiscourse markers in 2.7 and 3.1 below ("*also*", "*so on*" and "*Finally*")
are examples of topic signals employed to indicate Topic Closure. They are used in the
final paragraph to show that the writer has finished her discussion and is rounding up the
topic.

2.7 In internet *also* we can find the social communicate situation, like facebook, twitter,
youtube and *so on*.

3.1 *Finally* I think these they are important now and they are great invention

SET 5

➢ **Topic Continuity**

The sequential strategy of Topic Continuity is indicated in this text by the following topic
signals:

o   **Paragraph breaks**

An example whereby the topic signal of paragraph break is employed to indicate topic
continuation is in 3.3 below. The paragraph break opens a new continuation span.

   3.5 Television is nice and connects the world and knows new culture

o   **Discourse markers**

In 2.1 below, the discourse marker "*and*" shows how the writer used it in order to show that
the thread of explanation is not broken and is continuing to add more to the text before.

2.1 Television is necessary *and* it invention before thirteen years.

o **Local cohesive device of repetition**

Although it might be taken as a symptom of poor style, the repetition of the underlined words in 2.4 below works as local cohesive devices. They ensure continuity of topic.

   2.4 and children take *bad thing* and good thing *bad thing* is a lot of *good thing*.

   ➢ **Topic Shift**

   • **Topic Framing**

Two topic signals are used in this text in order to indicate Topic Framing.

   o **Paragraph break**

Being the first paragraph in the text, 1.1 below employs the topic signal of paragraph break so as to indicate the sequential strategy of Topic Framing.

1.1 Television is very important thing in your life because it many advantages and disadvantages.

   o **Sentence-initial adjuncts**

The phrase "*In past*" (meaning: *In the past*) functions as a sentence-initial adjunct and as such indicates the strategy of Topic Framing.

2.2 *In past* don't know news' of world but now you know by television.

   • **Topic Introduction**

   o **Renominalization**

Topic Introduction is indicated here by renominalization. The reintroducing of *T.V* here is an instance of recycling the noun for the purpose of indicating Topic Introduction.

2.3 Disadvantages *T.V* take the time

➢ **Topic Closure**

Topic Closure is indicted in 3.4 below by the topic signal of the metadiscourse marker "*I believe* ...*" The writer is giving s clue that she is going to state her opinion about the issue subject of discussion. The reader will also take it as a clue that the writer is m king a conclusion.

o **Metadiscourse markers**

3.4 I *believe* anyone or any house without ……

This section of this chapter presents the quantitative analysis of the data. Firstly, the three types of texts (ESTs, SATs and SETs) will be presented separately. Then the analysis will compare the results as follows:

(1) ESTs v SATs

Here the comparison will show the similarity and difference in the usage of sequential strategies between English students and Sudanese students in their respective native languages.

(2) SATs v SETs

Here the comparison will be made to show the similarity and difference in the usage of sequential strategies between the texts produced by the Sudanese students in their first language and in the second language.

(3) ESTs v SETs.

Here the comparison will be made to show the similarity and difference in the usage of sequential strategies in expository writing of English students and in that of Sudanese students.

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However, not all of the topic signals will appear in this analysis. Some of the topic signals do not lend themselves naturally to quantitative analysis. These are paragraph breaks, absence of topic signals and tense continuity. Such signals cannot be counted and consequently they cannot be accommodated in a frequency table.

.ESTs

Table5. 1: Topic signals employed to indicate Topic Continuity in ESTs

Topic Continuity

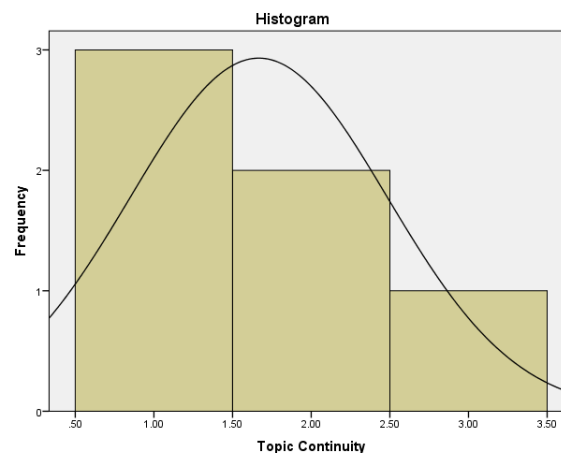|		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Discourse Markers	3	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Encapsulation Nominals	2	33.3	33.3	83.3
	Local Cohesive Device of Repetition	1	16.7	16.7	100.0
	Total	6	100.0	100.0	

Figure5. 1: Topic signals employed to indicate Topic Continuity in ESTs

Table (5.1) and the histogram (5.1) above show that the topic signals which are used mostly by native speakers of English for Topic Continuation are discourse markers. They amount to 50% in the ESTs.

Table5. 2: Topic signals employed for Topic Framing in ESTs

Topic Framing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Sentence-initial adjuncts	4	33.3	33.3	33.3
	Enumeration	3	25.0	25.0	58.3
	Question-answer pair	1	8.3	8.3	66.7
	Discourse markers	1	8.3	8.3	75.0
	Metadiscourse markers	3	25.0	25.0	100.0
	Total	12	100.0	100.0	
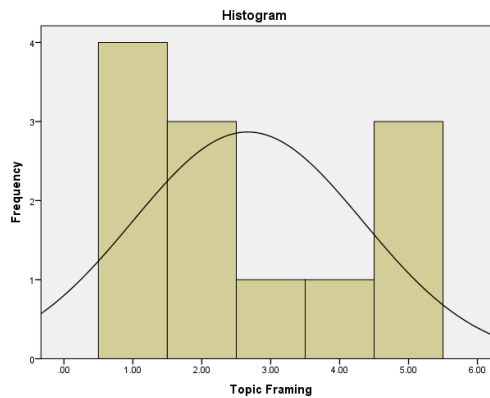
Figure5. 2: Topic signals employed for Topic Framing in ESTs

Table (5.2) and the histogram in (5.2) show the topic signals which are employed by the native speakers of English for Topic Framing. They reveal that the most used topic signal is "sentence-initial adjunct" (33. %) followed by "enumeration" and "Metadiscourse markers" (25% for each). The least used are "Question-answer pair" and "Discourse markers" (8.3% for each).

Table5.3: Topic signals employed for Topic Introduction in ESTs

Topic Introduction

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Initial dummy elements	2	22.2	22.2	22.2
	Indefinite subject	4	44.4	44.4	66.7
Valid	Question-answer pair	1	11.1	11.1	77.8
	Enumeration	1	11.1	11.1	88.9
	Renominalization	1	11.1	11.1	100.0
	Total	9	100.0	100.0	
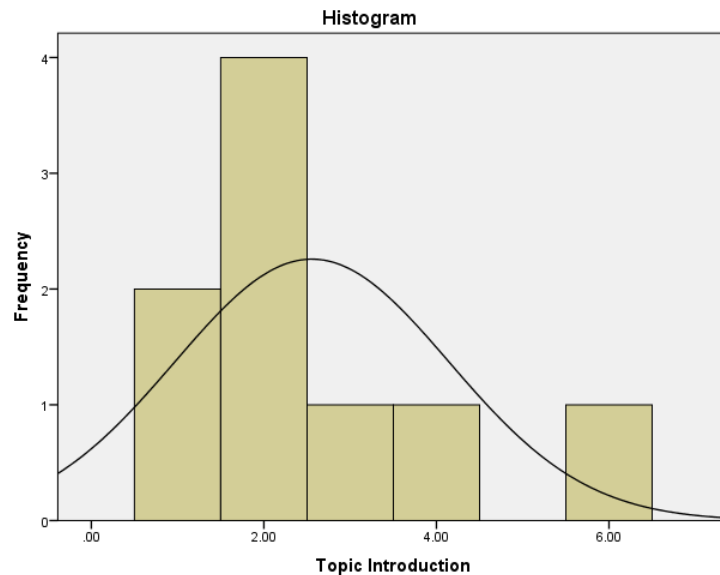
Figure5. 3: Topic signals employed for Topic Introduction in ESTs

Table (5.3) and the histogram in Figure (5.3) indicate the that the topic signal used most by native speakers of English for Topic Introduction is the "Indefinite subject" (44.4%) followed by "Initial dummy elements" (22.2%) . The three topic signals of "Question-answer pair", "Enumeration" and "Renominalization" are equal (11.1% for each). The one which was not used at was "Metadiscourse markers".

Table5. 4: Topic signals employed for Topic Closure in ESTs

Topic Closure

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Discourse markers	2	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Metadiscourse markers	1	25.0	25.0	75.0
	Encapsulation	1	25.0	25.0	100.0
	Total	4	100.0	100.0	
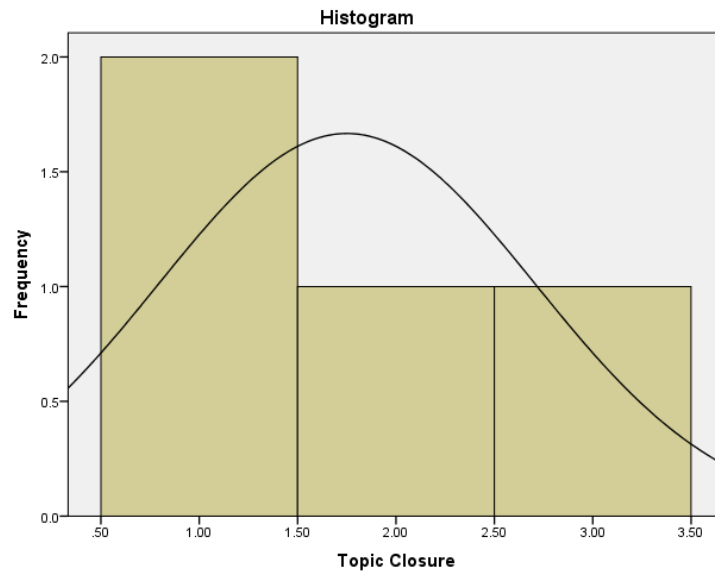
Figure5. 4: Topic signals employed for Topic Closure in ESTs

Table (5.4) and histogram (5.4) show that "Discourse markers" are the most used topic signals for Topic closure by native speakers of English. The two other ones "Metadiscourse markers" and "Encapsulation" are used equally (25% for each one).

SATs

Table5. 5: Topic signals employed for Topic Continuity in SATs

Topic Continuity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Discourse markers	5	62.5	62.5	62.5
	Encapsulation nominals	2	25.0	25.0	87.5
	Local cohesive device of repetition	1	12.5	12.5	100.0
	Total	8	100.0	100.0	
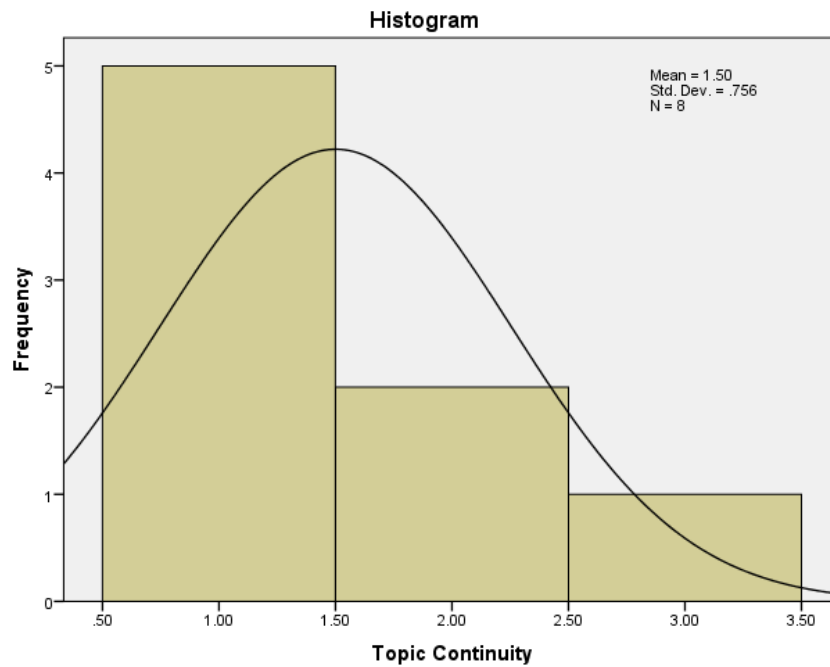
Figure5. 5: Topic signals employed for Topic Continuity in SATs

Table (5.5) and histogram (5.5) show that the topic signal of "Discourse markers" is the one which is mostly used by Sudanese students when they write expository texts in Arabic. It amounts to 62/5%. The topic signal of "Encapsulation nominals" comes next with a percentage of 25%. The least used is "Local cohesive device of repetition" (12.5%).

