

A LINGUISTIC AND TEXTUAL ANALYSIS OF ARAB FIRST LANGUAGE
SPEAKERS' ACADEMIC WRITING SKILLS IN ENGLISH IN CAPE TOWN



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A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Magister Artium in the

Department of Linguistics, University of the Western Cape

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DECLARATION

I declare that *A Linguistic and Textual Analysis of Arab First Language Speakers' academic writing in English in Cape Town* is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other University, and that all sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Abdalla Zbeida

November 2020



Signed.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read "Abdalla Zbeida".

ABSTRACT

Research on EFL students has received increased interest in recent years (Elachachi, 2015; Al-Zubaidi, 2012; Awad, 2012; Eldokali, 2007; Wahba, 1998). Although much research attention has focussed on the EFL classes and practices, very little research has focussed on the Arab students and the resources used for teaching them English abroad. In particular, the linguistic and cultural barriers Arab students face when seeking higher education in a foreign country, in this case South Africa, where they have minimal to no exposure to the language of instruction used by the host institution, have not received much attention. The study investigated the academic writing skills in English of Arab students and evaluated the efficacy of the EFL teaching materials used at selected English schools in Cape Town for those intending to study in South Africa. The researcher did a text-based analysis on written essays by the Arab students, using Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL) as a theoretical and analytical framework. The study also evaluated course books used by private language schools to teach EFL students in Cape Town. The textbooks were analysed by means of Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA, an offshoot of SFL to explore the different modes used in the teaching material as aspects of cultural social semiotics. It was found that the selected course books used in Cape Town language schools were focusing on teaching conversational English rather than written academic English, which was critical for essay writing required at tertiary level education. The essays showed that Arab students writing lacked in English academic writing conventions, and often resorted to adopting and adapted their first language style, which often led to unsatisfactory writing. Thus, it was concluded that the schools did not adequately prepare the students to face the academic requirements at institutions of higher learning. The study recommends a number of pedagogical measures on how to improve academic writing, as well as infusing Arabic cultural modes in the teaching material to contextualise learning and aid meaning making and consumption.

Keywords: Arab, EFL, ESL, SFL, cohesion, coherence, Multimodality, Cape Town language schools, Academic writing.

DEDICATION

To Allah Almighty for His grace upon me enabling me to complete this work

To my loving parents for everything they have done for me, for their sacrifices and continuous encouragement

To Reem for her care and support whenever I was in need

To my beloved sister and cousin for their support

Finally, to my country—my drive towards the need of education. May the wars perish, and life be finally restored



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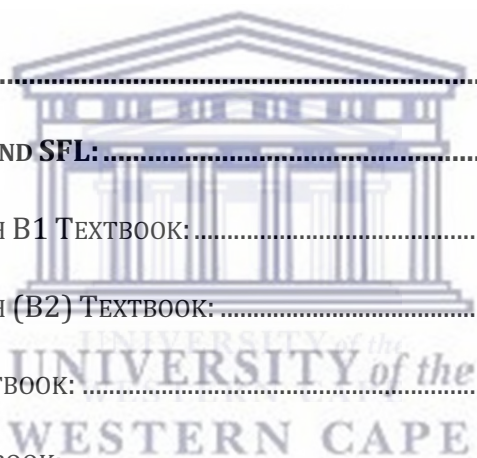
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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.0 Introduction and Background of the Study

English has increasingly become the language of the market and globalization as well as the language of the new world order (Banda, 2003; Fairclough, 2001). According to the British Council's press release (1995:12), "one out of five of the worlds' population speaks English to some level of competence. Demand from the other four-fifths is increasing". In addition, English is considered as the universal language of science and the common language of the world (Crystal, 2003). Therefore, the English language has become important either as a subject of study or as a medium of teaching and learning particularly at secondary school and tertiary levels of studies in many countries.

It is important to note that studying abroad is a phenomenon that is increasingly growing among Arab students. It does, however, carry challenges in the process. When students move to foreign countries in order to seek higher education, there is a question of whether or not they are familiar with the language(s) spoken in their host countries. This is even more of a concern when they have completed their primary, secondary and often part of their tertiary education in their home country and intend to further pursue their studies in a foreign country using a different language. The focus of this research will be on Arab students in South African language schools, who are intending to do their postgraduate studies in South African institutions where the language of instruction is English.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Although English is a compulsory subject throughout the secondary school and tertiary level studies in the majority of Arab countries, studies have shown that students from Arab countries (like other EFL/ESL countries) face challenges in learning in English (see, for example, Alharbi, 2015; Moores-Abdool, Yahya and Unzueta, 2009; Eldokali, 2007). Abu-Ras (2002:17) stated that

“after almost sixteen years of its application, the communicative ability of the Saudi students graduating from the secondary schools is still very poor”.

The majority of studies have focused on familiarity with grammatical rules and limited vocabularies. Although linguistic and vocabulary issues are important, there is a need for a more comprehensive account which includes these language-related concerns, cultural materialities in course books and other modes of interaction in host countries.

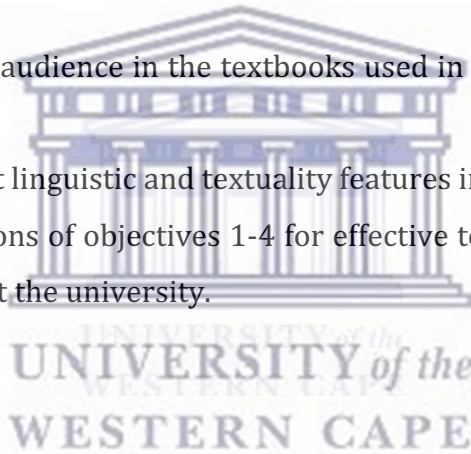
According to the general policy of different Arab universities, the Arabic language is commonly the only language of instruction. For example, the University of Tripoli (UOT) where a number of envisaged participants in this research received their undergraduate degrees, instructs in its policy that ‘The Arabic language is the language of instruction. However, it is allowed to use other languages in the lecture halls after obtaining a written permission from the general committee, if necessary.’ It is noteworthy that other Arab universities (in Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Jordan etc.) have an identical policy to the one UOT for language use in the university (Al-Seghayer, 2014). Arguably, such policies that strongly promote monolingualism ideology are likely to compel students to be proficient in Arabic language only and to undermine the importance of other languages.

Consequently, after coming to South Africa, students from Arab countries are compelled to enrol for private language schools, aimed to improve their proficiency in spoken and written English, before enrolling at any higher education institution, suggesting that there is recognition that such students are not equipped with the linguistic competence in language required at tertiary level in South Africa. However, the kinds, levels and quality of study in these schools and the limited time students dedicate to learn the language raise the question of whether or not these students are ready for the demands of postgraduate academic requirements. In addition, the type of English offered in the language schools needs to be evaluated for pertaining to how it assists students in their further academic studies. For this reason, the problem investigated in this study relates to the textbooks used by different language schools in Cape Town for different levels of study in terms of both content and usability. Thereafter, the researcher focused on cohesion and relevance of content in selected course books.

1.2 Research Aim and Objectives

The aim of the research is to examine the effectiveness of EFL teaching materials on Arab speaking students in preparing them for academic writing at prospective universities. This entails an evaluation of EFL teaching materials and essays by Arab students at selected English schools in Cape Town. The specific objectives are as follows:

1. To investigate the pedagogical implications of the linguistic features found in EFL teaching material (such as textbooks and visual teaching aids) used in the selected private language schools in Cape Town.
2. To analyse the effectiveness of the different modes used in the textbooks and visual teaching aids as a material culture for teaching and learning English in preparation for tertiary level studies.
3. To identify the targeted audience in the textbooks used in Cape Town private language schools.
4. To identify the dominant linguistic and textuality features in the students' written work.
5. To discuss the implications of objectives 1-4 for effective teaching and learning English for academic purposes at the university.



1.3 Research Questions

This study is guided by the following research questions:

1. Are the private language schools adequately preparing the learners for tertiary level academic studies using English as a medium of instruction?
2. What are the modes used in the textbooks for teaching English?
3. To what extent do EFL courses help Arab students cope with the English they will encounter at university?
4. What are the dominant linguistic features in Arab EFL learners' writing in terms of linguistic structure and textuality (cohesion), that is, to write meaningful sentences and paragraphs?
5. What are the cultures being focused on in the textbooks?

6. Considering the above questions: what are the pedagogical implications for effective teaching and learning English for academic purposes at university?

1.4 Methodology and Data Collection

The study uses a conceptual framework constructed from Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA). It is using the following data collection techniques:

Document analysis: This involves private schools' English textbooks and students' written texts. In the former, the focus is the content of the books to see how the books are helping the students' English skills. Thus, the study does a multimodal analysis of the modes used in the books and cultural relations if any, between the students and the modes used in the book.

The students were asked to write one to three paragraphs about their first day in Cape Town. The focus here is to determine the students' writing abilities and relevance of content in selected coursebooks. This is to decide whether or not the students are ready to fulfil the academic writing requirements. It is noteworthy that the participants for this task are from upper levels, more specifically, 'upper intermediate' and 'advanced' level. Furthermore, using the SFL theory as a framework is used to examine the dominant linguistic features in the written essays, subsequently, the data demonstrates how cohesive the learners' text.

Moreover, the above-mentioned tools help the study to apply a comprehensive linguistic and textual analysis of the written discourse of EFL Arab students. The textual analysis assists the study to look at what influence students' language literacy performance from a genre perspective, to see what genres the students are exposed to in learning English.

1.5 Rationale

Since, studying abroad is an increase phenomenon and English is the language of instruction in most universities abroad. Arab students are faced with different obstacles in terms of language due

to the fact they received their previous education in Arabic. Therefore, this looks into the textbooks used to teach Arab EFL learners. As well as the writing of the Arab students who received their English training in Cape Town private language schools. More specifically, the learners who are motivated to further their tertiary studies in South African institutions. Thus, it is very important to reflect on the design, content and visual presentation of the textbooks used in Cape Town private language schools.

1.6 Ethical Procedures

In any research, the researcher has to comply with the ethical principles to ensure both the success of the study and most importantly for the benefits of the participants. For this research, the researcher needed to obtain permission to access the Language schools and the participants in classrooms. Eisner (1991) urges that accessing schools cannot be taken for granted.

Therefore, the researcher firstly acquired permission from the target schools' management and explained the purpose of the study as well as the type of data needed to achieve it. Furthermore, the researcher handed consent forms to all the participants before collecting any data and individually explained the purpose of the research. The identities of the participants are protected by anonymity and by using fake names if necessary. The participants were advised that they were free to stop participation at any given time should it become necessary.

1.7 Chapter Outline

Chapter 1 introduced the research project. The chapter gave the background of the study and described the problem. The problem was identified as the problems Arab learners face when learning EFL in South African private language schools. As well as the cultural based multimodal presentation of TEFL textbooks in English teaching courses. The chapter also presented, research questions, aim and objectives as well as a brief introduction of the methodology.

Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature to the study which is: differences between EFL and ESL, Motivation in EFL and ESL context as well as the dynamics of teaching language. The chapter further focuses on Academic writing and competence. The chapter ends with review of literature related to books analysis and students' needs.

Chapter 3 focuses on the Analytical and Theoretical Framework. The chapter introduces Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL) and Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA) which form the analytical and conceptual framework used in this research. The chapter explains how the theories are used to analyse the students written text and the textbooks used to teach English to the Arab EFL learners.

Chapter 4 elaborates on the research methodology that underpins the research project.

Chapters 5 and 6 discuss the findings of the study. Chapter 5 shows the process of the students text analysis. Thus, the focus is on coherence, cohesion and thematic analysis. Hence, the chapter provides an analysis and discussion of the EFL Arab students written texts. As for Chapter 6, it discusses the results found in the textbooks used in the private language schools. This chapter provides analysis of the textbooks used in language schools to teach Arab EFL students. Thus, in this chapter the researcher will analyse the textbooks' content as well as the multimodal display in the textbooks. Hence, throughout the analysis, the chapter elaborates on the modes used in the textbooks and their cultural value towards a certain group and whether it matches or mismatches the Arab EFL learners' culture.

Chapter 7 presents the general conclusion and discusses the recommendations of the study.

The following chapter reviewed the relevant literature to the study.

1.8 Summary

This chapter explained the motivation of the study and gave the background to the problem regarding the Arab students' English literacy, as well as their linguistic practices in and outside their countries. The aim was to see the previous exposure students' had to English language before coming to Cape Town, South Africa, as well as to show that the language is being taught in an

EFL context rather than an ESL. Moreover, the chapter illustrated the linguistic challenges students' face when moving to English-speaking institutions, despite being taught English throughout their secondary and tertiary levels of studies.

Using SFL and MDA as a theoretical and analytical frameworks, the study is analysing English language textbooks used in Cape Town selected private language schools. The study is set to see students' writing to contrast the expectations of at each level of study with the actual outcome in students' English academic writing; in addition, the study is set to study the multimodal representation of selected textbooks used to teach Arab EFL learners.



Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

The chapter first reviews the literature on ESL/EFL teaching, focusing on the Arab countries. Furthermore, the chapter will review the dynamics of teaching a language by providing a brief review on the literature done on this topic. The chapter will further review the direct relation between language and culture, and therefore language learning processes. This will be followed by reviews of the literature done on materials used in EFL/ESL classes. This is then followed by a review of literature relating to systemic functional linguistics (SF) and its offshoot, multimodal discourse analysis (MDA), as theoretical and analytical frameworks.

2.1 The Differences between EFL and ESL

Techniques for teaching new languages vary depending on the use of language in the space it is taught in. Whether the language is considered a foreign or a second language can determine the methods used to teach it (Mpepo, 1990; Bell, 2011; Vijaylakshmi, Kothari and Choudhary, 2016). Scholars attempted to differentiate the concept of second language (SL) from foreign language (FL). Oxford (2003:1) stated that “second language is a language studied in a setting where that language is the main vehicle of everyday communication and where abundant input exists in the language.” A foreign language is a language studied in an environment where it is not used as the medium of daily interactions and where the use of that language is restricted. In other words, the foreign language is taught in areas where it is not generally spoken or used in the common settings. A second language is commonly used in the countries it is taught.

Mpepo (1990:232) states:

an ESL (English as a Second Language) situation is where the language is widely used in a traditionally non-native environment between most traditionally non-native speakers. Doubtless, the teaching approach emphasizes intelligibility which is different from an EFL (English as a Foreign Language) situation in which the use of the language is with native speakers or speakers from outside the country. The teaching

approach, in this case [EFL], aims to teach learners to produce the sound, syntax, and conversation patterns of British, American or any English associated with a country where English is traditionally spoken as a native language.

Moreover, the teaching techniques, materials and methodology of English as a foreign language are entirely different from the ones used to teach English as a second language. However, Mpepo (1998) argues that differentiating between EFL and ESL is not observed or understood in the English language industry and in Applied Linguistics.

In terms of content, Richards (1972:182) states that the difference between EFL and ESL is that, in EFL contexts, all changes from the classical English are considered *mistakes*. Mpepo (1998:84) considers Richards' observation as the main difference between ESL and EFL environments, and that supports his argument that the “descriptions of the target language must take into account the difference arising from the distinction between the two situations”.

According to Mpepo (1998), due to the desire for metropolitan English-speaking countries such as the United States and England, teachers tend to overlook the ways societies affect the language. In this regard, the distinction between EFL and ESL becomes a priority to the techniques and materials used to teach the language. However, in the language teaching and learning industry the term *English as a foreign language* (EFL) has been replaced by the term *English as a second language* (ESL). Different textbooks claim to be constructed in a manner which deals with ESL, where in reality they are used in an EFL context. Mpepo (1998:84) further states that linguists such as Van Lier (1988), Lantoff and Labarca (1987) and others mistakenly used the term *English as a second language* when they were dealing with *English as a foreign language*, as discussed above. Van Lier (1988) referred to his book *The classroom and the language learner* as a book about “second language L2 classroom research”. However, a close look at the situations in the book showed that it is not dealing with ESL situations in any way but dealing with EFL, as discussed above. As for Lantoff and Labarca (1987), their book *Research in Second Language Learning* is a collection of articles that deals with inter alia, Arabic, Malay, Korean, Vietnamese, Chinese, Greek, and Spanish learners of English. None of the learners the articles referred to can be considered as second-language learners.

As mentioned elsewhere, due to the lack of daily practice and the role of English in their countries, most of the literature done on the Arab speakers show that the process of teaching and learning English is described as EFL rather than ESL (Rabab'ah, 2003; Mahboob and Elyas, 2014; Alrabai, 2014; Ahmed, 2010; Fareh, 2010; Moores-Abdool, Yahya and Unzueta, 2009; Eldokali, 2007; Abdulhag, 1982). However, in the South African context, English is approached as a *second language*. It can be argued that the language schools' unawareness of the EFL Arab students' previous learning experiences is problematic. Furthermore, the shift from EFL classes to the ESL classes has an impact on the linguistic performance of the Arab learners. As mentioned earlier, this study is concerned with the material as well as the student's performance after going through the language schools in Cape Town.

2.2 Motivation in EFL and ESL Context

Scholars such as Hamad (2103), Al-Seghayer (2014), Mahboob and Elyas (2014), Alrabai (2014) and Alrashidi and Phan (2015) revealed that Arab students are not intrinsically motivated, and they lack language skills to express themselves in the classroom.

Aside from the techniques, the motivation of learners of English differs from an EFL context to an ESL context (Li, 2014; Au, 1988; Chihara and Oller, 1978; Dörnyei, 1990; Ellis, 1994; Oller, 1978, 1981; Oxford, 1996; Oxford and Shearin, 1994; Schmidt, Borai, and Kassabgy, 1996). Attitude and aptitude are believed to be essential factors in the process of second and foreign language learning. In other words, attitude is often tied to the process of language acquisition, as it can affect the process in a positive or negative manner. Dörnyei (1998) describes motivation as the factor that determines the human behaviour; by energizing and dictating it moves. Hence, in the context of language learning, motivation is the drive and reasons learners have for learning a new language.

The interest in second-language acquisition became an important topic after Gardner and Lambert (1972) published results of their more than ten-year-long research programme. The results indicated that learning language is dependent upon the learner's 'affective predisposition' towards the target linguistic-cultural group. Later on, Gardner, Smythe, Clément and Glikman (1976:199) conceptualized *integrativeness motivation*, which reflects "a high level of drive on the part of the individual to acquire the language of a valued second-language community in order to facilitate

communication with that group”. Integrativeness motivation involves components such as the desire to learn the target language, curiosity in foreign languages and community, the attitudes toward learning the target language, and the learning situation and the target language community (Gardner, 1982).

According to Oxford (1996:2), the desire for learning a new language for the cultural/linguistic integration purpose is “found on all levels within this social psychological construct of language learning motivation”. She offered three levels of motivation; the first level is found ‘integrative orientation’. Integrative reasons include: the learners’ desire for cultural integration (the culture attached to the target language) or linguistic integration. At the second level is found “integrativeness and attitudes toward the L2 learning situations”. The attitudinal factors are the learner’s attitudes and interest toward the foreign language and the target. The third level is the “tripartite group consisting of: effort, desire to learn language, and attitude toward learning the language”. Thus, understanding motivation is essential to the learning and teaching language process.

Attitude and aptitude are believed to be fundamental factors in the process of second and foreign language learning. In other words, attitude is often tied to the process of language acquisition, as it can affect the process in a positive or negative manner, depending of the learner and the teacher’s attitude. Krashen (1981:21) notes that ‘attitude’ motivates intake for language acquisition and allows the “performer to utilize the language heard for acquisition.”

However, integrativeness motivation is different from the *instrumental motivation*, in which the learner is interested in learning a foreign language for the pragmatic benefits of the target language such as more job opportunities or pursuing higher education and status that comes with that.

Clément and Kruidenier (1983) in response to the conflicted results in the research done by Gardner and Lambert (1972), asked whether motivation differs between learners in a foreign language and second language context. Clément and Kruidenier (1983) suggested that the lack of understanding the students’ linguistics milieu and the impact it has on the learners’ motivation is the reason for the inconsistency of the results. They further argued that the orientations were largely determined by “who learns what in what milieu” (Clément and Kruidenier, 1983:288).

Dörnyei (1990) assumed that Gardner and Lambert's findings were not obtained from a typical foreign language context, but from a second language context. Dörnyei conducted a study in Hungary, which is according to him considered a typical foreign language-learning environment, to support his views.

The arguments reviewed above indicate the importance and the role different types of motivation play in the process of language learning. The findings highlight the fact the motivations are considered as a "function of the environment in which learning takes place." Therefore, it can be argued that the understanding of the differences between the environments (EFL and ESL) would help the teachers and the learners to utilise the different motivations learners have.

In the following section, the researcher will review some of the literature done on the Arab EFL classes and practices in and outside their countries.

2.3 EFL Classroom Practices and Culture

The differences between the learner's culture and the English language speaking countries can cause challenges in the EFL process. Elachachi (2015) explains how different cultures incorporate in the challenges faced by language learners, especially if the cultures are too distant, for example, in the case of English for the Arab students.

Samovar (1981:24) highlights that:

Culture and communication are inseparable because culture not only dictates who talks to whom, about what, and how the communication proceeds, it also helps to determine how people encode messages, the meanings they have for messages, and the conditions and circumstances under which various messages may or may not be sent, noticed, or interpreted... Culture...is the foundation of communication.

Kaplan (1983:150) explains the interventions of the L1 cultural features in FL writing: “the non-native speaker brings with him/ her the alternatives available in the L1 and applies those alternatives in the L2, thereby creating a tension between the apparent relationship of ideas to topic and the possibly inappropriate realisation of focus through intersentential Syntax.”

Al-Zubaidi (2012:48) agrees with the implications of cultural differences. He indicates in his observation that Arab students reflect the different academic culture and their different thought patterns in their written and oral activities in the classroom. He further notes that “English courses for postgraduate students designed for Western students may not be adequately supporting the needs of Arab students.” Elachachi (2015:134) further adds that “many Arab EFL students do not recognize that the English style is very direct and very narrow in comparison to the Arabic style which admires the beauty of the language as much as the message using allusion, analogy, proverbs and figures of speech.”

Researchers such as Rabab’ah (2003), Mahboob and Elyas (2014), and Alrabai (2014) argues that one of the main factors that cause low level of English among Arab students is the lack of English language exposure. Thus, teaching English should involve real-life situation and tasks which allow students to experience language practices.