Table5. 6: Topic signals employed for Topic Framing in SATs

Topic Framing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Sentence-initial adjuncts	5	35.7	35.7	35.7
	Enumeration	3	21.4	21.4	57.1
	Discourse markers	3	21.4	21.4	78.6
	Metadiscourse markers	3	21.4	21.4	100.0
	Total	14	100.0	100.0	
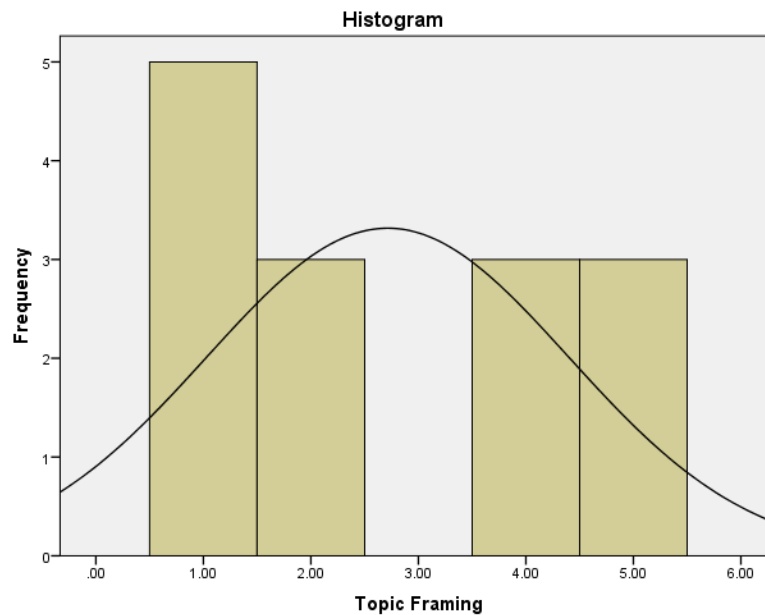
Figure5. 6: Topic signals employed for Topic Framing in SATs

Table (5.6) and histogram (5.6) show that "sentence-initial adjuncts" are the most used of the topic signals by Sudanese students in their expository writing in Arabic for Topic Framing (35.7%). The topic signals of "Enumeration", "Discourse markers" and "Metadiscourse markers" are used equally (21.4% for each). The topic strategy of "Question-answer pair" is not used at all in the texts analyzed.

Table5. 7: Topic signals employed for Topic Introduction in SATs

Topic Introduction

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Initial dummy elements	2	18.2	20.0	20.0
	Indefinite subject	4	36.4	40.0	60.0
	Renominalization	4	36.4	40.0	100.0
	Total	10	90.9	100.0	
Missing	System	1	9.1		
	Total	11	100.0		
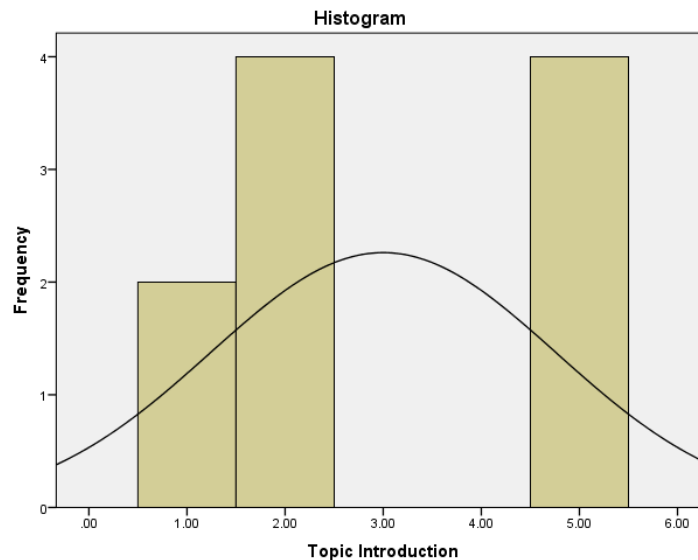
Figure5. 7: Topic signals employed for Topic Introduction in SATs

Table (5.7) and histogram (5.7) show that the two topic signals of "Indefinite subject" and "Renominalization" are equally used by the Sudanese students with a high percentage of 36.4%. The topic signal of "Initial dummy element" is used by the Sudanese students with a percentage of 18.2%. There are two topic signals which were not used in the texts at all. These are "Question-answer pair" and "Metadiscourse markers".

Table5. 8: Topic signals employed for Topic Closure in SATs

Topic Closure

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Discourse markers	2	28.6	33.3	33.3
	Metadiscourse markers	3	42.9	50.0	83.3
	Encapsulation	1	14.3	16.7	100.0
	Total	6	85.7	100.0	
Missing	System	1	14.3		
	Total	7	100.0		
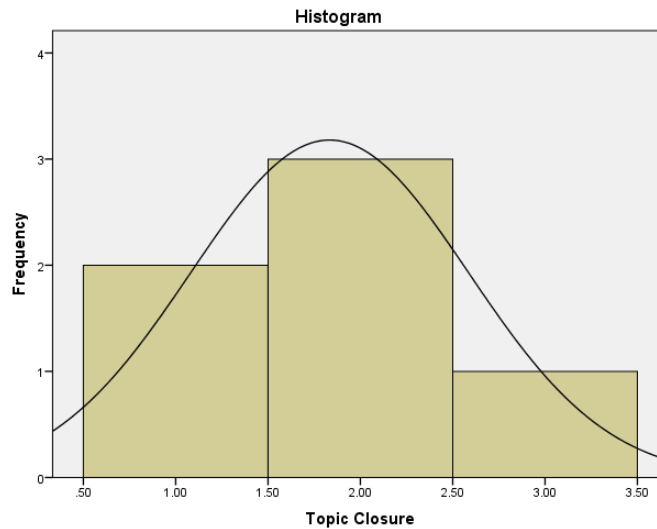
Figure5. 8: Topic signals employed for Topic Closure in SATs

Table (5.8) and histogram (5.8) show that the Sudanese students use "Metadiscourse markers" more than any other topic signal (42.9%). This is followed by "Discourse markers" (28.6%). The least used topic signal is "Encapsulation" (14.3%).

Table5. 9: Topic signals employed for Topic Continuity in SETs

Topic Continuity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Discourse markers	3	42.9	75.0	75.0
	Local cohesive device of repetition	1	14.3	25.0	100.0
	Total	4	57.1	100.0	
Missing	System	3	42.9		
	Total	7	100.0		
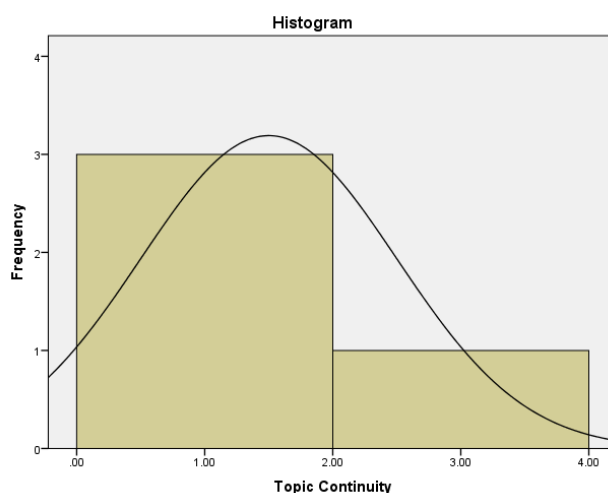
Figure5. 9: Topic signals employed for Topic Continuity in SETs

Table (5.9) and histogram (5.9) show that for Topic Continuity 75% (valid percent) of the topic signals used by the Sudanese students in their expository writing in English are "Discourse markers". The valid percent of "Local cohesive device of repetition" is 25%. No other topic signals were employed for this sequential technique (Topic Continuity). However, as is mentioned above, the other topic signals (paragraph break, absence of signals, tense continuity) are taken for granted.

Table5. 10: Topic signals employed for Topic Farming in SETs

Topic Framing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Sentence-initial adjuncts	4	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Enumeration	2	25.0	25.0	75.0
	Metadiscourse markers	2	25.0	25.0	100.0
	Total	8	100.0	100.0	
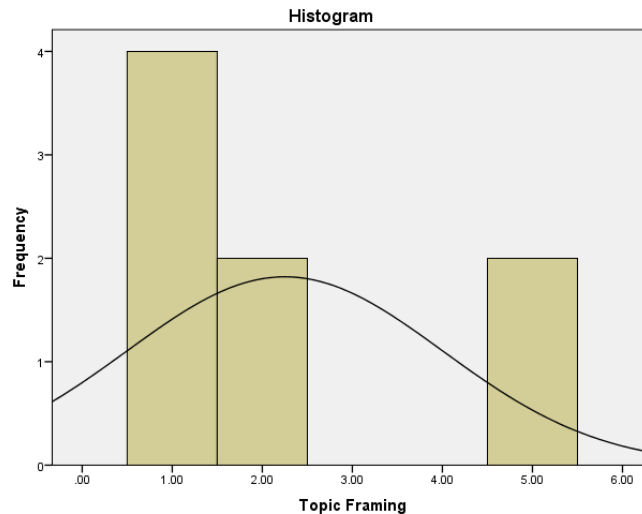
Figure5. 10: Topic signals employed for Topic Framing in SETs

Table (5.10) and histogram (5.10) show that 50% 0f the topic signals used by Sudanese students in expository writing for Topic Framing are "sentence-initial adjuncts". The remaining is divided equally between "Enumeration" and "Metadiscourse markers" (25% for each). The topic signals of "Question-answer pair" and "Discourse markers" are not used at all here.

Table5. 11: Topic signals employed for Topic Introduction in SETs

Topic Introduction

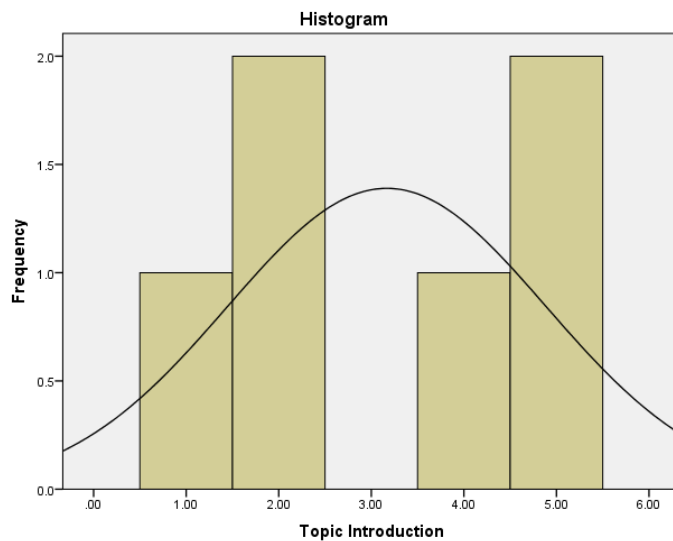|		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Initial dummy elements	1	12.5	16.7	16.7
	Indefinite subject	2	25.0	33.3	50.0
	Metadiscourse markers	1	12.5	16.7	66.7
	Renominalization	2	25.0	33.3	100.0
	Total	6	75.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	25.0		
	Total	8	100.0		

Figure5.11: Topic signals employed for Topic Introduction in SETs

Table (5.11) and histogram (5.11) show that the most used topic signals employed by Sudanese students in expository writing are "Indefinite subjects" and "Renominalization" (33.3% for each). The remainder is also equally divided between "Initial dummy subjects" and "Metadiscourse markers" (16.7% for each).

Table5. 12: Topic signals employed for Topic Closure in SETs

Topic Closure

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Discourse markers	3	37.5	50.0	50.0
	Metadiscourse markers	3	37.5	50.0	100.0
	Total	6	75.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	25.0		
	Total	8	100.0		
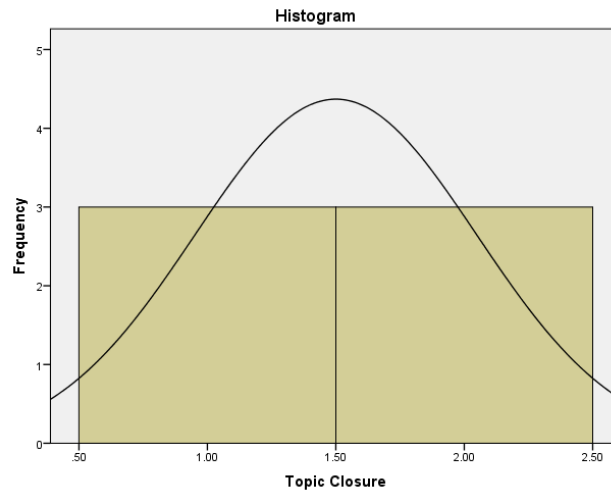
Figure5. 12: Topic signals employed for Topic Closure in SETs

Table (5.12) and histogram (5.12) show that in their expository writing in English, Sudanese students use the topic signals "Discourse markers" and "Metadiscourse markers" for Topic Closure equally (50% for each). In the texts analyzed here no other topic signals were used. However, others (such as paragraph break) are taken for granted.
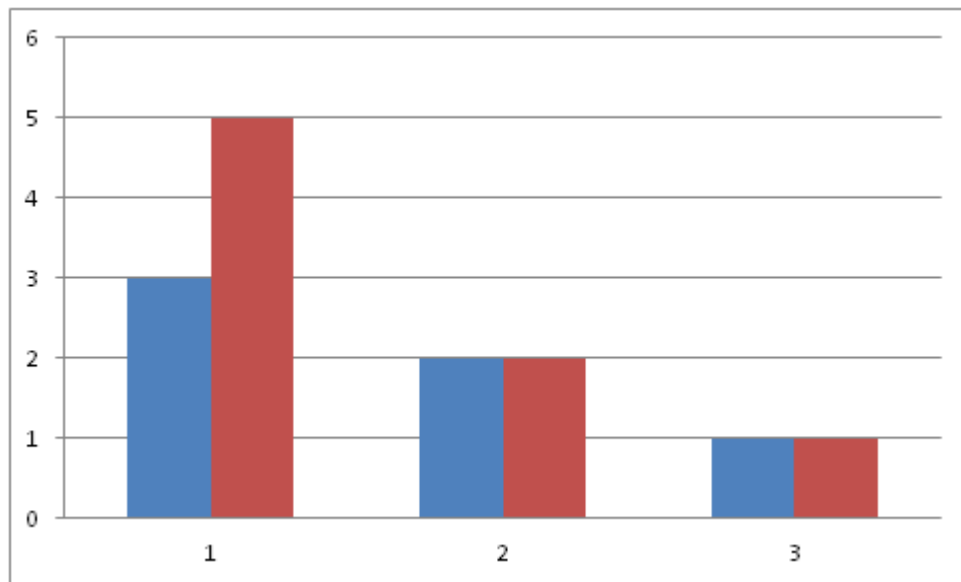
Fsigure5. 13: Topic Continuity: ESTs v SATs

As can be seen from Figure (5.13); when writing in their native languages, both English speakers and Sudanese students use the topic signals of "Encapsualtion nominals (2)" and "Local cohesive devices of repetition" equally. As for "Discourse markers", Sudanese students use more of them when they write in Arabic.
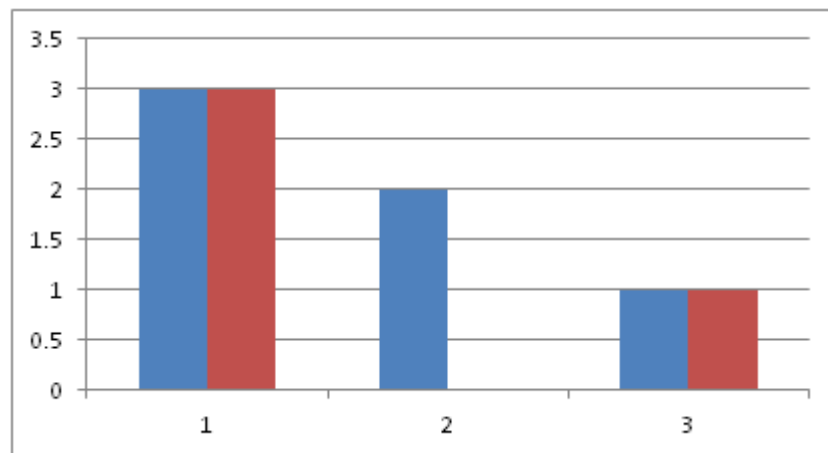

Figure5. 14: Topic Continuity: ESTs v SETs

Figure (5.14) shows that both English speakers and Sudanese students (writing in English) used "Discourse markers" and "Local cohesive devices of repletion" equally (1 and 3).

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However, in the texts analyzed, Unlike the English speakers, there appears no use of "Encapsulation nominals" in the expository writing of Sudanese students in English.
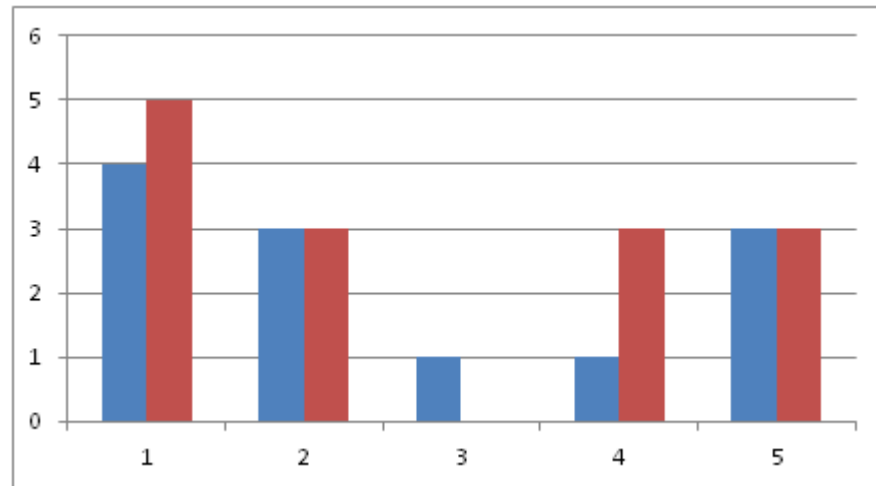

Figure5. 15: Topic Framing: ESTs v SATs

Figure (5.15) shows that English speakers and Sudanese students (writing in their respective native languages) are equal in using two topic signals: (Enumeration "2" and Metadiscourse markers "5"). It also shows that Sudanese students use more "Sentence-initial adjuncts" and "Discourse markers" than their counterparts. However, when it comes to "Question-answer pair (3)", Sudanese students appear not to use them whereas English speakers do.
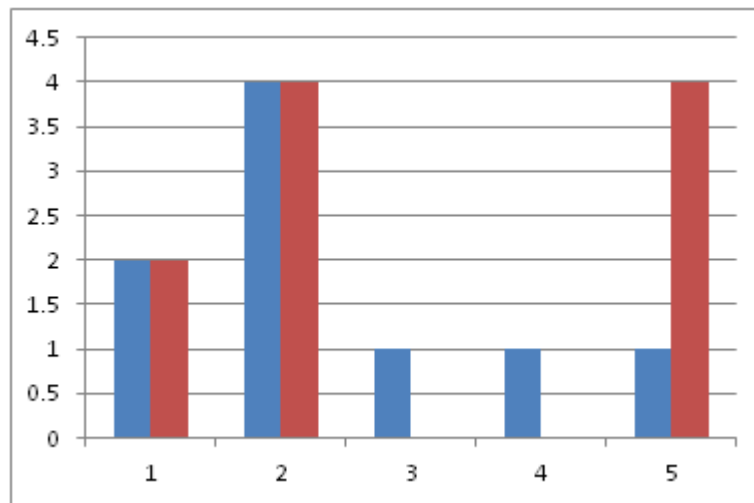
Figure5. 16: Topic Introduction: ESTs v SATs

Figure (5.16) shows that speakers of English and Sudanese students, when writing in their own languages, are equal in using two topic signals: "Initial dummy subjects (1)" and "Indefinite subjects (2)". However, Sudanese students use far more "Renominalization" than English speakers. On the other hand, English speakers use two topic signals which Sudanese students appear not to use; "Question-answer pair (3)" and "Enumeration (4)".
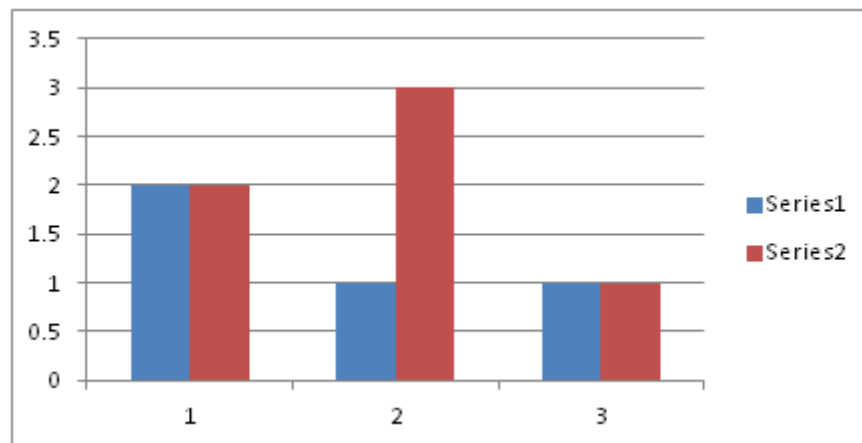

Figure5. 17: Topic Closure: ESTs v SATs

Figure (5.17) shows that English speakers and Sudanese students do not differ in using "Discourse markers" and "Encapsulation" in Topic Closure when writing in their native

languages. However, they differ a great deal when it comes to "Metadiscourse markers". Sudanese students use far more of these than their English speaking counterparts.
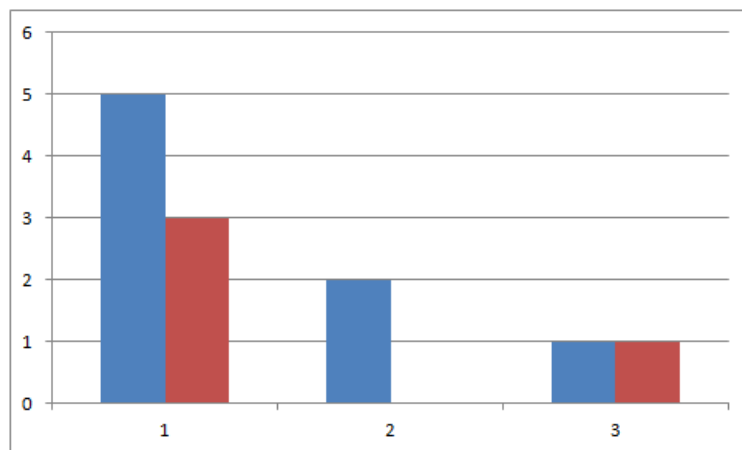
Figure5. 182: Topic Continuity: SATs v SETs