After classroom observations, Eldokali (2007:27) concluded that EFL learners in communicative classes were more successful than those who received their instruction based solely on structure. He further notes that the Libyan (Arab speaking) government changed their old books “that focused on both form and meaning in the preparatory and secondary schools” to books that focus rather on communication skills which allows the class to form communicative events, in addition to knowledge of grammatical rules. Therefore, he argues that teachers should be aware of the student’s cultural and academic background in order to create the ideal communicative events in the classroom.

Byram and Hu (2012:2) highlight the effect of culture on the learners’ attitudes, which subsequently affect the level of linguistic proficiency of EFL students. They based their argument on Schuman’s (1976) Acculturation theory, which explained the elements of the adult second language acquisition. The Acculturation theory suggests that the process of learning L2 depends

on the students' ability to adopt the target language community's culture. In other words, *the attitude of the learner to the target social group* in terms of culture is seen as a key factor (prime element) in the learning process. For many scholars, the Acculturation theory explains the individual differences in acquiring a new language. Thus, if the student is not comfortable with the host culture's norms, his language skills will fossilise because of not practising the linguistic skills.

2.4 Dynamics of Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Techniques for teaching new languages vary depending on the use of language in the space it is taught in. Whether the language is considered a foreign or a second language can determine the methods used for teaching it. A second language (SL) is defined as “a language studied in a setting where that language is the main vehicle of everyday communication and where abundant input exists in the language.” A foreign language (FL) is defined as “a language studied in an environment where it is not the primary vehicle for daily interactions and where input in that language is restricted” (Oxford, 2003:1). In other words, the foreign language is taught and often used in areas where it is not generally spoken. The second language is commonly used in the area it is taught in.

It is essential that one should establish what constitutes English language competence by drawing on the techniques used in teaching a foreign language. Savignon (1985:130) explains communicative competence as “the ability to function in a truly communicative setting - that is a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total information input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors”. Savignon (1983:8-9) characterizes communication as dynamic rather than static process, as it involves negotiating meaning between two or more people who share the same symbolic system, and the social nature of communicative competence.

Krashen (1981) claims that the second and the foreign language is taught through a process of unconsciously using the language, rather than a process that is directly learnt in class. Teachers, therefore, are asked to create settings in which students are able to acquire the English language ‘unconsciously’ through using it in the structure's setting — using the language in activities will allow the process of ‘acquisition’ to naturally occur. Krashen (1981) further describes the type of

acquisition ‘input’ the students receive. The input must be understandable, above the learner’s level of competence, not grammatically sequenced, and it should be practised in a low-anxiety context.

In addition, lack of exposure to English in daily life is regarded as a language barrier which limits Arab students’ ability to reach high level of English proficiency (Khan, 2011 and Alrashidi1 and Phan 2015). Jdetawy (2011), Mourtaga (2011), and Alhaisoni and Rahman (2013) highlights the Arab learners’ problems in speaking English because of the lack of exposer to the target language as well as their preference to use Arabic as a formal and informal language of communication.

2.5 Academic Writing and Grammatical Competence.

The ability to write intelligible academic text is not a naturally acquired skill, but is culturally transmitted as an asset of practices or formally learned in schools (Banda, 2003). The process of writing involves composing, conducting research, writing drafts, editing and writing the final draft (Omaggio, 1993), and it can only be taught in a school situation.

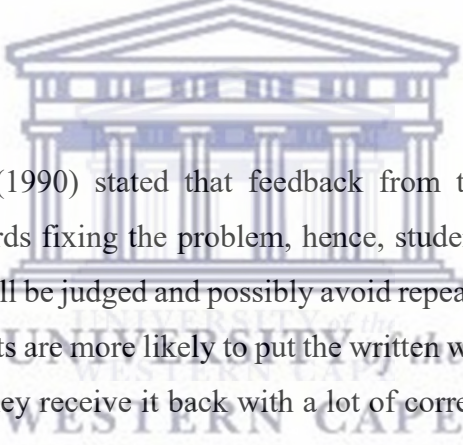
Jhons (1997) discovered that non-native speaking graduates and non-graduate students, after years of ESL training, often make errors and fail to recognize the appropriate use of features of the academic writing prose. Different researchers and scholars pinpointed that the academic writing of even advanced students exhibited different problems and is almost impossible to reach 100 per cent accuracy (See Baleghizadeh and Gordani, 2012; Hinkel, 2002; Johns, 1997; Jordan, 1997; Leki and Carson, 1997; Prior, 1998).

Alam’s (1993) found that Kuwaiti students use Arabic in all writing stages, especially at the vocabulary level. Fageeh (2004) noted that the Saudi Arabian students resort to Arabic in text developing process, hence, they plan the text and ideas in Arabic before translating it to English. Furthermore, Al- Humaidi’s (2008) study found that pre-writing planning helped Saudi students produce more text and express more ideas than the within-task planning.

The accurate application of grammatical rules is a main aspect of any written text. According to James (1998), error is defined as an occurrence of language that is unintentionally deviant. Errors can be categorized as grammatical errors which refer to well formedness of written language and

the deviation from the grammatical rules (Corder, 1971). Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) state that errors happen when non-linguistic factors militate against the use of form in a sentence. Therefore, the acceptance of a sentence is dependent on the correct use of grammatical structure, and the use of the sentence in the correct context (Lyon, 1977).

Brown (1994) associates errors with the inability to self-correct the error and the failure to utilize a known system correctly. However, errors can be corrected if the learners are given relevant input, which means that the learners need further instruction before they can self-correct the errors they make (James, 1998; Tshotsho, 2006). Tshotsho (2006) argues that teachers are more focused on correcting students' errors than finding solutions for the problems. Different scholars' findings indicate that error correction is ineffective in changing language behaviours (See Creber, 1983; Van der Walt, 1994).



On the other hand, Hyland (1990) stated that feedback from the instructor is essential and considered the first step towards fixing the problem, hence, students will be able to identify the criteria by which their work will be judged and possibly avoid repeating the error again. According to Tshotsho (2006), the students are more likely to put the written work away and hope for less red marks in the next one when they receive it back with a lot of corrections. The overuse of red ink and writing the correct answers can discourage the students and affect negatively on the learners' attitudes. Van der Walt (1994) stresses the importance of determining when and how much correction is needed for L2 students to improve their grammatical competence. Hendrickson (1980) and Merino (1989) state that moderate selective marking is helpful to the EFL students and will assist their improvements in their grammatical competence. They further argue that teachers should not correct all the errors that are done by the student and they should give the student a chance to appraise their own performance.

Al-Humaidi, (2008) notes that Arab EFL learners employ writing self-regulation processes effectively. Some similarities were also revealed between Gulf students' Arabic and English composing and revising processes (Al-Semari, 1994; Alhaysony, 2008; Alnofal, 2004;

Alsamadani, 2010), though Saudi students tended to make more formal, grammatical, mechanical, reorganization and deletion revisions when writing in English than in Arabic (Al-Semari, 1994).

However, to be able to self-evaluate and to appraise and judge their own writing, students need to be provided with the correct linguistic tools and grammatical rules that would allow them to edit errors. Leki and Carson (1997) emphasized that students should be taught the linguistic and writing skills that will enable them to engage and make sense of the new information in ESL and EAP programmes. It was previously mentioned in this section that teachers often focus on correcting students' errors, however, they sometimes are not very clear and further confuse the students. Fanselow (1977) noted that instructors provide correct models after correct and incorrect students' use of language. In that case, the students might not be able to recognize when they are being corrected. Furthermore, Fanselow (1977) stressed the importance of properly locating the correction in an explicit written form, which offers the student more time to think than when giving oral corrections.

As mentioned earlier in this section, error correction is an important process in avoiding errors for L2 learners, if it was systemic and properly utilized. Long (1977) mentioned that some forms of feedback are not as vital as we consider them to be, and further argues that corrections are a necessary condition for second language learning. Furthermore, Krashen and Seliger (1975) argue that adult second language proficiency can only be improved when errors are corrected and rules are taught in formal instruction. Hendrickson (1978) supports this view by saying that the frequent stigmatized errors which 'inhibit comprehension', should be corrected.

The different opinions with regard to errors correction show that scholars do not agree on the matter when errors are to be corrected and when not. However, they all agree that some errors should be tolerated and sometimes overlooked at different stages of language learning (Chaudron, 1977; Hendrickson, 1978), precisely errors that do not mess with coherence and cohesion. However, they noted that errors that affect coherence and cohesion need to be corrected and pointed out to the learners.

2.6 Books and Materials Analysis

As mentioned in chapter one, this research is interested in the role that textbooks play in teaching language to Arab learners. Therefore, it is important to review the literature done with regards to structuring the books used and the possible ways to analyse them, to review the literature done on the students' needs in terms of culture, and whether or not textbooks answer those needs.

Risager (2006:161) introduced the term 'thematic content', which refers to the "cultural and societal relations represented by text and their content". Boriboon (2008) argues that when dealing with the thematic content of ELT textbooks, it is important to take into consideration the relationship between the English language and its culture, which can be observed in the content, and that this relationship cannot be avoided. Boriboon further noted that language and culture are inseparable in the discourse of language teaching pedagogy. This leads to the belief that it is vital to learn about native speakers' cultures in order to reach an advanced level of competence in English. Although this view of language is still accepted, Boriboon (2008:93) believes that it "is not really useful so far as the thematic content in materials for discursive practices in the globalisation era is concerned."

Different scholars have addressed the direct relation between language and culture (see the summaries in Byram and Grundy, 2003; Hinkel, 1999). They mostly viewed the target language to be in a tight relationship with the culture of the countries associated with that language. Risager (2006:169) stated that "since the process of nationalisation in the last decades of the 19th century, foreign-language teaching has to a great extent focused on texts and themes about the target-language countries — and probably still does so around the world." Boriboon (2008) further claimed that ELT materials have discarded the traditional view of language-culture relationship for the past decade.

Basabe (2006) analysed ELT textbooks imported from the United Kingdom to Argentina, set of locally produced books, and another set of adopted books. Some of the materials attempted to reduce culture to everything referred to in one geographical boundary, features of a nation which are distinct, static, invariable, and mutually accepted behavioural rules and norms.

The understanding of culture has become more complex and difficult, due to the interference of globalization and the increase of human contact. Boriboon (2008) suggests that the relationship between language and culture needs to be reconceptualised by addressing as closely as possible their global and local connections, based on the shift in the understanding of culture. Furthermore, the reformulation should aim to assist in pedagogical practices genuinely, instead of serving political orientations.

Williams (1983:251) contends that textbooks are never ‘perfect’. Hence, the textbooks should be prepared and used cautiously since it will never meet the full requirements of every classroom setting. The full requirement should involve both what the student needs, and what the student desires. Munby (1987) introduced the concept “needs analysis” in teaching English for specific purposes (TESP). The phrase ‘needs analysis’ refers to the process of highlighting the “requirements of the students or any other relevant parties” in EFL classes (Aftab, Sheikh and William, 2014).

Munby (1987) mainly focused on the objectives of the language learners and their future language ‘needs’. In other words, he focused rather on the students’ reasons for learning the language rather than the teachers’ / schools’ expectations, as well as the students’ further requirements with regards to language. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) further explained the concept ‘needs’; they argue that it refers back to the students’ requirements in relation to the “target needs” and the learners’ “learning needs”. However, scholars like Nunan (1988), Graves (2000), and Bodegas (2007) contend that needs analysis should not be dependent only on the ‘target needs’ and ‘learning needs’; it should be based on the learners’ ‘subjective needs’, which includes the students’ preferences and desires (Aftab, Sheikh and William, 2014).

Different scholars have offered methods to help the teachers’ approach to become more systematic (Hutchinson and Waters 1987; Sheldon, 1988; Skierso, 1991; Tomlinson, 2003, 2011, 2008; McGrath, 2002). However, McGrath (2002:199) argues that the process of evaluating the materials uses some simplistic criteria like “appropriateness of grammar presentation” and “popularity”, yet they are ignoring the perspective of the main people targeted by these books, the students, whose opinions should be given more agency. Furthermore, Aftab, Sheikh and William (2014:145) argue that teachers should be granted the option of evaluating and assigning materials based on their own

needs in their teaching situation. They further highlighted the importance of matching the textbooks with the needs of the students, and with the preference of the students, as the previously argued.

In their presentation of how the textbook should be evaluated, Dubin and Olshtain (1986) debate that the developers often focus on a set of language skills at the expense of others and that can be comprehended from the used materials. Thus, it is crucial for the language schools to consider the students' goals and reasons why they are learning the language. It can be considered as a "serious drawback of the textbook" (Aftab, Sheikh and William, 2014:145).

Dubin and Olshtain (1986) presented 'societal' factors that should be investigated before constructing textbooks and other classroom material. In the diagram below, the four categories are: the language setting; patterns of language use in society; political and national context; and group and individual attitudes (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986:6-13).

The above-mentioned categories ask the following questions:

- Who are the learners?
- Who are the teachers?
- Why is the program necessary?
- Where will the program be implemented?
- How will it be implemented?

One can conclude that scholars' recommendations and designs relate directly to the students and to their background. In other words, gathering subjective information about the intended learners of the course is prioritised, and considered as a main element to increase the efficiency of the books and the materials used in teaching. For that, this research intends to evaluate the books and the materials used in the target language schools and compare it to, firstly, the Arab students' requirements, and secondly, to the students' linguistic outcome.

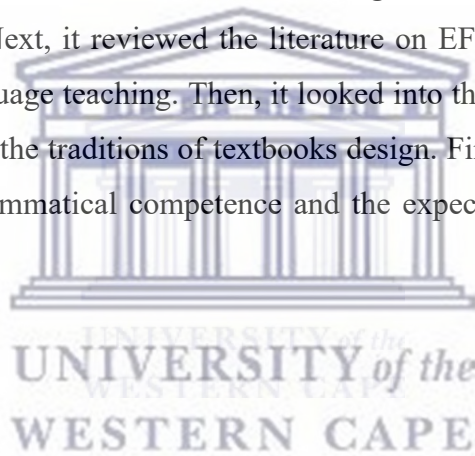
Mohammad's (2008) study indicates that an alternative approach to teaching writing in Kuwaiti first grade classrooms may be more appropriate and more effective in the current curriculum

context. Likewise, Obaid (2009) found that the Business English writing program at the University of Bahrain ought to be improved and updated to meet the demands of workplace writing through conducting a systematic needs analysis.

As the review reveals, experts are asking for a great deal from the materials used in the classroom. Although the awareness of this issue is crucial for enhancing the ability to choose suitable materials. Another important fact that is highlighted by this review, is the importance and the significance of the students' voices in choosing the materials to be used in the classroom, based on the learners' reasons of learning, cultural preference, or other reasons.

2.7 Summary

This chapter discussed the literature done on differentiating between ESL and EFL and language teaching for Arab learners. Next, it reviewed the literature on EFL classroom practices and the importance of culture to language teaching. Then, it looked into the literature done on books and materials analysis, as well as the traditions of textbooks design. Finally, it reviewed studies done on academic writing and grammatical competence and the expectations of Academia from the students.



Chapter 3: Theoretical and Analytical Framework

3.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature on the theoretical and analytical frameworks as informed by the work in SFL and MDA in relations with language teaching (Martin, 1992; Halliday, 1978, 1994; Eggins, 1994, 2004; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004) and MDA by works such as Jewitt (2009), Archer (2015), Kress (2010) and Kress and van Leeuwen (2006). SFL is used to analyse students' written essays, while MDA will be used to analyse selected textbooks from Cape Town English language schools.

3.1 Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL)

Systemic Functional Linguistic theory views language as a social semiotic recourse for making meaning and forming knowledge within social contexts (Halliday, 1978; 1985). Halliday considers the value of a theory is in the use in which that theory can be made. According to Halliday (1985:7), the theory of language is “essentially consumer oriented.” Therefore, language cannot be studied away from meaning. Furthermore, language in the SFL theory is viewed in its social contexts, as an instrument and a tool of social interactions, rather than the traditional view as a formal, cognitive system which can be disconnected from the social context (cf. Christie, 1997, 2002, 2005).

Halliday (1994) developed a detailed functional grammar of language, in which he shows how the ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions, are expressed in the clause structure. In other words, unlike Chomsky who focuses mainly in linguistic competence by approaching grammar from a mentalist perspective, Halliday's interest lies on the pragmatic competence — knowing how to use language in achieving certain communicative goals by approaching it from a semiotic/meaning perspective. Tshotsho (2006:51) notes that SFL theory is a “useful descriptive and interpretive framework for viewing language as a strategic meaning making resource.” Hence, SFL theory describes and models language in functional rather than formal terms. By that it means language is interpreted as a resource for meaning making, and descriptions are based on extensive analyses of different discourses (Halliday, 1994).

According to Eggins's (2004), SFL theory helps us to analyse and explain the way meanings are constructed in daily semiotic interactions. The daily involvement of semiotic resources, particularly, language in all of our activities, and the constant requirement to react and produce bits of language that make sense has raised a necessity for a tool to analyse the texts produced. Therefore, language in SFL theory is seen as an intertwined collection of systems realizing a profound semantic structure and functional intention, but not as a collection of discrete phrase production rules that functions upon deeper syntactic structure (Eldokali, 2007).

SFL focuses on descriptive approach to language rather than the prescriptive one. Christie (2002:2) states that the "Systemic functional descriptions of language are not lists of rules based on what powerful social groups prescribe as 'correct' usage or on what language structures it is neurologically possible to produce. It aims to describe 'meaning potential'- the linguistic options or choices that are available to construct meanings in particular contexts."

According to Christie (2002), the description of the systems of language must be related to the description of the social context that is built on the description. SFL proposes that the meaning-making systems of language are based on how people use the language in various social contexts. Systemic Functional Linguistics theory suggests that whenever the language is used in communicative events, the speaker is making meanings by taking choices, of which the user forms the meaning. These meaningful choices are uttered through choices from within the systems of formal linguistic features are made accessible by the language. However, two factors constrain the choices user makes. The first one is that meaning is assembled within a context, and the context limits the range of chosen meanings. The second is that not everyone within a culture has access to all the possible contexts, and all the possible ways of writing or speaking (Christie, 2002). SFL states that text and context are closely related, as the text is known because of the context that makes it pertinent. Context is realized because the text gives it life, and the text is known because context makes it relevant (Christie, 2005).

SFL framework has three paradigms or metafunctional organization of language: language as a system, the relationship of language as text and context. That makes SFL a very useful descriptive and interpretive framework for dealing with language. Halliday (1994) analyses lexicogrammar into three metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal, and textual. Each of these metafunctions is concerned with different mode of meaning of clauses and show how meanings are expressed in a

clause structure, and also how language is used in social interactions. In the following section, an introduction of these metafunctions is given.

3.2 Metafunctions

The ideational metafunction relates to aspects of language involved in the representing of experiences. That is, the relationship between participants, processes and circumstances are crucial features in this metafunction. The ideational has two metafunction types: the experiential and logical. The resources of transitivity and of lexis are concerned with representing experiences. The logical metafunction is involved in building connectedness between the meanings of clauses (Christie, 2002). Such connectedness is realized in those grammar which are involved in two different sets of relationship. Those to do with interdependency or 'taxis' between clauses and those to do with logico-semantic relationship between clauses brought about by expansion or projection (Halliday, 1994; Christie, 2002). The interpersonal metafunction refers to the grammatical resources in which the relationship of interlocutors is realized. Christie (2002) notes that people use the language as a two-way process of exchanging meanings. Hence, it is not only used to tell people things, rather language serves different purposes, that is, to express feelings, to give and receive new information or to change how people think of something or think about it and so on. The third is the textual metafunction. It refers to those aspects of grammar that relate texts together to form the message. The resources of theme, information, cohesion and coherence are involved in the textual metafunction. Therefore, the textual metafunction is critical in analysing cohesion in academic writing of students involved in this study.

The textual metafunction allows speakers to produce texts that are understood by readers (Fowler, 1991; Fairclough, 1995). Language connects discourse to the co-text and context it happens in. According to Fowler (1979), the choices made by speakers with regard to vocabulary and grammar are consciously principled and systemic.

When analysing a text from a grammatical perspective, the aim is to track the manifestation of ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions that are found in the discourse. Furthermore, the analysis aims to interpret the meaning in the organization of the text which is constituted by the clauses. This indicates that the model of grammar is text or discourse driven (Christi, 2002).

Systemic Functional Linguistics is interested in the way people use language in their everyday interactions (Eggins, 2004). Linguists claim that main purpose of language is to make and deliver meaning, which is influenced by social and cultural context in which they occur. Making use of language for meaning purposes will involve more than the moves, text and context. Therefore, text carries context with it (Eggins, 2004; Tshotsho, 2006). From that comes the increased interest of the relationship between language and context.

The ability to derive the context from the text and predicting the language from the context is due to the interrelated relation between the language and context. According to Eggins (2004), we will not be able to tell how people are using language without looking at the context of use. Eggins further states that as soon as text is taken out of context, it will lose part of its meaning and becomes obscured. Context is divided into genre, register and ideology.

3.2.1 Context: Register and Genre

SFL has different distinctive features. One of the features is the relationship of text and context. Context refers to the situation surrounding the text. It was previously mentioned that text and context are interrelated. A context is known because text adds life to it. Where text is known because the context makes it relevant (Christie, 2005). The choices made by language users to any context are called choices of register. This elaborates the different use of language from written to spoken. Genre on the other hand refers to the followed stages when language is used to achieve a certain aim. The genre theory is used to explain the organization of text.

The realization of the contextual dimensions which enables a summarized register description, that realization gathered from the detailed analysis of a text. The register description of a text is dependent on the lexico-grammatical and cohesion evidence. In this study, this allows us to identify similarities and differences between the text and contextual level, and hence to determine the logical construction of the essays.

Halliday (1987, 1985) suggested that the most important aspects of any context are: field, mode and tenor. Eggins (2004:90) glossed the three aspects as follows: Field represents “what language

is being used to talk about”, mode stands for the “role language is playing in the interaction”, as for tenor it is used to describe “the role relationships between the interactants.” Halliday claims that all things occurring in the context when language is used, only these three matter and have a significant impact on the type of language will be used.