Figure (5.18) shows that with respect to Topic Continuity, Sudanese students use more "Discourse markers (2)" when they write in Arabic than when they write in English. However, they use of "Local cohesive device of repetition (3)" is equal in the two languages. On the other hand, they do not appear to use "Encapsulation (2)" in English as they do in Arabic.
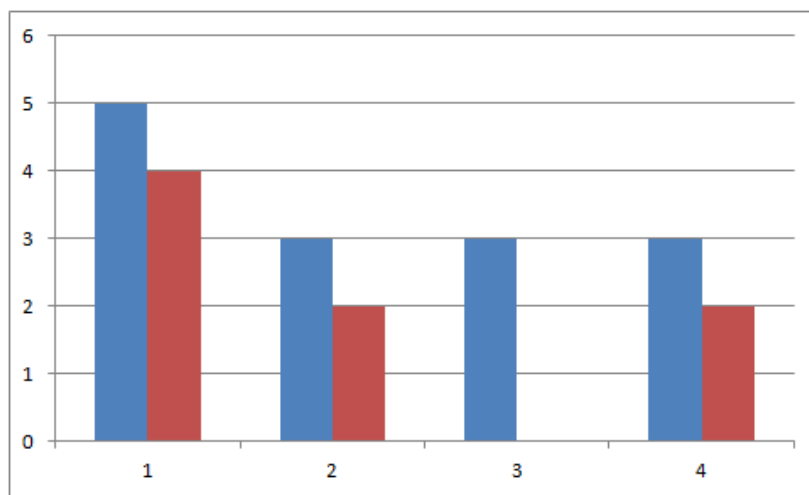

Figure5. 19: Topic Framing: SATs v SETs

Figure (5.19) shows that there is a wide disparity in the use of topic signals with regard to Topic Framing in expository writing of Sudanese students in Arabic and in English. They use more "Sentence-initial adjuncts", "Enumeration" and "Metadiscourse markers" in Arabic than in English. Also; for "Discourse markers", they do not appear to use any of them in their writing in English.
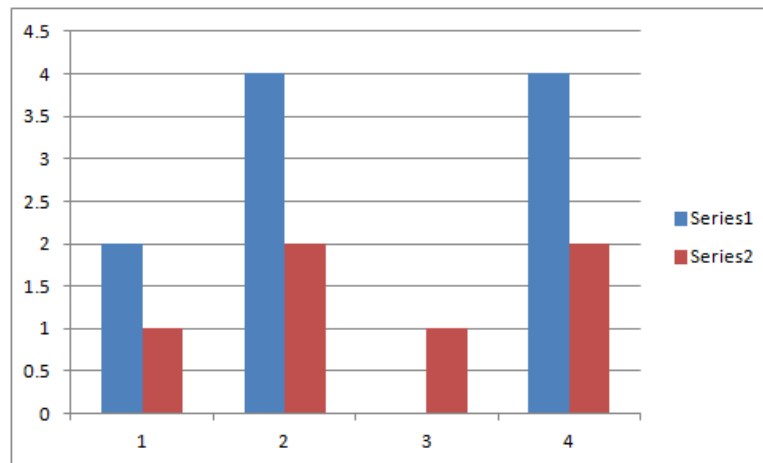
Figure5. 20: Topic Introduction: SATs v SETs

Figure (5.20) also exhibits a wide range of differences in the employment of topic signals between expository writing of Sudanese students in Arabic and in English. They tend to use more "Initial dummy elements (1)", "Indefinite subjects (2)" and "Renominalization (4)" in their Arabic texts than in their English ones. Also, the figure indicates that they do not use "Metadiscourse markers (3)" in Arabic for Topic Introduction.
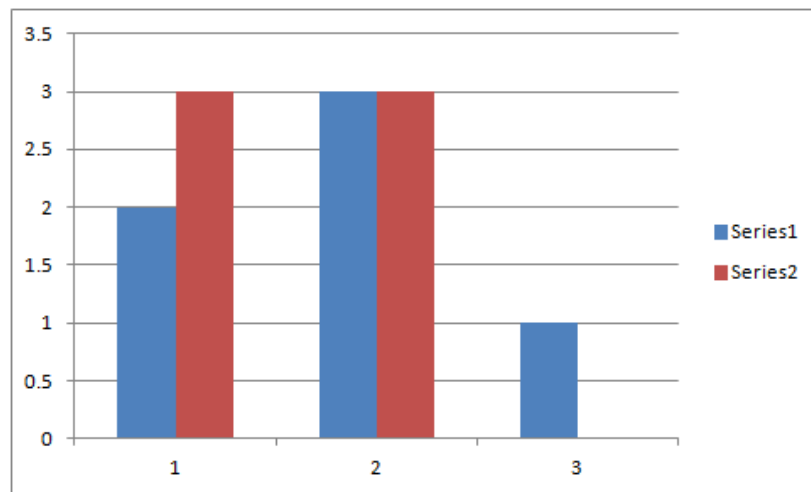
Figure5. 21: Topic Closure: SATs v SETs

Figure (5.21) shows that Sudanese students use more "Discourse markers (1)" for Topic Closure when writing in English than when writing in Arabic. They appear to be using "Metadiscourse markers (2)" equally in both languages. However, "Encapsulation (3)" is used only in Arabic.
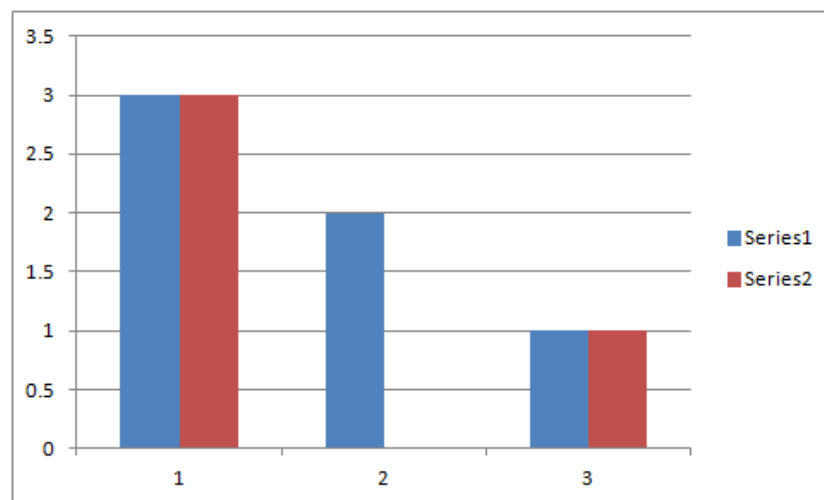
Figure5. 22: Topic Continuity: ESTs v SETs

Figure (5.22) shows that, for Topic Continuity, English native speakers and Sudanese students use "Discourse markers (1)" and "Local cohesive device of repetition (3)" equally.

However, English speakers use "Encapsulation nominals" for Topic Continuity while Sudanese students do not.
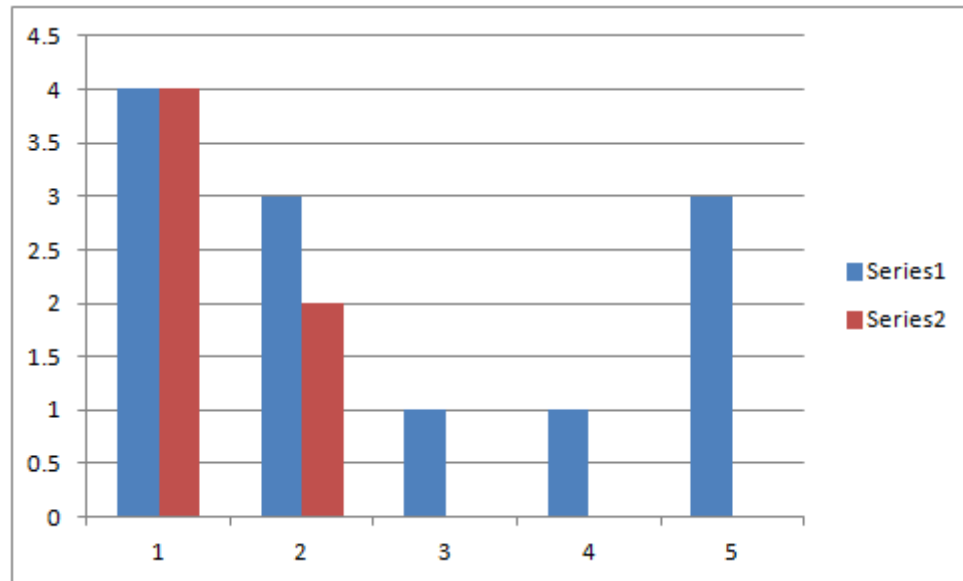
Figure5. 23: Topic Framing: ESTs v SETs

Figure (5.23) shows that, for Topic Framing, English native speakers and Sudanese students are equal in using "Sentence-initial adjunct (1)". It is also evident that English speakers use more "Enumeration" than Sudanese students here. On the other hand, English speaker use three more topic signals which their Sudanese counterparts do not. These are "Question-answer pair (3)", "Discourse markers (4)" and "Metadiscourse markers (5)".
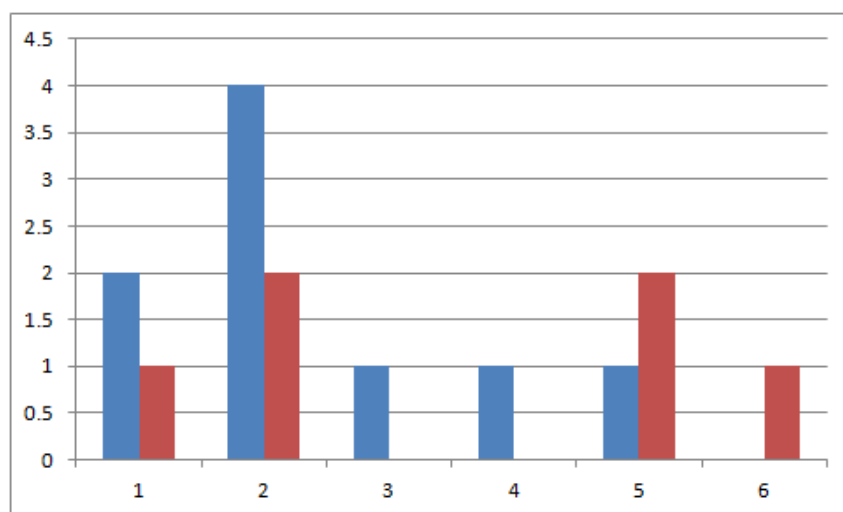
Figure5. 243: Topic Introduction: ESTs v SETs

Figure (5.24) shows that, with respect to Topic Introduction, native speakers of English use more "Initial dummy subjects (1)" and "Indefinite subjects (2)" than Sudanese students. However, Sudanese students use more "Renominalization (5)" than speakers of English. On the other hand, English speakers use two more topic signals which the Sudanese students do not use. These are "question-answer pair (3)" and "Enumeration (4)". Also, Sudanese students use one topic strategy which he native speaker do not. That is "Metadiscourse markers (6)"
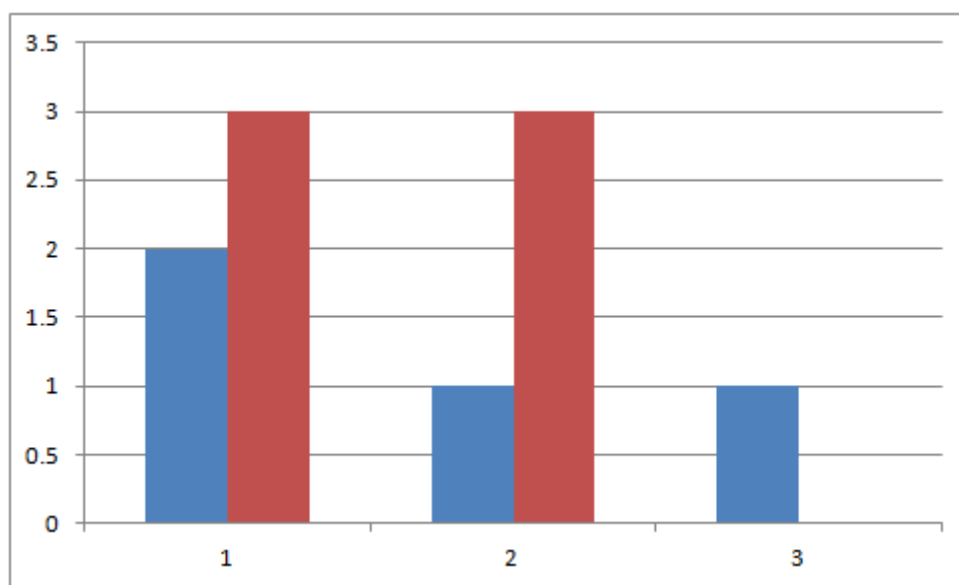
Figure5. 25: Topic Closure: ESTs v SETs

Figure (5.25) shows that Sudanese students use of "Discourse markers (1) and "Metadiscourse markers (2)" in Topic Closure more than their English counterparts. However, Native speakers of English have one topic signal that they use while the Sudanese students do not. This is "Encapsulation (3)".

5.5 Summary

This chapter presented two types of analyses: (a) qualitative analysis, and (b) quantitative analysis. The former cited examples from the three corpora to illustrate how the students of both languages employed the sequential techniques to organize their topics. The latter made statistical analyses in order to give a picture of how the two groups used the topic signals. The results of the analyses will be used to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER 6

6. CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This concluding chapter presents the summary of the results and discussion of this study, answers the research questions, highlights its contributions, gives the implications of the research, and finally suggests recommendations for further studies.

6.2 Summary of the findings of the study

This study aimed to find out the possibility of using Goutsos' framework of sequentiality to compare the topic signals and topic strategies used in Arabic and English expository essays by English and Sudanese students.

6.2.1 Question One

1. How frequently do English and Arabic students use topic strategies and topic signals in writing English expository essays and how frequently do Arabic students do so in writing Arabic ones?

a. How are these topic strategies used in the Arabic and English expository essays by English and Arabic students?

b. How are these topic signals used in the Arabic and English expository essays by English and Arabic students?

c. How are these topic strategies and topic signals used in the Arabic expository essays by Arabic students?

The data analysis in Chapter Five provides the following trends in the expository writing of the two groups.

(a) In relation to Topic continuity:

- Figure (5.13) shows that when writing in their native languages, both English speakers and Sudanese students use the topic signals of "Encapsualtion nominals" and "Local cohesive devices of repetition" equally. As for "Discourse markers", Sudanese students use more of them when they write in Arabic.

- Figure (5.14) shows that both English speakers and Sudanese students (writing in English) used "Discourse markers" and "Local cohesive devices of repetition". However, in the texts analyzed, unlike the English speakers, there appears no use of "Encapsulation nominals" in the expository writing of Sudanese students in English.

- Figure (5.18) shows that Sudanese students use more "Discourse markers" when they write in Arabic than when they write in English. However, they use of "Local cohesive device of repetition" is equal in the two languages. On the other hand, they do not appear to use "Encapsualtion" in English as they do in Arabic.

(b) In relation to Topic Framing

- Figure (5.15) shows that English speakers and Sudanese students (writing in their respective native languages) are equal in using two topic signals: (Enumeration and Metadiscourse markers). It also shows that Sudanese students use more "Sentence-initial adjuncts" and "Discourse markers" than their counterparts. However, when it comes to "Question-answer pair", Sudanese students appear not to use them whereas English speakers do.

- Figure (5.19) shows that there is a wide disparity in the use of topic signals with regard to Topic Framing in expository writing of Sudanese students in Arabic and in English. They use more "Sentence-initial adjuncts", "Enumeration" and "Metadiscourse markers" in Arabic than in English. Also; for "Discourse markers", they do not appear to use any of them in their writing in English.

- Figure (5.23) shows that, for Topic Framing, English native speakers and Sudanese students are equal in using "Sentence-initial adjunct". It is also evident that English speakers use more "Enumeration" than Sudanese students here. On the other hand, English speaker use three more topic signals which their Sudanese counterparts do not. These are "Question-answer pair", "Discourse markers" and "Metadiscourse markers".

(c) In relation to Topic Introduction

- Figure (5.16) shows that speakers of English and Sudanese students, when writing in their own languages, are equal in using two topic signals: "Initial dummy

subjects" and "Indefinite subjects". However, Sudanese students use far more "Renominaliztion" than English speakers. On the other hand, English speakers use two topic signals which Sudanese students appear not to use; "Question-answer pair" and "Enumeration".

- Figure (5.20) also exhibits a wide range of differences in the employment of topic signals between expository writing of Sudanese students in Arabic and in English. They tend to use more "Initial dummy elements", "Indefinite subjects" and "Renominaliztion" in their Arabic texts than in their English ones. Also, the figure indicates that they do not use "Metadiscourse markers" in Arabic for Topic Introduction.

- Figure (5.24) shows that, with respect to Topic Introduction, native speakers of English use more "Initial dummy subjects" and "Indefinite subjects" than Sudanese students. However, Sudanese students use more "Renominaliztion " than speakers of English. On the other hand, English speakers use two more topic signals which the Sudanese students do not use. These are "question-answer pair" and "Enumeration". Also, Sudanese students use one topic strategy which the native speakers do not. That is "Metadiscourse markers".

(d) In relation to Topic Closure

- Figure (5.17) shows that English speakers and Sudanese students do not differ in using "Discourse markers" and "Encapsualtion" in Topic Closure when writing in their native languages. However, they differ a great deal when it comes to

"Metadiscourse markers". Sudanese students use far more of these than their English speaking counterparts.

- Figure (5.21) shows that Sudanese students use more "Discourse markers" for Topic Closure when writing in English than when writing in Arabic. They appear to be using "Metadiscourse markers" equally in both languages. However, "Encapsulation" is used only in Arabic.

- Figure (5.21) shows that Sudanese students use more "Discourse markers" for Topic Closure when writing in English than when writing in Arabic. They appear to be using "Metadiscourse markers" equally in both languages. However, "Encapsulation" is used only in Arabic.

The point to be made here is that the expository writing of both Sudanese students and English students exhibits similarities however; they might differ slightly in the occurance of certain devices than others. This may be accounted for by the differences of conventions of writing in the two languages as well as some linguistic disparities.

6.2.1.1 Question Two

2. To what extent do English and Sudanese follow Goutsos' model in terms of topic strategies and topic signals?

Both the qualitative and the quantitative analyses in Chapter Five show that the two groups employed the sequential strategies for continuity and discontinuity. They use them to signal

the closing of a continuation span, starting a transition span and opening a new continuation span. However, there appear to be some differences in this application (quantity-wise and quality-wise) These differences may be caused by the influence of mother tongue, competence in the language (whether native or foreign), instruction on how to write, ignorance or negligence of the sequential techniques by the students, the teachers or the textbook designers.

6.3 Contributions of this study

This study is a contribution to studies in contrastive rhetoric especially in the role of linguistic devices in topic organization and topic management. This study used Goutsos' model of sequentiality to analyze Arabic and English expository text in order to find out the similarities and differences between the two languages. The awareness of these similarities and differences will automatically contribute positively on teaching and learning language.

6.4 Implications

The following implications could be stated:

1. Teachers should be able to use the findings from this study to help them in teaching the characteristics of good expository writings to their students.

2. English teachers should use eclectic methods in teaching English language; combine traditional methods with the modern process-centered instruction to improve their students' language skills. This is illustrated in Davis (1990) study that compared the

effect of a process-centered mode of teaching and a traditional form-centered mode of instruction on discourse coherence in composition. The results showed that the combination of traditional teaching of discourse forms with modern process-centered instruction maybe an important advantage for the writing development of college freshmen in discourse coherence**.** Moreover, teachers should be trained to use the out-of-class strategies and encourage their students to use/utilize these strategies.

3. Language students should be encouraged to learn English as well as other languages. It is shown that the students' own effort can improve their writing abilities and motivate them to practice pleasure reading and learn to enjoy it. Moreover, the students writing ability can be enhanced and improved by writing practice and feedback from teachers. Similarly, Abdallah (2000) pointed out that one self-sponsored strategy' can improve learners' writing abilities and encourage them to practice pleasure reading and enjoy it. He recommended that writing practice and feedback between drafts and instruction (paragraph, main ideas, and methods of paragraph development) can greatly enhance students writing ability.

4. English teachers should integrate the teaching of reading and writing because students would know and learn the characteristic features of good English writing (Mulyani: 2012).

5. To improve the ability of the Sudanese learners of English to write well organized expository topic.

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6. To draw the attention of the text book writers and teachers to the importance of training the students on how to effectively employ topic strategies and signals in order to write well composed essays in the expository writing.

6.5 Recommendations for further research

The researcher suggests that further research can be carried out using Goutsos' model as well as other models of writing on the writings of students from different nationalities and cultural backgrounds. A bigger sample of Sudanese students could be used in a another study conducted at the undergraduate level in order to further understand the students' problems in writing so that suggestions can be given to improve pedagogically and methodology in writing classrooms.

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APPENDIX A

EST1

Born Into Adulthood

1.1 _Turning the newspaper pages every morning_ my heart sinks as the stories of problems faced by children predominate. 1.2 They are increasingly more worrying in frequency and distance beyond the fence of familiar boundaries.

2._1 In yesterday's world_ it was the adults who committed murder, rape, abuse. 2.2 _It was adults_ who took drugs and alcohol.2.3 _Today it's_ the children. 2.4 _One in eight children has used an illicit drug. 2.5 One in four children is severely maltreated.2.6 One in twenty children has faced sexual abuse, and over 90% of them were abused by someone they know. 2.7 One in seven children has been neglected. 2.8 One in five children has experienced domestic violence._

3.1 If these figures aren't sufficient to tear our hearts with sorrow, then they are certainly shredded by reading that many children under 12 years have abused other children.

4.1 _Faced with conflicting advice_, bombarded with a media which glorifies the vices which should only be reserved to adults, and the loss of the traditional family structure mean our children are no longer own. 4.2 I am more aware of the evils of the media now than ever, _as_ it ruthlessly targets those who are most vulnerable.

5._1 It is no longer the mother and father_ who are raising their children exclusively.5.2 _The children are forging_ battles against odds we never faced in our time. 5.3 And I am not sure as adults we are supportive enough to help them win this war. 5.4 _It is no longer sufficient_ to apply the traditional receipts to raise our children. _5.5 They need us now more than any other era. 5.6 They are unable to maintain their unique identities because they are too_

busy trying to fit in or face the fears of what we ourselves fear in this so called modern world.

EST2

A Problem in Society That Concerns Me

1.1 Abortion is defined by the Oxford dictionary as "The termination of a human pregnancy". 1.2 But is that all there is to it? Is it the termination of a pregnancy, or murder? 1.3 Could it be the end of a potential life that could benefit the human race in ways unseen before?

2.1 Many would argue that abortion solves problems. 2.2 An example would be a young teenage girl who has fallen pregnant and is too young to be responsible physically, emotionally and financially for a child. 2.3 Or perhaps an unmarried woman in a country that abides by Sharia law or has very strict cultural ground on sex before marriage. 2.4 However, one could also argue in these situations to use now widely available contraceptives, or not to engage in the act in the first place. 2.5 There is the issue with rape victims becoming pregnant, in spite of that one could say a mother's love for their child could pay no heed to the past. 2.6 Yet it could be an act of trying to dismiss the woman's terrible experience from her body. 2.7 Maybe it is a way of 'starting fresh'.

3.1 Nonetheless, abortion can be classed as murder because despite the foetus being unborn they are being stripped of the right to live whether it is an inconvenience to the mother or not. 3.2 Nowadays many couples are heartbroken due to their lack of fertility, while others terminate a life growing inside of them. 3.3 In addition, undergoing an abortion can damage the mother's body physically in countless ways and could jeopardise the chances of later getting pregnant when she plans to. 3.4 Not only does abortion cause physical harm, it can also be very psychologically damaging and cause eating disorders, relationship problems, guilt, depression, flashbacks of abortion, suicidal thoughts, and alcohol and drug abuse.

4.1 In conclusion, the controversial act of abortion can be very damaging and considered ethically unjust, but can also be an escape from a traumatising past life experience and be an exit from responsibilities one is not mature enough to take.

EST3

A problem in society that concerns you

1.1 One major problem in society I believe is the use of illegal drugs that are being taken in England, especially by teenagers who are studying.

2.1 It is an alarming concern as it can affect a teenager for the rest of his/her life. 2.2 *Certain drugs can make people addicted to them; this can be very dangerous for a teenager* as it can affect many aspects of the teenager's life.

3.1 *Firstly* if a teenager becomes addicted, it will be very expensive to buy more and more drugs, the more he takes the more he would crave the drugs. *3.2 Having the money to buy drugs is very difficult, as they cost a lot of money.* 3.3 *Generally* a teenager has a part time job *or* gets pocket money from their parents, and even this isn't much. 3.4 If all of that person's money is going towards drugs then they wouldn't be able to spend on necessities, like food for example.