Furthermore, text can share a field. The way text approaches and constructs the field can be differentiated using linguistics analysis. Hence, field focuses on the activity while some text is written for experts and some for beginners. The situation can be either technical or every day in the construction of an activity. The technical situation is characterized by assumed knowledge among the interactions. Tshotsho (2006:55) states that knowledge that constitutes a field can be presented in taxonomies. When classifying the “taxonomies one can find differences between depth and complexity of a text.” (p. 55). Language in an everyday field is more familiar, where everything is standard in terms of grammar and syntax. On the other hand, technical language is words only insiders can comprehend (Egins, 2004). Egins (2004) has argued that it is important to distinguish between spoken and written language in terms of degree of formality. In the spoken discourse, the language used is usually informal and both parties are speaking and getting feedback at the same time, also, what will be said is not rehearsed. On the other hand, the writing process is rehearsed through writing drafts, editing, rewriting and writing the final draft. Although, there is no visual contact with the intended audience, language is used to deal with certain topics.

Tenor refers to “the role relationships between the interactants” (Egins, 2004:90). Hence, it is associated with who is taking part, the speech roles and the nature of participants, as well as relationships they make. In tenor, the social role has an effect on the language used in terms of vocabulary choice which determines the level of formality, politeness, and reciprocity (Tshotsho, 2006). Thus, in the informal domains we tend to use slang and choose abbreviated form of vocabularies. On the other hand, in the formal situation we tend to use complete phrases and sentences that are polite and employing the conventional grammatical patterns. The argument is that academic writing is a distinct genre, whose patterns and delivery have to be adhered to for one to be successful in school, and in this case at university level.

3.3 Text Analysis

Halliday and Hassan (1976, 1985) define text as any written or spoken passage that refers to a meaningful whole. Text is also, a meaningful passage of language that hangs together as a unit. Texture is a tool used to distinguish between text and non-text, which holds the clauses of a text together to make them one meaningful unit. Furthermore, resources in the textual metafunction enable a clause to be assessed as a message related to other clauses and the context of a discourse. Texture involves both coherence and cohesion in interaction. The coherence is the relationship between the text and the extra-textual context, and the cohesion interaction is the way elements of a text connect it together forming a meaningful piece.

In order to produce a meaningful text, words must hang together in one unit. Lexico-grammatical structures are responsible for putting the words together to deliver meanings. Lexico-grammatical structures refer to the sequenced arrangement of words and structures. The clause is the crucial unit of lexico-grammatical structures. Text is formed by a number of clauses forming sentences which constitutes the text (Eggins, 2004). How students assemble different clauses to form meaningful sentences is very critical to the evaluation of their essay writing. Thus, text is considered meaningful is the semantic unit hangs together and it has clauses that have contextual properties (Halliday and Hassan, 1976). Cohesion is an important feature of any text. According to Halliday and Hassan (1976), cohesion is considered as the link between the sentences and the clauses in the discourse. Tshotsho (2006:58) adds that cohesion “occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse are dependent on that of another.” In addition, the feature that link sentences and clauses includes base forms of conjunction, defined as “the process of combining two constituents of the same type to produce another, larger constituent of the same type” (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman 1999:461). Pronominalization (which refers to words in their pronoun-form) and ellipsis (which refers to the omission of clauses, phrases and words that can be recovered from the context or elsewhere in the text) are critical components of cohesion. Therefore, the absence of coherence (semantic ties) between elements creates confusion within the discourse and prevents the text from hanging together as a unit (Eggins, 2004).

3.4 Theme and Rheme

Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) define theme as the starting point of the message that is to be the centre of it (what is the message delivered is about). It also contains the known and familiar information that has been mentioned previously in the text. Furthermore, theme occurs first in the clause and functions as its subject (Eggins, 2004; Martin and Rose, 2003). Rheme on the other hand, is the part of the clause in which the theme is developed. Since theme contains the known information, rheme is the part that contains the unfamiliar/new information (the rest of the clause). According to Martin and Rose (2003) once theme is identified in a sentence, the rheme is easy to be pointed out since it is everything else, which does not form part of the theme.

3.4.1 Theme and Textual Meaning

According to Eggins (2004), the way text hangs together and how it relates to the context can offer meaning realization about the communication event, that is, thematic changes. Theme offers choices of which information to be prioritised in text, which information to be categorised as new and which is familiar. It is mentioned elsewhere, the textual choices alone cannot make a full meaningful text without the assistance of content and that will make it impossible to interact with. The construction of mood structures by making interpersonal and experiential choices before initiating the interaction. That refers to how text relates to context. Thus, if the thematic structure is scrambled and not in order, following the text will be difficult and sometimes impossible. The textual choices are essential to the text's making meaning. Text that hangs together is the result of thematic selection (Eggins, 2004). The theme development process can determine competent and incompetent users and aid in distinguishing between the two.

3.4.2 Texture and Scaffolding

Texture holds the clauses together and gives them unity. According to Halliday and Hassan, (1976), texture involves coherence and cohesion or its relationship to extra-textual context and the way elements come together to form one unit. Texture involves scaffolding, which involves the

“erection of a hierarchy of periodicity beyond the clauses, layers of themes and news, telling us where we are coming from and where we are going.” (Tshotsho, 2006:63).

3.5 Coherence

According to Cook (1989: 40), coherence is the “quality of being meaningful and unified”. Halliday and Hassan (1989) states that coherence characterizes the text when it hangs together. After the beginning of any point, the previous information provides the environment for the coming text. Which will sets up internal expectations that are matched up with the reader's expectation. The following expectations are sourced from the external context of situation and culture (Tshotsho, 2006).

Ross and Murray (1975) defines coherence as the link and a logical connection between sentences, paragraphs. Coherence is further considered as the use of transitional devices (such as yet, therefore, hence, nevertheless, etc.) These devices are more help to link statements and ideas in paragraphs (Kies, 2004). Furthermore, the use of reference words is another way of ensuring relating sentences and paragraphs together. Reference words are responsible for pointing to an idea mentioned previously in the text. Words such as ‘such’, ‘this’, ‘these’ and ‘that’ are used to connect a sentence to another. These words, however, cannot be used on their own but combined with words and phrases from a previous statements (Kies, 2004). In order to produce a united paragraph, writers must have a clear generalization which suites the focus of the attention, that is the topic sentence The writer also need to maintain the same focus of attention as the topic sentence (Winterwood and Murnay, 1975).

Halliday and Hassan (1989) states that achieving cohesion in written discourse involves the use of cohesive devices, the linguistic resources that links one part of text to another. For example, the use of base forms of conjunctions (which are responsible for connecting parts of sentences and clauses together), Pronominalization (words in pronoun form), and ellipsis (the omission of words, phrases and clauses that can be retrieved from the context or from a different place in discourse). without the use of these tools, reader may be left with incoherent discourse which is difficult to read. Furthermore, cohesion is important for continuity between one part of the text and another (Eldokali, 2007).

In terms of cohesion, there are three types of cohesion in written language; cohesive references, lexical cohesion, and conjunction cohesion.

3.6 Cohesive References

Eggins (2004) defines cohesive references as the manners in which writers keep track of participants previously introduced in the text. The participants can be explicitly introduced by the writer or presumed from elsewhere in the surrounding text. The presumed identities are usually looked for backward in the text but sometimes it can be found forwards and in some cases the information is not in the text but outside the text (Martin and Rose, 2003). Information outside the text can be found in the culture or the situation of speaking. The culture shared between the reader and the writer can be the external source of information for the text. Martin and Rose (2003) refer to that as the exophoric reference. Common presuming references are: definite article 'the'; pronouns 'he', 'she', 'it'; demonstrative pronouns 'that', 'these', and 'those' (Martin and Rose, 2003:34).

The reader needs to be able to retrieve the identity of the referent, when the writer inserts a presuming reference. The interaction will be considered problematic, if the reader is not able to retrieve the referent (Martin and Rose, 2003). The reader is often able to retrieve the identity of the presuming reference from the shared immediate context of situation (exophoric reference), shared culture (homophoric), or from elsewhere in the text (endophoric reference). Furthermore, exophoric reference refers to the referring to objects or information outside the text; whereas, endophoric refers to the writer's ability to refer anaphorically (backwards), and cataphorically (forwards), within the text (cf. Halliday and Hassan 1989). Martin and Rose (2003) state that the endophoric reference provides cohesion by the ties it is adding to the text, and creates internal texture of the text. They further added that exophoric reference adds to the text coherence.

3.6.1 Comparative References

Comparative references are used to compare things in text in terms of intensity of quality, for example, ‘the best’, ‘the best’, ‘better than’. It can further be used to compare the quantity of things, for instance, the use of words like, ‘most’, ‘more’ ‘more’. It can be also be used in comparing the order, for example, ‘first’, ‘second’, and so on (Martin and Rose, 2003).

3.6.2 Lexical Cohesion

The use of lexical items such as nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs to connect the text consistently to its area of focus, is referred to as lexical cohesion (Eggins, 2004). The lexical cohesion drives from the expectancy relations between words used, hence, the way words in text relate to each other and reflect the focus of the topic. Lexical cohesion can be achieved by listing all lexical items, and showing how they form a lexical string and related unit that is an addition to texture of text (Tshotsho, 2006). Lexical string is a list of all the lexical items found in the text that can relate to a prior word. Lexical items can be linked to more than one string (Eggins, 2004), which is referred to as tracking.

3.6.3 Conjunctive Cohesion

Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) define conjunctive cohesion as the way writers create logical connections between parts of the text using conjunctions. Martin and Rose (2003) state that conjunctions are responsible for the inter-connection in text when adding, sequencing, comparing or explaining information. Furthermore, Celce-Martin and Larsen-Freeman (1999:461) define conjunctions as the “process of combining two constituents of the same type to produce another, larger constituent of the same type.” There are different types of conjunctions in English, each is used based on the semantic purpose and the function they serve.

3.6.4 The Logic of Discourse

Logical connections between figures are one of the purposes conjunctions serve. They serve to add, compare, sequence or explain their causes, purposes or conditions (Tshotsho, 2006). For examples, in stories, conjunction serve as a link device between different events, putting them

together in sequence of time, while in persuasive text, conjunctions are used to construct the logical relationship between different parts of the argument, also construct the logic on argument from hypothesis to evidence to conclusion (Martin, 2004).

According to Martin (2004), the conjunction ‘and’ can function to add information together in a sequence. The conjunction ‘if’ links contemplated actions, and the same connection can be realized by subject-verb inversion. ‘Besides’ or ‘as well as’ add dependent clause to a free clause. ‘Additionally’ and ‘in addition’ are used to link sentences together to structure a full unit (Halliday and Hassan, 1976). The conjunction ‘but’ is used to contrast and ‘then’ is to illustrates that events follow each other.

3.6.5 Connecting Arguments

Another use of the conjunctions is to connect arguments together, which means, organizing discourse. For instance, the use of conjunctions such as ‘further’ and ‘also’ is to show that information that follows is addition to the argument. Therefore, the role is to relate the different stages of an argument together, and to add arguments to support thesis. On the other hand, the use of ‘thus’ tells the reader that what follows will conclude the argument or the conclusion. The role of ‘thus’, therefore, is to draw a conclusion. These conjunctions are used to organize the logical stages of discourse, such as organizing the process of argument and to draw conclusions (Martin and Rose, 2003).

3.6.6 Comparing Arguments

Conjunctions such as ‘for example’ and ‘for instance’ are used for giving examples, offering clarity and compare general statements with certain instances (Martin and Rose, 2003).

3.6.7 Ordering Arguments

The conjunctions ‘firstly’ and ‘next’ are used to indicate a new stage is starting in the text. These conjunctions order the steps logically in the discourse as a sequence of events (Martin and Rose, 2003).

3.6.8 Conjunctive Relations

According to Tshotsho (2006:75), there are three types of conjunctive relations which create “semantically meaningful structural link between clauses.” These are, elaboration, extension and enhancement. Conjunctions used for elaboration include ‘in other words’, ‘for example’, ‘that is to say’, ‘I mean’, ‘for instance’ and ‘in fact’. They are responsible for the relationship of restatement by which a sentence is a representation of a previous sentence. Common conjunctions used for contrast and qualification are ‘and’, ‘also’, ‘moreover’, ‘in addition’, ‘but’, ‘yet’, ‘on the other hand’, ‘on the contrary’. Enhancement refers to the development of a sentence in meaning based on another sentence in terms of dimensions like time, comparison, cause, condition, or concession. Concessive relations are expressed by, ‘but’, ‘though’, ‘yet’, or ‘though’. Casual include, ‘therefore’, ‘so’, ‘because, ‘as a result’. Comparative includes, ‘similarly’, ‘likewise’ (Eggins, 2004).

3.6.9 Adversative Conjunctions

The conjunction ‘but’ can express multiple functions such as contrasting, replacing, subtracting and enhancing (Martin et al. 1997:186; Eggins, 2004:287-288).

3.6.10 Tracking Participants in a Text.

The ability to track participants in discourse is an essential element for the reader to make sense of the text. The reader needs to be able to track who or what is being talked about in the discourse.

In order for the reader to do that, they need to identify presuming referents in text and then link all mentions of participants. Reference chains allows reader to identify the main participants are in a text and their importance. As mentioned elsewhere, there are different types of participants referencing, endophoric, exophoric, homophoric. In fiction, the referents are usually retrieved anaphorically from within the text, whereas, in nonfiction text the referent is retrieved exoterically and homophonically. The text cohesion is enhanced and organized by the referent ties combined in the text (Egins, 2004; Martin and Rose, 2003).

The first thing writers do when introducing participants is to name them, and thereafter refer to them as 'he', 'she', and 'it'. The identification and the referencing process helps readers to keep track of the referent in the text. According to Martin and Rose (2003) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), when we use of the pronoun 'it', we assume that the reader knows who is being referred to.

Furthermore, determiners are also helpful in tracking participants. Some determiners are used to introduce someone whose cannot be identified, these determiners are, 'a' and 'an'. On the other hand, the determiner 'the' is used when the identity of the participants can be assumed. As soon as participants are introduced, we can track them by using the pronouns 'he', 'she', and it'

The use of 'another' or 'someone else' is a reference to participants as different from others. They compare one participants to other and are known as comparative reference.

The possessive pronouns such as 'my', your', 'his', 'her', 'their', are also used to identify participants. In the case of using possessive pronouns, the identity is presumed but the possessed things may not be mentioned before. On the other hand, demonstratives like 'that', 'this', 'those' are used to demonstrate where to find the identity which is near or far.

3.7 Context and Text

Context is the non-linguistic and non-contextual factors and elements that affect spoken and written interaction discourse (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000). Any use of language has context, which 'textual' features allows discourse to cohere with itself and with its context of situation. According to Halliday and Hassan (1989), the term context of situation is used to refer to explain

the reason behind the things said or written. It is considered as the immediate environment in which the text actually functions (Halliday and Hassan, 1989). The context of culture is outside context of situation. It provides the framework in which the text is interpreted (Halliday and Hassan, 1989).

Context can function as a retrieval source to determine meanings in the text. Thus, context is a very important dimension of texture. Text can be interpreted through reference to context, so every text carry their context with it. Language makes sense only when it is interpreted within its context (Martin and Rose 2003).

3.8 Multimodality and Multimodal Discourse Analysis

Whereas the sections above dealt with linguistic aspects, this section deals with multimodality to account for the interaction of verbal, non-verbal language, figures, graphs, images, etc., especially during the analysis of the selected textbooks.

Kress (2010:79) defines modes as “socially shaped and culturally given semiotic resources for making meaning. Images, writing, layout music, gesture, speech, moving images are examples of modes used in representation and communication.” In addition O’Halloran (2011: 121) explains: “Semiotic resources is used to describe the resources or (modes) which integrate across sensory modalities (e.g. visual, auditory, tactile, olfactory, and gustatory) in multimodal texts-discourse and events, collectively called multimodal phenomena materialize.” In this connection, multimodality refers to use of multiple modes or a combination of semiotic resources to construct meaning. Thus, Iedema (2003) defines multimodality as “the application of two or more modes in a single communicative event” that allows for multimodal meaning making using multiple resources. Iedema explains how multimodality focuses on the different semiotics used in communication other than words such as; pictures, music, gaze, gesture, body posture and so on. Multimodality focuses on the way meaning changes depending on the setting (see, for example, Scollon and LeVine, 2004 and O’Halloran, 2011). According to Kress (2010) and Van Leeuwen (2005), multimodality in general, draws on the social semiotic of communication, and it also extend the interpretation of language and its meanings to whole range of modes of communication. Jewitt and Price (2012) highlight three theoretical assumption that underpins the multimodal approach. The first assumption is that the “representation and communication always draw on

multiple modes, all of which contribute to meaning” (Jewitt and Price, 2012:1). They argue that it focuses on translating the full repertoire of meaning-making resources such as; visual, action, spoken, written, gestural etc. used in different contexts. The second assumption, multimodality assumes that “forms of communication are shaped through their social, cultural and historical usage and realize communicative work in distinct ways” (Jewitt and Price 2012:2). In other words, all communicative elements are socially made and meaningful within ‘social environments’ where the communication occurs. Third, they argue that multimodality focuses on how people ‘orchestrate through their selection and configuration of modes’. Hence, people make selection from network of alternatives, selecting a certain mode over another (Halliday, 1978).

Karlsson (2016:54), contends that in multimodal texts, “different modalities (semiotic resources) work together to create the overall impression, conveying whatever meaning is there.” The mechanism of which different semiotics function together as a unit, and the type of selection users make, motivates the multimodal discourse analysis. Jewitt and Prices (2012) argues that MDA also focuses on the different meanings that are produced by semiotics. Hence, a picture might convey more than a meaning to the viewers, as well as other semiotics can. Those meanings might be related to the message users trying to convey and might be different depending on the viewers’ cultural background and his/her exposure to the mode used.



3.8.1 Multimodality as Analytical Approach

O’Halloran (2011: 123) states that “while multimodality can be characterized as ‘domain of enquiry’ (Kress, 2009:54) (visual design, displayed art, mathematics, hypermedia, education) theories, descriptions and methodologies specific to MDA (multimodal discourse analysis) are clearly required”. Not only that, “the task of capturing and analysing complex multimodal construction of reality becomes imperative as the realm of visual and the multimodal increasingly move alongside the linguistic advancement of technology”. (O’Halloran, 2008: 470).

The increasing advancement of technology keeps changing the meaning potentials and the semiotic landscape. It further allowed researchers to map the process of semiosis, hence, the logogenesis of the multimodal text. Technology allows us to analyse the dynamics of the discourse

through the ways patterns unfold (Smith and Podlasov, 2011). They note that “advances in recent years in software tools for the study of complex phenomena, particularly those taken up and developed in application to the physical sciences (including, importantly, data visualization resources), offer further opportunities for those attempting to account for the immense complexities of multimodal communication and culture” (2011:110).

The use of multimodality and technological devices as a mean of analysis such as video and voice recorders enables new analysis of multimodal discourse that focuses on other semiotics and not only language. Flewitt (2006:46) argues that the use of video recording in investigating pedagogic discourse aids students deploy “the full range of material and bodily resources available to them to make and express meaning”. She further argues that this forces a “re-examination of Vygotskian accounts of the relationship between thought and language by producing grounded arguments for a pluralistic interpretation of the construction and negotiation of meaning”. According to Victor (2011:62), in addition to “foregrounding the multisemiotic nature of pedagogic discourse”, other contributions of using of using video recording include “the multiple interactions derived from very close, repeated viewing and analysis of the text as audio-visual data, in such a way not readily available prior to the development of sophisticated interactive computational playback and interface/annotation resources”.

O'Halloran and Smith (2012) argue that the advancement in multimodal techniques and the development in the field of multimodal studies is the result of interactive digital media. They elaborate that digital semiotics allows such an insight more accessible and to testing and application through empirical analysis, and provides a much greater capacity for insight into phenomena not readily accessible with the ‘naked eye’, thus providing an opportunity to advance our theoretical understanding of multimodal semiosis”.

3.8.2 Multimodality in Teaching

As mentioned elsewhere, the different methods used in teaching and learning in the classroom has been of interest to different educational researchers. By different methods we mean the use of other modes than language, even before the concept ‘multimodality’ emerged. Research into pedagogic

discourse and interaction discourse in the classroom has a tendency of focusing on an analysis of language used in the classroom alone (see for example, Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Lawn, 1999; Mercer, 2000 and Walsh, 2006; 2011). Other research focus on the teachers' use of gesture, positioning and movement in the classroom (see, for example, Victor, 2011), that is when researchers are utilizing the multimodal approach in their analysis. More often than not, the emphasis has been on the multimodal nature of the textbooks used in teaching. Victor (2011:46) states that the focus on just the linguistic aspects of classroom interaction, "fails to account for the combination of semiotic resources that together, rather than separately, construct the teaching and the learning experience." Kress (2003: 35) explains that "language alone cannot give us access to the meanings of multimodally constituted messages; language and literacy now have to be seen as partial bearers of meaning only".

With regards to this research, the researcher will use MDA to analyse the modes used in the English teaching books. As mentioned elsewhere, this study is concerned with the type of modes and how culturally relevant they relate to Arab students' culture and academic writing aspirations.

3.9 Summary

This chapter introduced the interdisciplinary theoretical and analytical frameworks that informed the study. SFL as illustrated in this chapter will be the tool used to analyse students written text, while MDA (which by definition includes language) was concerned with testing the reliability of chosen textbooks' design from a multisemiotic perspective. This included determining whether the cultures of the target audience was considered in the visual representation and multimodal design of the teaching material (textbooks).

Chapter 4: Methodology

4.0 Introduction

This chapter introduces the methodological approaches in the study. The chapter starts with an introduction of the research design followed by the techniques of data collection.

4.1 Research Design

The study adopted a qualitative design involving the analysis of students' written essays and the modes used in the EFL textbooks. The qualitative design emphasises the naturalistic approach that seeks to understand the phenomena in context. Moreover, qualitative research is concerned with understanding the context in which phenomena occurs (Strauss and Corbin, 1990).

Strauss and Corbin (1990) argues that the qualitative method can be used to shape a better understanding of any phenomena about which little is yet known and also help gaining a new prospective on what is already known in order to gain in-depth information that may be challenging to convey quantitatively.

The qualitative descriptive research design is employed based on the data collected from EFL Arab students who went through Cape Town private schools. Hence, the study is designed to qualitatively describe the quality of the academic essays by EFL Arab students. In addition, the qualitative design allowed the study to examine the modes found in textbooks used to teach English to foreign students. Thus, the design allowed the researcher to investigate the match or mismatch between the culture depicted in the books and the students' culture.