4.1 *Ther*e have been *many cases* where teenagers, who live on their own, have not been eating enough as they spend all their money on drugs. 4.2 *This* can then result in malnutrition and potentially falling ill.

5.1 Gaining an education in England is very demanding and tough to do; a lot of pressure can be placed on people during exam periods for example. 5.*2 To relieve that pressure or stress*, teenagers tend to turn to drugs to calm them down *and* help them relax.

6.1 Many people take drugs just to fit in with people. 6.2 If they have a social group who all take drugs, then *that person* would feel left out, instead *that person* just takes the drugs and then fits in.

7.1 In schools and colleges, some teenagers believe that it is very boring and don't like attending lessons_. 7.2 Teenagers tend to get bored easily, *and* are always looking for the 'feel good factor' in their life. 7.3 Drugs can give them that feeling for short periods of time, *but* they don't know the consequences.

8.1 There are also many cases of people being bullied into *taking drugs* and then becoming *addicted to* them *drugs*. 8.2 Having certain so-called friends who *take drugs* and then almost force a person to also *take drugs* is very common nowadays. 8.3 That victim could then become *addicted to the drugs*, having being forced *to take it* so much.

9.1 The most dangerous thing about drugs is the risk of becoming addicted to it. 9.2 Having an addiction to drugs can result in a lot of money being wasted. 9.3 They are also very unhealthy to use, and can cause bad lungs, if the drugs are breathed in, or can affect neurons and brain signals if injected or sniffed.

10.1 Schools must try to educate their students about the dangerous effects on drugs. 10.2 Drugs are not to be used for enjoyment as they can ruin a person's life. 10.3 People should try to stop the selling of drugs and eliminate it from their communities. 10.4 Children should be taught never to associate themselves with drugs as they could be the next ones to be selling or using drugs.

11.1 _Overall_, I believe the government should be aspiring more to rid drugs off the streets of England and that this country becomes a drug-free area.

EST4

A Problem in Society that is Concerning

Child Pornography

1.1 One of the major disadvantages of *the Internet* is the exposure of *child pornography*. 1.2 *And* *this problem* is growing all the time due to the Internet user growth. 1.3 Child pornography is known as the act at which child's under 18 years old are forced in sexual engagement and then this act is exposed to public by different ways, for example *the Internet*. 1.4 *Child pornography* also is not a victimless crime, usually children are being brutalised or even killed after the act.

2.1 I could give *a few reasons* why a minority of "people" are interested in pornography. 2.2 *Some* are interested for the money that they could gain by this act. 2.3 *This* can be done by setting up web sites in which you are required to pay in order to view the videos. 2.4 *Others* watch child pornography so they can satisfy their fantasy and sexual needs.

3.1 Scientists believe that the personality of a person could be distorted by viewing child pornography. 3.2 *A psychiatrist specializing in a treatment* of sexual disorder stated that sixty percent of his clients are related to Internet child pornography. 3.3 Recent statistics show that people that watch child pornography are affected in a horrible way. 3.4 Their perception for the female/male sex changes dramatically resulting in an increase of rapes.

3.5 In 2002 a research of an American Academy of lawyers stated that 56% of the divorces cases where related to child pornography.

4.1 As you can see child pornography is a result of *the disorder of our everyday life*. 4.2

And *this problem* is developing everyday by different ways of media. 4.3 One of theses ways is the Internet. 5.4 I believe that a solution for this disadvantage is for the departments of the governments, which are responsible for the Internet safety, could make a law that would not allow anyone to set up a web site. 4.5 Also before the web site is activated the departments could research the contents of the site. 4.6 They also could make a six-month search; by this I mean that every six months there should be a search in all the web sites for any suspicious contain.

EST5

Copyright Infringement: Why it's so problematic

1.1 Copyright gives authors, creative artists and publishers the right to control the use and reproduction of their original works. *1.2 However, as online technology developed and* the number of Internet users widely increased, *it has become difficult to reserve these copyrights.* 1.3 *This* has led to copyright infringement, which can be described as unauthorized use of material that is covered by the copyright law. 1.4 *There are some reasons that* make *the Internet an latest updates and patches from the manufacturer, keeping the anti-virus up to date and performing thorough routine scans. 1.5 Downloads from the Internet should be thoroughly monitored if not avoided. 1.6 This is because downloading is the easiest way for viruses to get into a computer. 1.7* Firewall is similarly effective; firewall can be a software or hardware, which helps to shield computers from hackers and malicious software from attacking a computer over the Internet. 1.8 Firewall is most effective for home and office users. *1.9 There are 3 basic types of firewall with 3 distinct purposes – software firewalls, hardware routers and wireless routers*. 1.*10 Additionally, computer users have always been advised to be knowledgeable about latest threats.easy way to infringe copyright material for example:*

1) *It is easier to copy media using Internet websites.*

2) *File compression technology has reduced file size to less than a tenth of their original size.*

3) *Bandwidth increases the speed of the Internet, so for example you can download a musical album in 20 minutes.*

Sharing files

2.1 Sharing files needs computers connected online using specific programs called peer-to-peer programmes, and each member could exchange his files whether they are audio, videos or books. *2.2 In recent years there have been facilities that made* it easy to download and share these files just by writing the name of the file that you need in search box. *2.3 Therefore industries continually lose money because these people cut their profit by buying goods* and distributing it to the public online, and still the numbers of people who are using these files continually increase. 2.4 File sharing can also cause several serious problems in addition to the risk of being sued for copyright infringement. *2.5 It might contain viruses or used to pass software called "scumware" which can be installed in your* website browser and displays advertising sites or pornography sites.

3.1 Protecting copyright material: -

4) Unlawful access: Watch people who are responsible for distributing these files and try to track them by following their IP address.

5) Punish the files sharers: There must be some consequence to file sharers, so they should catch them first and send a warning. But after they repeating this three times they must pay a fine and ban them using the Internet for a while.

6) *Educate Internet users: There must some ways of making people aware that the infringement is illegal and it might lead to worse consequences*.

EST6

Why Internet Hackers are a Concern for our Society

1.1 The term 'hacker' refers to individuals who try to breach other people's computers by using viruses, worms or other types of Internet attacks, using idiosyncratic methods. 1.2 While some people may consider hacking to be a harmless amusement and fairly clever, 1.3 Internet hacking can be a quite serious invasion of privacy and a considerable threat to e-commerce.

2.1 Hacking computers is relatively easy as the masses use Microsoft software and hackers have invented a program called 'The Backdoor' which allows them to access systems operating on Microsoft Windows. 2.2 At its most invasive, this would allow the hacker to switch on a microphone or webcam connected to the computer attacked.

The current prime problem

3.1 Online fraud is the main offence hackers easily execute by invading systems and obtaining personal details. 3.2 In the UK a Welsh teenager managed to hack e-commerce sites to obtain credit card details of some 25,000 Internet shoppers before he was apprehended. 3.3 Whilst in the US, CD Universe refused to pay $100,000 blackmail demand of a hacker who had obtained credit card details of 300,000 of the company's customers, so the hacker posted 25,000 credit card files online. 3.4 According to research company eMarketer, in 2003 the world circulation in e-commerce reached $1.26 trillion and with such threats as these it has become vital to come up with a feasible solution.

Is there a viable solution?

4.1   Stopping hackers is a problem for two main reasons. 4.2 Firstly the procedures used by criminal hackers are rapidly changing; the attacks are sophisticated which are continually modified. 4.3 Secondly hackers have no known identities, they use imaginative nicknames, which are virtually impossible to trace to any one person. 4.4 This is also not helped by the fact that Internet companies cannot investigate crime themselves. 4.5 Law enforcement is responsible for such matters and each police force has various views of which misdemeanour level it will investigate.

5.1 The only realistic solution is that each individual must take their own measures to protect themselves. 5.2 These methods include building firewalls for their computers and continually changing system passwords. 5.3 One must also exercise caution when opening email attachments and taking care when shopping online.

EST 7

How soil contamination is problematic

1.1 Soil contamination can be caused by the application of pesticides, which are used as a method of controlling unwanted pests. 1.2 Excessive use of these chemicals poses a significant concern as these contaminants enter and alter ecosystems as well as a person's health. 1.3 Pests also develop resistance after a while, which means new pesticides need to be continually developed. 1.4 There are a variety of cleaning up processes, but they are both time consuming and expensive.

2.1 Although pesticides have been used for centuries, albeit by a different name, the development and growth of the pesticide industry has been closely linked to the expansion of modern, intensive agriculture. 2.2 The term "pesticide" refers to specific chemical substances and micro-organisms used to kill and control "pests" such as weeds, fungi, and bacteria. 2.3 The term "pests" is used generally to include animals, micro-organisms, and plants, as well as insects and insect-type pests, usually referred to as anthropods. 2.4 Pesticides can be broken down into many generic categories, including insecticides, herbicides, fungicides and other miscellaneous compounds such as soil sterilants and plant growth regulators.

3.1 Given that pesticides are so toxic, they may affect the well-being of other living things which are not their intentional targets.

4.1 Exposure to a toxic chemical can on occasion result in an immediate (acute) effect, and/or a longer-term (chronic) effect. 4.2 Acute symptoms that can occur include headaches, nausea and even difficulty in breathing. 4.3 Chronic effects of exposure are

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trickier to recognise. 4.5 The most serious long-term effects are cancer, genetic or birth defects. 4.6 Exposure to mutagens and teratogens (substances which encourage genetic mutations or birth defects) pass the problem on to the next generation and cause particular risks to women of child bearing age. 4.7 When a human is contaminated with pesticides, their fatty tissue stores persistent chemicals and slowly releases them into the bloodstream. 4.8 In expecting mothers, they are able to cross the placenta and so newborn infants are often already contaminated before birth. 4.9 Many pesticides will linger in the body for years.

5.1 Unfortunately, several aspects of the long-term effects of chemical exposure are still unknown. 5.2 Those largely at risk are workers in direct contact with chemicals through their jobs; these include workers in chemical plants, people employed on spraying farms and even those who dispose of waste chemicals.

6.1 Pesticides directly affect the health of other living organisms to the same extent they affect human health. 6.2 They also have a considerable ecological effect and alter the diversity, abundance and distribution of species. 6.3 Pesticide degradation causes acid generation, which alters the pH of the soil, changing the optimum conditions for crop growth, and as a result decreasing the yield. 6.4 Both the direct and indirect effects of pesticides and herbicides on wildlife are directly associated with the type of agriculture practised. 6.5 This is especially the case where broad-spectrum, non-selective chemicals are used to kill beneficial and non-harmful pest species.

7.1 Perhaps the most pressing concern over the use of pesticides is their indirect, ecological effects, which lead to a reduction of species, the introduction of secondary pests and

pesticide resistance. One solution introduced is the use of a "cocktail" of pesticides, where a mixture of chemicals is used and pests find it difficult to adapt resistance to any one type.

EST8

"My Life is different to that of my parents."

1.1 I take the title of this piece of work as having two different yet similar meanings. 1.2 There are various ways in which my life differs to that of my parents, both from when my parents were my age and also from their current lives as average, middle-class, tax-paying adults. 1.3 We've all heard that famous saying from our parents; "I was once your age you know", or something along those lines. 1.4 The truth is that, they were in fact once our age, they did experience some of the struggles and joys that we come across. 1.5 The only thing is, that nothing ever stays exactly like it once was does it? 1.6 Things change all the time. 1.7 People change, attitudes change, and morals within our societies and indeed our very own belief systems and us as a whole change in many ways, and as we all know the economy can take a turn for its worse now and again too.

2.1 To begin with, one thing that I believe has vastly changed from the time of my parent's teenage hood and that of my own is that we have different priorities.2.2 My priorities consist of excelling in my education, enjoying life with my friends, working towards a career that I enjoy rather than something which I must do to put food on the table for my family. 2.3 On the contrary, the perception that I have of my parent's priorities at that time are that they were living, working and in fact had dedicated and sacrificed their own 'lives' and enjoyment to provide me and my siblings with a stress-free life and a brighter future.

3.1 Furthermore, my parents have different ideologies to me. 3.2 They have a more conservative approach to life whereas I think that we should take old principles and morals but also move on with time. 3.3 I believe that I conduct myself in a less strict manner and perhaps take a more relaxed approach on things as oppose to my parents.3.4 For example, I think that socialising across genders isn't an issue but this would raise a few eyebrows on

the issue within the extended family. 3.5 This is perhaps because my parents were raised in a very conservative family in their childhood, so therefore even though they later settled down in The Netherlands (which is infamously known for its freedoms and relaxed views on matters such as the use of Cannabis etc. which totally contradicts with other societies), that they retained their conservative attitudes and what they thought to be 'acceptable' and 'expected' behaviour.

4.1 In addition, I feel that I do much more to socialise with my friends than for example what my parents did.4.2 I think that for them life was very much family orientated.4.3 On the contrary, even though family life does hold a high priority in my life, I probably spend more free time and participate in more leisure activities with my friends than with my family.

5.1 To conclude, I think that even though my life is different to that of my parents, it's still very much the same. 5.2 We are all heading for the same destination but we're just taking different routes. 5.3 Some are shorter whereas others take longer, some are bumpy and have many encounters lined up for us and then there's some which couldn't be easier.5.4 Also there's those which take us straight to our preferred destination as oppose to those which take us to a few different places and then take us to our goal.

EST9

The easiest thing to do in your home

1.1 I think the easiest thing to do in my house is watching TV. 1.2 It allows me to keep up to date with everything going on in the world.

2.1 Using the internet can sometimes be difficult to see what is going on in the world. 2.2 Whereas, by watching TV, everything is easily understood and is shown in video form.

3.1 There is a great amount of entertainment on TV, from watching British dramas to Hollywood movie films. 3.2 There is entertainment for every genre, and all the different entertainment on TV fits for all diverse watchers.

4.1 My personal favourite TV channel is ITV 1. 4.2 It has a wide range of programmes, from documentaries, to movies. 4.3 Their documentaries are always about various situations going on in the world and what the general public think about it. 4.4 These documentaries usually have professors or experts who have great knowledge on the matter and give their opinions on it, and this is what I like most of all.

5.1 The most enjoyable documentaries are the ones that concentrate on cultures and the different races within the UK.5.2 I find it very interesting how Polish citizens have moved to England to find work as there is a great shortage in Poland. 5.3 Many documentaries have given us an insight to the Polish people. 5.4 I would have never known about the Polish people until watching the documentary, and this is why I believe it is the easiest thing to do in my home.

6.1 I have not travelled around the world much, only been to Cyprus and Saudi Arabia. 6.2 I haven't had the experience of seeing other cultures much; however from watching TV, I have had the chance to see other cultures all around the world, even in countries I have never imagined going to!

7.1 From watching TV, I became more opened minded. Seeing many different religions, and their customs, 7.2 I really got to understand their ways, and then seeing those religions being practiced in England, it gave me more respect for their ways and I honoured them more.

8.1 At times I can feel very down and upset, and by watching TV, where there is a lot of comedy shown, it can cheer me up and switch my mind off from the world and all problems. 8.2 It is the easiest way to relax my mind from all the stress in my life. 8.3 There are many types of comedy such as stand up comedy, comedy road shows, and my personal favourites, comedy TV series. 8.4 There is enough comedy for every type of person.

9.1 I can also watch live action on the TV where people are recording from London and I am in Manchester, and I can see what is going on. 9.2 This is very easy to access and it is free. 9.3 It is a great way to keep up to date with things and to see something that you want to see but not actually physically being there. 9.4 It gives people the opportunity to see something even if their circumstances meant they couldn't make it to the place it is being recorded.

10.1 TV is a great invention and it has always been the best thing o do in my home. 10.2 It is very easy to access as it only takes a click of a button to watch something. 10.3 I can see

things which I have always wanted to watch but not been able to get to that place, instead watching it on the TV.

EST10

The Greatest Invention of the last Twenty Years

1.1 There is one clear front runner for the greatest invention in the last twenty years and I am sure almost everyone in the world would agree. 1.2 It is a tool that although has been around longer than twenty years, only came to widespread use in the last two decades. 1.3 It has shaped a generation and has made the world a much smaller place.1.4 I am of course talking about the internet. 1.5 How could I not be? 1.6 The internet was invented in the 90s and its growth has been phenomenal. 1.7 The number of users has expanded explosively and even now more and more people are getting on-line every day.

2.1 There are countless reasons why the internet has been such a success. 2.2 Fundamentally, the internet has been allowed vast amount of information to be accessed instantly at a touch of a few keystrokes. 2.3 One only needs to think of any reason why having this information is helpful; it boggles the mind.

3.1 Another important use of the internet is the ease of communication it has enabled. 3.2 It is laughable how easily people can communicate these days in all corners of the world. 3.3 It has made work and business, as well as family and friends keep in touch more easily.

4.1 The internet has also opened a wide door for people wishing to travel around the world. 4.2 It has encouraged millions of holiday goers every year to visit never been before places. 4.3 This is because they are able to see many details of the destination they want to go to as well as opinions of others on the place.

5.1 It is hard to imagine a world without the internet and that is the reason why I think it is the most important invention of the last 20 years. 5.2 In fact this essay that I am currently writing would not be able to reach you if it was not for the email and the internet!

EST11

What is the most important technological invention within the last 20 years in your opinion?

1.1 I believe the most important technological invention within the last 20 years has been the use of emails.

2.1 Emails are a very easy and quick way to send a message from one person to another via email addresses. 2.2 Emails are usually sent through the internet, and the internet is now worldwide. 2.3 For example, someone from England can send an email to someone in China without a problem, as long as the two users both have access to internet and can access their emails, they can message each other.

3.1 Before the use of emails, letters were used. Letters would be sent by a postman to the recipient and this could take days or even weeks depending on the distance the letter has to go.

4.1 This custom has now been reduced a lot, as the use of emails has now been introduced. 4.2 Most of the time, to send a letter off, it will cost money. 4.3 Emails however, don't require any type of payment. 4.4 The only requirement it has is to have access to internet. 4.5 Nowadays, to be able to use the internet isn't an issue as it is so common.

5.1 Emails don't only allow written content to be sent; now it is able to send pictures, attachments and video messages.

6.1 Cameras have been commonly used in the past few years. 6.2 Almost everyone has some form of camera, be it on their phone, laptop or an actual purpose built camera. 6.3 To have these pictures printed off on a card; it would cost a lot of money. 6.4 Instead, a person can have pictures saved on their phones or computers, and can see the picture whenever they want to. 6.5 Pictures can be sent through email and instead of printing the pictures off and sending the pictures to someone; they can just be emailed straight to that person.

7.1 Attachments such as essays, articles and any document can be sent through email, the only thing that person would have to do is to download the attachment and can access it. 7.2 This is very important for students who study online, and can't get to their teachers in person. Instead if they are given an assignment to do, it can be sent through email via attachments.

8.1 Friends and family that live quite a distance away, can now video message each other. 8.2 Video messaging again is free, and you can hear and see what that person is doing. 8.3 There are applications that can be downloaded which allow free video messaging. 8.4 This is great for people to stay in touch, even if they can't be in person.

9.1 Instant messaging has now been very popular. 9.2 Social networks have introduced this for people to message without any barriers.9.3 Quick small messages can be sent within seconds. 9.4 Again this is free and is easy to access as these social networks can be used on phones, which is very common.

10.1 Emails are a fantastic invention; they have been a crucial invention for the world, for companies and for the general people. 10.2 The world would not have developed as much as it has within the last 20 years if emails weren't invented.

EST12

When I look at the differences between me and my parents' generation we have to consider differences between two generations with respect to their priorities, values, attitudes and goals.

2.1 Of course any two generations have these differences to a certain degree. 2.2 However in my country, the United Kingdom, the gap between my generation and that of my parents is no so vast compared to the gaps between earlier generations. 2.3 This is due to the effects of technological advancement and the globalization. 2.4 However these vast differences often put ourselves in difficult situations when we try to come into terms with our parents on   many   issues.

3.1 When the priorities are concerned my parents were more family oriented and also their work ethic maybe more strict than my generation. 3.2 Everything else was secondary to them. I observe a sense of responsibility from my mother towards the family as a caring figure and my father as the responsible earner. 3.3 This doesn't seem to have carried to my generation.3.4 I feel that we see ourselves as equal when it comes to the feeling of responsibility in my generation. 3.5 I feel that both males and females have the same responsibility   and   also   want   each   partner   to   share   the   responsibility.

4.1 Also our priorities today have taken a dramatic move from what they were earlier.4.2 Most of us have high priorities for our career advancement irrespective of gender difference. 4.3 In many families both the husband and wife are employed and they equally struggle to have a balance between work and family life. 4.4 However, this change of priorities has demanded the modern couples to seek outside assistance to manage their

family life. 4.5 These include house maids, and ready meals form the outside. 4.6 These are priorities that I feel I have and would have when I have my own family. 4.7 It would be 'the easy way out' and I feel would make my life easier to handle. 4.8 I feel that the strength of the relationships within the family and also with extended families have relatively deteriorated today.4.9 My family is a fine example of that.4.10 My uncles and cousins are very close but I hardly recognise some of my cousins.

5.1 Our ideas, attitudes and perceptions too have changed dramatically. 5.2 My parents were very conventional thinkers who were reluctant to challenge the existing social and cultural norms. 5.3 It is still very hard for them to accept other cultures. 5.4 I feel my generation seek to explore other cultures which is driven by our rebellious attitudes and are not scared to do things that were previously unacceptable.

6.1 These differences are so common in the tastes too.6.2 My generation has overly embraced the western influence in all forms of art to which there is a strong opposition from the earlier generation.6.3 My parents admire their own British tradition.

7.1 It seems in a short time that the differences are so vast as even the older people of my generation are different in their thoughts and their priorities.7.2 It seem that we have taken the word freedom to an extent where even within our generation there are vast differences so it is not a surprise that there is a big gap between myself and my parents generation.

SAT 1

أسهل الأشياء بالنسبى لي عند فعلها

The Easiest Things for me to do

إن الإيمان بامر ما و بأهميته كفيل بجعله أفضل الأعمال التي تفعلها لإن أيمانك به سيعطيك طاقة تساعدك على أدئه و اقتناعك به سيدفعك دفعا للبحث و التنقيب عن كل خباياه ليخرج كأفضل ما يكون.

Believing in a matter and its importance is sure to make it the best of acts to do because your belief in it will give you energy to help you to do it and your conviction will surely push you to try to find and dig for all of its potentialities so that it comes out in the best possible way.

أما عدم الإقتناع به فسيجعل أدائك سيئا لإنك تفعل ما تخالف به ذاتك و معتقداتك مما سيؤثر على طريقة نظرك له و من ثم أدئه.

However, not being convinced of it will make your performance bad because you will be doing something that contradict yourself and your beliefs which will affect the way you see it and hence its performance.

لهذا السبب و غيره تكون الأعمال لتي تفعلها بمليء إرادتك أنجح دائما مما يفرض عليك بسبب الإقتنا ع أولا و بسسب الرغبة في أدائه ثانيا فكما عرف دائما أن الممنوع مرغوب و لنفس أساس هذه النظرية ما تفعله بنفسك ليس كما يطلب منك أو تؤمر بفعله.

For this reason and other reasons the things which you do out of your own will is usually more successful than the ones which are imposed on you because of conviction first and because of the desire to do it secondly as it is normally known that what is prohibited is wanted and because of the same basis of this principle what you do by yourself is not the same as what you are asked to do or ordered to do.

و حتى يسهل الإنسان على نفسه ما يفعله عليه أن يحاول جاهدا الاستمتاع و الإحساس بالمسؤولية تجاهه كأنك و دون سواك من طلب منك أداء هذا العمل فافخر بنفسك حتى تصير أهلا للإعتماد عليك.

In order for a person to make what he does easy for himself, he must try hard to enjoy and feel the responsibility towards it as if you are and not any person other than you who has been asked to do this piece of work so feel pride in yourself so that you are worthy of being depended on.

شخصيا لا صعوبة معينة في أداء عمل معين لإنني بالفعل آمنت بهذا المبدأ و أنا في سعي حثيث و بنية صادقة أحاول تطبيقه في كل مناحي حياتي.