Following studies in SFL and MDA, (see Karlsson, 2016; Jewitt and Price, 2012; Eldokali, 2007; Tshotsho, 2006; Kress and van Leeuwen, 2006; Martin and Rose 2003; Eggins 2004), qualitative analysis is accompanied by a limited quantitative analysis, as a way of quantifying observed

qualitative phenomena. Blaikie (2003) and Denzin and Lincoln (2003) point out, quantitative research can be used to quantify the phenomenon and enforce certain types of data, as it emphasizes the measurement and analysis of relationships between variables.

Therefore, the design allowed the research to analyse essays quantitatively using the following grammatical devices; conjunctions, referencing, verb forms, spelling and exemplification. Moreover, it quantified people, places, material culture and other semiotics found in the English teaching textbooks. Quantifying modes used in the textbooks aids the study to determine whether or not the books are targeting the EFL Arab students.

4.2 Sampling and Sample Selection Techniques

The study focused on Arab EFL students in Cape Town. The participants are Arab students who received their English language training in Cape Town based private language schools. Six males participants were carefully selected in order to avoid prepared answers. The reason for choosing male participants was due to the following reasons; the male participants were more accessible to the researcher as they reside in male hostels in different universities. Another reason for a male Arab researcher, it is difficult to interact with females students due to the social construction of gender roles in Arabic communities, which in this case is more restrictive of males. It is easier for the female researcher to gain access and interact with both males and females participants if they wish to do so, than male researchers. El Shibani (2019) used two females out of three participants for her research, where Etbaigha (2017) had access to a wider diverse group for her dissertation as she used five males and seven females. However, both female and male Arab students undergo the same English program before applying for universities in South Africa (See, El Shobani, 2019; Etbaigha, 2017; Eldokali, 2007).

To get participants, the researcher made phone calls and personally visited Arab students from different universities in Cape Town and selected ones who particularly received English training at Cape Town language schools prior to enrolling at their current universities. All participants come from Arabic speaking backgrounds and from schools that use 'Arabic' as the sole medium of instruction. The researcher asked the students about the language schools they went to, the levels they attended, as well as the levels they reached before going to English- medium universities.

As mentioned previously, the total participants selected for the study was six Arabic- first language speakers who have attended English language schools in Cape Town. Four of the participants are postgraduate students studying medical biosciences at the University of the Western Cape. The remaining two are undergraduate students, one studying engineering while the other is a management student. The ages of participants range between 20 and 45. The reason of choosing students who were studying in the university was because the researcher did not wish to interfere with the teaching/learning process in the language schools. Second, choosing students who had completed training English would give a clearer understanding of the kinds of academic skills they had acquired at the schools.

After choosing the students, the researcher randomly chose four textbooks from three different language schools participants attended. For the aim of the study, the researcher selected two books from the beginner stage and two from the advanced stage where students felt they were ready to take on academic English. From the textbooks, the researcher chose random images to use as examples in the analysis. Moreover, the researcher counted all the images and modes and add them in tables.

4.3 Data Collection Procedure

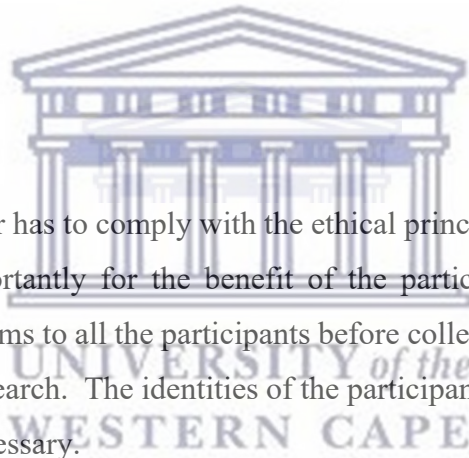
The data was collected over a period of a month, which was determined by the participants' availability. As mentioned earlier, the researcher had to personally reach out to different Arab students to find out which ones had enrolled and completed schooling at the English language in Cape Town. The researcher met with the students at their students' hostels and detailed the requirements of the essays needed for the study. Most of the participants felt comfortable partaking in the study after campus hours as they were busy studying during these times and the researcher accepted their request. The students were instructed to write a minimum of three paragraphs about their '*First day at the university*'. The essays were handwritten as requested by the researcher in order to ensure the reliability of the results. Students were also not allowed to consult external sources. The aim of the task was to test the writing skills of the Arab EFL students and to identify the specific linguistic features used by the participant to produce meanings in a cohesive text.

The researcher purchased the English teaching textbooks from Cape Town language schools, based on the schools the participants attended to learn English language where these books were used. One book from each level of English teaching was chosen for the study. Hence, the first book is ‘*Efekta General English B1*’ was used to teach beginners, i.e. first level in the language schools. The second is ‘*Efekta General English B2*’, which was used to teach students in second beginners’ level. The third book is titled ‘*New Headway*’, which is used for intermediate levels. The last book, ‘*Cutting Edge*’ is used to teach upper-intermediate and advance levels.

First, the focus was the content of the books to see how the books are helping the students’ English skills. Then, the focus was to look at the design of the books, in terms of the modes used in the books. Hence, the study did a multimodal analysis of the modes found in the books in relation to the culture of the target audience (in this case, non-English speakers).

4.4 Ethical Procedures

In any research, the researcher has to comply with the ethical principles to insure both the success of the study, and most importantly for the benefit of the participants. For this research the researcher handed consent forms to all the participants before collecting any data and individually explain the purpose of the research. The identities of the participants was protected by anonymity or by using fake names if necessary.



Chapter 5: EFL Students' Written Text

5.0 Introduction

Guided by the research questions, this chapter presents and analyses the first set of data used in this study. It begins by introducing the handwritten text collected from Arab students in different universities in Cape Town, South Africa. Following that, the analysis is instructed and guided by an SFL framework (Martin and Rose 2003; Eggins 2004; Christie 2002, 2005). SFL guides the analyses by showing the way Arab learners construct clauses in English written texts, the features they use to deliver meaning using English, and the features they lack in the text.

5.1 Students' Written Texts

As mentioned in the first chapter, the texts were collected from Arab students from different universities and as a condition, the students chosen for this study received their English language training in language schools in Cape Town. Following the objectives of the study, we explore the dominant linguistic features that Arab learners use in their English writing. The aim is to show how beneficial the training was that they received in the language schools, which would help the teaching process and designing better materials to teach English in the future.

The text from the six students had one topic, *My first day in university*. The students were instructed to write two to three paragraphs in thirty minutes about their experiences on their first day of university in Cape Town. The students were asked not to consult phones or dictionaries for the purpose of research, to ensure that what is written is the students' own work and not borrowed from another source.

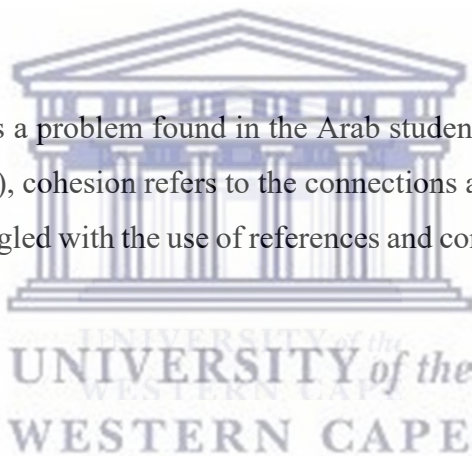
Halliday and Hassan (1976, 1985) define text as any written or spoken passage that refers to a 'meaningful unit'. Therefore, a meaningful unit that hangs together as a unit characterizes text. As mentioned elsewhere, cohesion is the most important factor for a successful communication. Eggins (1994) further stressed the importance of cohesion where she argued that the absence of

coherence (semantic ties) between text elements creates confusion within the discourse, which consequently prevents text from hanging together as a meaningful unit.

The data presented in this chapter shows that Arab students have problems with regards to cohesion and achieving text unity. The lack of structure is due to the lack of using the cohesive devices, which will be displayed in this section of this study. As demonstrated in this section, the focus on the spoken form of language in the textbook can be comprehended in the students' writing style. Furthermore, students do attempt to organize their ideas; however, their texts lack unity due to different reasons. One reason is the poor control over the use of theme and rheme as grammatical resources (Martin and Rose 2004), which results in failing to contextualize the topic.

5.2 Cohesion

As argued, lack of cohesion is a problem found in the Arab students' English writing. According to Halliday and Hassan (1976), cohesion refers to the connections and ties that exist within a text. It is notable that learners struggled with the use of references and conjunctions, as well as problems in verb forms and spelling.



5.2.1 Conjunction

The lack and incorrect use of conjunctions is a weakness of Arab EFL students. Halliday and Hassan (1976), Scollon and Scollon (1995), and Richard, Platt and Platt (1997) defined conjunctions as the lexical items that join clauses together and constitute the relationships between those clauses. According to Martin and Rose (2003), conjunctions are cohesive devices that are responsible for the inter-connections between comparing, explaining, adding or sequencing. Thus, conjunctions are the cohesive devices that create semantic unity in a text. Halliday and Hassan (1976) argued that the inability to deploy conjunctions to join clauses or show the relationship between them could be the cause of incoherent writing. The internal conjunctions help students organize their steps in a logical way in which they form a sequence of events (Martin and Rose, 2003).

In the following examples, students were asked to write about their first day at the university, in which they were expected to have a sequence of events that took place in that day. Here, students should have used some lexical items such as *firstly, secondly, finally etc., on the other hand, nevertheless, in addition, however,* among other lexical items, to logically list occurred events in that day, and to help readers link clauses together. In the written texts of the EFL Arab speakers, there are consistent attempts to connect the clauses together. However, there is a serious problem with the use of conjunctions. The following examples show how the Arab EFL learners do not use conjunctions effectively, and often fail to take the reader through the text:

Extract 1

As I was Applying for the first time postgraduate study at in South Africa, I was quiet excited to go through the process of my study to know what are my duties. I met my supervisor the person who was taking me throug my program and showing me around and introduce me to my group.

Also, that day I was so thirsty to know How must I work in the lab and for How Long that I will be here, therefore, I've hear my supervisor saying that I have to present my proposal and that was my fear that time, because presenting front of new colleagues with English Language was not easy at time.

In Extract 1, we note that the student had a problem with conjunctions. The student started his text by talking about his excitement from the time he applied to study and then connect it to his first day at the university after being accepted. However, the students did not use any of the conjunctions that could have made it easier for him to move forward with the text. Hence, when the student jumped from his feelings to his meeting with his supervisor, the transaction could have been logical if a conjunction such as '*when, while, now that or so*' was placed in between.

In the second paragraph, Extract1 was talking about how eager he was for knowledge and the way he wanted to know more about the programme. He was informed that he would be presenting in front of his colleagues, which was challenging to him. Here, the student misplaced '*therefore*' in

his attempt to describe that despite his excitement and eagerness to study, he was not linguistically and mentally ready for what his supervisor asked him to do. The student could have started the paragraph using *even though*, *despite*, *although* or any other conjunction that would have contrasted the two events. Also, he could have used *however* instead of using *therefore*.

Another Extract of the problems related to textual cohesion comes from the Extract2 who, in his writing, did not use conjunctions to ensure the semantic flow of text, as can be seen in the following extract:

Extract 2

The first day at my collage was very succsfully. I had so much fun fun time with my new friends (classmates), the first mate was Marray frindly person, very hambel and kind, he was setting behind me, I was very shy, not carring about anyone, using my sellphone and then he start to anterdios himself, start talking about his personal life like I know this guy from a long time, that made me to open my heart to him. We became a close friend since then.

aparntely a women came to the class, she says hello everyone I am Fatima you apriation session. I was shocked because she was so young and preety. She explain the roles of the school and the website also, about how stedents should respect each anothers, she was very helpful to stedents.

The fun time came after Fatima left some students became to react her action, how did she talk, reacts and move. Sadenly Fatima came back she saw that. She was very absen*e and angry how stedents does not respect her from the first time. She wrote her email addres on the bored and left immidatly. (Extract 2)

Here, the student also started by foregrounding his feelings on that day. He described the day as successful, and talked about people he met. However, it is noted that the student kept randomly moving from one point to another in his first paragraph, without clear boundaries or relating clauses together using any of the cohesive conjunctions. We note that the semantic meaning is

affected by the absence of unity between clauses, which makes it difficult for the reader to track the writer's thoughts. On the man he met on his first day, the student wrote:

Extract 3

the first mate was Marray frindly person, very hambel and kind, he was setting behind me, I was very shy, not carring about anyone, using my sellphone and then he start to anterdios himself, start talking about his personal life like I know this guy from a long time, that made me to open my heart to him. We became a close friend since then.

Here, the student gives his initial thoughts about the person while at the same time describing himself and his actions. However, the student did not join the comparative notion together using “while” and “however”. We further note that the student was listing the events without using conjunctions such as *first, second, then* or *finally*. In the second paragraph, the student started by saying:

aparntely a women came to the class, she says hello everyone I am Fatima you apriation session. I was shocked because she was so young and preety I wish you was one of my classmate She explain the roles of the school and the website also, about how stedents should respect each anothers, she was very helpful to stedents.

The student used the adverb ‘*apparently*’ to start his sentence, where he was talking about a teacher who came into class and introduced herself. Similarly, the participant was not connecting the ideas together, or listing the events of his encounter with the teacher. The student could have used subordinating conjunctions such as ‘*Before, after, as soon as, when or while*’ and others. We note that the student’s attempt to list the event, but the absence of conjunctive cohesive devices makes it difficult for us as readers to follow the progression of the text. In *Table (6.1)*, we note that the student in Extract 2 scored 2.2% of the overall errors in conjunctions use. However, this low percentage does not indicate that the student has a minor or no problem with the use of

conjunctions. As I note above, student's writing lacks important conjunctions and that can create confusion to the readers.

In Extract 4, the student committed similar mistakes to the previous participants in terms of conjunction use. For instance, in his first paragraph, the student was talking about the struggle he faced on his first day due to the complexity of the English terms the lecturer was using in the lecture. Here, the student could have used the subordinating conjunction '*because*' to show why the terms were difficult for him to understand. In the second paragraph, we note that the student used a conjunction, but not as often as he was required to.

In my first day at college I struggled to understand most of what the lecturer was saying specially when it comes to the specialization vocabulary which I was n't familiar to me as an Arabic speaker.

The lecturer used to speak via microphone in a big hall full of students and his pronouncuation was n't clear because he was n't an native english speaker as well. So it takes me extra effort to catch with the lecturer by reading an extra book and attending academic courses and waching a videos in YouTube related to my specialty. (Extract 4)

Below is another Extract of the Arab student's lack of conjunction use:

In the first day at university I was excited to start my master program I waked up early around 6:30 I met with one of my friends at 7 clock we went to the train station using mini bas, we enter the train station we don't know the name of the station we have to get off. I asked the security guy which station is close to the university of the western cap he told me to get off by unibile station which is next of campus. (Extract 5)

In the above paragraph, the student lists the events of his morning on the first day of university. Here, the student could have used '*before, after, as soon as or in order to*' and others. Instead,

Extract 5 presented the sentences in a disconnected manner, which makes it difficult for the reader to follow. Thus, throughout the paragraph, we note that the student is not cohesively constructing his text and struggled to connect his thoughts.

Furthermore, the student could have made use of other conjunctions to enhance the structure of the whole text. For example, when he spoke about campus in the extract (below), we notice that he did not connect the clauses together. The student here could have used ‘*as soon as*’ to link them, also, he could have used ‘*after or now that*’ to logically introduce his thoughts after his arriving to the university.

At that time we don't have student card yet so the campus security asked us to sing to enter the campus.

the campus was nice and green, I went to the faculty of natural science for first meeting with profssor he was humble and helpful. He take entire document which is under graduate transcript, cv, and motivation letter.

After his acceptance to be my supervisor for master program he mentioned topic and I have to choose one or write proposal, in what I'm interested in.

First project was to study the effect of Riboos tea on the prostate cancer cell line because it contain the flavanoid componuts

The second was to study the affect the blamtrees oil on the prostate cancer because the previous PhD student was screeing verity of plants and their effect on different type of cancer. (Extract 5)

In the following example, the student displays similar problems with regards to conjunction use to the students discussed above. We note that there were no connectors between clauses, which further adds to the noticeable lack of cohesion in the text.

I arrived to South Africa at 11.10. 2009 , After 2 weeks from arrival that the first day at UWC with my friend Mohamad to see one Prof with the same major I'm working with at the first it was Phytoremediation .

In that day when we came to see prof (Name) I set with him and my friend Mohamad to discuss about the acceptance to do PhD with him as supervisor to do Plantecophysiology study . but suddenly he said , No space for me because he had postgrad student and he can't take more .

He advised me to show him my work and publishing to guide me where I can go to be the supervisor. In the first thought I'll speak in Arabic and Mohamed will translate But (Name) said to me with your English which was not good. As I can I start to explain and show my work with the Msc work in Libya and the four published that I have. he started to smile then I studied, he said to me if I can come after 8 months to get space for me. It was ok with me because I need to study English first.

Then I got an academic admission after two weeks from arrival in South Africa. (Extract 6)



The findings suggest that Arab EFL students have difficulties with English language, which can be due to the lack of conjunction use and the incorrect use of conjunctions between clauses. These difficulties are causing problems with coherence and cohesion in the text. In addition, the students' difficulties further show their ability to use determiners, in terms of the incorrect addition and omission of articles and other referencing items.

Table 5.1: Misplaced Conjunctions

Students	Scores	Frequency	Overall mistakes score
Student No.1	3	16.6%	18
Student No.2	1	2.2%	45
Student No.3	0	0%	10
Student No.4	0	0%	15
Student No.5	0	0%	44
Student No.6	1	2.56%	42

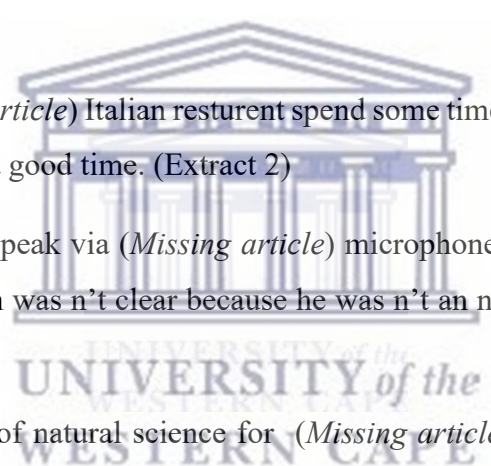
In Table 5.1, I quantified the misplaced conjunctions in EFL Arab students writing. We noted that 16.6% of student one's errors are in misplaced conjunctions. Student two and student six had one misplaced conjunction in their writing, which was 2% of the overall errors they made in their discourse. It is important to note that scoring 0% is not an indication to clear writing or perfect conjunction use; as mentioned in this section, learners tend to avoid the use of conjunctions, even when they are required.

In addition, we note a problem in the use of determiners, in terms of the incorrect addition and omission of articles and other referencing items.

5.2.2 Referencing

According to Scollon and Scollon (1995), and Richards, Platt and Platt (1997), referencing is importing devices that provide cohesion in written text. Eggins (2004) refers to referencing as the way writers introduce participants and keeps track of them once they are mentioned in the text. The reference devices we will be focusing on in the following examples are articles ‘*the, a and an*’. These articles are used to make connections within the discourse (Tshotsho, 2006).

Students sometimes use these references incorrectly, which leads to a lack of cohesion and creates confusion for the readers. In the following examples, the students omitted the articles in crucial places and where they were supposed to exist. We note that the omission of the articles ‘*the, a and an*’ in places where it is obligatory affected the cohesion of the text.

- 
- we went to (*Missing Article*) Italian resturent spend some time talk about life problems take the stress out. It was a good time. (Extract 2)
 - The lecturer used to speak via (*Missing article*) microphone in a big hall full of students and his pronuncuation was n’t clear because he was n’t an native english speaker as well. (Extract 4)
 - I went to the faculty of natural science for (*Missing article*) first meeting with profssor (Name) he was humble and helpful. He take (*Missing article*) entire document which is under graduate transcript, cv, and motivation letter. (Extract 5)
 - After his acceptance to be my supervisor for (*Missing article*) master program he mentioned topic and I have to choose one or write (*Missing article*) proposal, in what I’m interested in. (Exampel 5)
 - (*Missing article*) First project was to study the effect of Riboos tea on the prostate cancer cell line because it contain the flavanoid componuts (Extract 5)
 - The second was to study the affect the blamtrees oil on the prostate cancer because the previous PhD student was screeing verity of plants and their effect on (*Missing Article*) different type of cancer (Extract 5).

- No space for me because he had (*Missing determiner*) postgrad student and he can't take more (Extract 6).

Furthermore, some students incorrectly used articles in their text. For example, a student used 'a' with nouns in plural form, where 'a' and 'an' are used with nouns in singular form. Another student used the article 'an' to introduce the word 'native', where 'an' precedes nouns that start with vowels.

- The lecturer used to speak via (*Missing article*) microphone in a big hall full of students and his pronunciation was n't clear because he was n't an (*Incorrect indefinite article*) native English speaker as well. (Extract 4)
- ... by reading an extra book and attending academic courses and watching a (*Incorrect use of indefinite article*) videos in YouTube related to my specialty. (Extract 4)
- The second was to study the affect the blamtree oil on the (*Unnecessary article*) prostate cancer because the previous PhD student was screening verity of plants and their effect on (*Missing article*) different type of cancer. (Extract 5)

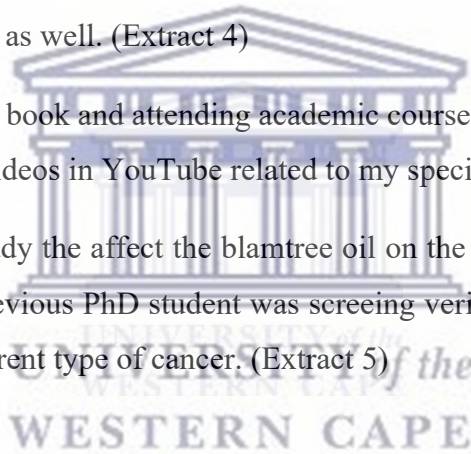
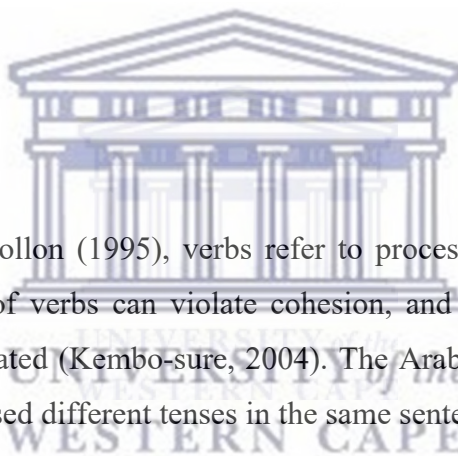


Table 5.2: Referencing

Students	Scores	percentage	Overall mistakes score
Student No.1	3	16.6%	18
Student No.2	3	6.1%	49
Student No.3	0	0%	10

Student No.4	2	13.3%	15
Student No.5	7	15.9%	44
Student No.6	1	2.3%	42

In Table 5.2, student 1 and 2 have three errors in referencing devices use. However, the three in student 1 is 16.6% of the overall errors score. On the other hand, three in student 2 is 6.1% of the overall score. Student 3 had no problems with the use of references and scored 0%. As for student 4, he scored 13.3% in terms of referencing errors. Student 5 scored 15.9% with seven referencing errors. Student 6 made one error in terms of a missing determiner, which was 2.3% of his overall errors.



5.2.3 Verb Forms

According to Scollon and Scollon (1995), verbs refer to processes, actions, and events in the sentence. The incorrect use of verbs can violate cohesion, and make the text meaningless as language and text are interrelated (Kembo-sure, 2004). The Arab students used incorrect tenses and in some examples, they used different tenses in the same sentence, for example:

- I met my supervisor the person who was taking me through my program and showing me around and **introduce** me to my group. (Extract 1)
- , I've **hear** my supervisor saying that I have to present my proposal... (Extract 1)
- The first day at my collage was very **sucessfully**. I had so much fun fun time with my new friends...(Extract 2)
- I was very shy, not caring about anyone, using my sellphone and then he **start to anterdios** himself... (Extract 2)
- aparmtely a women came to the class, she **says** hello everyone I am Fatima you apriation session. I was shocked because she was so young and preety. I wish you **was** one of my classmate She **explain** the roles of the school...(Extract 2)

- Sadly Fatima came back she saw that. She was very absent*e and angry how students **does not respect** her from the first time. (Extract 2)
- Finally Marray and I went to **had** lunch together, we went to Italian resturent **spend** some time **talk** about life problems take the stress out. It was a good time. (Extract 2)
- All the vocabularies I heard **was** the first time I hear about plus the lecturer was a native English speaker. (Extract 3)
- I struggled to understand most of what the lecturer was saying specially when it **comes** to the specialization vocabulary which I was n't familiar to me as an Arabic speaker. (Extract 4)
- These courses **was** advised by my supervivros to keep me up with the clase (Extract 3)
- program I **waked** up early around 6:30 I met with one of my friends at 7 clock we went to the train station using mini bas, we **enter** the train station we don't know the name of the station we have to get off. I asked the security guy which station is close to the university of the western cap he told me to get off by unibile station which is next of campus. (Extract 5)
- At that time we **don't** have student card yet so the campus security asked us to sing to enter the campus. (Extract 5)
- He **take** entire document which is under graduate transcript, cv, and motivation letter. (Extract 5)
- After his acceptance to be my supervisor for master program he mentioned topic and I **have** to choose one or write proposal, in what I'm interested in. (Extract 5)
- First project was to study the effect of Riboos tea on the prostate cancer cell line because it **contain** the flavanoid componuts (Extract 5)
- In that day when we came to see prof I **set** with him and my friend Mohamad to discuss about the acciptance to do PhD with him as supervisor to do Plantecophysiology study.. (Extract 6)

- He **advice** me to show him my work and publishing to gaid me where I can go to be the supervisor. (Extract 6)
- As I **can I start** to **explin** and show my work with the Msc work in Libya and the four published tha I have. he **strt** to **smile** then I sturied, he said to me if I can come after 8 months to get space for me. It was ok with me because I **need** to study English first. (Extract 6)

In the examples presented above, we see that the Arab students are struggling with using the correct infinitives and following the correct tenses in the text. For instance, they used different tenses in the same clause incorrectly. This can confuse the reader and make the text difficult to read, due to the violation of cohesion. In Extract 5, the student wrote using the past tense, “*program I waked up early around 6:30 I met with one of my friends at 7 clock we went to the train station using mini bas*”, and then he shifted to present tense in the same sentence, “*we enter the train station we don’t know the name of the station we have to get off*”. This is considered a contradiction in the English clause structure. The same issue existed in all the above listed clauses, which illustrates the lack of competence in communicative ability.

Another problem the students struggle with is the ability to use the perfect tense correctly. The students were asked to write about a point in the past, thus, the past perfect tense would have helped in describing events that occurred at that point. According to Palmer (1978), perfect tense indicates a period of time that began before and continued to a point of time, the past in the case of past tense. We use the past perfect tense to express an action that occurred before another action. A student wrote, “*I’ve hear my supervisor saying that I have to present my proposal...*” The correct form would be “*I heard my supervisor saying that I have to present my proposal...*” It is considered a violation of the past perfect rule to use ‘have’ and keep the verb ‘hear’ in its original form. The remaining participants avoided the use of that tense, even when it was appropriate to do so.

In general, the students had problems with using verbs in the correct form, which resulted in an incoherent text. This problem can be noticed in the above listed examples (the incorrect verbs are in bold).

The findings show that verbs are a serious problem students struggle with in their writing. Students use different tenses within a clause incorrectly. They also did not make use of the perfect tense and did not know the way it is formed. Furthermore, they used wrong verb forms throughout their text, and almost randomly moved from a point in the past to a point in the present without clear connections.

Table 5.3: Verb Forms

Students	Scores	percentage	Overall mistakes score
Student No.1	2	11.1%	18
Student No.2	11	22.4%	49
Student No.3	2	20%	10
Student No.4	2	13.3%	15
Student No.5	8	18.1%	44
Student No.6	10	23.8%	42

In Table 5.3, students 1,3 and 4 made two grammatical errors. However, the verb forms were 11.1% of student's 1 errors, 20% of participant 3 and 13.3% of the overall errors committed by student 4. Students 2 committed eleven grammatical error, which was 22.4% of his overall errors. Student 5 made eight out of Forty-four errors, which was 18.1% of the overall. Student's 6 grammatical errors were 23.8%.

5.2.4 Spelling

Another common problem among Arab EFL learners is incorrect spelling. The incorrect spelling can be associated with the insufficient mastery of the target language (Kembo-sure, 2004). Furthermore, it can be attributed to the lack of exposure to reading and writing in the target language (English in the case of our participants), which can cause serious problems in terms of spelling. We noted that all participants have incorrect spelling as a common problem. The following examples show how incorrect spelling affected the students' written text:

- I met my supervisor the person who was taking me throug my program and showing me around and introduce me to my group. (Extract 1)
- , I've hear my supervisor saying that I have to present my proposal... (Extract 1)
- I was very shy, not carring about anyone, using my sellphone and then he start to anterdios (Introduce) himself... (Extract 2)
- Aparmtely (apparently) a women came to the class, she says hello everyone I am Fatima you apriation sesson. I was shocked because she was so young and preety. I wish you was one of my classmate She explain the roles of the school and the website also, about how stedents should respect each anothers, she was very helpful to stedents. (Extract 2)
- Sadenly Fatima came back she saw that. She was very absen*e and angry how stedents does not respect her from the first time. (Extract 2)
- Finally Marray and I went to had lunch together, we went to Italian resturent spend some time talk about life problems take the stress out. It was a good time. (Extract 2)
- The first day at my collage was very succssfully. I had so much fun fun time with my new friends. (Extract 2)
- ... by reading an extra book and attending academic courses and waching a videos in YouTube related to my specialty. (Extract 4)
- students and his pronuncuation was n't clear because he was n't an native english speaker as well. (Extract 4)

- I went to the faculty of natural science for first meeting with profssor he was humble and helpful. He take entire document which is under graduate transcript, cv, and motivation letter. (Extract 5)
- First project was to study the effect of Riboos tea on the prostate cancer cell line because it contain the flavanoid componuts. (Extract 5)

Table 5.4: Spelling Errors

Students	Scores	percentage	Overall mistakes score
Student No.1	3	16.6%	18
Student No.2	23	46.9%	49
Student No.3	5	50%	10
Student No.4	3	20%	15
Student No.5	9	20.4%	44
Student No.6	14	33.3%	42

In Table 5.4, student 1 and 4 made three spelling errors, for student 1 the spelling errors are 16.6% of the overall errors score, and 20% for student 4. As for student 2, he made 23 spelling error, which was 46.9% of the overall score. 50% of student's 3 errors were in the spelling and 20.4% of student 5's errors. Student 6 made 14 spelling error, which was 33.3% of the overall score.

5.2.5 Prepositions

The use of incorrect prepositions was another problem found in the students' writing, as can be seen in the following examples:

- As I was Applying for the first time ((Missing preposition) postgraduate study **at** in South Africa, (Example)
- I asked the security guy which station is close to the university of the western cap he told me to get off by unibile station which is next **of** campus. (Example)
- The second was to study the affect (Missing preposition) the blamtrees oil on the prostate cancer because the previous PhD student was screening verity of plants and their effect on different type of cancer. (Example)
- **In** my first day at college I struggled to understand most of what the lecturer was saying. (Example)
- ...specially when it comes to the specialization vocabulary which I was n't familiar **to** me as an Arabic speaker. (Example)
- I set with him and my friend Mohamad to discuss **about** (Unnecessary preposition)the acceptance to do PhD with him as supervisor to do Plantecophysiology study (Extract 6)
- I arraived **to** South Africa at 11.10. 2009...(Extract 6)
- After 2 weeks **from** arraived that the first day at UWC with my friend Mohamad to see one Prof with the same major Im work with at the first it was Phytoremediation .

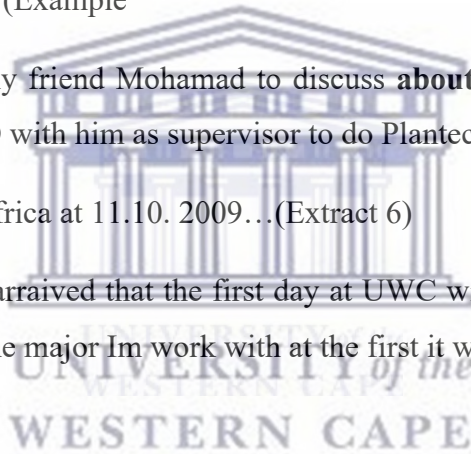


Table 5.5: Prepositions

Students	Scores	percentage	Overall mistakes score
Student No.1	2	11.1%	18
Student No.2	1	2%	49
Student No.3	0	0	10
Student No.4	2	13.3%	15

Student No.5	2	4.54%	44
Student No.6	2	4.76%%	42

Student 1, 4,5 and 6 committed two errors in prepositions. For student 1, it was 11.1% of the overall score. The percentage for student 4 was 13,3%, student 5 was 4.54% and student 6 scored 4.76%. Student 2 made one error in preposition, and it was 2% of his overall score. Student 3 had no problem with prepositions.

5.2.6 Punctuation

According to Eggins (2004:255), written language systems of orthography and punctuations are secondary systems, which were “developed as people searched for ways to record talk in permanent forms.” Punctuation was created to complement the absence of body language and voice annotation in written communications. Therefore, punctuation is important for achieving cohesion, and the incorrect use of punctuation can prevent the text from hanging together as a unit (Ming, 2006; Rumki, 2005 and Connelly, 2005). According to Wilde (1992), the incorrect placing of commas creates problems for readers, where the readers have to read the text more than once to understand a certain section.

We noted that all participants had a problem with the use of punctuation. The examples presented in this chapter show how the absence of, and the incorrect placing of important punctuation affect the flow of the text. In Extract 2, the student overused the comma in his paragraph. The participant added the comma inappropriately in different places, for instance: “...using my sellphone and then he start to anterdios himself, start talking about his personal life like I know this guy from a long time, that made me to open my heart to him. We became a close friend since then.” The comma was incorrectly used to replace the full stop in some cases and was also used to replace pronouns. The researcher found an issue with following the students’ ideas due to the lack of punctuation in the right places.

It is noteworthy that the only punctuation found in participants' texts were commas and periods. That can be attributed to the lack of knowledge in the way punctuation is used in English written texts. Another reason is the importance of the two devices in Arabic written texts, where it is possible to be dependent on only commas and periods. Thus, we note that the students' first language is affecting their punctuation use, for example, students are not punctuating non-restrictive relative clauses because it is not marked in Arabic.

Table 5.6: Punctuations

Students	Scores	Error Percentage	Overall mistakes score
Student No.1	5	27.7%	18
Student No.2	10	22.2%	45
Student No.3	3	30%	10
Student No.4	6	40%	15
Student No.5	18	40.9%	44
Student No.6	14	33.3%	42

Student 1 made five errors in terms of punctuation use, which was 27.7% of the overall error's percentage. Student 2 made ten punctuation errors, which was 22.2% of the overall score. 30% of student 3's, and 40% of student 4's errors were punctuations related errors. As for student 5, he committed eighteen errors in punctuations' use, which was 40.9% of the overall errors' score. Student 6 made 14 errors, which was 33.3%.

5.3 Themes

As mentioned earlier, theme and rheme represent the distribution of information in the sentence. Halliday (1985:39) defines theme as “the starting-point for the message: it is what the clause is going to be about”. According to Eggins (1994:275), theme contains already ‘given’ information, hence, it contains information that has been mentioned elsewhere in the text. As for rheme, it functions as a reminder for a message in the text, in which theme is developed. Thus, theme functions as the setting in which the new information and the remainder of the sentence – rheme – is introduced. In other words, rheme is all the important new information a writer expects the reader does not know, and adds it so the argument can progress (cf. Halliday 1994, Eggins 1994).

Balance and movement of a clause between theme and rheme is an important factor for producing a cohesive text. Therefore, in cohesive writing, ‘given’ information in a clause is required to be in a theme position, which functions as a ‘signpost’ for readers, and shows them where the information came from and where the text is going to next (Eldokali, 2007). As for the new information, it needs to be found in the rheme position. In this study, we noted that the EFL Arab students struggled with controlling the flow of information in their written texts, making it difficult for the reader to follow the text due to the lack of signposts that signal the new and the given information in the text. In other words, they failed to control the movement of information from theme to rheme.

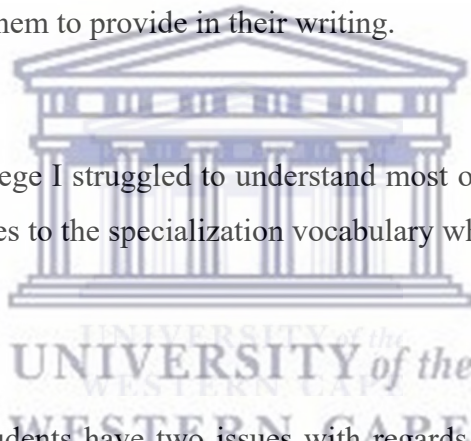
In the first example, as readers we expect the student to start with something related to the topic he is writing about in order to follow the information. However, we noted that it is difficult to identify the topic the student is introducing. The student started as follows:

As I was Applying for the first time postgraduate study at in South Africa, I was quiet excited to go through the process of my study to know what are my duties. I met my supervisor the person who was taking me throug my program and showing me around and introduce me to my group. (Extract 1)

It should be noted that there is no direct relation between the topic and what was required of the student to write about. Here, it is difficult to identify any particular theme. In the Extract above, it can be noted that there is more than one incomplete theme: (1) applying to university; (2) feelings about the study process; (3) meeting the supervisor; and (4) meeting the group. The lack of thematic planning can be noticed in all the participants' writing, which has a negative impact on students' texts. Furthermore, the student did not use any other strategies to compensate for the lack of themes in the text.

In Extract 4 (below), instead of introducing the theme of 'first day in the university', the student spoke mainly about the first lecture. Here, it is difficult to link what the student wrote to the required topic. The lack of information provided by the student makes it difficult to link the content to the topic. We noted that the majority of students faced the same difficulty in structuring the required theme we expected them to provide in their writing.

In my first day at college I struggled to understand most of what the lecturer was saying specially when it comes to the specialization vocabulary which I was n't familiar to me as an Arabic speaker.



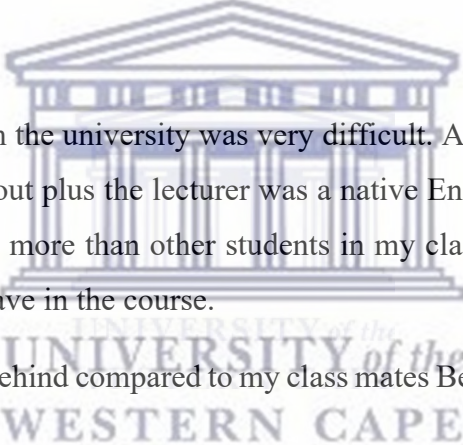
We can conclude that the students have two issues with regards to the structure of theme and rheme. The first is that the students tend to provide more than one incomplete theme. The second is that the themes in several texts were irrelevant and did not reflect what was expected of the students. Therefore, the Arab EFL students found challenges in structuring theme and rheme in their written text.

5.4 Contextualization of the Topic

Another major issue the researcher found in the students' writing was the contextualization of the topic. Eggins (2004) notes that the process of meaning making is impossible without contextual information. The problem of contextualization is due to the learners' failure to include background knowledge and the linguistic background required for the written domain. Furthermore, Extener

(1996) argues that the problem could also be the result of the students' lack of such knowledge and the linguistic structure to express it. The following Extracts show the students' performances in contextualizing the topic.

In Extract 3, the participant spoke about his struggle to understand English throughout his text. Then, he started talking about what he thought should be done to improve his English and his knowledge of his speciality. Although the student was asked to write about his first day at the university, instead he focused on one aspect of that day, which is the linguistic barrier. This shows that the student did not contextualize the topic, which is the result of not having the linguistic knowledge needed for the writing tasks. As a result, the student found it difficult to express his memories of that day.



The first day at English the university was very difficult. All the vocabularies I heard was the first time I hear about plus the lecturer was a native English speaker. Therefore, I had to read so many books more than other students in my class, all that was just to keep up with the material we have in the course.

However, I felt really behind compared to my class mates Because all of them were English speakers.

Hence I had to attend two or three courses to improve my English in terms of the acadmic writing and lestening skills. These courses was advised by my supervivros to keep me up with the clase.

A similar problem was noticed in Extract 4 where the student spoke about his struggle with English terms and understanding the lecturer. The student failed to express his experience of his first day at the university. In both Extracts 3 and 4, the students failed to address the given topic coherently. Furthermore, in Extract 5, the student spoke about the time he woke up and his trip in his first paragraph, which is not the topic he was asked to write about. In the second paragraph, he only

spoke briefly about a meeting he had with his supervisor, then he spoke about topics he was offered to research. The student did not mention any of his experiences with other people at the university such as colleagues or staff members. The lack of expression can also be due to the lack of linguistic knowledge.

The student in Extract 6 focused on the same thing, which is his experience with his potential supervisor, and did not recollect any other activities or interactions with other people on his first day. Although we elaborated on the required topic, the majority of the participants failed to contextualize the topic, and the majority chose which interaction to speak about.

5.5 Summary

According to McKenna (2004), when a student fails to write in a style regarded as common sense by the discourse of their discipline, that student is considered as problematic and there is a chance they will fail. The expectations placed on students to choose and use specific academic norms often “function in hegemonic ways to maintain a social order, based on literacy norms and access to elevate secondary literacies” (Owino, 2002, cited in Tshotsho, 2006:115). Literacy, according to Banda (2004), is a social practice immersed in socially constructed epistemological philosophies. It is about the choices people make in different literacy practices and how they interact in reading and writing, based on the influence of their knowledge and identity by these choices. Therefore, we can argue that the participants lack the cultural conventions of English academic writing, as was shown in this chapter.

Chapter 6: EFL Teaching Textbooks

6.0 Introduction

The chapter analyses the books that are used for teaching, in terms of appropriateness of mode, linguistic and cultural characteristics to the level of Arab students concerned. The first book is '*Efekta General English B1*' used to teach beginners, i.e. first level in the language schools. The second is '*Efekta General English B2*', which is used to teach students in second level. The third book is titled '*New Headway*', which is used for intermediate levels. The last book, '*Cutting Edge*' is used to teach upper-intermediate levels. The books are referred to as follows: B1, B2, PI and UI.

This chapter will give an overview of the selected textbooks. Furthermore, using insights from SFL and MDA, the researcher critically evaluate the textbooks.

6.1 Content of Textbooks and SFL:

To answer questions 1 and 3 of this study, the researcher looks into the content of the textbooks.

6.1.1 Efekta General English B1 Textbook:

The B1 book, which teaches the beginner level, is divided into six units. The units deal with different skills within a certain theme. The skills are: Grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, listening and speaking. These skills are taught and used to explain the following themes:

- Dining in
- Stages of life
- Let's make a deal
- Health & safety
- Natural disasters
- Good behaviour

In terms of grammar, the first unit in the book aims to teach the students how to reference nouns with the use of object nouns (anaphoric referencing) and to show students how to use time expressions such as *'as soon as, until, etc'*. As for vocabulary, the unit offers cooking-related words and phrases. Furthermore, the unit uses different recipes for students to read and identify the reference words in the text. The writing task involves writing about *'directions for making an omelette'*, thereby engaging the theme of the unit and possibly use the words learned while reading. Towards the end of the unit students are tasked to listen to a recording of people speaking about food and find pronoun references. Afterwards, students are expected to speak about their favourite recipes.

In the second unit, the learners are taught *the past tense* and *future perfect (prediction) tense* for the grammar lesson. In terms of vocabulary, they are equipped with terms related to 'stages of life and the human footprint on the planet'. The reading section aims to help the students understand the stages of aging and the different stages of adulthood, also, to read the relative time expressions such as *'so, far, until, and others'*. For the writing task, the students are asked to write a casual email to a friend who is distressed by aging. As for the speaking task, the learners are required to interview classmates about the life stages and to list the past and the future events in the format of a timeline to the interviewer.