Personally speaking, there is no specific difficulty in doing any piece of work because I have actually believed in this principle and I am persistent and with sincere intention trying to apply it an all aspects of my life.

ختاما أحب ما أفعله و أفعله بإخلاص و حسن نية حتى يفيدك أنت و أمتك و لا تفعل ما لا تريده لإن هذا تنازل و المشاكل تبدأ مع أول تنازل.

In conclusion, love what you do and do it with devotion and in good will so that it benefits you and your nation and do not do anything that you do not want to do because this will be a concession and problems will start with the first concession.

SAT 2

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أسهل الأشياء بالنسبة لي فعلها

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The Easiest Things for me to do

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كل شخص في العالم له أشياء سهلة يفعلها و أشياء صعبة لا يفعلها.

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Every person in this world has some things that are easy to do some things that are difficult which he does not do.

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بالنسبة لي أرى أن أسهل الأشياء هي الاستيقاظ مبكرا و أداء صلاة الفجر و قراءة بعض القرآن هذه الأشياء سهلة جداو لا تحتاج لأي طاقة ، و من الأشياء السهلة و لا أجد فيها صعوبة قراءة بعض الكتب و الروايات لإنني عندما أقرأ أستمتع و أنظر بعيني فقط و لا أحتاج لجهد جسمي و كذلك الجلوس أمام التلفاز.

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For me, the easiest of things is to get up early and to perform *fajr* prayer and to recite some Quran. These things are so easy and do not require any energy. Some of the easy things which I do not face any difficulty in them are reading books and stories because when I read, I feel pleasure and I only look with my eye and I do not need any physical effort and also sitting in front of television.

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كما أنني أحب أن أكتب بعض القصص و لا أجد فيها صعوبة و في هذه اللحظة أنا مستمتعة و لا أجد أي ملل بالرغم من أنني كنت خائفة من هذا الإمتحان لكنني أجده أمر ممتع و هو أيضا سهل.

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L also like to write some stories and I do not find any difficulties in that and at this moment I feel pleasure and do not feel an boredom despite that I was afraid of sitting this test but I find it enjoying and also easy.

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هناك بعض الأشياء يجدها بعض الناس صعبة و لكني أجدها سهلة فمثلا بالنسبة لي كطالبة أجد أن الدروس اليومية و الواجبات من أسهل الأشياء و يجب علينا فعلها و عدم الضجر منها.

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There are some things that some people find difficult but I find them easy for example for me as a student I find that the daily lessons and homework are some of the easiest things and we must do them and we must not complain of them.

في نهاية الأمر ليس هناك أشياء صعبة لوحدها و لا أشياء سهلة لوحدها لا بد ان يكون هناك السهل و أن يكون هناك صعب و يجب علينا أن نختار أسهل الأشياء ما لم تكن حراما ، و دين الإسلام دين يسر و سهولة و كان عليه أفضل الصلاة و أتم التسليم إذا خير بين أمرين يختار أيسر الأمرين ما لم يكن حراما.

In the end, there are neither such things that are difficult in their own right nor things that are easy in their own right. There have to be things that are easy and things that are difficult and we must choose the easiest of things unless they are not prohibited (*haram*), and the religion of Islam is a religion of simplicity and easiness and when (the Prophet) the best blessing and perfect peace be upon him was given a choice between two things, he used to pick the easiest of the two - provided that it was *haram*.

SAT 3

لقد أضحت التكنولوجيا الآن إحدى متطلبات العصر الحالي و لذلك أصبحت تقريبا كل حياتنا و أصبح التعامل معها شيء

أساسي.

Technology has now turned out to be one of today's world requirements and as such has

nearly become all of our life and dealing with it is now an essential thing.

قبل عشرين عاما من الآن ظهر اكتشاف بهر الناس و أصبحوا يستغربون ما هذا؟ و ما يفعل؟ ألا وهو الإنترنت ظهر

اكتشاف الإنترنت في التسعينيات و لم يستغرق كثيرا حتى انتشر سريعا مثل انتشار النار في الهشيم حتى الآن هو شيء

أساسي في حياة أغلب الناس.

Twenty years ago there appeared an invention that amazed people and they became

astonished about what that thing was and what it did. Indeed that was the Internet. The

invention of the Internet happened in the 1990s and it did not take long to spread widely

like fire in dry stalks   till now it is an essential thing in the lives of most people.

و صاحب هذا الاختراع اختراع آخر هو الجوال أو ما يسمى بالتلفون المحمول و كان في البدايات عبارة عن جهاز ثابت

في المنزل عن طريق أسلاك و لايحمل إلى مكان دون أسلاكه.

This invention was accompanied by another invention which the mobile or the so-called

portable telephone and at the beginning it was a fixed device in the house with wires and

could not be moved to any place without the cords.

بعد عام أو اثنين ظهر الجوال أو (الموبايل) و أضحى هوس الكل إذ أنه خاص جدا و يحمل إلى أي مكان دون أسلاك و

لذلك فضل الأغلبية الجوال إذ أنه جعل العالم صغيرا جدا و قضى على الرسائل و الحمام الزاجل.

Two or three years later the mobile appeared and it became the obsession of all because it is

very private and is portable anywhere without cords and that is why the majority preferred

the mobile as it has made the world very small and it made letters and homing pigeons out

of date.

SAT 4

التلفزيون مهم في الحياة اليومية تم اكتشافه قبل سنين عدة من قبل عالم لا أعرفه و لكنني أشكره على هذا الإختراع

العظيم.

Television is important in everyday life. It was invented many years ago by an inventor

whom I do not know but I thank him for this great invention.

في السابق إذا أراد شخص أن يعرف خبرا أو معلومة فإنه يعرف المعلومة عن طريق الكتب و لا يعرف أخبار العالم

ليس أخبار العالم بل قل أخبار بلده و ماذا يجري فيها و لكنه الآن إذا أراد أي خبر عن أي بلد يبحث بين القنوات ليجد

أخبار العالم و إذا أراد التسلية فأنه يجلس يشاهد التلفاز مسلسلات – برامج – أفلام - أغاني – برامج أطفال.

In the past, if anyone wanted to know a piece of news or information, he would know the

information from books and he would not know the news of the world, let alone the world

news, even the news of his country and what was happening in it but now if he wants any

piece of news about any country, he will search the channels to find the news of the world

and if he wants entertainment , he will sit watching TV; serials, programmes, films, songs,

children's programmes.

و لكن بقدر محاسن هذا التلفاز له مساويء و مساؤه أصعب من محاسنه و من المساؤي أنه يهدر الوقت و هذه أبسط

الأشياء و الوقت ثمين يمكن للإنسان في أوقات فراغه أن يفعل ما يستفيد منه آل بيته و لكنه يجلس إلى التلفاز يفسد

الأخلاق إذا استخدمت القنوات الفاضحة خاصة لدى الأطفال اكتشف العلماء أن للطفل مرحلة و هو يحتاج فيها إلى

اللعب لكن أمه ترشده إلى التلفاز.

Nevertheless, the disadvantages of TV are as many as its advantages. And their

disadvantages are more serious than its advantages. One of its disadvantages is that it

wastes time and this is the simplest of all. Time is valuable and a person can in his free time

do something that his family benefits from but he sits before the TV spoiling morals if the

hard-core channels especially for kids. Scientists discovered that a child has stage in which

he needs to play but his mother directs him to TV.

يوجد محاسن و مساوئ كثيرة لكني لا أذكرها جميعا فقد حدثت مشاكل أسرية بسبب المسلسلات التلفزيونية و قد أغنى عن الراديو و الراديو برامجه شيقة و ذات فائدة.

There are many advantages and disadvantages but I am not going to mention them all. Many family problems happened because of TV serials. TV has made radio redundant which has interesting and useful programmes.

في الختام التلفزيون من الوسئل المهمة و لكن أضرارها أكثر من نفعها و أنا من الناس الما ببعدوا من التلفزيون لحظة.

Finally, TV is one of the important media but its disadvantages are more than its advantages and I am one of those people who cannot stay away from TV for a moment.

SAT 5

قبل عشرون سنة لا توجد تكنولوجيا عالية بالعالم و لكن العالم الآن تطور و اخترع كثير من الأشياء المتطورة مثل
التلفون و الإنترنت و الفيس بوك و البريد الإلكتروني.

Twenty years ago, there was no advanced technology in the world but the world has now developed and invented many developed things such as the telephone, the Internet, Facebook, and electronic mail.

أولا: التلفون لديه الكثير من الفوائد و الأضرار من فوائده التواصل المستمر بين الأصدقاء و الأهل و من أضراره
التحدث به لفترة طويلة يعرض إلى الأمراض في الأذن.

Firstly; the telephone has many advantages and disadvantages. One of its advantage s is the continuous communication between friends and relatives and one of its disadvantages is that talking on it for a long time can cause problems to the ears.

ثانيا: الإنترنت به أصبح العالم قرية صغيرة عن طريق التواصل و التكامل و أصبح كثير من الناس يعملون به مثل
التجارة الإلكترونية بين الناس عبر محيط الشبكة و التواصل الدائم بين دول العالم.

Secondly; the Internet has turned the world into a small village through communication and integration and many people are now able to carry out jobs through it such as e-commerce between people across the web and the continuous communication between the countries of the world.

APPENDIX C

SET 1

Internet

1.1 *Internet is the world wide web (www) which belong to certain company like Google and Yahoo.*

2.1 *It is very important in our life because it makes the world as a small village*.

3.1 *You can get every thing which you want from Internet in whatever time you wish and it make ever thing ease.* 3.2 If you have research and information you can get them from internet and if you want to store them you can download them in internet.

4.1 *But internet has a lot of demerits for weak-self people like wasting time on facebook and Twitter* 4.2 *and some people enter to sites which are forbidden by Islam.*

5.1 *Any way internet is to be part of our life which we can't give up from it.*

SET 2

1.1 There are many types of invention in these time was come. 1.2 In that time for example a mobile, electronic post, face book, internet, etc.

2.1 Firstly of all a telephone. 2.2 There are many advantages and disadvantages of telephone disadvantages. 2.3 If you speak long time in telephone will make you a problem in your ears. 2.4 Advantage is solve the problem of communication face to face or go to some you want to see.

3.1 Internet is make link between people in far away place, and communicate to some body you want to other people 3.2 by this way the world is become like small village 3.3 and also other invention face book also is linking between people and chatting between them.

4.1 And new technology is help some people to work by internet for example electronic trading to sale to buy by net work and to make many things easily.

SET 3

1.1 Technology is progressing in some things like medicine, engineering and telecommunications.

2.1 Technology is began from nineteenth century. 2.2 It began by primary things. 2.3 For example, computer is invented in 1950 almost. 2.4 When it appeared it was a big and it's materials was very expensive. 2.5 In that time technology was not important for people, because they were not think about it. 2.6 But scientists work to discover anything but they were found some difficulties in discovering, new scientists were not find difficulties like in the past.

3.1 The most technological invention in the past twenty years I think was carrying computers (laptop). 3.2 The invention helped people in anything. 3.3 People can take it in any place.

4.1 Technology is very important in our language, because without it we cannot do anything, 4.2 it helps us in reading and discovering anything.

SET 4

1.1 Actually the most important technological invention before twenty years it is mobile to communicate people with them.

2.1 In the fact the invention of mobile it so important and help us to communicate with our friend for example when they are left away from us, 2.2 also invention of internet it is too amazing because let the world like small village or like a room 2.3 because we can make a link with any country we needed for example to chat with people who inside or outside our city, to give us more information about our knowledge, also to let people know another language, like English 2.4 also mobile or telephone this necessary now to everybody 2.5 now nobody can leave it, 2.6 also if we want to know more information about our town we can look for in internet. 2.7 In internet also we can find the social communicate situation, like facebook, twitter, youtube and so on.

3.1 Finally I think these they are important now and they are great invention 3.2 but if we not deal with them great they shall be bad things.

SET 5

1.1 Television is very important thing in your life because it many advantages and disadvantages.

2.1 Television is necessary and it invention before thirteen years. 2.2 In past don't know new's of world but now you know by television. 2.3 Disadvantages T.V take the time 2.4 and children take bad thing and good thing bad thing is a lot of good thing.

3.3 Television is nice and connect the world and know new agriculture 3.4 I believe anyone or any house without ……