The third unit is titled *'let's make a deal'*. The objectives of the unit are to learn how to 'haggle over prices' and to learn about hedging. There is no main focus in terms of grammar. However, the description lists "Accepting and rejecting offers, making a counter offer and hedging" under the grammar focus. Vocabularies taught in this unit are shopping-related words. The reading task requires students to read an article about haggling tips for different countries around the globe. The writing task was for the students to work in groups and write a list of eight haggling tips. For the listening task, the learners are required to listen to people negotiate prices and mark specific information. Finally, the speaking task was to role-play as a clerk and a costumer.

The theme of the fourth unit in the B1 course book is *'Health and safety'*. The objectives are to discuss injuries in the work place, and to read guidelines for safety in the workplace. The focus of grammar is *present perfect passive tense*. In this unit, the students are taught words and expressions related to health and safety as well as words related to accidents in the workplace. In respect of the

reading, students are given a *'brochure about work station safety'*. For the writing, the students are asked to write an email in which they request time off to recover from a workplace injury. The listening task involves listening to changes that have been made to a specific workplace in terms of safety. Finally, in the speaking section, the students act out a scene of an accident and complete a report.

In unit five, the topic is *'Natural disasters'*. The unit aims to teach students about quantifiers (general vs. particular) and the ability to use articles. In terms of vocabulary, the students are taught words related to nature disasters. In the reading section, the students are asked to read a news article about *'famous volcanic eruptions'*. Similarly, for the writing task, students are asked to write a small news article about a natural disaster. As for the listening training, the teacher has to play a news report and a radio interview. Finally, for speaking, the learners are asked to discuss in groups a *'to-do'* list for different natural disasters.

In the final unit, the point of interest is *'good behaviour'*. For the grammar, the students are taught how to make polite requests using *'may, could, would, can'*, and *will'* from a grammatical point of view. The new vocabularies students are taught are related to behaviour. The reading task requires the students to read a page from a guidebook. For the writing section, the students are asked to write a paragraph comparing and contrasting customs. Furthermore, in the listening section, learners listen to a radio show about behaviours, which they will discuss for the speaking task.

6.1.2 Efekta General English (B2) Textbook:

The B2 textbook has six units; each unit focuses on teaching six different skills (grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, listening and speaking). Similar to the B1 textbook, each unit has a certain theme in which the vocabulary, reading, writing and listening tasks focus directly to the theme of the unit. The units are titled as follows:

- The week
- Differences

- Finance & money
- Let's talk
- Excellence
- Lifestyle

The first unit in the textbook is titled '*The week*', and it aims to teach the students how to speak about and understand their weekly routine. For the grammar portion, the first unit deals with *the present simple* versus *the present continuous tense*. Students are asked to write a letter responding to a report. The students have to do reading and listening tasks relating to the topic of the unit. For the speaking, learners are required to '*role-play a man and a woman discussing work*'.

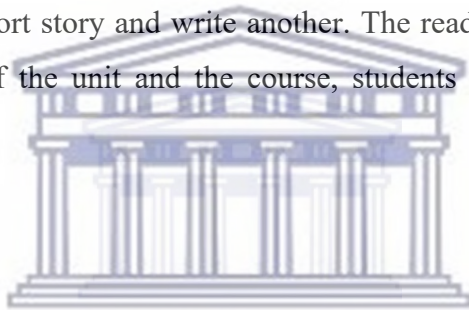
In unit two, the theme is '*Differences*'; this unit aims to teach students how to discuss gender equality in workplaces and the differences between modern life and life in the past. The grammar lesson is reported speech and how to use '*used to* and *would*'. The students are instructed to do reading and listening exercises about gender, differences, networking and social media. For the speaking task, the EFL learners are asked to talk about new inventions and the way they are changing lives. In the writing task, students are required to write an argumentative essay related to social media.

The third unit talks about '*finance and money*'. In terms of grammar, the focus is clauses and connections. In this section, EFL learners are expected to write a letter asking about an advert and to write to a bank. For the listening and reading tasks, the subjects are to speak about costs of living in different countries.

Unit four is titled '*let's talk*', which indicates that the unit deals with communication. For the reading task, the students are given examples on 'third conditional and mixed conditionals'. For the writing task, students are asked to write 'reviews about a new device', as well as to write a 'user review for an online PC magazine'. The speaking task is to talk about the advantages and disadvantages of different means of communication. As for the reading and listening tasks, learners read through reviews about digital gadgets and listen to an expert talk about different components of communication.

The fifth unit is about ‘*Excellence*’, that is, excellence in careers and proficiencies. In this section, students are taught how to speak about success and speak about people who have done extraordinary things. The textbook lists: ‘*so and such, too and enough and, modifying superlative*’ as the grammatical theme of the unit. As for the reading and the writing tasks, students are asked to read about ‘*people who have done extraordinary things*’, and to write an email to a friend responding to a request, and another email talking about an exciting event. The listening and speaking tasks require students to listen to people talk about their experiences in sports, and to role-play a career officer and a person seeking career advice.

The final unit teaches students how to speak of ‘*lifestyle*’. It also teaches the students about the different lifestyles of people around the world, mostly European. The grammatical rules in this section are gerunds and infinitives, and the past perfect and past continuous tenses. For the writing, students are to complete a short story and write another. The reading part is about conventional lifestyle. Towards the end of the unit and the course, students are asked to discuss different lifestyles.



6.1.3 New Headway (PI) Textbook:

This book targets students who are moving from beginner to intermediate level. The units are:

- Getting to know you
- Whatever makes you happy
- What’s in the news
- Eat, drink and be merry
- Looking forward
- The way I see it
- Living history
- Girls and boys
- Time for a story
- Our interactive world
- Life’s what you make it

- Just wondering

In unit one, the lesson focuses on tenses, questions and question words, for the grammar lesson. For the vocabulary, this textbook is different from the other two books in terms of vocabulary planning — in unit one, the vocabulary list includes *'verbs of similar meaning, adjectives and nouns that go together, prepositions and words with two meanings'*. As for the reading task, the topic is reading a newspaper article titled 'blind date', which is about a blind date that the newspaper organized for two of its readers. As for the listening and speaking sections, students are offered recordings of people talking about two topics, the first topic is *'blind dates'*, and the second is *'my oldest friend'*. Afterwards, students are requested to speak about their friends, and about the couple in the blind date article from the previous task. Finally, the EFL learners are asked to write about a friend.

Unit two is titled *'whatever makes you happy'*, which indicates that the focus is on things people do that make them happy. The unit focuses on the present tense, present continuous tense, and have/have got, in terms of grammar. As for vocabulary and everyday English, the focus is on words and phrases that are used to start a conversation and express interest. For the reading and writing, learners read a quiz about *'happiness'* and write a postcard about a holiday. In the listening and speaking tasks, students listen a song and speak about it afterwards. In addition, students are required to exchange information about people and discuss their notion of a *'perfect day'*.

In the third unit, the students deal with the past tense (the past simple and past continuous). The unit is about *'the news'*, hence, learners are expected to be able to retell a story and discuss the news. For the reading section, EFL learners are asked to read an article from a newspaper about *'a flight attendant who lost his cool'*, and in writing section, they are asked to expand on stories. In the vocabulary and the everyday English sections, students are taught what words they should use when speaking about time, and verbs that might be helpful when telling stories.

The fourth unit in the book, EFL learners discuss *'food and drinks'*. The speaking, listening and reading sections are all related to topics about food. The grammar in this unit focuses on quantity and articles. Thus, articles *'a, an, and the'*, quantifiers *'much and many, some and any, a few and*

a *lot*', are explained through speaking and describing food. In an email format, students are expected to use linking words.

Unit five is titled '*looking forward*', which instructs students on how to speak about the future. The grammar focusses on verbs in the future form. Furthermore, students learn how to write about future plans and to write about dreams they have for the future. Similar to the other units, vocabulary reading, speaking and the everyday English sections deal with items directly related to the unit's theme, which is personal future and dreams.

For the sixth unit, students are taught how to use relative pronouns in writing. In the writing section, students are asked to write a description of their hometowns, in which they use relative pronouns such as '*who, that, which and where*'. For the reading, students read an article titled '*multicultural London*', in which students are introduced to different perspectives and ways of living. The grammatical focus is comparative and superlative adjectives. In the grammar lesson, the students are taught how to ask people's opinion in others/objects by asking '*what ... like?*'

In the seventh unit, students deal with the present perfect and the indefinite past tenses, and the way to use '*ever and never*' in the grammar section. As for listening and speaking, students listen to a person speaking about their family history. Afterwards, the students discuss their family history, as well as aristocracy and inherited wealth. Furthermore, EFL students are taught how to appropriately write a biography on a famous character.

In unit eight, the topic is about '*boys and girls*'. In this unit, students write a formal letter and an informal email after they are taught selected formal and informal expressions. The grammar in this unit focuses on the use of '*have to, must and should*'. For the reading, listening and speaking sections, students deal with topics that directly speak about families with sons and daughters. Students also discuss two types of families swapping kids.

Unit nine focuses on storytelling, where students are taught how to narrate a story and the style of writing stories. In grammar section, the unit focuses on the past perfect, narrative tenses and conjunctions. For the reading, students reading a classic horror story. The speaking tasks are retelling stories, describing a book, and telling a story from the past. As for the listening, EFL learners listen to a radio programme talking about a writer.

In unit ten, students are taught how to speak about the *'interactive world'*. The writing task is to write about the pros and cons of social networking sites. As for the reading, students read about *'the revolution and the use of the Internet'*. The vocabulary focuses on *'words that go together'* (*noun + noun, verb + noun, and adverb + adjectives*). For the listening task, EFL learners listen to people speak about their experiences.

Unit eleven and twelve deal with present perfect, first condition and second conditions. The topic of unit eleven is titled *'life's what you make it'*, which talks about life choices and experiences. In the writing for unit eleven, the students are filling in and completing forms. As for unit twelve, which is titled *'just wondering'*, the writing task is to take notes by listening to someone's vision. The remaining tasks are all related to the topics of the unit.

6.1.4 Cutting Edge (UI) textbook:

The list of content is:

- Past and present
- Life's ups and downs
- Adventures and mishaps
- The mind
- Unusual achievements
- Getting it right
- Big events
- Fame and fortune
- Mysteries, problem, oddities
- Getting together
- Interfering with nature
- Media mania



The first unit in this textbook is a revision of verb forms and to inform students about auxiliaries. The vocabulary focuses on *past* and *present time* phrases. For the writing lesson, the students draft a biography using the tenses revised in the unit. As for the conversation, students speak about their life circles.

The second and third units deal with forming nouns and gerunds, forming adjectives, the use of verb forms in narratives, and the continuous aspects of other tenses. Unit two instructs EFL learners how to write a list of the things that makes them feel happy and the thing that makes them sad. For the reading, the students read a narrative of an incident written by an author. In unit two, students read an article titled '*so you think you know what's good for you*', which talks about different tips for a healthier life. In unit three, students write a narrative of a story using different verb forms.

Units four and five focus on the passive tense, perfect tense in the past and present tense, as well as in the future form. For the writing skill, unit four instructs students on how to write formal letters. Unit five does not require the students to write about anything. In unit four, the reading task is an article titled '*gender gaps on the brain*', where in unit five, learners read a passage titled '*remarkable achievements*'.

In unit six and unit seven, students learn about the use of articles, relative clauses and quantifiers. In the writing task, unit six requires learners to write a list of '*how to...*'; unit seven does not require students to write anything. For the reading skill, unit six has an article titled '*worst case scenario*', and in unit seven, the students read about food festivals.

In terms of grammar, unit eight looks at the differences between gerund and infinitive usage, as well as informing the students about the different infinitives and gerund forms. Unit nine focuses on modals and related verbs, as well as the past modals. In terms of writing, in unit eight, the writing task asks students to write an imaginary account of a woman's time in Hollywood, from her point of view. Furthermore, unit eight teaches the students about linking ideas and arguments. As for unit nine, students are only asked to rewrite sentences and replace words with modals.

Units ten and eleven focus on future forms, and hypothetical situations in the past and in the present. For the writing task, learners write different types of messages in unit ten. For unit eleven, they write a 'for and against' essay. As for the reading, students read two articles titled: *getting*

together 21st-century style, and big questions facing modern medical science. Unit twelve's grammar focuses on reported speech. The unit also focuses on writing reviews. The students are asked to write a film review. For the reading and listening skills, students read an article titled 'giving up on TV', and discuss the article afterwards.

6.2 Summary of the Content of the Textbooks

We noted that the content of the textbook focuses on different linguistic skills; however, the main focus is conversational and informal language. Although the tasks in a few units focus on the formal use of language, the majority focuses on the informal aspects, such as writing an email to a friend, or having a general conversation about a chosen topic. Furthermore, the reading tasks are not academically based, as most of the articles are taken from newspapers or written in a similar style. It is noteworthy that the textbooks do not relate the grammatical and other linguistic features taught to academic English, which is needed for the university students.

From an SFL point of view (Martin, 1992; Halliday, 1978, 1994; Eggins, 1994, 2004), teaching language is more effective when done in a practical context. Although the textbooks try to teach English language within contexts of real-life experiences, we noted that the students are not taught the language in an academic context, which is one of the factors critical for acquisition of academic writing skills. Thus, it would be more efficient for the EFL learners who wish to acquire their education in English-speaking institutions to be taught English in an academic context. For example, they should be taught the relationship between the lexical rules and writing. The writing tasks found in the textbooks are mostly informal (writing emails to friends, lists, etc.). Therefore, learners are not trained to write in a formal context, and they should be trained and familiarized with different genres, particularly academic genre. Thus, it would be more useful if the main focus were academically oriented tasks, especially in the writing tasks.

The data shows similarities between the topics and approaches of design in both the beginner and the advance levels. However, the books differ in the levels of complexity, in terms of the grammar and language taught in each level. The books are also similar in terms of the general focus on teaching the conversational English (how to use English in everyday communication). The EFL

Arab students have the ability to form meanings; however, they lack the ability to relate the written discourse together in a coherent piece. Hence, they tend to use spoken language in their writing.

6.3 Multimodal Discourse Analysis:

To answer questions 2,5 and 6, the study applied a multimodal analysis to the textbooks used in EFL classrooms.

6.4 Modes Used in EFL Teaching Textbooks:

Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA) will help to achieve one of the aims of this study, which is to analyse the effectiveness of the different modes used in the textbooks, and the audio-visual teaching aids as a material culture for teaching and learning English in preparation for tertiary level studies.

According to Kress (2010), modes are semiotic resources used to make meaning in any given communication. The modes or semiotic resources include text, layout, music, other sounds, signs, images, gestures, etc. However, it is important to note, as Kress (2010) highlighted, that modes are “socially shaped and culturally given resources”, i.e. the culture of the sender and the receiver determines the meaning of the used mode. The question of whether the modes in the books reflect the culture of the students becomes very critical.

6.5 Images as a Mode

The data shows that the textbooks used images as explanatory modes or semiotic resources. However, as will be shown below, the images used to illustrate various point in the books are European or Western and do not reflect the Arabic culture of the students.

6.5.1 Images of Places

The editors of the textbooks made use of actual places (countries, cities, sites and landmarks) as examples to teach language. The places in the textbooks are used to teach different skills in the books. For instance, in Figure 1, the pictures of places are used to teach the students about how to use vocabulary such as ‘landmark, bay, cathedral, and inhabitants’. The textbook used a picture of Big Ben in a sentence and offered the word ‘landmark’ among other vocabulary for the learners to choose from; similarly, a picture of the city of Rome, accompanied by an incomplete sentence which requires the students to add the missing word by choosing it from the vocabulary list.

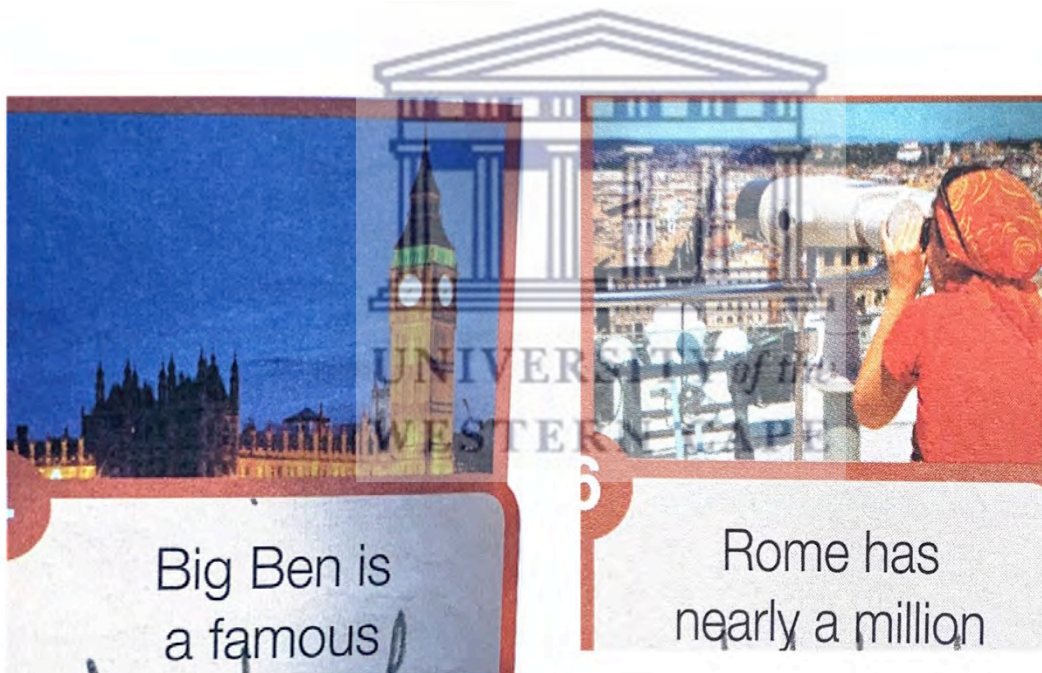


Figure 1 Cities and Landmarks, From B1 Textbook

Furthermore, the places are used as a context for people’s conversations, for example, in Figure 2 the people in the picture are all in a shopping context (a mall, clothing shop, and a car dealership),

which indicates that the unit is about people making deals and negotiating prices. The majority of the pictures in the textbooks are used as exemplary situations where certain language styles are used.



Figure 2. People in shopping context. Extracted from B1

Figure 3, taken from B2 textbook, depicts people in certain situations to illustrate the differences among people in terms of professions and lifestyles. The unit attempts to create cultural awareness among the students. It is noteworthy that throughout the unit, we noted that the cultures added are only Western and European, and the people used are



Figure 3. Different professions. Extracted from B2

It is noteworthy that, through the architecture of the buildings in the different images used by the editors of the textbooks, the location of the places can be determined. For example, in Figure 4 below, the picture taken from P1, the architecture style is from sixteenth century England. This also seen from the design of the castle, it can be determined that the building is somewhere in Europe. The first picture was added to illustrate different lifestyles and how a group of people are living in the context of the picture. In the second picture, from the big tall buildings and the architecture style, students can see that the picture is in the United States or somewhere in the West. The small picture of New York City in Figure 5 was added next to a ‘Grammar builder’

task, in which students read about someone speaking about moving from a small village to the city.



Figure 4. Architecture style. Extracted from P1. Figure 5. New York city. Extracted from B2

Looking at the pictures of places and landmarks, as well as the situations and different lifestyles in the textbooks, we noted the absence of the EFL Arab students' countries, cities, landmarks and lifestyles. One can argue that, based on Kress' (2010) argument, modes are culturally defined, thus, the understanding of a mode can differ from one culture to another. The absence of the students' culture and voice in the books can have negative implications on the students' learning processes. Furthermore, the omission of Arabs in the textbooks hints that the books do not target them and target the other groups included in the books.

Table 6.1 Images of Places

Book	Number of places and sites in the book		Places in Europe and the west		Places in the middle east and North Africa	
	Places	Cities & sites				
B1	10	11	19	(100%)	0	(0%)
B2	4	3	4	(100%)	0	(0%)
PI	5	4	9	(88.8%)	1	(11.1%)
UI	13	14	27	(100%)	0	(0%)

6.5.2 Images of People Used in the Textbooks

In the previous section, we noted that images of people are included as a mode in the textbooks. The people are added in a context, for example, if the grammar focus in the unit is ‘quantifiers and articles’, then the images of the people would be people who are having a conversation in a context where quantifiers are required to be used. The pictures of people are generally accompanied by a text (another mode this research will look at) to explain the use of the image or the names of the characters in the images.

In the introduction of every unit, the textbooks add multiple pictures to elaborate the title and the focus of the unit. The unit objectives are added in the bottom right corner of the page in a small box that is in a unique colour to be salient. The remainder of the page has images of people or objects. In Figure 6 below, the focus of the unit is ‘different lifestyles’. The pictures are added to illustrate the objectives of the unit. However, after looking at the example and the rest of the images in the unit, as noted before, there is a noticeable absence of the Arab identity. The Arabic lifestyle, objects and other material culture are not found in the unit. It can be argued that the Arab EFL students will struggle to discuss their lifestyles, as they will need different vocabulary and phrases to describe specific elements of their lives.

Similarly, in Figure 7, the focus of the unit is ‘different stages of life’; the textbook added different age groups in the introduction page. Throughout the unit, the images of the people used, as well as the topics that accompanied the images, do not relate to the EFL Arab learners’ backgrounds. For instance, an image of a white man talking about ‘aging’ and the feelings that comes with that; it cannot be assumed that people coming from different countries and cultures will experience similar feelings and have similar stories.



Figure 6. Different styles. Extracted from B2. Figure 7 Different life stages. Extracted from B1

Important people and historical figures were also used in different parts of the textbooks. In figures 8, 9, and 10 below, the textbooks show influencers and celebrities who made an impact in their professions. Figure 8 are examples of different historical events that took place; among the images are Martin Luther King and Mahatma Gandhi, activists in the history of America and India respectively.

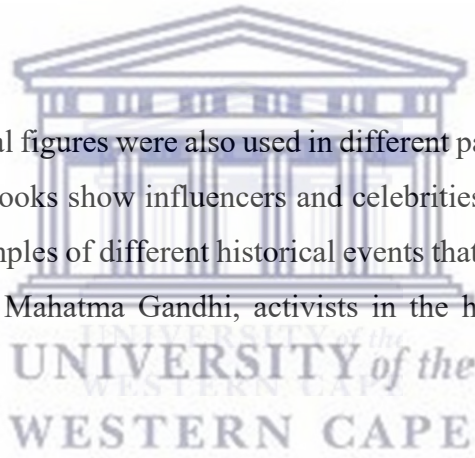




Figure 8 Influencers and historic events. Extracted from UI

Figure 9 contains the image of the famous Dutch post-impressionist painter, Vincent Van Gogh. In Figure 10, the people in the picture are American and British celebrities. Throughout the textbooks, all the famous people added to the books are Europeans, Americans and Indians. Thus, the editors of the book noticeably tried to create a multicultural and diverse content. However, there was not any picture of any Arab influencers and celebrities anywhere in the books. In Table 6.2, it is noted that the B1 textbook used 180 person in the textbook, and only 4 people (2.2%) were Arab and African looking people. The reason the researcher included the Africans is because of the North Africans (Moroccans, Libyans, Algerians and Tunisians) who share culture with both

Arabs due to the historical events in their area, and with the Africans. In B2 textbooks the editors used 251 person, only 2% of them were Arab and African looking people. The percentage of Arabs used in PI textbooks is 4.16%. as for the UI, the number of Arabs used is 7 people, which is 7.14% of the overall amount of people used as a mode

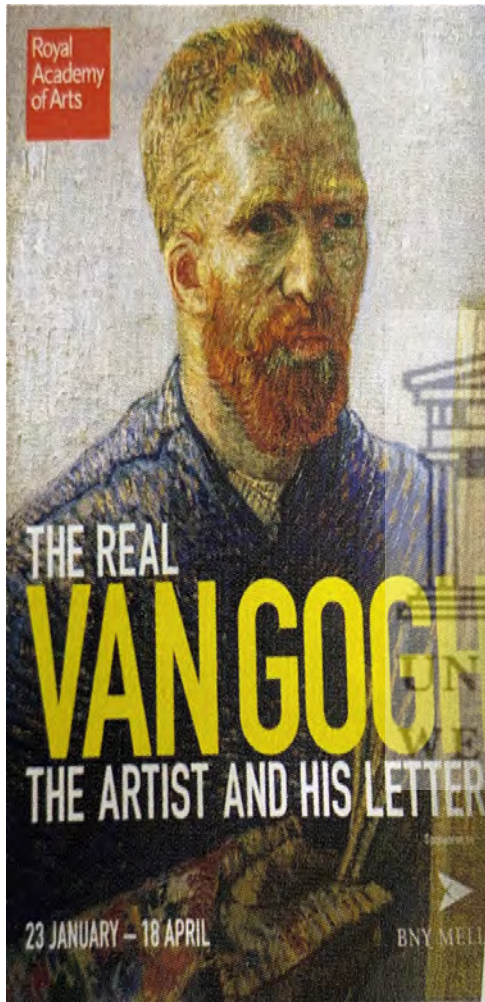


Figure 9 VanGogh. Extracted from PI

Task: Summarise an article
Preparation: reading and listening

- 1 What do you know about the celebrities in the photos? Can you guess what the article is about from the photos and the title?
- 2 Read the article, using your mini-dictionary, if necessary. Then make notes about these questions.
 - a. What, very generally, is the article about?
 - b. What are the main points of the article (including examples, key words, etc.)?
 - c. What events/research, etc. does it describe (including important facts and figures)?
 - d. What issues does the article raise and what are your opinions about them?
- 3 **TRB** Listen to someone discussing the notes she took. Did she mention the same things that you did?

Are you a celeb worshipper?
 By James Chapman, Science Correspondent, Daily Mail

Do you wake up thinking of David Beckham? Or wonder what Brad Pitt is eating for breakfast? If so you could be one of a startling number of Britons suffering from a newly identified psychological condition: Celebrity Worship Syndrome (CWS). One in three people is so obsessed with someone in the public eye that he or she is a sufferer, say psychologists. And one in four is so taken with their idol that the obsession affects their daily life. Psychologists at the University of Leicester, who used a celebrity worship scale to rate the problems, found that thirty-six percent suffered from some form of CWS, and that the number was going up.

While many are obsessed with glamorous film and pop stars, such as George Clooney and Jennifer Lopez, others had unlikely objects of affection, including British Prime Minister, Tony Blair.

One theory is that in a society dominated by TV and with a decline in extended families and communities, celebrities have taken the place of relatives, neighbours and friends for many people. Respect for family members has been replaced by the worship of the famous.

The study of around 700 people aged eighteen to sixty discovered there were three types of Celebrity Worship Syndrome. Those with a mild form – twenty-two percent of the sample – were likely to be extroverts, with a lot of friends. Their worst symptom – at least for their friends – was a passion for talking about their chosen celebrity. Twelve percent of the sample showed signs of the moderate form which meant they had an intense personal identification with their idol. The third group, the hardcore CWS sufferers, are solitary, impulsive, anti-social and troublesome, with insensitive traits. They feel they have a special bond with their celebrity, believe their celebrity knows them and are prepared to lie, or even die, for their hero. Around two percent of people had the most serious form of the syndrome, meaning their celebrity worship was borderline pathological.

Figure 10 Celebrities. Extracted from UI

Table 6.2 Images of People in the Textbooks

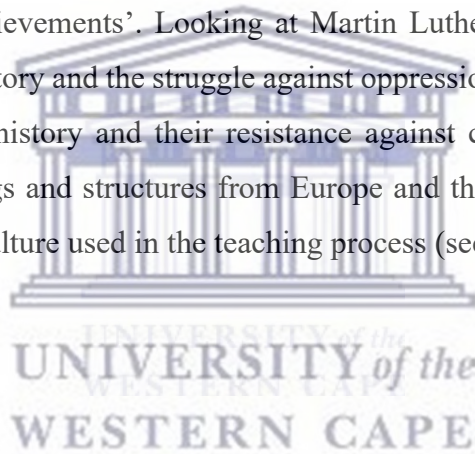
Book	Number of people in the book		Arabs and African looking people.		European and western looking people.	
	people	Heroes & celebs				
B1	180	0	4	(2.2%)	176	(97.7%)
B2	251	0	5	(1.99%)	246	(98%)
PI	264	8	11	(4.16%)	253	(95.32%)
UI	237	40	7	(7.14%)	230	(92.82%)

6.5.3 Images of Material Culture

The concept of material culture refers to the noticeable phenomenon of a particular society. These phenomena are considered inherited items, such as fixed structures, portable objects and human habitat (Aronin and Laoire, 2012). According to Aronin and Laoire (2012:3), objects such as “food and utensils, furniture and pieces of art, medical devices, medications, books and clay tablets of the past, pens and carpenter tools, monuments and buildings,” can all be considered as material culture. These objects are considered as cultural objects that communicate encrypted messages about people and their lifestyles.

Moreover, Bronner (1985:129) defines material culture as a craft, a house, a food that comes from one's hands or heart, one's shared experience with other people in a community, one's learned ideas and symbols, visibly connects persons and groups to society and to material reality around them. That interaction is material culture. It is inherently personal and social, mental and physical. Furthermore, Gabryś-Barker (2018) considers heroes as one of the elements that make national cultures, therefore, people with a notable status in history are considered to be material culture due to the message that they send and the attachment that these 'heroes' have to a certain group.

The textbooks used to teach EFL Arab students are rich with material culture, but none of it relates to Arabic culture. The editors used images of objects, food, pieces of art, heroes, unique buildings, clothing and other materials that signify chosen cultures and that are used to identify specific groups. For example, in figure 8, the textbooks added two heroes from two different cultures as an elaboration on 'amazing achievements'. Looking at Martin Luther King's picture is an instant reminder of the American history and the struggle against oppression in the United States; Gandhi is a reminder of the Indian history and their resistance against colonization. Furthermore, the textbooks are full of buildings and structures from Europe and the United States, which can be considered part of material culture used in the teaching process (see Figures 1, 2, 4 and 5).



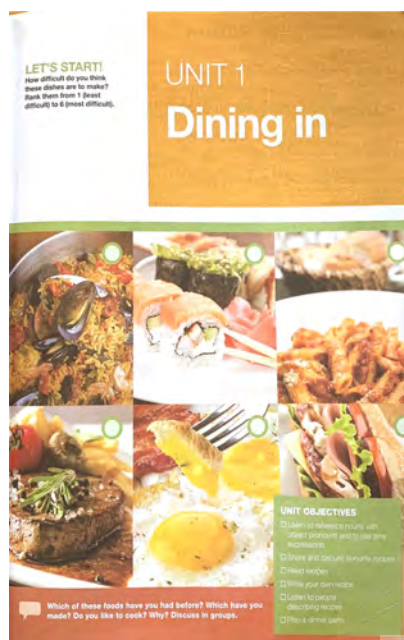


Figure 11 Food. Extracted from B1



Figure 12 Food. Extracted from B2

Moreover, Figures 11 and 12 are examples of the materials used as cultural references in the textbooks. However, the Arab EFL material culture is from 0-7% in all the textbooks (Table, 7.3); throughout the textbooks, the research noted that there are no materials that can be used to refer to the Arabian or the North African culture. However, few items were found that can be related to more than one culture including that of the Arabs.



Table 6.3 Images of Material Culture in the Textbooks

Book	Number of objects and food used as a material culture	Materials that relates to Europe and the west		Materials that relates to North Africa and the middle east	
B1	45	42	(93.3%)	3	(6.6%)

B2	17	16	(94.1%)	1	(5.8%)
PI	31	29	(93.5%)	2	(6.4%)
UI	52	52	(100%)	0	(0%)



6.6 Colours, Sizes and Positioning of Visual Modes

According to Kress and van Leeuwen (2006), resources are set in five significant ways: value, salience, framing, reading path, and rhythm. Thus, the positioning of elements can determine the information value of that element, depending on the zone where it is placed (left, right, top or bottom). Salience refers to the elements that are made visible to the viewers, and made by factors (such as placement, size, colour or different contrasts in tonal) to attract their attention.

The different textbooks share similar designs in terms of organizing the modes used. The similarities are in the use of multiple colours and large images on the majority of pages; also, the pages are systemically divided through the use of colours, which borders information to avoid confusing the students. As mentioned earlier, the pages of the books consist of text boxes

(questions or grammatical focus) along the sides and images in the middle of the page along with a text that relates to the image.

At the beginning of every unit, we noted that B1 and B2 books introduce the unit with a full page image/s, and the title of the unit is written in large font placed at the top right corners (see Figure 11). Also, in a small box placed in the right bottom corner, the unit objectives are listed in a bullet format. Thus, the most salient mode in the introductions are the picture, hence, the editors are reliant on the images to be the first communication between the book and the learner. On the other pages, the images are placed in the top right or the top left sides of the page. The images are placed in square or round frames and are usually followed or preceded by a question (see figures 13 and 14).



Figure 13 Vocabulary test. Extracted from B2. B1

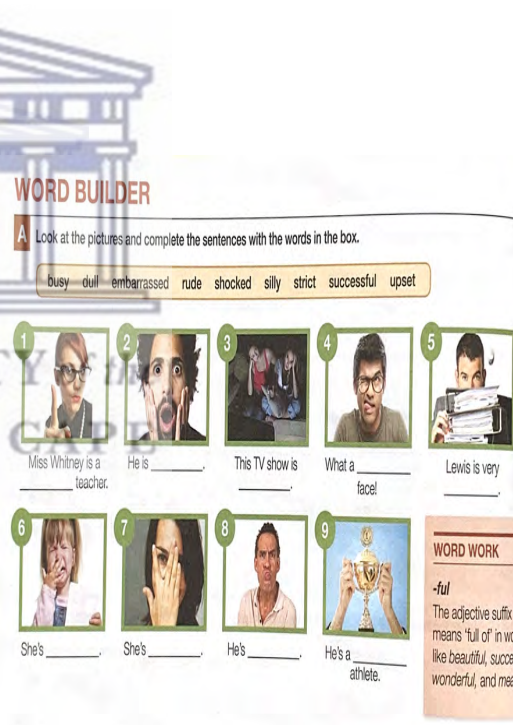


Figure 14 Vocabulary test. Extracted from B1

In the PI and UI textbooks, the units are introduced in a slightly different manner than the other set of textbooks. In the beginning of every unit, there is a large picture in the middle of the book

that connects the two pages together. The positioning of the picture allows it to attract the students' attention, which simplifies the text around the image (see Figure 15). Furthermore, we noted that PI and UI textbooks use medium and large-sized pictures throughout the pages to explain the content of the pages.

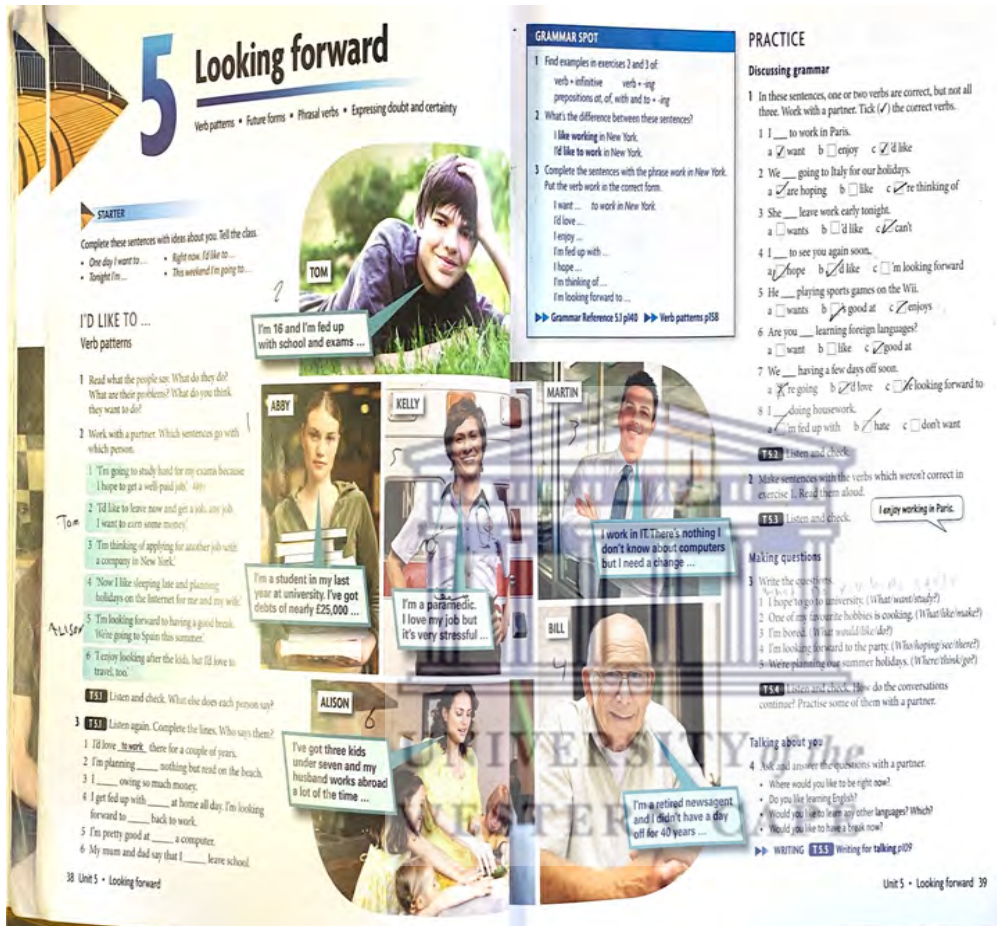


Figure 15 Pictures positioning. Extracted from PI

As mentioned, the textbooks used different colours to highlight information. For example, the PI textbook used a light blue colour to highlight grammatical rules, and used a dark blue colour for questions about grammar (see Figure 16). A similar method of using different coloured boxes is used for the other skills taught in the textbooks. In B1 and B2, the editors assigned a unique colour

for each book (red and yellow) and that colour was used throughout the books to highlight important information.

3 Complete the questions and the answers.

- Where _____ the travellers _____?
Along a country road.
- Why _____ to the city?
Because they were looking for work.
- What _____ in the woods?
They saw a huge bear.
- What _____ the men do?
One _____ in a tree, the other _____ to be dead.
- What _____ the bear _____?
It bent down, sniffed, then wandered away.

T 9.1 Listen and check.

4 Put these lines in one of the places (...) in the story.

- ... because they had walked twenty miles.
- He wanted to know what the bear had said to him.
- ... because they hadn't eaten all day.
- After the bear had gone,...
- He had heard that bears don't like eating dead meat.

T 9.2 Listen to the complete story and check your answers. Do you agree with the moral?

GRAMMAR SPOT

- What tense are the verbs in **bold**?
They **were looking** for work.
They **saw** a bear.
They **had walked** twenty miles.
- They **didn't eat all day**. They **were hungry**. How is this expressed in the story?
- The Past Perfect expresses an action before another time in the past. How do we form this tense?
had + the _____

▶ Grammar Reference 9.1 p144

5 Ask and answer the questions with a partner. Use the Past Perfect.

- Why were the travellers tired?
- Why were they hungry?
- Why did one of them pretend to be dead?
- When did the other man come down from the tree?
- What did he want to know?

T 9.3 Listen and check. Practise them again.

PRACTICE

Pronunciation

1 **T 9.4** The contraction *'d* can be difficult to hear. Listen to the sentences. Put a tick (✓) if you hear *'d = had*.

- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

Discussing grammar

2 What is the difference in meaning between these sentences?

- When I arrived,
... she cooked dinner.
... she was cooking dinner.
... she'd cooked dinner.
- She spoke good French because
... she lived in France.
... she had lived in France.
- I listened to music
... while I did my homework.
... when I'd done my homework.
- When I got home,
... the children went to bed.
... the children had gone to bed.
- She gave me a book,
... so I read it.
... but I'd read it.

3 Match a line in A with a line in B.

A	1 I was nervous on the plane because
	2 When I'd had breakfast,
	3 I met a girl at a party. Her face was familiar.
	4 I felt tired all day yesterday because
	5 My wife was angry with me because
	6 The little girl was crying because

B	_____ I was sure I'd seen her somewhere before.
	_____ I'd never flown before.
	_____ I'd forgotten our anniversary.
	_____ she'd fallen over and hurt herself.
	_____ I went to work.
	_____ I hadn't slept the night before.

T 9.5 Listen and check.

Unit 9 - Time for a story 7

Figure 16 Colours as a mode. Extracted from PI

6.7 Textual Mode

Text as a mode is organized in different shapes, sizes and positioning. The organization of the text in the textbooks define its purpose. The factors that determines the value and function of the text are position and size. For example, in headings, the PI and UI textbooks put it in a middling position in large font and a distinct colour. As for B1 and B2, the headlines are placed on the sides in a large font and coloured with the distinct colour of the book, which is yellow for B1 and red for B2. Furthermore, we noted that when a different font or size are being used to highlight a lesson's focus, they are usually supported with a distinguished colours or being boxed up. For

instance, in Figure 16, the grammar focus is given a different shape, colour and size to the other text added.

Moreover, when the text in the books is small, it is often used to discuss reading tasks, describe images and to ask questions. The textual mode was systemically used to complement the other modes used in the textbooks. Thus, the textbooks use the textual mode to complete and describe other semiotics used in the textbook to communicate a full multimodal message.



Chapter 7: General Conclusion and Recommendations

7.0 Introduction

This chapter revisits the objectives and concludes with a summary of findings on each objective. The chapter ends with recommendations.

Guided by the questions and objectives of the study, this chapter concludes the results of the examination of the effectiveness of EFL teaching materials on Arab speaking students in preparing them for academic writing at prospective universities as well as the students' written essays.

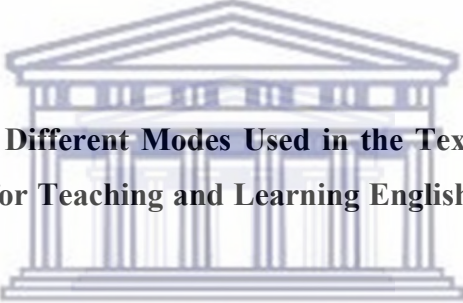
7.1 The Pedagogical Implications of the Linguistic Features Found in EFL Teaching Material (such as textbooks) Used in the Selected Private Language Schools in Cape Town

The study analysed the textbooks first by looking in detailed manner into the content of the books. Then, using multimodal discourse analysis, the study looked into the used modes and the cultural representation throughout the different textbooks. The study found that textbooks are the main source of participants' English literacy. In terms of content, it was found that the textbook focused on everyday language use.

In this regard, the study found that the editors structured the textbooks to teach learners on how to use English in chosen daily communicative events. Furthermore, it was noted that some of the created communicative event are culturally inspired events. For example, in B2 textbook, students were taught about different '*lifestyles*' and about how to speak about '*weekly routines*'. Both lessons were viewed culturally, in other words, when learners were taught about the lifestyle, they were given stories of people from certain cultures (see section 6.2.2). However, the finding was that even with the variety of cultural representation (European, Asian and Western) in the textbooks, the culture of the Arab EFL students was not incorporated in any of the culturally influenced topics. This is contrary to research which suggests that the students' cultural attributes should be considered to be a fundamental element in learning and teaching language process (Schuman, 1976; Krashen, 1981; Byram and Hu, 2012). One can argue that students can feel excluded from

the textbooks, which would create a *negative attitude* towards the textbooks and the content (Byram and Hu, 2012). Subsequently, it will negatively affect the learning process.

The focus on conversational basics of English language and what students need to have specific conversations in English speaking places is necessary for the learners. However, it will not aid the students' English effective writing and academic requirements. As can be seen in chapter six of this study, Arab EFL students have the ability to make meanings, but their writing lacks cohesion and organization. Throughout the textbooks, the writing tasks were about topics such as writing an *Email* to a friend, *to-do list* and other informal writing of this sort. This would expose the learners to the written discourse. It is not enough practice for academic writing. The academic writing requirements and expectations are naturally higher and require a different level and kind of proficiency.



7.2 The Effectiveness of the Different Modes Used in the Textbooks and Visual Teaching Aids as a Material Culture for Teaching and Learning English in Preparation for Tertiary Level Studies.

This study noted that the textbooks are using various modes. The modes used in the textbooks are images of people, places and elements of material culture as well as the use of different colours. We noted that the use of modes is effective in the teaching process as it simplifies the comprehension process for the students. Kress (2010) has argued that modes used are mostly culturally based. The study found that the visual modes might be effective for EFL European learners in the textbooks, but that is not the case for the Arab students as the modes do not target them. Relating the modes to the meanings would require a previous knowledge of the culture used in the textbooks, which the Arab students do not have. Below we conclude on this in more systematic manner.

7.2.1 Modes Used in the Textbooks

This study noted that the textbooks are deploying different modes in the meaning making process. In the first chapter, the research asked the questions: what are the modes used in the textbook and how do they affect language teaching and learning process. We found that there is absence of material culture related to the Arab students and their heritage in the textbooks. In the following sections, the researcher will conclude on the modes found in the textbooks.

7.2.1.1 Images of Places

It was noted that the textbooks made use of images of places. The data showed that the textbooks were consistent with cities, landmarks as well as common private public areas (such as marketplaces, houses, farms and other places). Looking into the architecture style, linguistic landscapes as well as other elements in images, one finds that location of the image and which group they belong to. The textbooks added landmarks from Europe and the United States as well as few images from Asian countries (see section 6.6.1). The study noted that there was noticeable absence of the Arab EFL students' countries, cities and landmarks. Throughout the four textbooks analysed, only one image was found that can be related to the Arab students.

7.2.1.2 Images of People

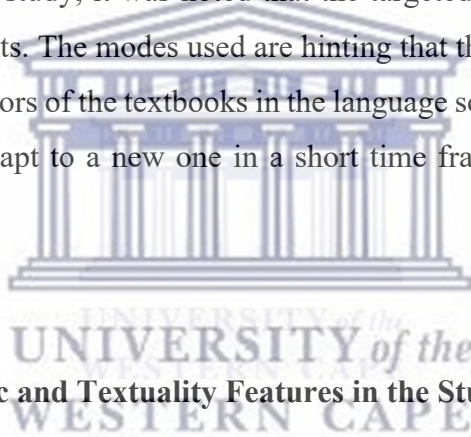
This study noted that majority of images used in the textbooks have people in them. The findings showed that editors used people to explain content to the students, in other words, people in the textbooks served as example to emphasise and elaborate on a certain lesson. We found that the identity of the Arab learners is not present in the textbooks. It was noted that only from 2-7% of people used in the textbooks that can be said to relate to the Arab identity in terms of complexion and look (see *Table 6.2*).

7.2.1.3 Images of Material Culture

Another mode used is images of material culture. The study has found elements of objects, heroes, food and others that can be attached to certain cultures. Similar to the other modes, the material culture of the Arab students was very low. It is noteworthy that the materials we can attach to the Arab learners is rather generic, that is, one that is mutual between Arabs and other cultures (see section 6.6.3). One can conclude that there was a mismatch between the Arab EFL culture, and the culture displayed through materials in the textbooks.

7.3 The Targeted Audience in the Textbooks Used in Cape Town Private Language Schools.

Based on the findings of this study, it was noted that the targeted audience in the textbooks are European and Western students. The modes used are hinting that the Arab learners are not part of the groups targeted by the editors of the textbooks in the language schools. Excluding the students' culture or forcing them to adapt to a new one in a short time frame could add to the students' English literacy problems.



7.4 The Dominant Linguistic and Textuality Features in the Students' Written Work.

7.4.1 Coherence

This study found that the Arab EFL students' text lacked coherence. The students noticeably discussed many points within a one paragraph. hence, the students were not familiar with the English paragraph structure. As a result, their text lacked overall structure and paragraph unity. Thus, their writing lacked registral and generic coherence, which refers to the inability to identify the situations in which clauses occur in the text.

7.4.2 Cohesion

The study found that the students also had problems with cohesion. The situations of the problems are further outlined in the following sections.

7.4.2.1 Verb Forms

The findings showed that the EFL Arab students tend to incorrectly use verb forms in their writing. For example, some students used different tenses within a sentence. In chapter six, section 5.3.3, we noted that, students did not know when to use the perfect tense and in some instances they confused gerund with the progressive tense. The violations of verb forms were relatively high in comparison with the other features violated by the learners (see *Table 5.6*). These problems show that the writing skills are not fully developed to assist the students in coping with the academic requirements of any university with English as the language of instruction. Lack of knowledge of the grammatical system of English language could be one of the causes of these problems. Another reason could be lack of practice and usage of grammatical rules learned in language schools.

7.4.2.2 Conjunctions

Conjunctions were other problems learners displayed in their writing (See *Table 5.1*). It was noted that students misplaced conjunctions and randomly added others (see Section 5.3.1). Moreover, students' text noticeably lacked important conjunctions in their writing. Since conjunctions add to the texture and are responsible for the semantic unity of the text, they are important tools for cohesive writing.

7.4.2.3 Referencing

Another problematic category in EFL Arab students' writing is referencing. The study showed that learners had a serious problem with referencing (see *Table 5.2*). Students used the references 'the,

a and *an*’ incorrectly. Furthermore, students did not use reference devices in important positions, which made it difficult to track participants in the text. The missing references was a major problem in comparison with other categories of cohesion. In other cases, students added unnecessary referencing devices in their writing and/or omitted compulsory ones.

7.4.2.4 Prepositions

Students’ written discourse displayed another problem, which is the incorrect use of prepositions (see section 5.3.5). However, compared to other categories, preposition was not a major problem in the Arab EFL writing (see *Table 5.5*).

7.4.2.5 Spelling

As mentioned in Chapter (Methodology) of this study, students were asked to write the task without consulting dictionaries. Thus, the study aimed to see how familiar the Arab EFL students are with the English writing system. Spelling is an important element of a cohesive text. The study noted that students made a large number of errors in spelling (see *Table 5.4*). Some students repeated the same error in their text, and others gave more than one spelling for some words (see section 5.3.4).

7.4.2.6 Punctuations

Punctuations were a major problem in students’ writing. It is noted that students were not familiar with the English punctuation system (see *Table 5.6*). Hence, in this category, the study noted that the first language (Arabic) interference was problematic (see section 5.3.6). Students were not consistent with the use of comma and full stops. Another noticeable problem was the absence of different types of punctuations— the data showed that the students only used commas and full stops, poorly.

7.4.2.7 Contextualization

The findings showed that contextualization was a major problem in students writing. Most of students failed to contextualize the topic they were asked to write about. They lacked the ability to produce the meaning by not being able to address the topic (Eggins, 2004). As mentioned earlier in this study, without contextualization, it is not possible to decipher the meanings being made in the text. The intertextual knowledge, which means knowing what is related and unrelated texts is as important as the grammatical knowledge.

7.5 The Implications of Objectives 1-4 for Effective Teaching and Learning English for Academic Purposes at the University.

Based on the results of this study, we conclude that the Arab students are not part of the teaching plans of the Cape Town language schools. They are more suited for non-English speaking Europeans. Another important note was that the textbooks are mainly focused on teaching general English—the English needed to carry conversations outside the academic context.

In general, it was apparent that the students lack the required skills to construct a coherent English text. Regarding the pedagogical implications of the textual configurations and the effectiveness of the private schools in teaching English for academic purposes, the study concludes that the textbooks show there is a need for improvement in terms of teaching the Arab EFL students the English they would need for academic purpose at higher education level. Furthermore, from the students writing, one can perceive the lack of the basic skills necessitated for academic progress in an English university.

7.6 Recommendations

As a way to improve the above, this study ends with a wide-ranging recommendation and several strategies that may be beneficial for both students to cope with the academic linguistic requirements and for teachers to have a smoother teaching process in the private language schools.

Considering the findings of this study, a model of EFL writing strategies of Arab students will have to look into the following areas: reading tasks, reviewing textbooks to include writing strategies, enhancing multimodal elements in the textbooks and raising more awareness among teachers and materials used to the Arab EFL students' linguistic and cultural background. The recommendation may assist teachers and the editors of the textbooks in enhancing the textbooks to meet the needs of a bigger audience.

7.6.1 Textbooks

The textbooks used at Cape Town private language school can be enhanced and modified to suit bigger groups and learners with different racial/cultural orientations. The EFL textbooks are used to teach students from different places around the world. The Arab students are among these groups. Thus, the textbooks should be reviewed in terms of culture used in the visual modes. There is need for critical cultural awareness among editors and publishers of EFL to effectively cater for diverse cultures. There is a clear dearth of Arabic culture and identities in the teaching material. From SFL point of view, the inclusion of modes that relate to the Arabic culture would give the learners a suitable situation to practice the language and the lessons learned.

In the following sections, the study will suggest more recommendations of how the textbooks can be modified.

7.6.2 Reading Tasks

Reading tasks have to be encouraged in the textbooks and by the teachers, which will enhance students' ability to write well (Banda, 2004). It was noted that the writing and reading tasks in the

textbooks can be improved in the textbook. By focusing on reading culture, students will be exposed to English writing conventions. Furthermore, it will provide the students with the necessary contextual information needed about a given situation. Subsequently, it will allow students to avoid the problem students' have with interpreting linguistic events.

For the private language courses to be more effective in English language teaching for students' who desire language for academic purposes, there is need for intensive reading tasks in their plans. They may also make use of the visual modes to bring attention to the reading sections in the books, similar to what they have done to the grammar and speaking tasks (see chapter seven, sections 6.7, 6.8). Furthermore, schools can possibly prescribe readings to the students as a homework. Writing summaries according to Barry (2002), is helpful for students as it helps them to produce variety of text, understand and apply language conventions appropriately as well as logically structure written texts.



7.6.3 Writing Tasks

Writing tasks are another skill that should be more focused on in the textbooks. This study showed that there is need to improve in writing lessons. Following up on the suggestion offered above, the textbooks can be updated with more focused writing tasks. As mentioned, including writing tasks would help students who aim to pursue educations in an English-speaking institution. Writing well is not an inherited skill but is a skill learnt in school or culturally transmitted (Myles, 2002; Banda, 2003). Learning can be taught through clear writing instructions and organized writing tasks.

Writing is an experience-based skill. For the students to be better writers they must practice writing under the supervision of teachers. In terms of the instruction, we indicated earlier that writing involves composing, doing a research about a topic, preparing and developing ideas, summarizing ideas, drafting, editing and writing the final draft. Thus, language schools should teach the skills of English writing and ensuring spaces where students practice these skills. As shown in this study, the Arab students found struggling with the basis of English writing and in some cases adopting writing styles from L1 (Arabic).

Moreover, adding topic students can relate to may motivate them to write more, which will add to their experience. Arab EFL students for example might be able to write about something from their literature, instead of writing about '*Frankenstein*', unless they already received instructions on how to research the novel.

Another suggestion that may be helpful for students is that they should be exposed to different genres of writing. This will allow students to distinguish between different types of writing as well as it will raise their awareness to the way words, structures and genres function in creating text. Furthermore, it will help them understand the different types of textual organization that can affect their L2 composition (Tshotsho, 2006). Focusing on writing *emails*, writing *to-do list*, writing *a letter to friend* and this type of writing is important to students, but there are other genres that textbooks can expose the learners to. The language courses need to be mindful of the different motivations among the students and show effort to accommodate more. This can be done through teachers' instructions and feedback on learners' writing.

7.6.4 Modes and Cultures Used

This study urges teachers and curriculums to have an understanding of students' culture and background in order to achieve an ideal communicative event in the classroom. This study recommends that textbooks incorporates elements of students' culture. Based on the findings mentioned elsewhere in the study, it was noted that the editors of the textbooks are aware of the diverse nature of their students. The textbooks target other different EFL learners, which can be seen through the multicultural elements (European and Western). However, there was massive absence of the Arab and North African culture. Thus, we recommend that the textbooks add more cultures as examples and not to narrow their focus to the groups they currently have. The Arab EFL students as a result may be motivated positively if the textbooks show more awareness with their cultural and linguistic background. The addition of their culture may allow students to place the knowledge learned from the textbooks in use, within a context they are familiar with and comfortable speaking about.



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Essays Written By Arab EFL Students

Extract 1:

As I was Applying for the first time postgraduate study **at** in South Africa, I was **quiet** excited to go through the process of my study to know what are my duties. I met my supervisor the person who was taking me throug my program and showing me around and introduce me to my group.

Also, that day I was so thirsty to know How must I work in the lab and for How Long that I will be here, therefore, I've hear my supervisor saying that I have to present my proposal and that was my fear that time, because presenting front of new colleagues with English Language was not easy at time.



My first day at the university.

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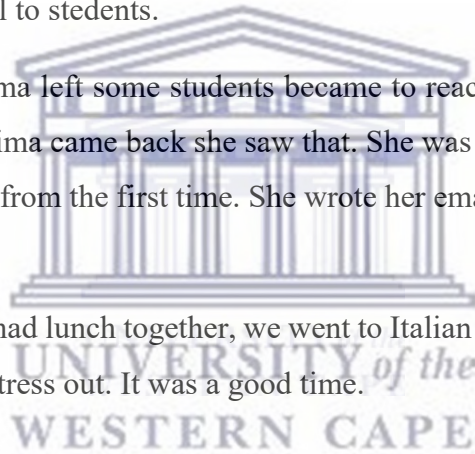
Extract 2

The first day at my collage was very succssfully. I had so much fun fun time with my new friends (classmates), the first mate was Marray frindly person, very hambel and kind, he was setting behind me, I was very shy, not carring about anyone, using my sellphone and then he start to anterdios himself, start talking about his personal life like I know this guy from a long time, that made me to open my heart to him. We became a close friend since then.

aparntely a women came to the class, she says hello everyone I am Fatima you apriation session. I was shocked because she was so young and preety. I wish you was one of my classmate She explain the roles of the school and the website also, about how stedents should respect each anothers, she was very helpful to stedents.

The fun time came after Fatima left some students became to react her action, how did she talk, reacts and move. Sadenly Fatima came back she saw that. She was very absen*e and angery how stedents does not respect her from the first time. She wrote her email addres on the bored and left immidatly.

Finally Marray and I went to had lunch together, we went to Italian resturent spend some time talk about life problems take the stress out. It was a good time.



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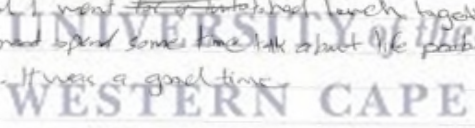
The first day at my college was very successfully. I had so much fun fun time with my new friends (classmates). The first ~~mate~~ mate was Murray a friendly person, very humble and kind, he was setting behind me, I was very shy, not caring about anyone, using my selfphone and then he start to ~~make~~ ^{make} ~~interdis~~ ^{interdis} himself, start talking about his personal life like I know this guy from a long time, that ~~make~~ ^{make} me to open my ~~her~~ heart to him. we became a close friend since then.

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Finally Murray and I went ~~for~~ ^{for} a ~~lunch~~ ^{lunch} together, we went to ~~the~~ ^{the} Italian resbrant spend some time talk about ~~the~~ ^{the} possible ~~pro~~ ^{pro} plans take the stress out. It was a good time.



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Extract 3

The first day at English the university was very difficult. All the vocabularies I heard was the first time I hear about plus the lecturer was a native English speaker. Therefore, I had to read so many books more than other students in my class, all that was just to keep up with the material we have in the course.

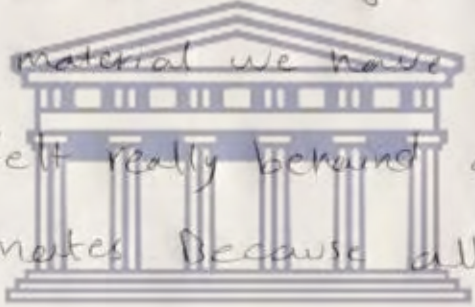
However, I felt really behind compared to my class mates Because all of them were English speakers.

Hence I had to attend two or three courses to improve my English in terms of the acadmic writing and lestening skills. These courses was advised by my supervivros to keep me up with the clase

English

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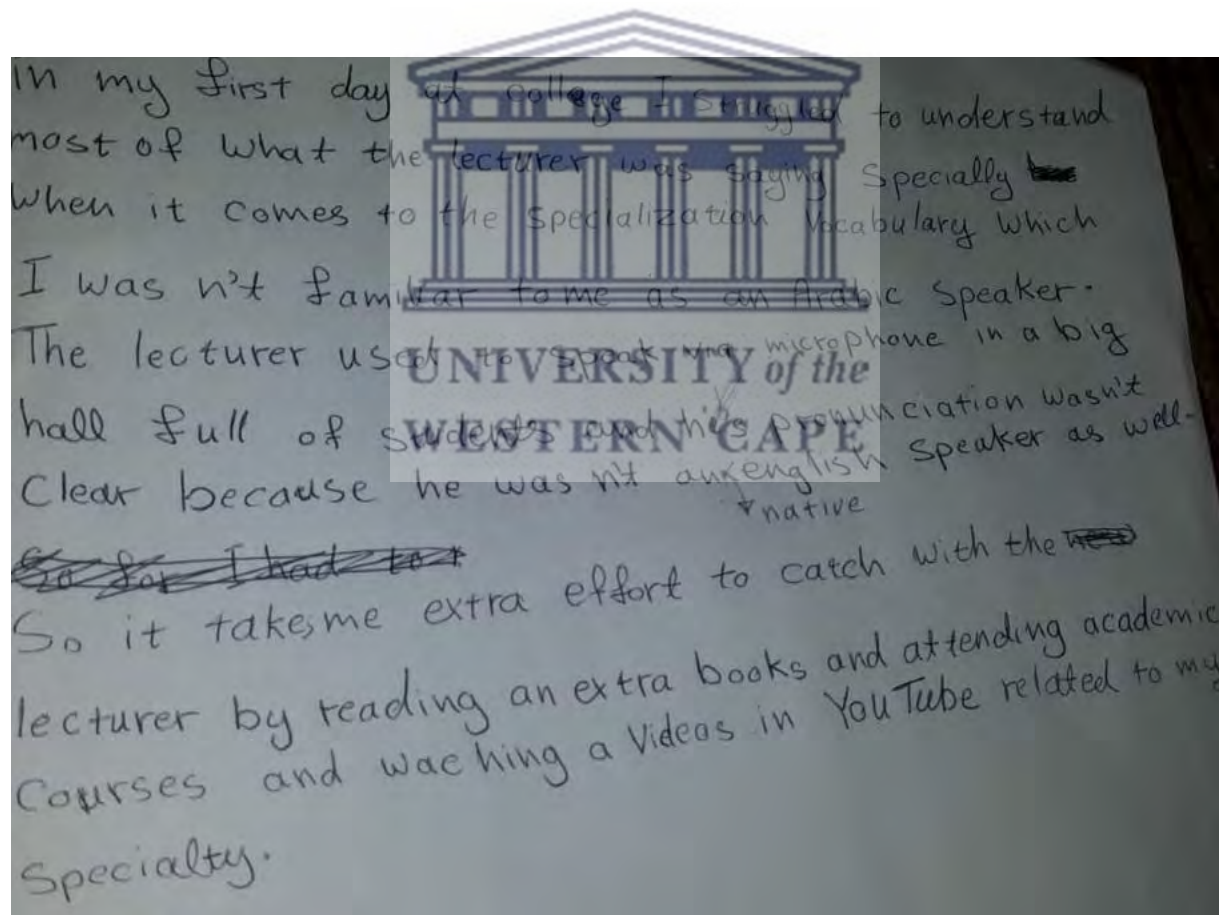
~~skills~~ and listening skills. These courses

was advised by my supervisors to keep me up with the class.

Extract 4

In my first day at college I struggled to understand most of what the lecturer was saying specially when it comes to the specialization vocabulary which I was n't familiar to me as an Arabic speaker.

The lecturer used to speak via microphone in a big hall full of students and his pronuncuation was n't clear because he was n't an native english speaker as well. So it takes me extra effort to catch with the lecturer by reading an extra book and attending academic courses and waching a videos in YouTube related to my specialty.



Extract 5

In the first day at university I was excited to start my master program I waked up early around 6:30 I met with one of my friends at 7 clock we went to the train station using mini bas, we enter the train station we don't know the name of the station we have to get off. I asked the security guy which station is close to the university of the western cap he told me to get off by unibile station which is next of campus.

At that time we don't have student card yet so the campus security asked us to sing to enter the campus.

the campus was nice and green, I went to the faculty of natural science for first meeting with profssor (Name) he was humble and helpful. He take entire document which is under graduate transcript, cv, and motivation letter.

After his acceptance to be my supervisor for master program he mentioned topic and I have to choose one or write proposal, in what I'm interested in.

(missing Article) First project was to study the effect of Riboos tea on the prostate cancer cell line because it contain the flavanoid componuts

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The second was to test the effect the blamtree oil on the prostate cancer because the previous ~~PhD~~ PhD student was screening variety of plants and their effect on different type of cancer.

Extract 6

I arrived to South Africa at 11.10. 2009 , After 2 weeks from arrived that the first day at UWC with my friend Mohamad to see one Prof with the same major Im work with at the first it was Phytoremediation .

In that day when we came to see prof (Name) I set with him and my friend Mohamad to discuss about the acceptance to do PhD with him as supervisor to do Plantecophysiology study . but sudenly he said , No space for me becuse he had postgrad student and he cant take more .

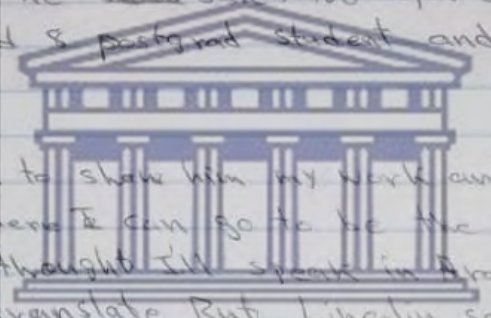
He addvice me to show him my work and publishing to gaid me where I can go to be the supervisor. In the first thought I'll speak in Arabic and Mohamed will translate But (Name) said toke with yore english witch was not good. As I can I start to explin and show my work with the Msc work in Libya and the four published tha I have. he strt to smile then I sturied, he said to me if I can come after 8 months to get space for me. It was ok with me because I need to study English first.

Then I got an academic admission after two weeks from arrival in South Africa.

* The First Day at UWC *

I arrived to South Africa at 11.10-2009,
After 2 weeks ~~that~~ from arrived that the first day
at UWC with my friend Mohamed to see one Prof
with the same major I'm work with at the first it
was ~~Phytoremediation~~.

In that day when we came to see Prof Lincoln
I sat with him and my friend Mohamed to
discuss about the acceptance to do PhD with him
as supervisor to do Plant Ecophysiology study,
but suddenly he ~~said~~ said, No space for me
because he had 8 postgrad student and he can't
take more.

He advice me to show him my work and publishing
to guide me where I can go to be the supervisor.
In the first thought I'll speak in Arabic and
Mohamed will translate But Lincoln said to me
with your English.  As I can
I start to explain and show my work with the MSc
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